ANNUAL REVIEW OF
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2006

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Foreword

The past year has been an extraordinary one for UN peace operations. It has seen major progress in our collective efforts to roll back armed conflict in the world, and to give peoples emerging from war the chance to decide their political futures.

In Afghanistan, the United Nations supported the country's first-ever fully democratic parliamentary elections, marking another major step forward in the implementation of the Bonn Agreement mediated by Lakhdar Brahimi in 2001. In Burundi, UN peacekeepers presided over both a constitutional referendum and full election, leading to the peaceful transfer of power to a new government. In Congo, with robust support from UN peacekeepers, voters endorsed a constitution, opening the door to full election in 2006. In Liberia, peacekeepers oversaw elections that produced Africa's first democratically elected woman president.

Troops have been withdrawn from two more operations, their work accomplished. The last UN troops left Timor-Leste in May, five-and-a-half years after Sergio Vieira de Mello established the Transitional Administration that preceded full independence. UN troops left Sierra Leone in November, having provided security for two rounds of elections and an extensive program of disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration.

Yet despite these dramatic advances, concerns remain. The first is that many of the countries in which we operate—even those in which operations have moved forward successfully—remain potentially unstable, and some could even relapse into conflict if we are not vigilant. The new Peacebuilding Commission should strengthen our efforts in this regard, if it receives the support it needs to do its work.

Another concern is with the peacekeeping system itself. In 2004, it was marred by accusations of sexual exploitation and abuse, and I have worked with member states in 2005 to put in place systems that should allow us to prevent further abuse, and to identify and punish any abuses that continue to occur. These efforts have produced some important results, but more needs to be done to strengthen the institution of peacekeeping and to ensure that any type of abuse is dealt with effectively.

Both of these issues, although so distinct in many ways, highlight the need for a better informed debate on peacekeeping and peacebuilding, on the need for greater transparency, and on the need for greater accountability. It is therefore a pleasure to welcome this first *Annual Review of Global Peace Operations* as a major contribution to our understanding of this crucial area in international affairs, and especially in putting detailed data on peacekeeping in the public domain. I look forward to future editions of the review, and hope that they will both record and contribute to the evolution of new approaches to making and securing peace.
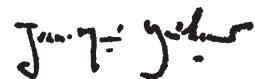
Jean-Marie Guéhenno
Under-Secretary-General for Peacekeeping Operations
United Nations

Preface

Why Peacekeeping Matters

The start of the twenty-first century has seen the resurgence of peacekeeping as a strategic tool. After a slump in the mid-1990s following failures in Bosnia and Rwanda, the Security Council authorized ambitious new missions in Kosovo, Timor-Leste, Sierra Leone, and the Democratic Republic of Congo—the first in a new generation of operations that have driven the expansion of the UN's goals and capacities. In 1998 the UN deployed 14,000 peacekeepers worldwide—today over 90,000 military and civilians are in the field. Meanwhile, NATO has deployed outside Europe to lead an operation in Afghanistan, and the European Union has reached beyond its traditional role to mount missions in the Balkans, Africa, and Asia.

And while peacekeeping has suffered many setbacks, it has also scored strategic successes: the end of violence in war-torn Liberia, the creation of a free and independent state in Timor-Leste after thirty years of occupation, the consolidation of peace in Sierra Leone after a decade of civil war, and the first peaceful transition in Burundi's history after violence that claimed more than 200,000 lives. Working together, the UN, NATO, and US forces in Afghanistan have overseen the installation of a democratic government and the ratification of a constitution after two decades of war, collapse, and autocracy.

Thus, peace operations are evolving into a practical international policy tool for ending war. When it works, peacekeeping saves lives and creates stability and the possibility of economic recovery. It can generate, or at least facilitate, democratic transformation. In 2005, missions of the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations oversaw or assisted in referendums and elections in countries with populations totaling over 100 million people. And as polls from the Balkans to Iraq have demonstrated, this political dimension of peace operations can help resolve conflicts of global strategic importance. In short, peacekeeping matters. But this is frequently obscured by partial failures, inefficiencies, and scandals.

That peace operations sometimes fail is beyond question. Indeed, several of the UN's greatest failures have been in places where peacekeeping missions have been deployed—in Rwanda, in Angola, and elsewhere. But the UN has not been alone in experiencing troubles: the US failure in Somalia shaped the strategic culture of the Clinton years, while both NATO and the EU have learned hard lessons in the Western Balkans—these operations reveal weaknesses in organizations ostensibly more capable and certainly more powerful than the UN.

Moreover, even when peace operations record successes at a strategic level, they are often marred by a variety of forms of inefficiency and misbehavior. Most noxious has been the exposure of apparently widespread sexual exploitation by UN and other peacekeepers. Financial abuses and other misdeeds have marred past operations.

But whereas some critics have argued that such scandals and failures mean that we should scrap multinational peace operations, a full examination of the record suggests a

different conclusion: that making UN peace-keeping work well—work effectively, efficiently, and predictably—should be central to the international security agenda.

Study after study has shown that the expansion of peace operations in the 1990s made a vital contribution to the overall decline in the level of war in the world. As the recent *Human Security Report* found, civil wars have declined by almost 40 percent since the early 1990s, and UN peace operations, along with regional operations, are an important contributor to this trend.[1] The UN's High-level Panel on Threats, Challenges, and Change referred to the impact of UN mediation and peacekeeping on the decline in the level of wars as "nothing less than a sea change in global governance."[2]

If peacekeeping is of strategic value for the international management of conflict, then it matters that it works, and works well. It matters that peacekeeping resources are deployed effectively and efficiently to meet clear, credible policy objectives. This is all the more important when we realize that current patterns in civil conflict mean that there is every reason to believe that the demand for effective peacekeeping will rise, not shrink, in the years ahead.

Indeed, the surge in UN peacekeeping from 1999—which has intensified since 2002—is already straining the capacity of the organization. It is striking to note that the UN is now the second largest mover of military personnel in the world, after the US armed forces. Either peacekeeping capacity will be strengthened, new peace operations will be mounted effectively, and wars will be resolved or averted, or we will fail these tests, and lives will be lost, wars will spread, and regions will be destabilized.

* * *

The argument that peacekeeping is of strategic value and must be made to work well does not necessarily mean that UN peace-keeping alone must be bolstered. Indeed, as the Center on International Cooperation (CIC) has argued elsewhere and as the UN High-level Panel stressed, it is likely that the demand for peacekeeping will best be met through a strategic partnership between the UN and regional organizations.[3] More and more operations comprise so-called hybrid missions—part UN, part non-UN—and in 2005 the African Union's cooperation with the UN, EU, and NATO in Darfur demonstrated how complex this can be. Earlier lessons for hybrid missions are addressed in Chapter 2, Richard Gowan's analysis of the UN, NATO, and the alphabet soup of other organizations that collectively constitute the international presence in Kosovo.

But UN participation in hybrid peace-keeping is critical—and, contrary to conventional wisdom, rising in scale and scope. Time and again we have seen that efforts to manage civil wars exclusively through regional or ad hoc arrangements fall short on two counts: they are often no more efficient and no more effective than the UN alternative, and they face major hurdles in the search for legitimacy.

In both Afghanistan and Iraq, US forces have turned to the UN to assist in constitutional and electoral processes necessary to the success of those missions. And in Africa, notwithstanding the new energy of the African Union, UN peace operations remain critical to the maintenance of peace and security on that continent. Globally, the numbers of peace-keeping troops fielded by the UN and other international organizations have now converged to near parity (although their combined deployments still represent less than two-thirds of the multinational force in Iraq).

Irrespective, making peacekeeping work better, both at the UN and beyond, is an important policy objective—not least because it is now a multibillion-dollar annual exercise, with approximately $5 billion a year being spent through the UN alone.[4] And to do so we need to know as much as we can about what makes peacekeeping *efficient* and what makes it *effective*. These are to be the primary themes of this series of annual reviews.

If you want efficient peacekeeping, you have to be concerned with nuts and bolts. Questions of logistics, of planning, and of deployment capacity matter critically to outcomes. These are not glamorous issues. But as the world saw while watching its most powerful army struggle with supply-chain issues during the war in Iraq, logistics matter, planning matters, and deployment matters.

In September 2005, the UN World Summit (covered in more detail on page 6) made some progress in addressing such issues of effectiveness through three key policy initiatives:

1. The establishment of a standing police capacity within the UN, able to assess police and public order dimensions of peace operations.

2. A ten-year project to build the capacities of regional and subregional organizations in Africa, and develop effective coordination between them and the UN.

3. An ambiguous recognition of the need for "rapidly deployable capacities" to reinforce peace operations—without a clear plan for their development.

None of these initiatives can be translated in concrete successes without reference to technical, strategic, and doctrinal issues addressed in this volume. The standing police capacity will prove impotent unless it is sustained by planning cooperation and deployable personnel from member states. Political consensus on the need to build African capacities must be supplemented with a portfolio of programs to ensure a high standard of technical and doctrinal interoperability with the UN, NATO, and the EU.

Last, the recognition for the need for rapid deployable capacities must not be allowed to succumb to either inaction or fantasies of a "UN army." Rather, it is in the interest of both the UN and major contributors that states should hold some forces at readiness to insert or reinforce missions as quickly as possible—48 hours to 1 week. The data

sections of this review offer insights into how deployments have been rolled out in the past, and the types of units, troops, and matèriel most required in the field.

If those countries that supply personnel and financing to UN missions are to promote better technical cooperation in the future, they may turn to this data for lessons. However, they should also make efforts to build mutual transparency and trust over their own peacekeeping resources and doctrines.

Transparency and trust cannot be fostered through better technical collaboration alone. No issue is more critical to the coherence and success of a mission than consensus on the use and nonuse of force. Whether in the context of military or unconventional threats, the question of how troops and police use their capacity to deter or respond to threat remain crucial to their effectiveness. This is the theme of Chapter 1 of this volume, in which Ian Johnstone explores the dilemmas of robust peace operations.

Annual Review Series

This volume—and the series it launches—has its genesis in a request from the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) to the CIC to study the history of UN peacekeeping deployments. The issue is more complex than first meets the eye. Deployment has many elements: How fast is a force commander appointed? How quickly does the first troop contingent arrive? How many days, weeks, or months after being mandated does the force reach full strength? What are the differences in deployment time frames for differently equipped forces, and in different regions?

What was striking at the outset of this project was how little of such data were publicly available. In response, this volume presents, particularly in its mission-by-mission data tables, more comprehensive data on current UN peacekeeping than has ever been made available. With these data tables, governments and ana-

lysts will have a clearer picture of the multifaceted challenge of UN peacekeeping deployment.

The present annual volume does not yet give all of the data necessary to answer the DPKO's original question. For this first publication, we have focused on extracting data on *current* UN peacekeeping operations. For data that are comparatively easy to extract—namely for operations mandated since 1999—we have provided a significant amount on various aspects of deployment. (Additional data will be made available at the website for this series.) Over the next two years, we will work backward, toward compiling a full, comparable data set for all UN missions from 1948 onward. We will also be working over the next two years to assemble data on non-UN operations. To judge UN performance, it is not enough to judge against its own past; we need also to compare UN and non-UN missions to measure their relative performance. It is much harder, however, to extract data on non-UN missions—a notable fact, especially given the political pressure on the UN to be more open and more transparent. Here, we have been very fortunate to receive the support of the Stockholm International Peace Research Institute (SIPRI), whose work in this area is well known. We hope to build on this in future editions.

Credit for this must first be given to UN Under-Secretary-General Jean Marie Guéhenno and his Director of Change Management (and at the project's conception, Head of Best Practices), David Harland. They have consistently supported the process of producing this review and facilitated our ability to do what in the past was not always intrinsic to UN Secretariat culture: expose the workings of the system to open analysis—because, over time, accountability breeds better performance.

The importance of transparency and accountability in UN operations was a central message of the UN's investigation into the management failures that arose in the context of the oil-for-food program. The report of the Volcker Commission has as its second recommendation: "Relevant departments within the Secretariat should be encouraged to continue development of 'institutional knowledge' and 'best practices' as they relate to typical areas of United Nations involvement."[5] DPKO's support of our annual review will constitute an important step toward meeting this challenge.

What Follows

Though the data tables are the heart of the story, this volume provides four things more. It starts with a chapter on the dilemmas of robust peace operations—an issue of growing importance and continued policy interest. It continues with an examination of the difficulties encountered by the hybrid international presence in Kosovo, where even what must be considered the most robust peacekeeping mission in recent history (crudely measured in terms of military punch per citizen and per square mile) had difficulty matching its military, police, and political resources to the political and security challenges it confronted. Then come seven studies of missions of particular interest during 2005—of interest either because they shed light on the theme of robust peacekeeping, or because they were starting up, winding down, or being significantly transformed during that year. Finally, brief mission notes on all current UN and non-UN missions are provided—these notes are in no way meant to be comprehensive, but collectively give the reader an overview of the peacekeeping landscape.

A more comprehensive set of data tables are available at http://www.cic.nyu.edu. Click on "Annual review of global peace operations."

Acknowledgments

The CIC would like to acknowledge the support of a wide range of people who made this volume possible. First and foremost, our thanks go to DPKO—particularly David Harland, Fatemeh Ziai, Renata Dwan, Paul Keating, Roxaneh Bazergan, Edward Rees, Tania Belisle-Leclerc, Maitri Morarji, Michael Mesina, Jennifer Holt, and Edna Dela Cruz of the Peacekeeping Best Practices Section for

their support and cooperation. Thanks are also due to Salman Ahmed and Nick Birnback in the Office of the Under-Secretary-General.

We would not have been able to conduct our research and bring together the data without the cooperation and goodwill of many members of DPKO's Military Planning Service, Police Division, Office of Operations, and Office of Mission Support, who assisted with maps and provided financial, logistical, and personnel information. Outside DPKO, we also received help from staff of the Peacekeeping Financing Division, the Contributions Service, and the Peacekeeping Accounts Section, all within the Office of Programme Planning, Budget and Accounts. All gave patiently of their time, despite being tremendously overburdened (whereas NATO has over 1,000 staff in its military planning division alone, the UN has 57 military planners supporting 18 operations).

The desk officers for Haiti and Kosovo—Andrew Grene, Marco Bianchini, Emma Shitaka, and Dmitry Shlapachenko—generously facilitated our field research on those missions. Special thanks to Ayaka Suzuki in Port-au-Prince and Theresa Pirkl and Evliana Berani in Pristina for their advice and assistance in making that research worthwhile.

We would also like to thank the team at the International Peace Academy who supported our project, particularly Ernst Felberbauer, Amy Scott, and Jennifer Gregoire.

We are very grateful to Alyson Bailes of SIPRI for her enthusiasm for sharing data with us, and to Sharon Wiharta for collecting it thoroughly and promptly. Colonel Christopher Langton of the IISS likewise responded positively and generously to our request for assistance.

A wide variety of colleagues commented on our work, and thanks are due especially to Shepard Forman, Catherine Bellamy, Andrew Mack, Catherine Guicherd, Iain Smailes, Stephen Smith, Victoria Holt, Susan Finch, Stephen Dewer, Andrew Sherriff, Richard Ponzio, Sébastien Falletti, Laura Sitea, Sarah Atwood, and Benjamin Cary Tortolani.

We are particularly grateful to our funders. The Ford Foundation, which generously supports CIC, continues to prove through its efforts the value of research and independent policy analysis in promoting international peace and security. The United Kingdom's Global Conflict Prevention Pool, through their commitment to the UN's core mission and their support for our work, make it possible for us to ensure that our research and policy work is relevant and accessible to decisionmakers.

Last, I would like to extend my personal thanks to Ian Johnstone of the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy, Tufts University, who took part-time leave to join the CIC as a visiting fellow and to shepherd this first volume from conception to completion. His long experience at the UN, combined with his strong academic credentials, was invaluable, and gave us the intellectual leadership to produce this volume.

Bruce D. Jones
Codirector, Center on International Cooperation

Notes

1. See page 88 in this volume.
2. "A More Secure World: Our Common Responsibility." Report of the UN High-level Panel on Threats, Challenges and Change. New York, 2004.
3. Bruce Jones with Feryal Cherif, "Evolving Models of Peacekeeping" (UN Department of Peacekeeping, Best Practices Unit, 2005).
4. Figures for NATO and regional operations are hard to come by but almost certainly exceed the UN figures.
5. Independent Inquiry Committee into the United Nations Oil-for-Food Programme, *The Management of the United Nations Oil-for-Food Programme: Volume IV—Report of Investigation,* 7 September 2005.

PEACE OPERATIONS 2005

UNIFIL 03/1978
LEBANON
ISRAEL
GAZA
MFO 04/1982
EGYPT

SYRIAN ARAB REPUBLIC
WEST BANK
UNDOF 05/1974
UNTSO 05/1948
TIPH 2 01/1997

OSCE - BiH 12/1995
EUPM 01/2003
EUFOR ALTHEA 12/2004
NATO HQ Sarajevo 12/2004

MINUSTAH 06/2004
OAS Special Mission for Strengthening Democracy in Haiti 06/2004

MAPP 02/2004

MINURSO 04/1991

UNAMSIL 10/1999

UNMIL 09/2003

UNOCI 04/2004
Operation Licorne 02/2003

FOMUC 12/2002

MONUC 11/1999
EUPOL Kinshasa 04/2005

United Nations Missions, Location of Headquarters

MINURSO: UN Mission for the Referendum in Western Sahara, Laayoune
MINUSTAH: UN Stabilization Mission in Haiti, Port-au-Prince
MONUC: UN Organization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Kinshasa
ONUB: UN Operation in Burundi, Bujumbura
UNAMA: UN Assistance Mission in Afghanistan, Kabul
UNAMI: UN Assistance Mission for Iraq, Baghdad
UNAMSIL: UN Mission in Sierra Leone, Freetown
UNDOF: UN Disengagement Observer Force, Camp Faouar
UNFICYP: UN Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus, Nicosia
UNIFIL: UN Interim Force in Lebanon, Naqoura
UNMEE: UN Mission in Ethiopia and Eritrea, Addis Ababa and Asmara
UNMIK: UN Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo, Pristina
UNMIL: UN Mission in Liberia, Monrovia
UNMIS: UN Mission in the Sudan, Khartoum
UNMOGIP: UN Military Observer Group in India and Pakistan, Srinagar and Rawalpindi
UNOCI: UN Operation in Côte d'Ivoire, Abidjan
UNOMIG: UN Observer Mission in Georgia, Sukhumi
UNOTIL: UN Office in Timor-Leste, Dili
UNTSO: UN Truce Supervision Organization, Jerusalem

Non-UN Missions, Location of Headquarters

AMIS: African Mission in Sudan, Khartoum and Al Fasher - AU
AMM: European Union Aceh Monitoring Mission, Banda Aceh
CIS Peacekeeping Forces in Georgia, Sukhumi
ECP: Enhanced Cooperation Program, Port Moresby
EUFOR ALTHEA: European Union Military Operation in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Sarajevo
EUPM: European Union Police Mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Sarajevo
EUPOL Kinshasa: European Union Police Mission in Kinshasa, Kinshasa
EUPOL Proxima: European Union Police Mission in the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Skopje
FOMUC: CEMAC (Central African Monetary and Economic Community) Multinational Force in the Central African Republic, Bangui
IMT: International Monitoring Team, Cotabato City
ISAF: International Security Assistance Force, Kabul - NATO
Joint Control Commission Peacekeeping Force, Trans-Dniester - CIS

Dates following the abbreviated mission names represent dates of effect (for UN missions), and start dates (for non-UN missions).

UNMIK
06/1999
KFOR
06/1999

Joint Control Commission Peacekeeping Force
07/1992

EUPOL Proxima
12/2003

South Ossetia Joint Force
07/1992
CIS Peacekeeping Forces in Georgia
06/1994

UNOMIG
08/1993

UNFICYP
03/1964

UNAMA
03/2002
ISAF
12/2001

UNMOGIP*
01/1949

UNAMI
08/2003
MNF-I
10/2003
NTM-I
08/2004

IMT
11/2004

RAMSI
07/2003

UNMEE
07/2000

SLMM
02/2002

AMM
09/2005

AMIS
06/2004

ECP
09/2004

UNMIS
03/2005

UNOTIL
05/2005

ONUB
06/2004

0   1000   2000   3000   4000   5000 km

0   1000   2000   3000 mi

Non-UN Missions, Location of Headquarters

KFOR: Kosovo Force, Pristina - NATO
MAPP: Mission to Support the Peace Process in Colombia, Bogotá - OAS
MFO: Multinational Force and Observers, Cairo and Tel Aviv
MNF-I: Multinational Force in Iraq, Baghdad
NATO Headquarters Sarajevo, Sarajevo
NTM-I: NATO Training Mission in Iraq, Baghdad
OAS Special Mission for Strengthening Democracy in Haiti, Port-au-Prince
Operation Licorne, Abidjan
OSCE - BiH: OSCE Mission to Bosnia and Herzegovina, Sarajevo
RAMSI: Regional Assistance Mission in the Solomon Islands, Honiara - Pacific Islands Forum
SLMM: Sri Lanka Monitoring Mission, Colombo
South Ossetia Joint Force, Tskhinvali - CIS
TIPH 2: Temporary International Presence in Hebron, Hebron

The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.

*Dotted line represents approximately the Line of Control in Jammu and Kashmir agreed upon by India and Pakistan. The final status of Jammu and Kashmir has not yet been agreed upon by the parties.

Mission Acronyms

AMIS   African Union Mission in the Sudan, Khartoum and Al Fasher
AMM   EU Aceh Monitoring Mission, Banda Aceh
ECP   Enhanced Cooperation Program, Port Moresby (Government of Australia)
EUFOR Althea   EU Military Operation in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Sarajevo
EUPM   EU Police Mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Sarajevo
EUPOL Kinshasa   EU Police Mission in Kinshasa
EUPOL Proxima   EU Police Mission in the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Skopje
FOMUC   Force de Multinationale de la Cemac, Bangul (Central African Monetary and Economic Community)
IMT   International Monitoring Team, Cotabato City
ISAF   International Security Assistance Force, Kabul (NATO)
KFOR   NATO Kosovo Force, Pristina
MAPP   Mission to Support the Peace Process in Colombia
MFO   Multinational Force and Observers, Cairo and Tel Aviv
MINURSO   UN Mission for the Referendum in Western Sahara
MINUSTAH   UN Stabilization Mission in Haiti
MNF-I   Multinational Force in Iraq
MONUC   UN Organization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo
NTM-I   NATO Training Mission in Iraq, Baghdad
ONUB   UN Operation in Burundi
OSCE-BIH   OSCE Mission to Bosnia and Herzegovina, Sarajevo
RAMSI   Regional Assistance Mission to the Solomon Islands, Honaira (Pacific Islands Forum)
SLMM   Sri Lanka Monitoring Mission, Colombo
TIPH 2   Temporary International Presence in Hebron
UNAMA   UN Assistance Mission in Afghanistan
UNAMI   UN Assistance Mission for Iraq
UNAMSIL   UN Mission in Sierra Leone
UNDOF   UN Disengagement Observer Force
UNFICYP   UN Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus
UNIFIL   UN Interim Force in Lebanon
UNIOSIL   UN Integrated Office in Sierra Leone
UNMEE   UN Mission in Ethiopia and Eritrea
UNMIK   UN Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo
UNMIL   UN Mission in Liberia
UNMIS   UN Mission in the Sudan
UNMOGIP   UN Military Observer Group in India and Pakistan
UNOCI   UN Operation in Côte d'Ivoire
UNOMIG   UN Observer Mission in Georgia
UNOTIL   UN Office in Timor-Leste
UNTSO   UN Truce Supervision Organization

1 Dilemmas of Robust Peace Operations
Ian Johnstone

Peace operations have become more robust in recent years. While the trend is apparent in UN and non-UN operations, the departure is both less pronounced and more striking in the former. It has not been linear, nor without controversy, but the Security Council has asked UN missions to use force for a range of purposes beyond self-defense, including the protection of civilians and maintenance of public security.

Reflection on the challenges and dilemmas thrown up by this new practice has occurred in the UN Secretariat, blue-ribbon panels, and national capitals, but not in a sustained way at the intergovernmental level.[1] Practitioners lack an agreed doctrine for robust peace operations—an interpretive guide to help manage the dilemmas they regularly face in the field. Lacking institutionalized guidance, they improvise. Creative improvisation has been a hallmark of peacekeeping from its earliest days, and adaptability is often the key to success of an operation. But ad hoc responses can produce incoherence and inconsistency within a mission, as well as uncertain expectations among the parties to a conflict, local population, and the multiple participants in complex operations. The traditional principles of peacekeeping—consent, impartiality, and the use of force only in self-defense—were developed in part to manage those expectations. They emerged from practice in order to guide future practice. Given the scope and variety of contemporary peace operations, the time is ripe for renewed multinational attention to their conceptual and doctrinal foundations.

This chapter begins with brief descriptions of four crises that illustrate the trend toward a more robust approach. I then turn to two pervasive functions of contemporary peace operations—protecting civilians and providing public security—which raise a number of dilemmas that implicate the guiding principles. Next is a review of the evolution of thinking in the UN about the basic principles and the development of doctrine elsewhere. The proliferation of approaches and attendant risk of inconsistency underline the need for common understandings at the multinational level. I suggest four areas that warrant special attention in any effort to develop those common understandings as part of an integrated approach to the complexities of modern peace operations.

The Trend Toward Robust Peace Operations

The period 2000–2005 is book-ended by four crises. The crises differ, both in nature and in magnitude, but threads run through all of them to suggest they are part of a more general pattern associated with modern peace operations.

Sierra Leone, 2000

The first was in Sierra Leone in 2000. The UN Mission in Sierra Leone (UNAMSIL) had a Chapter VII mandate to use force to protect civilians and, after the Economic Community of West African States Cease-Fire Monitoring Group (ECOMOG) withdrew, to provide security at designated locations for specified purposes, "within [the mission's] capabilities and areas of deployment."[2] As UNAMSIL contingents began to deploy to diamond producing areas in early May 2000, the Revolutionary

United Front (RUF) tested the force first by denying freedom of movement and then by taking hostages. Determined not to withdraw, as the UN had done in Rwanda in 1994, the Secretary-General called for a further expansion of UNAMSIL and the deployment of a rapid reaction force. The United Kingdom dispatched 800 paratroopers (though not as a rapid reaction force) and a substantial naval presence offshore. This, along with UNAMSIL and government counterattacks against the RUF, staved off a rebel assault on Freetown and deterred further provocations. It also bought time until well-trained and well-equipped troops from Jordan and India could arrive. Some of the UN hostages were released through negotiations, but in July a 222-strong Indian unit plus others remained surrounded. UNAMSIL successfully launched a robust military operation to restore their freedom of movement.

In August the Security Council ratcheted up the pressure by authorizing UNAMSIL "to deter and, where necessary, decisively counter the threat of the RUF by responding robustly to any hostile actions or threat of imminent and direct use of force."[3] Not all the troop-contributing countries supported this shift and indeed the decision of India and Jordan to withdraw later in the year was due in part to differences over interpretation of the mandate.[4] Other troop contributors responded to the Secretary-General's call for "a very strong military presence with the necessary force multipliers,"[5] and by March 2001 UNAMSIL was the UN's largest peace operation, with an authorized strength of 17,500, a deterrent capability, and a dominant presence throughout the country. British marines remained offshore to add to the deterrent. This, combined with active political engagement with the RUF (after its leader Foday Sankoh was arrested) and gradual improvement in the capability of the Sierra Leone army, resulted in voluntary disarmament by and successful elections in April 2002.

The UN's Department of Peacekeeping Operations Best Practices Unit drew positive lessons from UNAMSIL's shift to a more robust posture, but also highlighted the difficulties in getting there, including uncertainty about the mandate, confusion about rules of engagement, and command and control problems.[6] As the mandate was augmented, consultations between troop contributors and the Security Council were less than ideal, which caused particular problems in view of the fact that no developed countries were willing to provide troops to the mission directly. A Security Council mission to Sierra Leone acknowledged that UNAMSIL's mandate was imprecise and that differences of interpretation had still not been resolved by October 2000.[7]

East Timor, 2000

Meanwhile, a smaller-scale crisis was occurring in East Timor. To bring an end to the violence sparked by the Timorese vote on independence in August 1999, the Security Council authorized the deployment of the International Force for East Timor (INTERFET) to restore peace and security. Its functions were taken over by the UN Transitional Administration in East Timor (UNTAET) in February 2000, which had a sweeping Chapter VII mandate to administer the territory.

Despite the authority to use "all necessary means" to fulfill its mandate, the 8,000 well-armed soldiers of UNTAET initially operated under restrictive rules of engagement (ROEs).[8] The mission was soon tested by militias infiltrating from across the land border with West Timor, leading in one case to the displacement of up to 3,000 East Timorese. A large militia group ambushed a New Zealand contingent on 24 July, killing one soldier; a Nepalese soldier was killed in a well-planned attack on 10 August; and three UN staff members were murdered in Atambua, West Timor, on 6 September. UNTAET sought a revision of its ROEs, citing language in Security Council Resolution 1319 (2000) that called on it to "respond robustly to the militia threat." The UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) approved an "amplified" concept of self-defense, which became the basis for coercive action without warning if necessary. In a number of operations, elements of the UNTAET force were deployed in the southwestern sector

to disarm militias and restore security. There were significant militia casualties in operations through the remainder of 2000, and the groups had largely ceased their organized military campaign by early 2001.

Democratic Republic of Congo, 2004–2005
As the temporary French-led, EU-blessed intervention in Bunia was coming to an end following the crisis there in the summer of 2003 (Operation Artemis), the Security Council adopted Resolution 1493 (2003), which gave the UN Organization Mission in the Democratic Republic of Congo (MONUC) two separate Chapter VII mandates: one for the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) as a whole, and one for Ituri and the Kivus, in the east. The former included the authority "to take all necessary measures within the limits of its capabilities and areas of deployment" to protect civilians and humanitarian workers. The latter included the right to use "all necessary means to fulfill its mandate in the Ituri

district and, as it deems it within its capabilities, in North and South Kivu." Thus from July 2003, MONUC had Chapter VII authority for its entire mandate, full enforcement power in Ituri, and limited enforcement power "within its capabilities" for the protection of civilians and in the Kivus.

The mission faced a serious crisis in May–June 2004 when Laurent Nkunda marched on the town of Bukavu in support of Jules Mutebutsi, a suspended commander of the DRC armed forces. The city fell and more than 100 people died, provoking violent reactions in Kinshasa and elsewhere. The UN's Department of Peacekeeping Operations Best Practices report on the Bukavu crisis faulted MONUC on various grounds, some of which related to the guiding principles of peacekeeping: the senior leadership appeared "to confuse impartiality with neutrality and was reluctant to confront individuals or groups who were clearly working to undermine the transition process"; there were sharply divided opinions—and

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Pakistani peacekeepers with MONUC keep watch over a Rwandan rebel camp they and government soldiers destroyed in South Kivu, July 2005, in their latest operation to pressure Rwandan gunmen to lay down their guns and return home peacefully

mixed public signals—about using force to disarm Mutebutsi and stop the advance of Nkunda; and there was confusion among different MONUC contingents about the rules of engagement. The result was a serious loss of credibility for MONUC and a damaging setback for the fragile peace process.[9]

The Bukavu crisis ultimately led to a new mandate for MONUC, embodied in Resolution 1565 (2004), more MONUC troops to Ituri and the Kivus, and the establishment of an eastern divisional headquarters. The more robust approach signaled by these developments was put to the test in Ituri in early 2005. In response to serious violence against civilians in late January, MONUC launched several security operations and itself came under direct attack, resulting in the death of nine peacekeepers. The UN reacted with armed personnel carriers and attack helicopters, killing 50 to 60 militia members in an intense exchange of fire.[10] Soon thereafter, 15,600 Ituri militias laid down their arms, leaving behind a diffuse group of about 1,500.

Haiti, 2005

The UN Stabilization Mission in Haiti (MINUSTAH) was established in mid-2004 with a partial Chapter VII mandate. Its functions included the authority, "in support of the Transitional Government," to ensure a secure environment and to assist with the restoration of public order in Haiti. This deft diplomatic drafting was the product of compromise within the Security Council. It seemed to invite a robust approach, but only in support of existing institutions—specifically, the Haitian National Police (HNP), which was of questionable competence and legitimacy. There were differences of opinion within the mission and the Security Council about how forcefully to act against the armed gangs that controlled the poorer districts of Port-au-Prince. Amid accusations that MINUSTAH was too passive, the Security Council signaled its approval of a more robust approach in the report of a mission all fifteen members took to Haiti in April. This was reinforced by Resolution 1608, adopted on 22 June 2005, which authorized an increase in the mission's strength and addition of a "rapid reaction force."

MINUSTAH had engaged in security operations earlier, but the tide against armed gangs turned in late June and early July of 2005, when joint operations by the military and formed police units culminated in the death of gang leader "Dread" Wilme, who had been dominating Cité Soleil. This was followed by the establishment of a permanent security presence in Bel Air, intensive mobile patrolling, cordon and search operations, and a warning that anyone seen carrying a weapon would be shot. The result was a relative return to normalcy in Bel Air, with signs of renewed economic life and the UN able to carry out civilian functions. Later in 2005, attention turned again to Cité Militaire, where similar military tactics were employed. As the year end approached, robust action was also being contemplated for Cité Soleil, though embedded in civilian-led confidence-building measures aimed at winning the support of gang members and trust of the broader population within the district.

Common Threads

Three threads run through these quite different crises. First, in all four cases the Security Council provided a Chapter VII mandate and some enforcement authority, but with enough ambiguity to leave room for differing interpretations as to when force should be used and for what purposes. Second, when crises erupted (as in Sierra Leone and the DRC) or long-standing problems boiled over (as in East Timor and Haiti), there were arguments within the missions, the UN Secretariat, and/or the Security Council about how to respond. Third, in all cases the UN operations started with a less forceful approach (either due to a lack of capacity or will) and then escalated as the crises expanded.

Contemporary Challenges

The threads are not confined to the four cases. Similar situations have arisen in UN and non-UN

operations in Kosovo, Afghanistan, Burundi, Côte d'Ivoire, and Darfur. And they are likely to arise again as long as peace operations continue to be tasked with performing two functions: protecting civilians and providing public security. These mandates create conceptual and operational challenges for peacekeeping, with not only military but also political, humanitarian, human rights, and normative implications.

Protection of Civilians

Since late 1999, no less than ten peace operations—both UN and non-UN—have been authorized under Chapter VII "to protect civilians under the imminent threat of physical violence," often qualified by the words, "within capabilities and areas of deployment."[11] This builds on practice that began in the early post–Cold War operations and gained momentum after the tragedies of Rwanda and Srebrenica. While the term "protection of civilians" was not used for the earlier operations,

the mandate was implicit.[12] Today, it is standard language in every Security Council resolution that authorizes an operation where civilian lives are likely to be in danger.

This mandate for protection of civilians is part of a normative shift reflected in general statements by the Security Council[13] and the Secretary-General.[14] The Brahimi panel argued that "UN peacekeepers who witness violence against civilians should be presumed to be authorized to stop it, within their means, in support of basic UN principles."[15] The normative shift is also reflected in the report of International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty, which introduced the "responsibility to protect" principle,[16] later picked up by the High-level Panel in its report,[17] and by the Secretary-General in his.[18] The reference to a "responsibility to protect" at the 2005 World Summit[19] was an important step in this evolution, marking the first time it was endorsed in a universal

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Box 1.1 The 2005 World Summit and Peace Operations

The 2005 World Summit adopted (and in some cases adapted) a number of recommendations made by the Secretary-General's High-level Panel on Threats, Challenges, and Change and by the Secretary-General himself in his report *In Larger Freedom,* which was designed to build on previous reforms of peacekeeping. Among the main conclusions of the summit were:

- Recognition of the "vital role" played by peacekeeping in helping parties to end conflict.
- The need to mount operations with adequate capacity to counter hostilities and fulfill effectively their mandates.
- Endorsement of the creation of an initial standing policy capacity to provide coherent, effective, and responsive startup

capability for the policing component of UN peacekeeping missions.
- Support for the European Union and other regional entities' efforts to develop capacities for rapid deployment and standby arrangements.
- Support for the development and implementation of a ten-year plan for capacity building with the African Union.
- A call on regional organizations with capacity for the prevention of armed conflict or peacekeeping to consider placing these capacities in the framework of the UN Standby Arrangements System.
- A reaffirmation of the commitment to the protection of children in situations of armed conflict.

The summit did not adopt in whole the High-level Panel's recommendation

that the UN establish a strategic reserve for peacekeeping—an idea designed to address the recurrent problem of the need to bolster the defensive and offensive capacity of peacekeeping forces in the face of hostility. The design of a strategic reserve is similar to that of "over-the-horizon" reserve forces commonly used in national deployments. However, the summit did urge further development of "enhanced rapidly deployable capacities to reinforce peacekeeping operations in times of crisis."

The summit also adopted a carefully but strongly worded "responsibility to protect populations from genocide, war crimes, ethnic cleansing and crimes against humanity."

Source: UN General Assembly, Resolution 60/1, *2005 World Summit Outcome,* NY: 20 September 2005.

forum. While there is no consensus on the practical applications of the concept, the protection of civilians in peace operations is a way of putting the principle into practice, a step toward giving meaning and content to an inchoate norm.

Yet there is a large gap between the mandate given to peace operations and formal knowledge about how to execute it. In a careful study, Victoria Holt found that even fully developed national peace operation doctrines lack clear guidelines on how to go about protecting civilians.[20] Inevitably, responses are improvised. Thus senior officials of the African Union Mission in Burundi (AMIB) wrote rules of engagement that gave their troops authority to protect civilians, even though that was not in the mandate.[21] MONUC failed to protect civilians during the Bukavu crisis, after having raised expectations that it would do so by announcing formation of a new Kivus brigade.[22] It subsequently did better in Ituri, but to this day MONUC's areas of operation are so large that it cannot protect civilians wherever it is deployed. The same is true for the UN Mission in Sudan (UNMIS), and the African Mission in Sudan (AMIS), despite its force of almost 7,000, is struggling to protect civilians in Darfur.[23] The UN Operation in Côte d'Ivoire (UNOCI) and Operation Licorne can intervene in small-scale crises, but would have difficulty doing so in the face of systematic attempts at slaughter in ethnically divided areas. Even the large NATO military and UN police operations in Kosovo have been inconsistent in carrying out their protection mandate—most notably during the riots of March 2004.

These improvised responses highlight a number of dilemmas. First, a mandate without adequate capacity can generate expectations that will not be fulfilled. The qualifying words "within the limits of the mission's capabilities" are aimed at lowering expectations, but is it reasonable to suppose that all concerned—including vulnerable populations—will read the fine print? Removing civilian protection language from resolutions altogether is no solution, because the mere presence of a peace operation generates

expectations. After Rwanda and Srebrenica, peacekeepers cannot simply stand by as civilians are massacred, claiming that action to protect them is not in the mandate. On the other hand, if peacekeepers are to be held responsible for every death they fail to prevent, the number of countries willing to contribute troops or police may decline dramatically.

A second dilemma is that the qualified mandate could draw people to where peacekeepers are deployed in order to fall under the protection umbrella. This can quickly overwhelm the capacity of a mission, and expose it to manipulation by those who want either to see the operation fail or to invite robust action from the peacekeepers in the hope that it will to work to their advantage. A third dilemma arises when protective action in one location leads to reprisals against civilians elsewhere, a deeply disturbing pattern that is playing out in the DRC. A fourth dilemma relates to timing and scale. Should peacekeepers act pre-emptively to protect civilians, or is the use of force always a last resort? Taking on the spoilers only after they have done their worst is no help to civilians who die while all other measures are first exhausted. On the other hand, pre-emptive action can provoke a reaction, and there are limits to how far most peace operations can escalate. Even the international coalition in Iraq and the NATO-led operation in Kosovo have struggled to seize and keep the initiative throughout their areas of operation. Is it reasonable to expect MONUC to do so in the DRC, UNOCI and Operation Licorne in Côte d'Ivoire, AMIS and UNMIS in Sudan, or even MINUSTAH in relation to the lesser security threats it faces in Haiti?

All of the above highlight a deeper dilemma: the protection of civilians is a goal of both order and justice. While military action can create order quickly, achieving justice takes longer and requires a more comprehensive approach.[24] Viewing protection of civilians as a public order task may produce quick results, but can undermine more long-term, multidimensional efforts to achieve justice. On the other hand, waiting for those efforts to bear fruit while civilians die

	UNMIK	UNMIL	UNOCI	MONUC	MINUSTAH	Total
Table 1.1 Formed Police Units, as of December 2005						
Bangladesh	—	—	125	250	—	375
China	—	—	—	—	125	125
India	—	—	—	250	—	250
Jordan	—	120	250	—	290	660
Nepal	—	250	—	—	125	375
Nigeria	—	125	—	—	125	250
Pakistan	115	—	—	—	250	365
Poland	115	—	—	—	—	115
Romania	115	—	—	—	—	115
Senegal	—	—	—	250	85	335
Ukraine	140	—	—	—	—	140
Total	585	495	375	750	1,000	3,345

Source: DPI (DPKO website).

can fatally undermine the legitimacy of a mission and jeopardize the local and international support it needs to succeed.

Public Security Gap

A second challenge for contemporary peace operations that has raised difficult questions about roles, responsibilities, and expectations is the so-called public security gap.[25] The gap arises when there is a need to perform public order functions that fall between providing a secure environment (a typical military function) and crime control, civil disturbances, and general lawlessness (typically viewed as civilian police functions). It occurs when local security forces are incapable of maintaining law and order, the military component of a peace operation is unwilling to do so, and multinational civilian police forces are unable to do so, either because they are deployed in insufficient numbers or because the magnitude of the challenge exceeds police capabilities. The issue is sharpest in "executive policing" operations, like Kosovo and East Timor, but it arises wherever the peacekeepers are expected to help provide public security.

Specialized forces have been used to fill the gap in a number of places. Variously called "formed police units," "integrated police units,"

"constabularies," "police with military status," "gendarmerie-type forces," "multinational specialized units" and "special police units," these forces are designed for crowd and riot control, high-end law enforcement, combating organized crime, and protecting key locations and VIPs. In Haiti in the early 1990s, the public security gap was filled by military police and special units who engaged in joint patrols with Haitian security forces. These 920 international police monitors from twenty-six countries carried sidearms, had arrest powers, and could use deadly force to prevent violence.[26] They were replaced by 870 UN civilian police who were also armed, including a 150-person Argentinian SWAT team. The first multinational specialized unit (MSU) was deployed in Bosnia in 1998, as part of the NATO-led force, after a riot in Brcko demonstrated the limitations of the military for crowd control.[27] The lesson was applied in Kosovo, where both an MSU under Kosovo Force (KFOR) command and a special police unit (SPU) under UN Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK) authority were deployed with mandates that included the handling of civil disturbances and threats to public order. Gendarmerie-type units were deployed in East Timor, and today there are formed

police units in the UN missions in Haiti, the DRC, Kosovo, Côte d'Ivoire, and Liberia.

Reliance on these units has not been without controversy, pointing to a tension among contributing states about the respective roles of military, police, and constabulary forces. In Bosnia, the MSU's list of functions (public order and safety, intelligence-gathering, crowd control, protection of returnees, security during elections, fighting organized crime, and stopping smuggling) was a "veritable smorgasbord of all the issues SFOR and IPTF were struggling with."[28] In Kosovo, the similar mandates of the MSU and SPU revealed a lack of clarity about the gap they were meant to fill, and the inadequacies of the response to the riots in March 2004 were partly a result of poor coordination among the military and police.[29] In Haiti, MINUSTAH military and police units have been engaging in joint security operations in the slums of Port-au-Prince, but poor coordination and misunderstandings about functions prompted the Security Council to call for a new sector headquarters for the express purpose of ensuring more efficient and better integrated operations.[30] MONUC's authorized strength was enhanced by five formed police units (625 officers) in 2005 partly to assist the national police in providing crowd control, but their main function will be to protect UN facilities and sites during the electoral period.

This history highlights some of the dilemmas associated with the public security gap. First, security cannot be divided neatly between "military" and "police" functions in peace operations. Debate continues between those who argue the military is not trained, equipped, or otherwise suited for postconflict policing, and those who argue it is an essential part of the military's security responsibilities.[31] Constabulary forces may help to fill the vacuum, but they are not a panacea because numbers are limited and the ability to deploy quickly is constrained, although some initiatives are under way to enhance global capacity.[32] Moreover, there is no standard formed police unit. Formed police are trained, structured, and deployed to meet the domestic

AP Photo/Kent Gilbert

Jordanian troops with MINUSTAH provide security in Cité Soleil, Port-au-Prince, February 2005

security needs of their countries.[33] They cannot simply be transplanted to a peace operation and expected to perform any task deemed to fall in the "public security gap."

The second dilemma arises where the gap can only be filled by a mix of military, constabulary, and individual police forces. Coordination is exceptionally difficult. The three types of forces often arrive with different operating styles, rules of engagement, and attitudes about the use of force. And it is precisely in the operations where the use of force is most likely that coordination is most difficult.

A third dilemma follows from the second. If military and formed police units engage in joint operations, should they be under a military chain of command? This would seem to make sense from an operational point of view, at least in high-intensity operations. But if the police units are seen as paramilitary, this can be problematic in societies where such forces have been part of the problem rather than solution. Moreover, the ability of international civilian police to do and teach "community policing" may be compromised if their formed counterparts are engaged in coercive action under a military chain of command.

The above dilemmas highlight the normative dimension of public security and its connection to the broader goal of rule of law promotion—an increasingly important but under-resourced aspect of modern peace operations. To assume law and order responsibilities, either directly in an executive policing mandate or indirectly through support of local forces, is to assume one of the most basic state functions. Effective policing is based on a social contract between state authorities and the population, which requires a degree of respect and understanding, if not trust. Foreign forces are not part of this social contract, but nevertheless transmit values in how they go about their work. Community policing is such a value, as is respect for human rights. In postconflict environments, the police are often the most visible manifestation of a transformed society—they are the face of both order and justice.[34] Thus greater clarity about the roles of military, police, and constabularies not only will contribute to public order, but can also contribute to the restoration of justice.

The Search for Conceptual Clarity

The traditional principles of peacekeeping—consent, impartiality, and the use of force only in self-defense—emerged from the first UN Emergency Force (UNEF I) in 1956 and understandings about those principles have been evolving ever since. Throughout the Cold War era and with few exceptions, a sharp line was drawn between Chapter VI peacekeeping and Chapter VII enforcement action. The changed nature of the missions at the end of the Cold War led to a blurring of the line between "peacekeeping" and "enforcement action," highlighted by Secretary-General Boutros-Ghali's *Agenda for Peace* of 1992, wherein he proposed "peace enforcement units" to occupy a halfway house between the two.[35] But failures in Bosnia, Somalia, and Rwanda prompted the Secretary-General to backtrack in his 1995 *Supplement to an Agenda for Peace,* in which he insisted that "peacekeeping and the use of force (other than in self-defense)" were alternative techniques and not adjacent points on a continuum.[36] In other words, there is no halfway house between peacekeeping and enforcement, and the two should not be mixed.

The sharp line the supplement tried to draw was blurred again by the Brahimi Report, which was inspired by UN reports on the fall of Srebrenica and the genocide in Rwanda, as well as an Organization of African Unity (OAU) report on Rwanda. The Brahimi Report affirms the "bedrock principles of peacekeeping," but then qualifies all three: consent is often unreliable and subject to manipulation by the parties; impartiality does not mean neutrality, but rather "adherence to the principles of the Charter and to the objectives of a mandate that is rooted in those Charter principles"; and UN operations must be prepared to deal effectively with "spoilers," with forces able to pose a credible deterrent and "to project credible force."[37] The blurring of the line was forthrightly acknowledged by the High-level Panel in 2004 when it

stated that the distinction between Chapter VI peacekeeping and Chapter VII peace enforcement is "misleading" and that the usual practice is to give both types of operation a Chapter VII mandate, on the understanding that even the most benign environment can turn sour.[38] The 2005 World Summit outcome document says little about the use of force by peacekeepers, other than to reaffirm that missions should have "adequate capacity to counter hostilities and fulfill effectively their mandates"[39]—a hint at robustness, but without elaboration.

Thus the UN does not have a peacekeeping doctrine beyond what is reflected in training modules, standard directives, generic standard operating procedures (SOPs), a "master list" of rules of engagement, and publications like the 2003 *Handbook on United Nations Multidimensional Peacekeeping.* An important initiative is currently under way in the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations to launch a "guidance and policy management system" for the conduct of operations. This represents a serious effort to provide operational guidance to practitioners by assembling the various lessons learned and relevant DPKO documents into a more coherent whole. It is not an effort to formulate or declare new doctrine, but rather to build on existing principles in offering flexible and continually evolving guidance on how to train and prepare for missions and how to carry out mandated tasks. While this is an important exercise, it can only go so far without greater consensus at the intergovernmental level about the conceptual foundations of modern peace operations.

The development of multinational doctrine is difficult but not impossible, as the case of NATO demonstrates.[40] No other regional organization has gone as far, but the African Union and Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) have begun addressing doctrinal issues in the context of the standby forces each is establishing.[41] At the national level, most NATO countries have developed doctrines for peace operations, some of which have gone through several iterations in the post–Cold War era.[42] Many of the leading troop contributors from the developing world refer to peacekeeping in their military doctrines. There is also diffusion of peacekeeping training centers where basic concepts and techniques are taught.

Doctrinal developments at the national level inevitably affect multinational missions, often in a positive way. But the proliferation of approaches can be problematic. Clashes between national approaches and those of the organization under which they operate, or among national approaches within a mission, can lead to an incoherent and ineffective peace operation. Without common or at least congruent understandings about the basic principles, mandates will be interpreted, directives and SOPs developed, rules of engagement drafted, decisions made, and action taken either in a conceptual void[43] or based on assumptions that find their way into peace operations through the back door (i.e., through influential contributors to an operation or strong-willed individuals within a mission).

Recent experience suggests that the time is ripe for renewed multinational reflection on the fundamentals of peace operations. The question is not so much whether the core principles of consent, impartiality, and the minimum use of force are still relevant, but whether practitioners need a more fully developed interpretive guide to ensure that those principles are applied effectively. Four areas in particular would benefit from greater conceptual clarity: the management of expectations, the meaning of consent and impartiality, the use of force, and the broader normative context in which peace operations occur.

First, the deployment of a peace operation creates expectations at many levels. The mandating authority (e.g., the UN Security Council) expects the mandate to be fulfilled, the contributors to an operation expect the resources and political backing to fulfill it, the parties to a peace agreement expect reassurance that the other parties will not cheat, and innocent civilians expect their physical well-being to be protected. Shared understandings about the nature, objectives, and underlying principles of an operation help manage those expectations—of ensuring that the parties know what steps the peacekeepers

Members of a Chinese formed police unit prepare for their mission in Haiti
at a training camp on the outskirts of Beijing, China, September 2004

will take to ensure compliance with the mandate, and that civilians know what the operation will and will not do to protect them. The effective management of expectations requires specificity in a mandate, as well as consistency and transparency in its execution. If force is used, it must be for understandable reasons; if force is not used, the reasons should be equally understandable. This requires good public information and effective communication with the parties and the broader population about the mission's aims and operational activities.

As important, the contributors to a peace operation—military, police and civilian organizations—must know what they are getting into. This requires overcoming the knowledge deficit that plagues many missions, so troop and other contributors do not find themselves in situations they did not expect. If they are likely to take casualties, that should be understood from the outset. If the troops or police are likely to inflict casualties, that also must be well understood—especially in chaotic environments, where the line between combatants

and civilians is often hard to draw. Moreover, the actions of one component of a peace operation impact the others: military action can inhibit or enable progress on the civilian front, the imperatives of political or humanitarian action may dictate a certain military posture, and so on. Shared understandings can help ensure harmony of effort among the various components.

Second, there is a need for clarity about the meaning of consent and impartiality. These principles have stood the test of time, but how they play out in practice is far from self-evident. If there is consent to an operation, it is often qualified in one of three ways: either it is (1) unreliable, (2) brought about under outside pressure, rendering it something less than a pure act of volition, or (3) open-ended. No peace agreement implemented over an extended period can provide for every contingency, so even genuine consent, in effect, is a gesture of faith that unforeseen problems can be worked out on a consensual basis. Underlying all these qualifications is the basic

question: Whose consent matters? Is it only or primarily the parties to the conflict, or is the consent and cooperation of the broader population as important? Often local spoilers are supported by foreign backers; in many circumstances, their "consent" to end that support is critical to the success of a mission.

Impartiality, meanwhile, was defined in the Brahimi Report to mean adherence to the principles of the Charter and objectives of a mandate, a conception that is found in many national peace operation doctrines. It assumes a clear enough mandate that all concerned know what impartiality in its execution entails, which relates back to the need for transparency and good communication. More broadly, consent and impartiality connect to the notion of legitimacy. In modern operations, consent is an important source of legitimacy, but may not be the only source. A principled mandate from an authoritative institution executed impartially can also bestow legitimacy.

Third, in its 2005 report, the UN's Special Committee on Peacekeeping Operations added to its standard endorsement of the principle "non-use of force except in self-defense" a reference to "defense of a mandate," and it identified the need for "an appropriately strong military and civilian police presence . . . in order to deter spoilers and establish the credibility of the United Nations."[44] The 2005 World Summit outcome report states peacekeepers should have "adequate capacity to counter hostilities and fulfill effectively their mandates."[45] Debate and dilemmas arise when the main protagonists to a conflict formally consent to an international security presence and yet lesser armed groups oppose that presence or threaten aspects of its mandate. The dilemmas are especially acute when it is hard to tell whether these lesser groups are acting as proxies for the main protagonists. This suggests that there is not necessarily an inverse relationship between the use of force on the one hand and consent and impartiality on the other. The judicious use of force can enhance the credibility of a mission and create conditions that will both induce overall consent and reinforce the perception of impartiality. There is no formula

for determining how much force is appropriate and indeed one of the fault lines of debate is what constitutes "proportionate" force. The Brahimi Report raised this issue squarely in venturing that "rules of engagement should not limit contingents to stroke-for-stroke responses but should allow ripostes sufficient to silence a source of deadly fire."[46] This raises the further question of whether the peacekeepers can ever shoot first. Did the generalized threat presented by the militias in East Timor in the year 2000 justify the preemptive use of force against them? Can force be used against illegal armed groups in eastern DRC today because they pose a constant threat to civilians, or must the peacekeepers wait until a particular incident has occurred before reacting?

A consensus is emerging that appropriate force should be measured in relation to objectives sought rather than absolute terms. The objectives may be achievable with a robust *presence*, obviating the need to actually use force as long as there is a credible threat that it will be used if necessary.[47] However, there are limits on the credibility of that threat based on the capacity of a peace operation to escalate and its ability to gauge how far the cycle of escalation is likely to go. The danger of ratcheting up as crises get worse is that a mission's limit may be reached and the deterrent effect lost. The UN's proposal for a strategic reserve is designed to address this problem—an "over-the-horizon" arrangement available at short notice when a crisis escalates beyond the capacity of peacekeeping forces on the ground.[48] Conversely, the threat of overwhelming military force may not be credible if the security threat is of a lower order, such as street disturbances during an election period. This suggests that a flexible presence with a range of capabilities, involving military, constabulary, and police assets, can be more credible than massive military firepower that is not likely to be used.

In many operations, how robustly external forces act turns on the stage of development of national forces. In Haiti and eastern DRC, the question is not simply how much force MINUSTAH and MONUC should be using, but whether they should be leading, supporting,

or operating alongside the Haitian National Police and Armed Forces of the DRC respectively. In the normal course, national forces assume primary responsibility for security (internal and external) as soon as they have the capacity—and legitimacy—to do so. Until then, sensitive decisions must be made about how the peacekeepers should associate with those forces.

Fourth, peace operations do not occur in a normative vacuum, nor do decisions about the protection of civilians and maintenance of public order. If nothing else, expectations are affected by these normative considerations. The basic norms that guide UN peace operations are those embodied in the Charter. Sovereignty and nonintervention are among those principles, as are self-determination and respect for human rights. The constitutive acts of various regional and subregional organizations contain the same mix of norms.[49] Concepts like the "responsibility to protect," human security, and the rule of law are starting to infuse peace operations practice. They are controversial and expose deep divisions in understandings about the nature of the enterprise. Is it fundamentally an instrument parties to a conflict use to help resolve their differences on the basis of consent? Or, is it a more proactive enterprise, in which external actors help to rebuild war-torn states on the basis of international norms and standards?[50] That there is no global consensus on how to answer those questions is not an excuse for ignoring the normative dimensions of any peace operation. Decisions about whether and how to protect civilians or provide public security, or engage in any of the myriad other tasks peacekeepers are charged with, involve not only operational but also normative choices. And acting on those decisions shapes the normative climate in which similar choices are confronted in the future.

Conclusion

Excessive guidance can smother creative improvisation in a peace operation, but ad hoc responses to recurring challenges leave too much room for internal argument, inconsistency, and unmet expectations. The complexity of modern operations, the multiplicity of actors, and the range of partners involved dictate the need for a comprehensive, multidisciplinary strategy. While robust action is often necessary, a purely military approach is never adequate in contemporary peace missions, which by definition are not about winning a war or defeating an enemy but facilitating a peace process. Military action, if and when necessary, must be in the service of a broader political strategy. That strategy should in turn be guided by common understandings, not only about the objectives of the mission but also the principles that underlie decisions about how to achieve those objectives. The principles have evolved and will continue to evolve in light of experience. Sustained multinational reflection on that evolution is necessary if this valuable instrument for the maintenance of international peace and security is to respond effectively to contemporary challenges.

Notes

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1. See United Nations, *Report of the Panel on UN Peace Operations* (Brahimi Report)*,* August 2000. United Nations, *Report of the High-level Panel on Threats, Challenges, and Change: Our Shared Responsibility,* December 2004. The UN Secretariat has been developing training manuals and modules, generic directives and standard operating procedures, model rules of engagement, and other "guidance" documents that reflect the more threatening environment in which peacekeepers operate.

2. S/RES/1289, 7 February 2000.

3. S/RES/1313, 4 August 2000.

4. United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations, Best Practices Unit, *Lessons Learned from UN Peacekeeping Experiences in Sierra Leone,* September 2003, p. 41.

5. S/2000/832, 24 August 2000.

6. United Nations, Department of Peacekeeping Operations, Best Practices Unit, *Lessons Learned from United Nations Peacekeeping Experiences in Sierra Leone,* September 2003. A DPKO assessment mission to Sierra Leone in the midst of the crisis came to similar conclusions. United Nations, *Fifth Report of the Secretary-General on the UN Mission in Sierra Leone,* S/2000/455, 31 July 2000. The problems were exacerbated by a damaging public rift among the senior leadership. Trevor Findlay, *The Use of Force in UN Peace Operations* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2002), p. 308.

7. United Nations, *Report of the Security Council Mission to Sierra Leone,* S/2000/992, 16 October 2000.

8. Dale Stephens, *The Use of Force in Peacekeeping Operations: The East Timor Experience* (Melbourne: Asia-Pacific Centre for Military Law, 2005), pp. 51–52. Stephens was the legal adviser to the UNTAET force commander.

9. United Nations, Department of Peacekeeping Operations, Best Practices Unit, *MONUC and the Bukavu Crisis,* March 2005.

10. S/2005/167, 15 March 2005, paras. 11–19.

11. For UN operations, see Security Council Resolution 1270 on Sierra Leone (1999); Resolution 1291 on the Democratic Republic of Congo (2000); Resolution 1509 on Liberia (2003); Resolution 1528 on Côte d'Ivoire (2004); Resolution 1542 on Haiti (2004); Resolution 1545 on Burundi (2004); and Resolution 1590 on Sudan (2005). For non-UN operations, see Security Council Resolution 1464 on both the French-led Operation Licorne and ECOWAS in Côte d'Ivoire (2003); and Resolution 1564 on the African Union in Darfur. A compilation of the precise language in these resolutions can be found in Victoria Holt, *The Responsibility to Protect: Considering the Operational Capacity for Civilian Protection* (revised), discussion paper (Washington, D.C.: Henry Stimson Center, January 2005).

12. For example, UNPROFOR, then IFOR and SFOR in Bosnia (Resolutions 836, 1031, and 1088); UNITAF and then UNOSOM II in Somalia (Resolutions 794 and 814); Operation Turquoise in Rwanda (Resolutions 925 and 929); KFOR in Kosovo (Resolution 1244); INTERFET and then UNTAET in East Timor (Resolutions 1264 and 1272).

13. See Security Council Resolutions 1265 (1999) and 1296 (2000); S/PRST/2002/41, 20 December 2002; and S/PRST/2003/27, 15 December 2003.

14. See, for example, *Report of the Secretary-General to the Security Council on the Protection of Civilians in Armed Conflict:* S/1999/957, 8 September 1999. This report provides a detailed overview of tasks relating to protection of civilians that UN peacekeeping operations had engaged in, some of which required a "coercive or enforcement role" though not always on the basis of clear mandates. The Secretary-General alludes to the possibility of military action to separate armed elements from civilians in refugee and IDP camps, and to create "temporary security zones and safe corridors for the protection of civilians." Paras. 35 and 39. Subsequent SG reports on protection of civilians shy away from that kind of language. See, for example, S/2002/1300 (26 November 2002) and S/2004/131 (28 May 2004).

15. *Brahimi Report,* para. 62. The *Handbook on United Nations Multidimensional Peacekeeping Operations* backs away from that position by stating, "in specific circumstances, the mandate of a peacekeeping operation *may include* the need to protect a vulnerable civilian population from imminent attack," implying the obligations should not be presumed. United Nations, Department of Peacekeeping Operations, Best Practices Unit, *Handbook on United Nations Multidimensional Peacekeeping Operations,* 2003, pp. 7–8.

16. International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty, *The Responsibility to Protect,* December 2001.

17. United Nations, *Report of the High-Level Panel,* para. 199–203.

18. United Nations, *In Larger Freedom: Towards Development, Security, and Human Rights for All,* Report of the Secretary-General, A/59/2005, 21 March 2005, para. 132.

19. UN General Assembly Resolution: *2005 World Summit Outcome.* A/RES/60/1, 20 September 2005, para. 138.

20. Holt, *The Responsibility to Protect.* It is not clear why this is the case. It may simply be because the practice is too new. Or it could be because protection of civilians is so sensitive that national political authorities prefer to deal with the issue at the highest level on a case-by-case basis, rather than developing a more standardized approach.

21. Kristina Powell, *Opportunities and Challenges for Delivering on the Responsibility to Protect the African Union's Emerging Peace and Security Regime,* Monograph no. 119 (Ottawa Canada, The North-South Institute, May 2005), p. 35.

22. United Nations, Department of Peacekeeping Operations, Best Practices Unit, *MONUC and the Bukavu Crisis 2004,* March 2005, p. 12.

23. "Darfur's Despair," *The Economist,* 15 October 2005, p. 47.

24. See General Sir Rupert Smith, *The Utility of Force* (London: Allen Lane, 2005), pp. 377–387.

25. See generally, Robert Oakley, Michael J. Dziedzic, and Eliot M. Goldberg, eds., *Policing the New World Disorder* (Washington, D.C.: National Defense University Press, Institute for National Strategic Studies, 1998); Alice Hills, "The Inherent Limits of Military Force in Policing Peace Operations," *International Peacekeeping* 8, no. 3 (Autumn 2001): 79–98; Annika Hansen, *Supporting the Rule of Law in War-Torn Societies: Tasks and Comparative Advantages of Civilian and Military Police Forces,* FFI/RAPPORT no. 2005-02099, November 2005; Renata Dwan, ed., *Executive Policing: Enforcing the Law in Peace Operations,* SIPRI Research Report no. 16, 2002; and Robert Perito, *Where Is the Lone Ranger When We Need Him? America's Search for a Postconflict Stability Force* (Washington, D.C.: US Institute of Peace Press, 2004).

26. Perito, *Where Is the Lone Ranger,* p. 110.

27. Renata Dwan, *Civilian Tasks and Capabilities in EU Peace Operations,* paper commissioned by the Study Group on Europe's Security Capabilities, September 2004.

28. Hansen, *Supporting the Rule of Law,* p. 17.

29. For more on the UNMIK special police unit and KFOR multinational specialized unit, see Chapter 2.

30. S/RES/1608, 2005, para. 2(b).

31. Dwan, *Civilian Tasks and Capabilities,* p. 4. See also Peter Viggo Jakobsen, "Military Forces and Public Security Challenges," in Michael Pugh and Waheguru Pal Singh Sidhu, eds., *The United Nations and Regional Security: The UN and Beyond* (Boulder, Colo.: Lynne Rienner Publishers, 2003), pp. 137–153.

32. The Center of Excellence for Stability Police Units (CoESPU) was established in Vicenza, Italy, in 2005 as part of the Group of Eight's action plan for expanding global capability for peace and support operations. CoESPU is co-located with the recently established EU Gendarme Force headquarters, which is developing concepts of operations and functions for what the EU refers to as "integrated police units."

33. Hansen, "A Civil-Military Cooperation: The Military, Paramilitaries and Civilian Police in Executive Policing," in Renata Dwan, ed., *Executive Policing: Enforcing Law in Peace Operations,* SIPRI Research Report no. 16 (Oxford: Oxford University Press/SIPRI, 2002), at 71.

34. Rama Mani, "Contextualizing Police Reform: Security, the Rule of Law and Post-Conflict Peacebuilding" in *The Cass Series on Peacekeeping: Peacebuilding and Police Reform* (2000, Vol. 7), pp. 9–27.

35. A/47/277–S/24111: 17 June 1992, "An Agenda for Peace: Preventive Diplomacy, Peacemaking and Peace-keeping." Report of the Secretary-General pursuant to the statement adopted by the Summit Meeting of the Security Council on 31 January 1992, para. 44.

36. *Supplement,* paras. 35–36.

37. *Brahimi Report,* "Executive Summary" and paras. 21, 48, 50–51.

38. United Nations, *Report of the High-Level Panel,* paras. 211–213.

39. *2005 World Summit Outcome,* para. 92.

40. NATO, *Peace Support Operations,* Unclassified Document no. AJP-3.4.1, 2002. NATO's peace support operations doctrine was crafted painstakingly over a period of years. NATO members presented over 500 comments and amendments to the fourth draft of AJP-3.4.1. Henning A. Frantzen, *NATO Peace Support Operations 1991–1999: Policies and Doctrines* (New York: Frank Cass/Taylor & Francis, 2005), p. 78. A new NATO peace operations doctrine has been drafted but had not been released as of the time of writing.

41. Current thinking in ECOWAS is reflected in ECOWAS Workshop, *Lessons Learned from ECOWAS Peacekeeping Operations: 1990–2004,* February 2005. East Africa has taken steps to establish a standby brigade for East Africa, and its "policy framework" states that its doctrine shall be consistent

with that of the UN. IGAD Secretariat, *Policy Framework for the Establishment of the Eastern Africa Standby Brigade (EASBRIG),* 11 April 2005.

42. One of the most recent is UK Ministry of Defense, *The Military Contribution to Peace Support Operations,* 2nd ed., Joint Warfare Publication (JWP) 3-50 (Swindon, UK: Ministry of Defense, June 2004).

43. For a prescient comment on the doctrinal void that existed in peace operations in the early 1990s, see John Ruggie, "Wandering in the Void: Charting the UN's New Strategic Role," *Foreign Affairs* 72, no. 5 (Nov.–Dec. 1993): 26–31.

44. United Nations, *Report of the Special Committee on Peacekeeping and Its Working Group at the 2005 Substantive Session,* A/59/19, 1 March 2005, paras. 30, 46.

45. *2005 World Summit Outcome,* para. 92.

46. Brahimi Report, at para. 49.

47. There is a difference between using force to compel an action and using it to deter, and the requirements are hard to gauge when more than one actor needs to be compelled or deterred. See John Ruggie, "The UN and the Collective Use of Force: Whither or Whether," *International Peacekeeping* 3, no. 4 (Winter 1996): 1–20.

48. The 2005 World Summit did not endorse the UN's strategic reserve proposal per se, but it did urge development of "enhance rapidly deployable capacities to reinforce peacekeeping operations in times of crisis." UN General Assembly, Resolution 60/1, *2005 World Summit Outcome,* 20 September 2005.

49. The Constitutive Act of the African Union endorses the principles of sovereignty and nonintervention while granting the AU a right to intervene in a member state "in respect of grave circumstances, namely war crimes, genocide and crimes against humanity" and, since 2003, "a serious threat to legitimate order." See *Constitutive Act of the African Union,* Article 4(h); and *Protocol Relating to the Establishment of the Peace and Security Council,* Article 4(j), as amended in February 2003.

50. Alex Bellamy, Paul Williams, and Stuart Griffin, eds., *Understanding Peacekeeping* (Cambridge, UK: Polity Press, 2004), pp. 11–33.

2 Kosovo: In Search of a Public Order Strategy

Richard Gowan

Through 2005, the international presence in Kosovo prepared for a transformation of its structure and role. Policy reflected a growing consensus that the province's final status must be negotiated—and that while it has been under Serbian sovereignty and UN administration since 1999, its Albanian majority does not wish to accept either for much longer. Belgrade remains opposed to Kosovar independence, but an October report by the UN Secretary-General's Special Envoy Kai Eide recommended that status talks should begin. Kofi Annan and the Security Council accepted this proposal with alacrity, and November saw the appointment of former Finnish president Martti Ahtisaari to oversee talks.

This represented a shift from the international community's previous concentration on "standards before status," which had emphasized the development of the rule of law and minority rights. While Eide reported mixed progress on standards issues, the initial impetus to move on status was influenced by a fear that the NATO-led Kosovo Force (KFOR) and the UN Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK) had an uncertain hold on public order. This stemmed from an outburst of violence initiated by elements of the Kosovo Albanian community in March 2004, which saw rioting, the destruction of Serb homes, and attacks on international personnel, property, and vehicles.

Although this lasted for just three days, and caused limited casualties (including nineteen dead), KFOR's performance was described by its next commander as a "defeat."[1] UNMIK, responsible for policing the province, has also received heavy criticism for its reaction to the violence.[2] Significant numbers of troops and international police officers retreated in the face of disorder, leaving local leaders to end the violence.

This case study analyzes the factors that left KFOR and UNMIK unready for the March violence, and their efforts to move to a credible security posture thereafter. Kosovo offers important lessons about the vulnerabilities of peace operations, having experienced dilemmas increasingly common to other missions. These include the coordination of international organizations in the field, the balance between military and police in maintaining public order, and the search for local political consent.

That the international presence has struggled to resolve these issues in Kosovo is telling, for it has had unusually expansive mandates and resources. Even before the Security Council formally granted KFOR a Chapter VII mandate in Resolution 1244, NATO completed an agreement with the Yugoslav armed forces giving it "the authority to take all necessary action to establish and maintain a secure environment for all citizens of Kosovo and otherwise carry out its mission."[3] At its peak in late 1999, KFOR fielded 50,000 troops—more than were then involved in all peace operations in Africa combined.

In security terms, UNMIK was also given an unprecedented mandate for executive policing, and while its civilian police arm has shrunk since 2003, it still accounted for 31 percent of UN police personnel worldwide in November 2005. That both UNMIK and KFOR have been unable to assert full control in Kosovo

raises questions about the implementation of ambitious mandates, and the extent to which they can survive friction in the field.

These questions are timely, for while talks on Kosovo's future may alter the environment in which the international presence operates, they will not mean its end. Although the UN has indicated a desire to withdraw from Kosovo, both the European Union and the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) have been partners in UNMIK (dealing with economic and governance issues respectively) and are willing to have a continued role. EU membership is one key potential political incentive on offer to Kosovo. But the residual international presence is also likely to have a strong security element—international and local observers concur that KFOR (probably supplemented by EU police) must remain for perhaps a decade to guarantee the security of Kosovo and of the Serbs who now represent 5 percent of its population. How can the future international presence ensure that this guarantee is credible?

This focus on security should not detract from other outstanding problems. Kosovo's economic situation is dire. By late 2005, gross domestic product was falling and unemployment was above 60 percent.[4] Criticism has been aimed at the EU's stewardship of economic reform within UNMIK, especially as international aid flows have been diverted elsewhere.[5] Surveys indicate that 70 percent of Kosovo's overall population is either "not satisfied" or "not satisfied at all" with current economic trends, almost twice as many as are unhappy with political developments (although this clearly reflects majority Albanian opinion).[6]

Some in the international community hope that a political settlement would attract investment and allow international financial institutions to assist Kosovo as an officially designated "low-income country under stress." But any hopes for the economy based on Kosovo's future status require that this status be secure—a sustainable and effective ongoing peace operation in Kosovo must underpin its economic development.

Strategy and Reality, 1999–2004

Under Resolution 1244, KFOR and UNMIK were tasked with Kosovo's security and administration, and the latter was also charged with shaping "provisional institutions for democratic and autonomous self-government." This implied a security strategy, although it was neither explicit nor detailed. Intended to deter Yugoslavia after the ethnic cleansing of the summer of 1999, KFOR had the additional role of "ensuring public safety and order until the international civil presence can take responsibility for this task." In turn, UNMIK's projected responsibilities incorporated "civil law and order, including

Map No. 4255.7   UNITED NATIONS
October 2005

Department of Peacekeeping Operations
Cartographic Section

UN Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK)

• Resolution passage and date of effect	10 June 1999 (UNSC Res. 1244) (note: paragraph 19 of the resolution states that international civil and security presences are established for an initial period of twelve months, to continue thereafter unless the Security Council decides otherwise)
• SRSG	Søren Jessen-Petersen (Denmark)
• Police Commissioner	Kai Vittrup (Denmark)
• Budget	$264 million (June 2004–July 2005)
• Strength as of 31 October 2005	Police: 2,186 Military observers: 35 International civilian staff: 629 Local civilian staff: 2,393 UN volunteers: 201

NATO Kosovo Force (KFOR)

• Authorization date	10 June 1999 (UNSC Res. 1244)
• Start date	June 1999
• Head of mission	Lieutenant-General Giuseppe Valotto (Italy)
• Budget as of 30 September 2005	$29.8 million
• Strength as of 30 September 2005	Troops: 17,174

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establishing local police forces and meanwhile through the deployment of international police personnel to serve in Kosovo."

The international presence was thus deployed in the hope that it would oversee a transfer of security to domestic agencies, and the training of the Kosovo Police Service was duly launched in the fall of 1999. But this strategy foundered on two underlying security problems: the retreat of the residual Serb minority into enclaves, and the threat posed to the formation of Kosovar security forces by tensions in the Albanian community.

As KFOR entered Kosovo, it encountered a wave of attacks on Serbs and other minorities. Around half the Serb population fled, while the rest held on in a large contiguous area in the mountainous north of the province or in scattered towns and villages, mainly in its south and east. Further violence in 2000 and individual attacks suggested that Albanian radicals were focused on destroying or occupying Serb property (whereas Serb violence centered on retaliation, protests, and disruption). The international presence found itself responsible for the territorial defense of the Serb enclaves.

The Serb minority's position also militated against its inclusion in any domestic security structures. Especially in northern Kosovo, the community has been supported by "parallel structures" financed by Belgrade, embracing not only education and healthcare but also a court system and (by some estimates) up to 1,000 plainclothes security personnel. After early confrontations with UNMIK and KFOR—including attacks on UN vehicles and efforts to bar NATO troops from some enclaves—the Serbs developed an ambiguous relationship with the international presence, requiring its defense but refusing to fully accept its administration.

Ambiguity likewise surrounded relations between the international presence and Kosovo's two main Albanian movements. The Kosovo Liberation Army (KLA) had fought Yugoslav forces, and claimed 28,000 members in 1999. It was central to, but not solely responsible for, the burst of violence against Serbs. By contrast, the Democratic League of Kosovo (LDK) publicly eschewed force and had developed a shadow government for Kosovo in the 1990s. After 1999, political competition between these factions spilled into low-level violence, including assassinations of senior LDK advisers.

UNMIK attempted to resolve this conflict through two forms of assimilation: an institutional bargain with the KLA and the development of political space for the LDK. In 1999, the KLA's leader, Hashim Thaci, agreed to disband his paramilitaries in return for promises that some 5,000 of them would be drafted into the Kosovo Protection Corps (KPC), ostensibly a nonmilitary formation intended to respond to civil emergencies. Others might

enter the KPS. While UNMIK did not co-opt LDK structures directly, it oversaw a series of elections in which the party was able to build on its popularity. In 2002, LDK leader Ibrahim Rugova became Kosovo's first president. He had consistently refused to ally with Thaci's Democratic Party of Kosovo (PDK).

But if UNMIK's tactics ostensibly had offered both the LDK and KLA leaderships' postconflict roles, this political settlement proved unstable. The KPC—with just under 3,900 members at its formation—was associated not only with organized crime but also with efforts to promote a "greater Albania."[7] From 2000 to 2003, and especially in 2001, Kosovo was affected by insurgencies in the neighboring Presevo valley in Serbia proper and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM). Senior KPC officers were directly involved in these conflicts, leading to a 2002 crackdown on their activities.

Having attempted to assimilate the Albanian paramilitaries, the international community was therefore forced to contain the consequences. In 2001, NATO both helped broker a cease-fire in the Presevo region and deployed troops in FYROM—the latter mission would be followed by EU military and police deployments in 2003.[8] Within Kosovo, containment proved less easy: KLA associations of "war veterans" continued to promote a hard-line political agenda, and former paramilitaries staffed private security companies that grew increasingly hostile to the international security presence and developing KPS after 2000.[9] Both the LDK and the PDK also maintained their own extralegal "intelligence services," the activities of which only became subject of open public debate in 2005.

A Coordinated Operation?

Kosovo's internal conflicts presented two challenges to KFOR and UNMIK in implementing Resolution 1244. First, the need to protect Serb enclaves raised operational questions about the transfer from military to civilian security. Second, the potential for destabilization arising from within the Albanian community prompted doubts about the ultimate goal of that process: domestic policing. These problems were exacerbated by the complexity of the international mechanisms established to implement Resolution 1244.

While KFOR and UNMIK were institutionally separate, both were internally convoluted. KFOR was hampered by differences between national contingents, while police issues were spread across UNMIK. In June 1999, after limited prior planning, it was agreed in New York that UNMIK should have a "pillar" structure: the UN took responsibility for civil administration and humanitarian affairs, the OSCE for governance issues, and the EU for economic matters. After some dispute over the proper place of civil order, it was decided that the UN should provide executive policing and police training in the field, but the OSCE would run UNMIK's police school and (as domestic institutions grew) handle questions of political oversight.

While these organizations were not subject to a detailed strategy, structures were put in place for close organizational cooperation. All UNMIK pillars were subject to the Special Representative of the Secretary-General, whose principal deputy headed an executive committee supported by a joint planning group. Relations between UNMIK and KFOR were to be maintained through direct links between the SRSG and NATO field commander, complemented by UNMIK liaison officers throughout Kosovo. Numerous ad hoc coordinating committees were formed as the mission continued.

These coordination mechanisms were initially bolstered by close cooperation on security issues—a matter of necessity. While UNMIK was tasked with providing regular police and ten special police units to handle disorder, these were largely deployed after the most intense violence in 1999. UNMIK police did not exceed 1,000 until that September, only reaching 2,000 the next February, by which time NATO had deployed gendarmerie units to compensate for the absence of policing. Confronting recurrent disturbances, KFOR and UNMIK did not attempt a

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Box 2.1 The Report on Integrated Missions

The UN Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo is often cited as the first example of the "integrated mission concept," by which a variety of organizations and agencies answer to a single Special Representative of the Secretary General (SRSG). Yet the concept remains problematic. A May 2005 report on integrated missions, commissioned by the UN Executive Committee on Humanitarian Affairs, found a "very general assumption that integration is the way of the future," but "little specific agreement about what comprises an integrated mission in practice."

The report concentrated on how UN agencies should cooperate in helping countries and territories through political transitions, and underlined the dilemmas inherent in maintaining interagency cooperation through these processes. These include the tensions between successfully engaging in political affairs while maintaining the impartiality of humanitarian and human rights activities. It also noted that, where UN agencies have been

in the field before the arrival of an SRSG or peace mission, there are risks of friction, "parallel structures and in rare cases even system dysfunction."

Noting that the Secretary-General has emphasized the primacy of the SRSG in such situations, the report made proposals for enhancing integration within missions, including:

- The Security Council and UN Secretariat should define a "center of gravity" for a mission—"the decisive parameters that must be influenced to make all the other activities possible"—and draw up a "mission-specific profile" for the SRSG on the basis of this strategic perspective.
- While existing UN Country Teams should recognize the leadership of the SRSG, they must be closely involved in predeployment needs assessments and planning.
- Once in the field, the SRSG should form a "cabinet structure," bringing together

representatives of all agencies to promote greater coherence in the mission.
- The SRSG should be supported by a strategic planning capacity and a cell reporting on mission funding, as well as a senior humanitarian coordinator and human rights adviser.
- All UN agencies—and other actors as appropriate—should have access to a joint operations center, and the mission should sustain outreach to local actors.

While these proposals echo structures put in place by UNMIK and other UN missions, they have often proved fragile. The integrated missions report emphasized the importance of a peacebuilding commission and support office, as approved by the World Summit, in developing new practices among member states and the UN Secretariat. It also held that a doctrine must be developed to regulate the interaction of UN military and civilian staff.

Source: Espen Barth Eide, Anja Therese Kaspersen, Randolph Kent, Karin von Hippel, *Report on Integrated Missions: Practical Perspectives and Recommendations* (Independent Study for the Expanded UN ECHA Core Group, May 2005).

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smooth transition of duties, but shared responsibility for public order. In 2002, NATO proposed that its force should be restructured to emphasize better cooperation with civilian police.

While structurally distinct, KFOR and UNMIK were therefore driven together by their security environment. But as that environment improved after 2000, both high-level and field coordination declined—communication within UNMIK also worsened, as the SRSG's executive committee effectively ceased to function. The international presence allowed ad hoc cooperation to deteriorate, very far from the process envisaged in Resolution 1244. This deterioration was exacerbated by a decline in KFOR's capabilities and slow progress by UNMIK in shifting responsibility to the KPS. Combined, these left the inter-

national presence with insufficient security resources.

KFOR: From Defense to Deterrence?

KFOR's security role was overshadowed by the problem of the Serb enclaves, the protection of which was neither a straightforward military task nor a civil order issue. Its troubled deployment complete, KFOR aimed to secure Kosovo through establishing fixed positions across the province, and especially around Serb areas and Orthodox religious sites. This strategy of direct defense was coupled with protection of Serb convoys from the enclaves, coordinated with the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). If this posture was an obstacle to transferring secu-

rity responsibilities to UNMIK, it was also a growing strain on KFOR's manpower.

KFOR began to shrink in an unplanned fashion almost as soon as the force had reached full strength. In February 2000, NATO officials complained that some troop contributors were leaving "hollow battalions" in Kosovo, and that others were supplying relatively small contingents that lacked the robust capabilities of the original force.[10] Through that year, KFOR's average strength was approximately 20 percent below its 1999 peak of 50,000 (including 7,500 troops in rear areas). Many contributors insisted on supplying their own support units, creating a high degree of duplication and reducing force flexibility.

While NATO initially tried to reverse these trends, they continued. By the winter of 2003–2004, KFOR consisted of 18,500 troops, of which just 6,000 were combat troops. Its commanders had attempted to reorient its strategy and posture to reflect its decreasing size. In October 2001, KFOR launched an "unfixing strategy," by which it began to move toward more flexible patrolling, replacing direct defense of Serb areas with the deterrent

of rapid response to any incident. It was hoped that unfixing, meant to conclude in October 2002, might help Serb communities escape a siege mentality and accept police protection.

Unfixing was nonetheless opposed by Serb communities and delayed by specific acts of violence—it was incomplete in March 2004. Reform proposals foundered on many troop contributors' disinclination to deploy their best forces in Kosovo. And there were operational obstacles to flexibility: KFOR's posture was based on four multinational brigades with distinct areas of operation. Many national contingents had major caveats against their deployment beyond these—in 2000, US forces effectively refused an order from KFOR's commander to reinforce embattled French units.[11] Although KFOR maintained a central reserve, its posture remained static and its capacity for deterrence limited by 2004.

UNMIK Police and KPS: A Stalled Transition?

While the military presence declined in a faster and less organized fashion than originally

Figure 2.1 KFOR Force Strength, 1999–2005
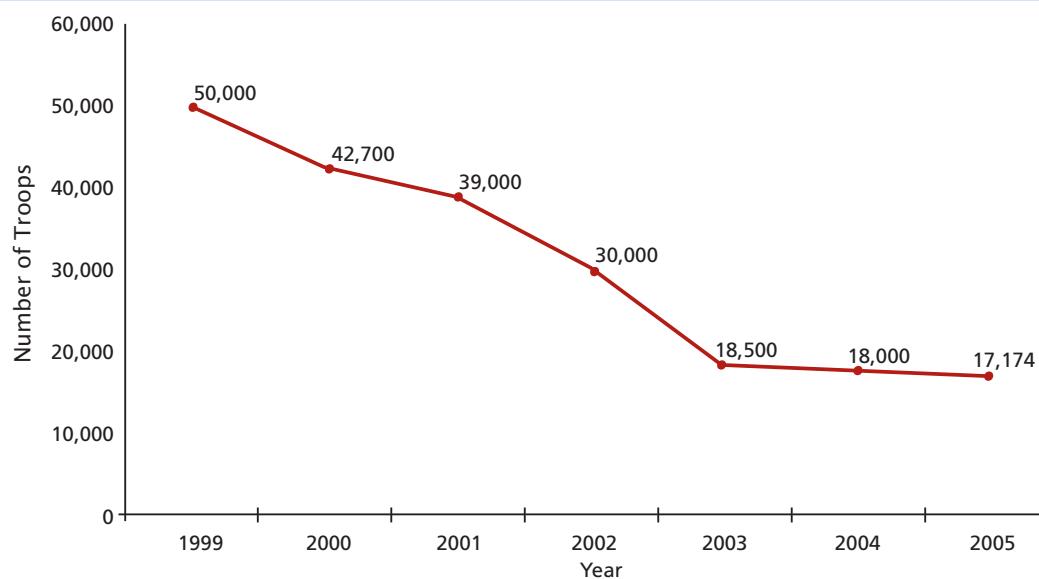
Source: SIPRI Yearbooks 1999–2004 and SIPRI data in this volume.
Note: Figures are for 31 December of each year, except 30 September 2005.

Peacekeepers step in to separate clashing ethnic Albanians and Serbs in Mitrovica, March 2004

anticipated, both international and domestic police had difficulty handling the resulting transfer of authority. UNMIK police were credited with significantly improving the security situation as their deployment gathered pace. But the force proved unwieldy, typically including officers from over fifty countries, with divergent traditions and limited local language skills.[12] They shared little mutual respect with many NATO contingents.

UNMIK police were further hampered by resource problems and a troubled relationship with the nascent KPS. As there had been no domestic police capacity in Kosovo in mid-1999, the mere existence of the KPS was a signal achievement for UNMIK. But while domestic officers started to serve with UNMIK police in late 1999, their training had been brief, and internationals were often inclined to ignore or overrule them. In 2001 it was officially projected that the KPS should take full responsibility for policing in 2006, but this process only advanced after cuts to the budget of UNMIK police in 2003.[13]

Even by 2004, when the KPS numbered 5,000 officers, they largely held subordinate posts, and police stations were still under UNMIK command. Crucially, responding to serious public disorder remained an international responsibility. The KPS lacked riot-trained units in 2004, and its officers were ill equipped to support UNMIK's special police units in this regard. Prior to March 2004, those units typically fielded just under 1,000 personnel (marginally below their original projected strength), in addition to around 350 KFOR gendarmes, involved in patrols and targeting organized crime.

The Intelligence Gap

While the international operations' security resources were thus in decline before March 2004, they were further reduced by another serious shortage: information. From 1999 onward, KFOR was responsible for collecting and distributing political intelligence, while UNMIK field officers provided political reporting—both they and the KPS were involved in

monitoring criminal activity. The International Crisis Group has claimed that both NATO and UNMIK had informal links with the LDK and PDK "intelligence services."[14] But international officials consistently complain of the near impossibility of gathering evidence on politically motivated crimes within the Albanian community.

Whatever the quality of information gathered, its distribution proved problematic. KFOR was reportedly wary of supplying information to UN officials for fear it might leak (possibly through the KPS). Within UNMIK, there was a widely recognized tendency to overoptimistic reporting, and overall joint analysis of material gathered was poor. The international presence failed to predict the March 2004 events despite growing evidence of potential unrest—the violence marked an intelligence failure.

March 2004
Unable to either find a satisfactory solution to defense of the Serb enclaves or effectively

monitor and intervene in internal conflicts within the Albanian community, KFOR and UNMIK proved highly vulnerable when violence struck Kosovo on 17 March 2004. Exactly how well coordinated this uprising was remains disputed, but its roots are clear: in 2003, Kosovo's economic growth had slumped, and with progress toward a political settlement conspicuously absent, Kofi Annan again warned in October 2003 of "an increase in violent incidents aimed against UNMIK law enforcement personnel and property." By the year's end, public satisfaction with UNMIK was below 30 percent.[15]

While the March rioting thus represented a resurgence of violence against the Serb minority (with, as before, a particular focus on the destruction of property), it was also a protest against the international presence in Kosovo. Over 100 UNMIK vehicles were burned. As the rioting unfolded, the flaws inherent in KFOR and UNMIK's posture became clear: many NATO contingents refused to move beyond their set areas of operation (although

Figure 2.2 Public Opinion in Kosovo, 2003–2005
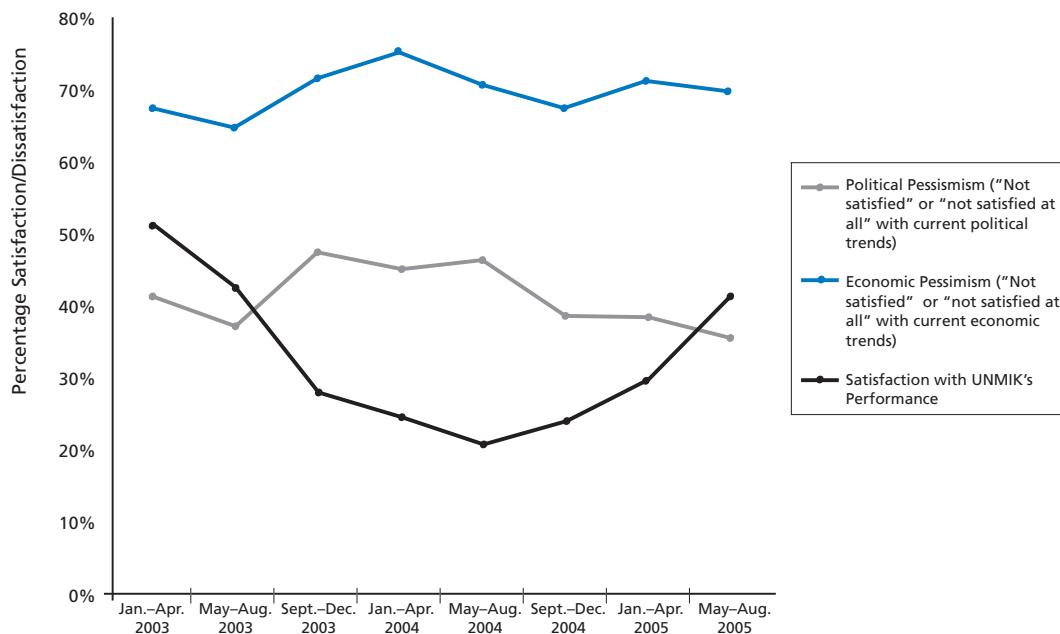
Source: "Early Warning Report" Series (UNDP/USAID).

US forces were now an exception) and retreated to barracks.

UNMIK police had no crisis management structure in place, and while officers adopted ad hoc procedures, its special police units were not deployed strategically. Those that did deploy in the flash point of Mitrovica were outmaneuvered by rioters.

The long-standing failure to define security responsibilities translated into intense friction between KFOR and UNMIK police in many locations, with some NATO troops accused of barring UN officers from acting assertively. While a significant number of KPS members were prepared to engage the rioters, they lacked backing and direction from UNMIK, and their efforts remained incoherent. Having failed to foresee the violence, some KFOR contingents were confused by an inflow of unreliable, alarmist intelligence.

NATO partially compensated for these failings by transferring 3,000 troops from its security force in Bosnia to Kosovo—including additional gendarmerie. But the March events were proof of a troubled transition in terms of the post-1999 security framework. KFOR and UNMIK were inflexible, and Resolution 1244's proposed shift from military to civil security had been undermined by insufficient resources and coordination.

From Violence to Final Status?

The violence over, KFOR attempted to publicize a renewed robustness: prior to assembly elections in October 2004, 360 French parachutists dropped near Pristina. Yet the international presence recognized that new security policies must be tolerable to the Albanian majority. KFOR and UNMIK thus adopted a twin-track approach to security reform. This combined a rapid transition to a KPS-centered security structure with a more proactive political approach to tensions within the Albanian community.

In adopting this new political course, the international presence has enjoyed certain political advantages. First, a new SRSG—Søren

Jessen-Petersen—arrived in June 2004, and his emphasis on political progress has promoted acceptance of (if not affection for) UNMIK. In cooperation with KFOR's incoming commander, Lieutenant-General Yves de Kermabon, he restored high-level coordination within the international community.

For a brief period, UNMIK also found a domestic political partner in Ramush Haradinaj, an anti-PDK KLA veteran and leader of a small party allied to the LDK. Haradinaj became prime minister under President Rugova in December 2004, adopting positive rhetoric and policies toward the Serb minority. However, he was indicted for war crimes in March 2005—his voluntary decision to give himself up to the International Criminal Tribunal in The Hague averted the possibility of renewed violence. The year 2005 also saw the rise of an avowedly peaceful protest movement demanding "Independence, not Negotiations." Overall, the number of violent crimes reported in the first nine months of 2005 stood at 671, only 10 percent above the same period in 2003.[16] Nonetheless, these included a March 2005 attempt to assassinate Rugova, and the last quarter of the year saw a spate of paramilitary roadblocks and intimidation in the west of the province.

A New Security Framework

In late 2004, a memorandum of understanding was drawn up recognizing that the KPS should have primary responsibility for public order, with UNMIK in reserve and KFOR in the last resort. UNMIK has transferred command of police stations to KPS since mid-2005 and developed KPS riot units, of which twenty-two will be functional by 2006 (supplemented by sixteen border police units).[17] Their training and planning emphasized rapid response—over 300 potential targets for violence have been surveyed.

The KPS will expand its role further: some of its riot units are being trained as weapons specialist teams. However, UNMIK and the KPS have emphasized the need to defuse potential violence before it escalates, engaging with protest leaders so as to avoid

provocation. While this has been successful to date, there have been complaints that the KPS has been slow to receive key equipment, including body armor, for budgetary reasons, and serious violence in 2005 would have severely damaged its credibility.

Increasingly a reserve force (in addition to taking a role in monitoring the KPS's performance), UNMIK police shrank from 3,604 officers in mid-2004 to 2,612 a year later. KFOR has maintained its strength at 17,000—increased by 2,000 for the October 2004 elections—and has once again concentrated on flexibility. It has aimed to iron out national caveats on issues such as deployment: one official described this process as "90 percent complete" in September 2005. Structurally, KFOR is moving toward a system of five "task forces" able to operate throughout Kosovo, with rationalized support units.

Concerns remain that a major crisis would divide national contingents anew. Efforts to link the improvement in high-level communication between KFOR and UNMIK with better lower-level coordination are intensifying. Nonetheless, the relationship between the domestic and international security forces may broadly be described as an effort to achieve the transfer of authority to the KPS that faltered before March 2004, combined with a more creative approach to "unfixing." It is not a new strategy, but a more determined implementation of the former concept.

A New Political Framework

It is the second track of activities that represents a greater shift: a multitiered effort to build political consensus on security, while improving information-gathering. Since 2004, both KFOR and UNMIK have been readier to engage with local opinion than before. KFOR has used small groups of troops to gather information on local problems. The OSCE pillar of UNMIK has reached out to hard-line Serb and Albanian groups, such as the KLA "war veterans," formerly excluded from political discussions.

A more formal consultation process has centered on the preparation of the Internal Security Sector Review (ISSR), combined with efforts to give Kosovars ownership over security issues through institutional and political mechanisms. These include new domestic ministries of the interior and justice—formally proposed in June 2005—although efforts to start these up by 1 November 2005 failed. Critics have claimed that this institution-building preempts a decision on Kosovo's status, but UNMIK officials will continue to retain most powers over security affairs in the near term. A phased handover of responsibilities to the ministries through 2006 has been mapped out, conditional on the latter's proving their readiness.

There is public concern that these new bodies will become heavily politicized—with significant implications should they take responsibility for the courts and the KPS. The development of the ministries arguably represents a new phase in competition between the LDK and the PDK. Whereas the international community was previously cut out of that competition, the ministries represent a significant prize. This has been underlined by discussions over whether the interior ministry will have responsibility for a domestic intelligence service, and the question of whether it can and should co-opt members of the LDK and PDK's extralegal intelligence arms. The international community faces the dilemma of bringing them into a legal framework without compromising its credibility.

The OSCE pillar of UNMIK has promoted two governance measures to build public confidence in the reforms. Regarding the KPS, it has proposed the creation of an independent domestic police inspectorate, to be developed in close collaboration with international monitors. Second, it has emphasized the need for Kosovo's assembly to debate and scrutinize the ministries, creating specific committees to track their work. While these may permit transparency, there have been complaints that the OSCE pillar has been poorly informed of the ministries'

French troops with KFOR parachute into Kosovo ahead of October 2004 elections

development and reports of members of the current government lobbying to maximize ministerial autonomy and authority.

These problems have come to overshadow the future of the KPC, which while no longer a center of destabilization, remains a political problem. Although publicly perceived as an army-in-waiting, should Kosovo achieve sovereignty, the KPC's roots in the KLA make it politically sensitive. The international community would prefer to disband the KPC, and shift some of its personnel into a new defense force—although it may not be called an "army," as a gesture to Belgrade, and is unlikely to be more than lightly armed.

While there are thus significant institutional dilemmas to be resolved, UNMIK is also attempting to create a strategic consensus around the institutions through the ISSR. This was launched in June 2005 to promote consultations on the internal security problems Kosovo faces, building domestic political commitment to (and external donor confidence in) the arrangements made to tackle them. It will involve not only political parties but also civil society—including members of the Serb community. But while the ISSR has received considerable publicity, there have been problems in its funding, and some confusion as to how to its consultations and conclusions will affect institutional change.

Despite these difficulties, UNMIK has arguably shifted to a more holistic approach to Kosovo's security. While there was previously a lack of continuity between KFOR's posture, the development of the KPS, and domestic politics, these have now been brought together through the empowerment of the KPS and the related political discussions. Yet concerns remain that the Serb minority have stood apart from this process—and there are fears that its members in the north may turn to violence during the final status talks.

Conclusion

It is too early to say whether Kosovo's new security framework will succeed, and how it

will evolve after final status. Observers increasingly expect the EU, OSCE, and NATO to create a structure similar to that of the Office of the High Representative in Bosnia and Herzegovina. This could both compensate for a lack of domestic institutional capacity and allow continued international oversight of political developments. However, it might continue to encounter significant problems over security reform, as has the international presence in Sarajevo. But the development of KFOR and UNMIK to 2006 does offer broader lessons for public order strategies.

Did the international presence's "defeat" of 2004 derive from flaws in its security posture, or from a political failure to understand and engage with Kosovo Albanian politics? The answer is both. KFOR and UNMIK did not develop a joint posture aimed at the most probable threat after 1999: civil disorder arising within the Albanian community.

In part, this reflected a growing divergence between their expansive mandates and the overall decline in their resources. But even by March 2004, the international presence still fielded a far greater pool of resources than most peace operations today. It was hampered by a lack of strategic coherence within either KFOR or UNMIK, and the decline in communications between them. Kosovo demonstrated the need for hybrid peace missions to develop clear command structures supported by effective contingency planning and intelligence-gathering and distribution (a highly sensitive area for the UN).

In situations such as Kosovo—where threats emerge from irregular, not conventional sources—such planning and intelligence efforts should concentrate on the nexus of criminality, political violence, and potential civil disorder. This is less a matter of robust military activity than an assertive approach to law and order. KFOR attempted to develop a system of military deterrence that was unsuited to a modulated response to public violence—UNMIK and the KPS did not evolve to fill the resulting public security gap. A strategy centered on law enforcement should have been instituted to realize Resolution 1244.

As has been made clear since March 2004, such a strategy requires the involvement of domestic forces and political actors—their probity and loyalty may not always be guaranteed. A more disciplined phased transfer of security responsibilities from the military to international and domestic police might have reduced these uncertainties and permitted their management. A combination of a tough public order framework with political engagement and intelligence activity should allow a peace operation to set the rules of the game for domestic players—and it is through those rules that peace can be maintained.

Notes

1. "Kermabon: There Is No Chance for Another March," *Epoka e Re* (Pristina), 21 December 2004.

2. See, for example, International Crisis Group, *Collapse in Kosovo* (Brussels, 2004) and Human Rights Watch, *Failure to Protect: Anti-Minority Violence in Kosovo, March 2004* (New York, 2004).

3. *Military Technical Agreement Between the International Security Force ("KFOR") and the Governments of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and the Republic of Serbia,* 9 June 1999.

4. UNDP/USAID, Early Warning Report no. 10, 2005; Judy Batt, *The Question of Serbia* (Paris: ISS-EU, 2005), p. 52.

5. For a summary of economic problems, see John Bradley and Gerald Knaus, *Towards a Kosovo Development Plan* (Pristina: ESPIG, 2004).

6. UNDP/USAID, Early Warning Report no. 10.

7. See Nicola Dahrendof et al. *A Review of Peace Operations: A Case for Change* (London: King's College, 2003).

8. See p. 110 in this volume.

9. Saferworld/International Alert, *Small Arms and Light Weapons and Private Security Companies in South East Europe: A Cause or Effect of Insecurity?* (Belgrade: SEESAC, 2005).

10. Elizabeth Becker, "Not Enough Troops in Kosovo, NATO Says," *New York Times,* 26 February 2000.

11. See RAND, *Disjointed War: Military Operations in Kosovo, 1999* (Washington, D.C., 2002).

12. Gordon Peake, *Policing the Peace: Police Reform Experiences in Kosovo, Southern Serbia, and Macedonia* (London: Saferworld, 2004).

13. Ibid.

14. International Crisis Group, *Kosovo After Haradinaj* (Brussels, 2005).

15. UNDP/USAID, Early Warning Report no. 7, 2004.

16. UNDP/USAID, Early Warning Report no. 10.

17. OSCE staff report that, by the end of November 2005, 1,655 KPS members had received civil disorder training, including command-level officers.

3 Mission Reviews

3.1

Sudan

The year 2005 was an extraordinary one for Sudan. A comprehensive peace agreement (CPA), signed in January, brought to an end two and a half years of intensive negotiations and a war that dates back to 1955. A major new United Nations operation, the UN Mission in Sudan (UNMIS) was established to support implementation of that agreement. Meanwhile, the brutal conflict in Darfur led to the deployment of the African Union's second-ever peace operation. Established as an observer mission in 2004, the African Union Mission in Sudan (AMIS) grew to a major operation of almost 7,000 by the end of October 2005, just as the situation there took a significant turn for the worse. The challenge posed by the multiple conflicts in Sudan is a test of the ability of the UN, the AU, and a host of others to work cohesively to see a fragile and lengthy peace process through to its conclusion.

Background

The conflict between north and south began in 1955 and has continued for all but eleven of the forty-nine years of Sudan's independence. For two decades, the Sudan People's Liberation Movement/Army (SPLM/A) fought the government over a range of issues: resources, power, national identity, and self-determination. Over 2 million people died, 4 million were uprooted, and some 600,000 people fled the country as refugees.

The Machakos Protocol of July 2002, brokered by the Inter-Governmental Authority on Development (IGAD), set forth a framework for peace, culminating in a referendum on self-determination for the south after a six-year interim period. That protocol was followed by agreements on security arrangements, wealth-sharing, power-sharing, and resolution of the conflicts in Southern Kordofan, the Blue Nile States, and Abyei. In June 2004, peace seemed to be just around the corner, but it took until 9 January 2005 to finalize the CPA.

The National Congress Party (NCP) government of Sudan and the SPLM/A (two political-military elites) saw the CPA as a way out of a prolonged stalemate that was gradually eroding their own political authority. Through the CPA, the south is granted a significant degree of autonomy for the interim period, followed by the option of full independence, while the NCP retains its dominance in the national government and continues to apply Islamic (Sharia) law in the north—at least until national elections that must be held before 2009. However, many other political parties and armed groups were not part of the CPA negotiations. For the agreement to fully succeed, the legitimate demands of the marginalized peoples these groups claim to represent (in Darfur, the east, and elsewhere) must be reconciled with the need to preserve the will of the elites within the CPA parties to sustain the process.

In Darfur, a violent conflict and humanitarian crisis has been unfolding since February 2003. A group called the Darfur Liberation Front (DLF) took up arms against government forces to protest against many years of political and economic marginalization. Rebranded the Sudan Liberation Movement/Army (SLM/A),

the DLF announced the launch of an armed rebellion in March and was soon joined by other groups including the Justice and Equality Movement (JEM) and the National Movement for Reform and Development (NMRD). The government of Sudan reacted by mobilizing tribal militias widely described as "janjaweed." Resource disputes contributed to the escalation of the situation, with various groups seeking to take advantage of the conflict by claiming land or livestock of rival tribes. Tens of thousands were killed in fighting or died from hunger and disease in Darfur. By the middle of 2005, almost 3.4 million of the region's 6 million inhabitants were "conflict affected," 1.8 million of whom were internally displaced, mainly as a result of raids on villages by the janjaweed militias.

The Security Council adopted a number of resolutions on the situation in Darfur, including Resolution 1556 in July 2004, which welcomed a joint communiqué between the government of Sudan and UN Secretary-General that set out a number of steps the government was required to take. In September 2004 the Security Council established an International Commission of Inquiry to determine whether genocide was being committed in Darfur. In its January 2005 report, the commission concluded that the government had not pursued a policy of genocide, although "in some instances individuals . . . may commit acts with genocidal intent. Whether this was the case in Darfur, however, is a determination that only a competent court can make on a case by case basis."[1] The report added that the crimes against humanity and war crimes that were committed may be "no less serious and heinous than genocide." The commission gave the Secretary-General a sealed file of names of fifty-one people believed to be responsible, and recommended that the Security Council refer the matter to the International Criminal Court (ICC). After some initial resistance by the United States, Russia, and China, the Council did so on 31 March 2005, and the Secretary-General gave the list of names to the prosecutor on 6 April. The Council also

adopted a sanctions regime under Resolution 1591, targeted at individuals who impede the peace process, commit atrocities, or violate the arms embargo that had been imposed in mid-2004.

With UN support, the AU took the lead in negotiating a series of agreements, including the N'djamena Agreement of April 2004, the Addis Ababa Agreement of May 2004, and the Abuja Protocols of November 2004. Together, they call for a halt to the violence, establishment of a cease-fire commission, and deployment of an AU observer mission. The Abuja Protocols set out a number of broad principles that became the basis for

Map No. 4255.10 UNITED NATIONS
October 2005

Department of Peacekeeping Operations
Cartographic Section

UN Mission in Sudan (UNMIS)

- Resolution passage and date of effect   24 March 2005 (UNSC Res. 1590)
- SRSG   Jan Pietar Pronk (Netherlands)
- Force commander   Major-General Fazle Elahi Akbar (Bangladesh)
- Police commissioner   Glenn Gilbertson (United Kingdom)
- Budget $956.81 million (1 July 2005–30 June 2006)
- Strength as of 31 October 2005   Troops: 3,519
  Military observers: 228
  Civilian police: 168
  International civilian staff: 496
  Local civilian staff: 881
  UN volunteers: 66

on-and-off talks between the parties over the year in review, which resulted in a further declaration of principles in July 2005.

Mission Mandate and Deployment

UNMIS was established by the Security Council in March 2005 with a mandate to support implementation of the CPA by monitoring the cease-fire and redeployment of armed groups, assisting in the establishment of a disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR) program, promoting political inclusiveness, assisting with restructuring police and rule of law institutions, monitoring human rights, supporting elections and referenda, and facilitating the return of refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs). The mandate is entirely under Chapter VI, other than the standard language on the protection of UN personnel and equipment, other international personnel, and civilians under imminent threat in its "areas of deployment and as it deems within its capabilities," which is under Chapter VII. The resolution also imposes the model status-of-forces agreement (SOFA), pending agreement on a specific SOFA that had still not been signed by the end of October 2005.

By the end of October, UNMIS had reached about 35 percent of its authorized strength of almost 10,715 military and police. It was deployed throughout its area of operations, though thinly in the south. The top troop contributors were Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Egypt, Nepal, Zambia, and Rwanda. About half of the civilian staff (international and national) were on the ground, performing a range of political, human rights, governance-related, and humanitarian tasks.

Planning for UNMIS benefited from the Department of Peacekeeping Operations's (DPKO) participation in the political negotiations, a long lead time, the deployment of the UN Advance Mission in Sudan (UNAMIS) in June 2004, and the participation of the Standby High-Readiness Brigade for UN Operations (SHIRBRIG). Nevertheless, the planning process ended in a rushed final effort. Unexpected and extensive responsibilities in Darfur, combined with engagement in the sensitive north–south negotiations and planning for a major UN operation in a huge country, meant the mission was simply spread too thin. Moreover the initial reluctance of both parties to accept a large UN presence delayed consultations with troop contributors for UNMIS, setting back the timetable for deployment.

UNMIS is in essence a consent-based, multidimensional operation designed to assist the parties on a wide range of military and civilian tasks, but not to do the work of peace and governance for them. It is led by Special Representative of the Secretary-General (SRSG) Jan Pronk, and aims to be a "unified mission" with common goals, an obligation to consult and share information, and common decision-making according to a specified chain of command. Success in "unifying" the mission was mixed, due partly to the lack of a corresponding unified approach between parts of the UN at the higher level.

The African Union Monitoring Mission in Sudan (AUMIS) was originally deployed in June 2004 as a mission of 60 observers and a protection force of 300. In October of that year, reports of continued attacks on civilians and

Young boy in front of an armored vehicle of the African Mission in Sudan (AMIS), Darfur, December 2004

African Union Mission in Sudan (AMIS)	
• Authorization date	28 May 2004 (Agreement with Sudanese Parties) 30 July 2004 (UNSC Res. 1556)
• Start date	June 2004
• Head of mission	Baba Gana Kingibe (Nigeria)
• Budget as of 30 September 2005	—
• Strength as of 30 September 2005	Troops: 4,855 Military observers: 650 Civilian police: 1,222

restrictions on the movement of humanitarian workers prompted the AU Peace and Security Council to enhance the force to over 3,000 and give it a stronger mandate. The expanded mission (which by then was called AMIS) was based on plans drawn up in August with extensive assistance from the UN. Its new mandate included help to create "a secure environment for the delivery of humanitarian relief and, beyond that, the return of IDPs and refugees to their homes." The mission was also tasked with protecting civilians "under imminent threat and in the immediate vicinity" within the limits of its resources and capabilities. It was authorized to deploy proactively to areas where trouble was expected, "in order to deter armed groups from committing hostile acts against the population," and not just in response to reports of violations. The option of a mixed UN/AU protection force was considered at the time, but AU determination to score a success in Darfur dovetailed with the government of Sudan's opposition to non-African troops and the unwillingness of Western countries to make the necessary material and political commitments. There were also genuine concerns about the technical feasibility of such an operation.

Following an AU-led assessment mission in March 2005, AMIS was expanded again to a total of 6,171 military personnel and 1,586 civilian police. A later expansion of AMIS to 12,300 troops in a third phase was contemplated at the time, but less was heard of that as the year wore on. The mission had reached close to its full strength by the end of October. The largest troop-contributing countries are Rwanda, Nigeria, and South Africa, with further contributions by Senegal, Gambia, and Kenya.

Key Developments and Challenges

Implementation of the CPA has made slow but steady progress. On 9 March 2005 a government–SPLM joint national transition team went to work in preparing for the establishment of governments at the national, southern-Sudan, and state/regional levels. In mid-April, a south–south dialogue was organized to bring together political leaders and representatives of civil society. June saw a second south–south dialogue, as well as an agreement by the National Democratic Alliance (an umbrella opposition group) to participate in implementation of the CPA. On 8 July, former SPLM leader John Garang arrived in Khartoum, to take up the position of first vice president under President Omar al-Bashir, with Ali Osman Taha serving as second vice president. The interim national constitution was signed the next day. Garang's untimely death

on 30 July precipitated a brief spasm of violence, but the quick and relatively smooth succession of Salva Kiir to leadership of the SPLM and vice presidency enabled the creation of a government of national unity on 23 September, and the new legislature for South Sudan was inaugurated on 30 September. The SRSG and a cadre of advisers were actively engaged on a political level and through good offices to support these developments.

Nevertheless, the Sudanese peace process is fragile. The challenge of political inclusiveness at the national level was graphically illustrated by the difficulties encountered in forming the National Constitutional Review Commission in April. The CPA formula for allocating seats had to be altered to accommodate the main opposition groups, who felt they were underrepresented. Even then, most northern groups boycotted the process, and the Darfur rebels and eastern Sudanese insurgents distanced themselves. The limited national consensus behind the new constitution was underlined by the formation in June 2005 of a second opposition alliance, headed by the Umma Party and Popular Congress of Hassan el-Turabi.[2]

Meanwhile in the south, the establishment of governance institutions is proving to be a major challenge, partly due to a woeful lack of resources. Militias armed by the government during the war and grouped under the umbrella South Sudan Defense Force (SSDF) form a sizable military presence that was not involved in negotiating the CPA and has considerable spoiler potential. The SPLM/A itself has a history of factionalism and has found it difficult to make the transition from an autocratic guerrilla army to a more inclusive political organization. The succession of Salva Kiir galvanized the south–south dialogue process intended to smooth divisions. But it remains to be seen whether he can deliver on high hopes for southern reconciliation. Meanwhile, precisely what fuels hopes for southern reconciliation—Kiir's historical position in favor of secession—raises concerns in the north. Garang's death may mark a shift in the SPLM away from the "New

Sudan–make unity attractive" vision he championed, which has also prompted doubts about how helpful the SPLM could be in resolving the Darfur conflict.

Throughout the year, UNMIS struggled to build up the mission after a slow start. By October 2005, military and civilian elements were deployed throughout the south to monitor security elements of the CPA and in support of the fledgling government of South Sudan. Capacity building in policing, rule of law, and human rights gradually stepped up, while work in demining and returns was beginning to exhibit more tangible dividends. Meanwhile, the mission is providing good offices to facilitate conflict resolution in Abyei and the east—two flash points and test cases for the government of national unity. And it supported AMIS and the AU, politically, operationally, and with a human rights and humanitarian presence in Darfur.

UNMIS's mandate allows for a robust approach in the name of protecting civilians, in areas where it is deployed. However, its ability to do more than deal with minor disturbances in its immediate vicinity is questionable. Even when the mission reaches full strength, it will have neither the mandate nor the capacity to deal with a major breakdown in security. The gamble is that the incentives for both the government of Sudan and SPLM/A to implement the CPA, combined with a substantial UNMIS presence and other forms of pressure, will be enough both to keep the main parties on board and to bring in or neutralize the various groups who might otherwise undermine the peace process. The risks of such an approach are evident; less evident is what the alternatives are.

While AMIS contributed to security and protection of civilians in Darfur, the situation there fluctuated dramatically throughout the year. January 2005 saw a peak in violence, but even this was markedly down from mid-2004, and by late summer there were fewer militia attacks, a decline in confirmed deaths, and greater humanitarian access. However, in October 2005 the UN Secretary-General reported an "alarming deterioration" in the security situation in all three Darfur states.[3] What had been a high level of banditry

and violence took on a more overtly political character. Attacks and counterattacks by government forces, government-aligned militias, and the armed rebel movements led to numerous deaths, injuries, human rights violations, sexual violence, abduction of children, and newly created IDPs. The Secretary-General was especially troubled by the government's record. Never having made a serious effort to disarm the janjaweed and other armed outlaw groups, it now seemed government forces had triggered some of the incidents and were supporting the militias in their violence. The SLM/A also initiated some of the attacks, suggesting that both sides were acting in blatant violation of their obligations. As disturbing, and also confusing the picture, attacks by the janjaweed against government forces and a growing divide within the SLM/A indicated a general descent into unrestrained violence. In his November report, the Secretary-General described a continuation of this trend, worrying that "the looming threat of complete lawlessness and anarchy draws nearer, particularly in western Darfur, as warlords, bandits and militia groups grow more aggressive."[4]

The Darfur political process, meanwhile, proceeded haltingly. There were encouraging developments in July 2005 when the Abuja Declaration of Principles was signed to shape future negotiations on unity, religion, power-sharing, wealth-sharing, security arrangements, and land use and ownership. But the sixth and seventh rounds of Abuja talks, in September and November respectively, were hamstrung by splits and internal power struggles within the participating rebel groups.

AMIS itself did not have an easy time of it in 2005. NATO, the EU, and bilateral donors provided operational support, though institutional rivalries involving NATO, the EU, the UN, and the AU complicated the situation. Equipment shortages, combined with intelligence and communications problems, were an obstacle to operational efficiency. The mission itself was a target of attacks in 2005, first in March and April and then again in September–October, when five African Union peacekeepers were killed, three wounded, and some forty taken hostage. There were also reports of the government painting its military vehicles in the white colors of the AU's cease-fire monitors during attacks in North Darfur. A general increase in attacks on international aid workers prompted the UN to announce on 13 October that all nonessential staff would be withdrawn from the region.

Darfur represents an enormous challenge for the AU. While the international community continues to hope for consent to its activities—through the Abuja talks and on the ground—the ferocious collapse of the situation in the fall of 2005 suggested that hope may be in vain. New forms of pressure began to build in June through the start of ICC investigations and the work of the panel of experts set up under Resolution 1591. AMIS has a mandate to act robustly to provide security and protect civilians, and its presence and active patrolling in and around IDP camps made a tangible difference in the summer. But events toward the end of the year raised questions about its capacity to respond to widespread and systematic violence. Maximizing the capabilities of the AMIS personnel was seen as a necessary step. Beyond that, serious consideration was being given to the idea of the UN establishing a mission in Darfur sometime in the year 2006, perhaps taking over from the AU.

As the year drew to a close, the intertwined challenges facing UNMIS and AMIS were plentiful. They concerned foot-dragging by the National Congress Party on the "sharing" principles embodied in the CPA, how to deal with marginalized opposition groups throughout the country, and the slow buildup of southern civic governance institutions. Meanwhile, questions about what the AU, the UN, and others could do to address the badly deteriorating situation in Darfur had reached a new level of urgency.

Notes

1. International Commission of Inquiry, *Report of the International Commission of Inquiry on Darfur to the United Nations Secretary-General,* 5 January 2005, para. 641.

2. International Crisis Group, *The Khartoum-SPLM Agreement: Sudan's Uncertain Peace,* Africa Report no. 96, 25 July 2005, p. 4.

3. United Nations, *Monthly Report of the Secretary-General on Darfur, Sudan,* S/2005/650, 14 October 2005.

4. United Nations, *Monthly Report of the Secretary-General on Darfur, Sudan* S/2005/719, 16 November 2005.

Haiti

Haiti had a difficult year in 2005, and the UN Stabilization Mission in Haiti (MINUSTAH) a challenging one. A fluctuating security situation saw signs of improvement in the latter half of the year, while elections were repeatedly delayed. MINUSTAH's more robust approach opened greater access to some of Port-au-Prince's poorest and most dangerous neighborhoods, but the level of political and criminal violence, including almost daily kidnappings, remained deeply disturbing. Little progress was made in reforming the corrupt Haitian National Police and even less in reforming the judiciary. At the start of the year, Haiti was described by many as a "failing state"; twelve months later it is a somewhat safer place, but one whose future is far from secure.

Background

MINUSTAH is the latest in a series of six UN peace operations in Haiti, dating back to the UN Mission in Haiti (UNMIH) in 1995, which succeeded the US-led multinational force that saw President Jean-Bertrand Aristide's return to power in 1994. Between then and 2000, the Haitian army was formally abolished and a measure of democracy was restored, but owing to the continuing political crisis and concomitant lack of stability in the country, self-sustaining institutions and economic development never took hold. President Aristide claimed victory in delayed elections in the year 2000, with a turnout of barely 10 percent of the voters. The other parties contested the results and, when dialogue with the government broke down in late 2003, a newly united opposition movement began calling for the president's resignation.

The political stalemate erupted in armed conflict in the city of Gonaïves in February 2004. Insurgents took control of much of the northern part of the country, and threatened to march on the Haitian capital. Under pressure from the United States and France, President Aristide signed a letter of resignation on 29 February, and left the country on a US-chartered plane for the Central African Republic under circumstances that remain a source of tension. In response to a request from the interim president, the UN Security Council authorized a US-led Multinational Interim Force (MIF) in March and declared its readiness to establish a follow-on UN stabilization force three months later. A Haitian Council of Eminent Persons appointed Gerard Latortue

UN Stabilization Mission in Haiti (MINUSTAH)

- Resolution passage   30 April 2004 (UNSC Res. 1542)
- Start date   1 June 2004
- SRSG   Juan Gabriel Valdés (Chile)
- Acting force commander   General Aldunate Eduardo Herman (Chile)
- Police commissioner   Richard Graham Muir (Canada)
- Budget $506.15 million (1 July 2005–30 June 2006)
- Strength as of   Troops: 7,273
  31 October 2005   Civilian police: 1,594
  International civilian staff: 438
  Local civilian staff: 469
  UN volunteers: 160

prime minister of a transitional government. He formed a thirteen-member government shortly thereafter, composed mainly of individuals from the private sector and nongovernmental organization (NGOs)—a supposedly "technocratic" body that excluded most political parties, including Fanmi Lavalas, the party of Aristide. The transitional government signed a pact with most political parties (but not Lavalas), civil society groups, and the Council of Eminent Persons, setting out a series of steps to be taken during the transitional period, which was to culminate with the installation of a newly elected president in February 2006.

Mission Mandate and Deployment

MINUSTAH formally took over from the 3,700-strong MIF on 1 June 2004. Rehatting the Chilean and Canadian contingents facilitated the handover and, while the latter withdrew at the end of July, the Chileans remained part of the new mission. Brazil took over command of the operation, supplying 1,200 troops as well as the force commander. Substantial contingents from Argentina, Uruguay, Sri Lanka, Jordan, and Nepal followed, as well as smaller contingents from Peru, Spain, Morocco, the Philippines, Ecuador, and Guatemala. Meanwhile, Jordan, Nepal, Pakistan,

the Philippines, and Senegal were supplying formed police units at the end of 2005, and individual police officers came from over thirty countries. Over one thousand international and national civilians also staff MINUSTAH.

The pace of deployment of MINUSTAH was slow. By mid-August 2004, less than half of the authorized troops and a quarter of the police were on the ground. By November 2004 the mission was able to deploy throughout the country, but it took until February 2005 for it to get close to full strength. The slow deployment was exploited by the former Haitian military, who occupied abandoned police stations in August and September and contributed to serious waves of violence and criminality that did not subside until the end of 2004.

A Security Council mission to Haiti in April 2005 identified a need for additional police and military resources. The Secretary-General recommended and the Council approved an expansion of the military component to 7,500 and the police to 1,897. A new battalion joined the mission in October and a "force commander's reserve"—designed to serve as a quick reaction force—was expected before the end of the year, along with a new formed police unit and 200 individual police officers.

MINUSTAH's mandate is based on a combined reading of Resolutions 1542 (2004) and 1608 (2005). While detailed, it straddles the line between assigning a purely assistance role to MINUSTAH and authorizing a more proactive, interventionist approach. The ambivalence is largely a result of difference of opinion in the Security Council. The effect is to give the UN Secretariat and mission considerable discretion to interpret the mandate in a manner that strikes an appropriate balance between deference to local authorities and taking independent action to ensure its objectives are achieved. That balance evolved throughout 2005, tipping toward the end of the year in the direction of a more proactive approach in view of Haiti's dire security situation, weak state institutions, and the unwillingness of the transitional government to act

as a true partner to MINUSTAH in pushing the peace process forward.

The operative words in Resolution 1542 are largely facilitative, but the key security provision is under Chapter VII of the UN Charter. It mandates MINUSTAH to "support" the transitional government in providing a secure environment, and to "assist" with the disarmament of armed groups and the maintenance of public safety and public order. MINUSTAH is also authorized to act forcefully to protect UN personnel, as well as civilians under imminent threat of physical violence, "within the mission's capabilities and areas of deployment, without prejudice to the responsibilities of the Transitional Government and of police authorities." With the abolition of the army, the only security institution in Haiti for MINUSTAH to support and assist in these functions is the Haitian National Police, a notoriously ineffective body. Resolution 1608 reaffirmed MINUSTAH's authority to "vet and certify" the HNP, implying a more proactive role in reforming the institution.

Given Haiti's turbulent history, the need to ensure credible elections was a priority for the mission, and occupied the Special Representative of the Secretary General (SRSG) and civilian staff for much of the year. The Organization of American States (OAS) Special Mission for Strengthening Democracy in Haiti is mandated by the OAS General Assembly to assist in the preparation of elections, in cooperation with MINUSTAH. A memorandum between the two organizations assigns principal responsibility for voter registration to the OAS, while MINUSTAH is tasked with supervising all aspects of the electoral process and with providing security.

In addition, MINUSTAH was tasked by Resolution 1542 with helping the transitional government to initiate a broad-based "national dialogue" among civil society as well as the political parties. And in collaboration with UN Development Programme (UNDP) and bilateral donors, MINUSTAH assisted the transitional government in extending state authority throughout Haiti and sought to foster

OAS Special Mission for Strengthening Democracy in Haiti	
• Authorization date	16 January 2002 (OAS Permanent Council Decision CP/Res. 806); 6–8 June 2004 (OAS General Assembly, A/Res. 2058, amended)
• Start date	June 2004
• Head of mission	Ambassador Denneth Modeste (Grenada)
• Budget as of 30 September 2005	$15 million
• Strength as of 30 September 2005	Civilian police: 6 Civilian staff: 24

decentralization and good governance at all levels of government.

The overarching goal of MINUSTAH's justice function is to promote human rights and renovate justice institutions. Small teams of human rights officers deployed in ten regions monitored the dismal human rights situation, undertook investigations, and sought to build local capacity, both in official institutions and among NGOs. Resolution 1542 gave MINUSTAH a rather weak mandate to "develop a strategy" for reform of the judiciary, which was upgraded by Resolution 1608 to take a more active role in rebuilding the dysfunctional court and correctional systems.

Finally, MINUSTAH has humanitarian and development functions, on both an emergency and a more long-term basis. An "interim cooperation framework" was developed with the transitional government and a range of bilateral and multilateral donors, focusing on four priority areas: strengthening political governance, strengthening economic governance, promoting economic recovery, and improving access to basic services.

Key Developments and Challenges

Security

Broadly speaking, there were two types of security threats in Haiti in 2005—politically motivated violence and criminality. Drawing

Brazilian forces with MINUSTAH, in Bel Air, Port-au-Prince with the Presidential Palace in the background, February 2005.

a sharp line between the two is impossible, as political actors often used armed gangs for their purposes, who in turn benefited from the political associations and instability their activities create. Many of the gangs are embedded in local communities or operate among civilians crowded into the poorest districts of Port-au-Prince. Adding to the complexity, some of the violence springs not from a desire to spoil the peace process, but rather from the chronic poverty and social deprivation that has afflicted Haiti for years.

Resolutions 1542 and 1608 stipulate that MINUSTAH's security functions are largely "in support of the Transitional Government," which in practical terms means in support of the Haitian National Police. Yet the HNP was too small, unreliable, politicized, and corrupt to function effectively as a law enforcement agency, and indeed elements of the HNP were accused of human rights violations and criminal violence. Thus a central dilemma for MINUSTAH was how to provide operational

support to the HNP, while trying to turn it into a professional, rights-respecting law enforcement agency. Joint operations and "co-location" was one solution, but that exposed the mission to criticism for being associated with improper acts by the HNP.

In the first half of 2005, there were sharp differences of opinion within the mission—and Security Council—as to how robustly MINUSTAH should act. One significant security threat was neutralized early in the year when the mission took action against the former military (ex-FAd'H) who had illegally occupied the residence of Aristide and police stations outside Port-au-Prince. The threat could reemerge during elections, but the death of self-proclaimed leader Ravix Remissainthe on 9 April meant that the immediate threat from the ex-FAd'H had diminished.

In the summer of 2005, MINUSTAH adopted a robust approach in the slums of Port-au-Prince. A series of small actions in June culminated in a major operation in Cité Soleil on 6 July that reportedly led to the death of Emmanuel ("Dread") Wilme, a dominant gang leader. Hundreds of Brazilian, Jordanian, Peruvian, and Uruguayan troops were involved, as well as the Chinese formed police unit. Around the same time, cordon and search operations began in Bel Air, leading to the release of several kidnapped hostages. MINUSTAH then established a permanent presence and conducted highly visible mobile patrols, providing enough of a deterrent for a degree of normalcy to return to this once gang-dominated area. Voter registration and the delivery of some humanitarian and development assistance became possible. The security operations even had incidental benefits for the disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR) program—which made little progress throughout the year—by intimidating a limited number of gang members into handing over their arms. In mid-November, similar tactics were employed in Cité Militaire, and plans were in place to do the same in Cité Soleil, though embedded in civilian confidence-building measures as described below.

Many of the security operations were joint MINUSTAH military–police undertakings, highlighting an issue that has arisen in a number of peace operations in recent years and is addressed in the first chapter of this volume: Is the security work to be done fundamentally a police or military job? If what begins as a military function can be taken over by the police, what are the appropriate conditions and modalities for such a takeover? MINUSTAH has seven formed police units of about 125 each who straddle this divide. Arguably, an even larger police force could assume the entire burden in the Haitian countryside, at least after the military had established "umbrella" security. With more limited numbers, many security functions are inevitably shared by the military and police, requiring a high degree of coordination and a progressive transfer of responsibility. Accordingly, a sector headquarters was set up in Port-au-Prince in October to ensure better-integrated operations. Nevertheless, divergent understandings about the respective roles of the two forces meant that poor coordination continued to plague the mission as the end of the year approached.

Political

In April 2005 the Security Council mission to Haiti described the country as being in a state of "deep political, social and economic crisis." The establishment in that month of a twelve-member commission to prepare a national dialogue looked like a positive step, but it led nowhere and by the end of the year most of the political class remained as distant from the Haitian population as ever. Elections were scheduled for the last quarter of 2005 and important steps were taken early in the year with the reconstitution of the Provisional Electoral Council, but that body quickly became paralyzed. Prospects for credible elections looked dim until August, when Lavalas joined the process and put forward a presidential candidate, Mark Bazin. Former Lavalas president Rene Preval also threw his hat in the ring. This, combined with registration of some forty-five other political parties, more than thirty presidential candidates, and 3.4 million voters, generated confidence that inclusive elections could be held in early 2006, even if the original timetable was not met.

Unfortunately, the transitional government did not take all the steps necessary for elections to be held on time, despite a ministerial-level meeting of the core group designed to impress upon the government the importance of doing so. Elections were delayed four times, until a date of 8 January 2006 for presidential and legislative elections was agreed on, with run-off elections on 15 February. While this meant that the 7 February 2006 constitutional deadline for swearing in a new president would not be met, most observers—including many Haitians and the UN—felt the brief delay was worthwhile if it resulted in a credible process. However, the announcement of a further delay in late December risked provoking a crisis of confidence in the entire process. That the transition did not unravel entirely during the year was due in large measure to the active good offices of the SRSG, who worked hard to keep the process on track by reaching out to all parties in Haiti as well as the core group of supporting governments and institutions that have some leverage over those parties.

Justice

Haiti's historical culture of impunity remained pervasive throughout the year in review, marked by arbitrary arrest, wrongful detention, inhumane prison conditions, and excessive use of force. Former prime minister Yvon Neptune, arrested in June 2004, was still in prison at the end of October 2005, without having been charged or brought before a judge. Elements of the HNP were involved in criminal violence, including credible reports of summary executions. Violence against children, including sexual violence, continued to be reported in the slums of Port-au-Prince.

Reform of the HNP saw little progress throughout the year, although about 4,000 of the projected need of 10,000 officers were on the streets. The HNP was incapable of exercising public security functions over the entire country,

People wait in line to register to vote while a UN peacekeeper from Sri Lanka stands guard in Port-au-Prince, Haiti, July 2005

owing to insufficient numbers and money, lack of adequate training and equipment, and corruption. As the end of the year approached, MINUSTAH became more active in developing a reform plan, which would include a vetting and certification process, but by the end of October 2005 the HNP was still a long way from being a professional police force.

As for the judiciary, it lacked independence, magistrates often worked two jobs, prisoners received no legal aid, and corruption was widespread. The arrival of a new minister of justice in the middle of the year led to some preliminary attempts to address the problems, but tangible evidence of progress was hard to find. Resolution 1608 calls for MINUSTAH to play a more active role in rebuilding justice institutions, and an advisory team outlined a possible strategy for reform in an October 2005 report. It was apparent that real progress would require greater involvement of international personnel throughout the system, working side-by-side with magistrates and other justice officials.

Economic Recovery

Poverty is among the root causes of much of the unrest and violence in Haiti. Pledged funds for economic recovery were slow to begin flowing, but the situation had improved by October 2005. MINUSTAH approved ninety-eight quick-impact projects during the fiscal year 2004–2005. Moreover, the improved security situation created by MINUSTAH's more robust approach opened windows of opportunity for humanitarian assistance and community development projects, as well as small-scale DDR. Toward the end of the year, plans were under way for an initiative in Cité Soleil that would reinforce the interrelationship between security and economic recovery. Confidence-building measures by civilian actors would be matched by a substantial security presence, which in turn would create space for more civilian activities, generating a sense of hope among the population and isolating the gangs. More broadly, the development of an economic fiscal base that can sustain national institutions remains an enormous challenge.

* * *

MINUSTAH struggled over the course of the year to coordinate its activities. An integrated approach is especially important in a place like Haiti, where security, politics, justice, and development are so closely intertwined. Relatively new peacekeeping countries like Brazil and China are participating in the mission, and unprecedented relationships between the various components are being tested. Mission integration improved toward the end of 2005 as

MINUSTAH established a joint operations center and a multidisciplinary joint mission analysis cell to enhance the analytical basis on which policy decisions are made. A mandate implementation plan was produced with the active participation of all units in the mission, setting out strategic objectives, time-bound programs, and benchmarks on how to achieve those objectives. If MINUSTAH were to take a more proactive, hands-on posture—in the security, electoral, and justice areas—a tightly coordinated approach would be essential.

Box 3.2.1 Colombia

In addition to its presence in Haiti, the Organization of American States (OAS) has maintained a Mission to Support the Peace Process in Colombia (known by its Spanish acronym, MAPP) since February 2004. The MAPP was mandated by the OAS Permanent Council to assist the Colombian government's efforts to demobilize and disarm the country's main right-wing paramilitary force, the United Self-Defense Forces of Columbia (AUC). MAPP has been subjected to frequent criticism by local and international NGOs, and the OAS Secretary-General admitted in October 2005 that "essentially because of scarce resources, the Organization is not fulfilling all the commitments it accepted." Nonetheless, the mission has verified the disarmament

of over 8,000 paramilitaries, more than half its preliminary target.

MAPP was set up after the AUC declared a cease-fire in December 2003. Although it reportedly breached this almost immediately, the government agreed that the AUC leadership should maintain a force of 400 men in a zone of location in southwest Colombia. The MAPP has offices in the zone and four other regional centers in addition to its Bogotá headquarters. But with an overall complement of 44 civilian personnel, most of its offices are typically staffed by only two to four personnel. Although their mandate includes not only verifying disarmament but working with ex-paramilitaries and affected communities, they have focused almost entirely on the former.

From mid-2004 onward, this narrow interpretation of the mandate has been criticized by Colombian civil society, and the mission's head has warned that many demobilized paramilitaries are slipping into crime. AUC cease-fire violations have continued. While the OAS Secretary-General has argued that the operation's staff should be more than doubled to 100, it will continue to face broad challenges deriving from political instability and Colombia's drug trade, in which the AUC has been a prominent player for over two decades.

Côte d'Ivoire

Despite the efforts of a relatively large and active United Nations peacekeeping operation, backed by France's Security Council–authorized Operation Licorne, the situation in Côte d'Ivoire remains precarious. The year 2005 saw a resurgence of violence, little progress in disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration, and failure to achieve political deadlines outlined in the Linas-Marcoussis Agreement. The country remains divided, the economy is in decline, human rights abuses are widespread, and the elections scheduled for 30 October 2005 have been postponed for up to a year. Against this backdrop of noncompliance and political fragmentation, the UN Operation in Côte d'Ivoire (UNOCI) and Operation Licorne have accomplished more than could reasonably be expected, yet less than needed and desired. In June 2005 the Security Council extended the mandates of both operations through January 2006. Meanwhile, intensive mediation efforts continued to help resolve the contentious issues blocking progress in the peace process.

Background

Côte d'Ivoire, the world's largest cocoa producer, under the leadership of Félix Houphouët-Boigny, saw prosperity from independence in 1960 until a global downturn in commodities prices, and corruption and mismanagement, started an economic decline in the 1990s. Following the death of Houphouët-Boigny in 1993, his handpicked successor, Henri Konan Bédié, attempted to consolidate power by emphasizing a concept of "Ivoirité" (Ivorian nationality), designed to target his rival Alassane Ouattara. This began to inflame tensions between the significant, long-term emigrant population from West African states, especially Burkina Faso and Mali, and the native Ivorians.

CÔTE D'IVOIRE

MALI

BURKINA FASO

CÔTE D'IVOIRE

GUINEA

SAVANES

DENGUÉLÉ   Boundiali
    Odienné   Korhogo   Ferkessédougou

ZANZAN

Zone of Confidence

WORODOUGOU   VALLEE DU BANDAMA

Séguéla   Bondoukou

Bouaké

MONTAGNES
    Man   Abengourou

Bouaflé   NZI-COMOÉ
Zone of Confidence   Yamoussoukro
    Daloa   Abengourou
    Duékoué   Dimbokro
    MARAHOUÉ
Guiglo   HAUT-   LACS   MOYEN-   GHANA
    SASSANDRA   COMOÉ

AGNEBY
    Divo   Agboville
SUD-BANDAMA   HQ UNOCI   SUD-
    04/2004   COMOÉ
LIBERIA   LAGUNES   Aboisso
BASS-SASSANDRA
    Abidjan

    HQ Operation Licorne
San-Pédro   02/2003

Gulf of Guinea
ATLANTIC OCEAN

0   150 km
0   100 mi

The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.

Map No. 4255.12   UNITED NATIONS   Department of Peacekeeping Operations
October 2005   Cartographic Section

Bédié also systematically excluded the military from power, which led to a bloodless military coup in 1999 led by General Robert Guei. A low-turnout election following the coup showed an early lead for Laurent Gbagbo, the candidate from the Front Populaire Ivoirien (FPI); General Guei promptly terminated the process and declared himself the winner, sending Gbagbo supporters to the streets of Abidjan. The Supreme Court had previously disqualified Ouattara from this election, basing its decision on his Burkinabe nationality, which led to clashes between Ouattara's supporters—mainly from the north—and security forces. This process launched a cycle of violence that has continued in Côte d'Ivoire to this day.

An attempted coup in 2001 was weathered by Gbagbo, who reengaged the international community and held violence-free municipal elections. Steps toward the creation of a government of national unity were taken in 2002, but the temporary calm was shattered on September 19, when soldiers launched coordinated attacks in Abidjan, Bouaké, and Korhogo against government personnel and facilities. In the ensuing clashes with government forces, General Guei, the minister of interior, and several military officers were killed. The rebels took control of the northern half of the country, under the umbrella of the Patriotic Movement of Côte d'Ivoire (MCPI), led by Guillaume Soro. The MCPI was later joined by two new armed groups, the Ivorian Popular Movement of the Great West (MPIGO) and the Movement for Justice and Peace (MJP), to form the Forces Nouvelles (FN).

In mid-October 2002, a cease-fire was signed under the auspices of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), setting the stage for negotiations on a political agreement. President Gbagbo requested French protection of internationals in Abidjan, as well as assistance with the cease-fire. The French forces were already stationed in the country on the basis of a long-standing military assistance agreement between France and Côte d'Ivoire. France added 2,500 troops to its forces after a December 2002

UN Operation in Côte d'Ivoire (UNOCI)

- Resolution passage and date of effect: 27 February 2004 (UNSC Res. 1528) 4 April 2004
- SRSG: Pierre Schori (Sweden)
- Force commander: Major-General Abdoulaye Fall (Senegal)
- Police commissioner: Yves Bouchard (Canada)
- Budget: $418.77 million (1 July 2005–30 June 2006)
- Strength as of 31 October 2005: Troops: 6,704 Military observers: 193 Civilian police: 661 International civilian staff: 341 Local civilian staff: 385 UN volunteers: 192

Operation Licorne

- Authorization date: 27 February 2004 (UNSC Res. 1528, current authorization)
- Start date: February 2003
- Head of mission: N/A
- Budget as of 30 September 2005: $261.9 million
- Strength as of 30 September 2005: Troops: 4,000

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confrontation, and ECOWAS decided to deploy a peacekeeping mission (ECOFORCE) of 1,500 in January 2003.

Later that month, all parties signed the Linas-Marcoussis Agreement, providing for the creation of a government of national reconciliation and various measures aimed at addressing the root causes of the conflict. The Security Council, through Resolution 1464 of 4 February 2003, recognized the French and ECOWAS deployments and authorized their presence for a further six months. The agreement also envisaged a UN role and, after a cease-fire agreement between the armed forces of Côte d'Ivoire (Forces Armées Nationales de Côte d'Ivoire [FANCI]) and rebel groups in May 2003, the Security Council established

the UN Mission in Côte d'Ivoire (MINUCI) with a mandate to work with French and ECOWAS forces to facilitate the implementation of the Linas-Marcoussis Agreement.

Mission Mandate and Deployment

MINUCI was replaced by UNOCI, which absorbed ECOWAS forces in April 2004, on the basis of Security Council Resolution 1528. That resolution also extended the authorization of Operation Licorne and called on the UN and French forces to coordinate their efforts. UNOCI's initial mandate was extended and enhanced by Resolution 1609 of 24 June 2005, resulting in a broad range of functions, including:

UNOCI peacekeeping forces patrol in Duekoue, June 2005

Lutens/Panapress/Getty Images

- Monitoring the cessation of hostilities and movements of armed groups.
- Assisting the government in disarmament, demobilization, reintegration, repatriation, and resettlement, including disarmament and dismantling of militias.
- Protecting United Nations personnel, institutions, and civilians.
- Monitoring the arms embargo imposed by Resolution 1572.
- Supporting humanitarian assistance, the redeployment of state administration, and the organization of open, free, and fair elections.
- Assisting in the field of human rights and monitoring the mass media for incitement of hatred.
- Assisting in the restoration of law and order, the judiciary, and the rule of law throughout the territory of Côte d'Ivoire.

UNOCI's Chapter VII mandate includes the authority to "use all necessary means" to carry out the mission, "within its capabilities and areas of deployment." Meanwhile, Operation Licorne is authorized to use all necessary means to support UNOCI in fulfilling those multiple tasks.

By the end of October 2005, UNOCI had almost reached its authorized strength of nearly 8,000, with the exception of the helicopter unit, for which a troop-contributing country was still to be identified. The troops and military observers were mainly deployed in the zone of confidence, a buffer zone that divides the country, and where none of the Ivoirian armed forces are permitted. Additional deployments are concentrated around major cities including Abidjan, Korhogo, Daloa, and Bouaké. The Secretary-General described UNOCI's operational approach in the zone of confidence as "robust mobile patrolling."[1] The peacekeepers have the authority to apprehend suspects in the zone of confidence and then hand them over to the authorities on either side. Nearly 700 civilian police are present in major cities, including three formed police units in Abidjan, Bouaké, and Daloa to protect UN personnel and facilities,

and for small-scale crowd control. A UNOCI special protection group of gendarmes provides security to the opposition ministers of the government of national reconciliation. Throughout 2005, UNOCI also maintained links with the UN Mission in Sierra Leone (UNAMSIL) and the UN Mission in Liberia (UNMIL), with particular cooperation on preventing cross-border movement of arms and combatants. Meanwhile, a substantial civilian component with an authorized strength of 1,221 international and national staff is responsible for the broad range of political, electoral, humanitarian, and human rights functions in UNOCI's mandate.

Operation Licorne consists of about 4,000 troops divided into three task forces and supported by two platoons of mobile gendarmes, seventeen helicopters, and two C-170 airwings, currently based in Lomé, Togo. Its main function is to support UNOCI and to provide security in the area of UN operations. Under Resolution 1609, French forces are also authorized to intervene against belligerent actions outside the areas controlled by UNOCI, and to protect civilians in their deployment areas. Operation Licorne is more mobile than UNOCI and has a quick reaction force to reinforce UNOCI contingents in volatile areas, although it is rarely called on. Throughout 2005, cooperation between the two operations was good, based on a well-understood division of labor for patrolling, monitoring, and providing security, and on effective information-sharing and joint crisis preparedness.

Key Developments and Challenges

The year in review began with the country effectively divided and it remained that way as the end of 2005 approached. The final months of 2004 were marred by an incident whose repercussions were felt throughout 2005. In early November 2004, FANCI attacks on FN positions across the zone of confidence south of Bouaké culminated in an air-raid on French peacekeepers, which killed nine and injured twenty-three. France responded by destroying the Ivorian planes involved and seizing the airport in Abidjan, triggering massive public protests and riots. Tense standoffs between the Young Patriots (supporters of President Gbagbo) and Licorne forces led to a number of deaths and injuries. Public opinion soured against French forces after the incidents, and there was consistent demand for French withdrawal from the airport in Abidjan.[2]

An AU mediation effort led by South African president Thabo Mbeki helped restore some calm, but attempts to violate the zone of confidence continued. On 28 February more than 100 armed individuals attacked an FN checkpoint in the zone, north of Bangolo. UNOCI responded by rapidly deploying troops to the area and successfully quelling the confrontation, with a Bangladeshi peacekeeper receiving serious injuries. On 1 March, when some 500 additional individuals gathered around Bangolo and the FN announced it would reinforce its positions, Licorne deployed its quick reaction force to support UNOCI units.

On 6 April the Pretoria Agreement, mediated by President Mbeki, was signed, declaring an "immediate and final cessation of all hostilities" and affirming the need to hold elections in October 2005. Hopes that some semblance of peace would be restored were dashed when an outbreak of violence in the western part of the country in late April left twenty-five dead, forty-one injured, and more than nine thousand displaced. Another outburst in late May resulted in the death of at least seventy, with scores more injured. UNOCI was the first to respond by deploying a Bangladeshi battalion, thereby preventing the situation from deteriorating further. UNOCI and Licorne subsequently launched a joint surveillance operation in the region.

A declaration on the implementation of the Pretoria Agreement was signed in late June 2005 among the main Ivorian parties to the conflict. However, its implementation suffered further delays, in particular regarding the dismantling of militias, the adoption of laws envisaged in the Linas-Marcoussis Agreement, and disarmament. The security situation deteriorated

with attacks on police stations in Anyama and Agboville, north of Abidjan, on 23 July, and with repeated obstructions of the freedom of movement of UNOCI and Licorne forces in the southern part of the country.

Resolution 1603 (2005) provided for the appointment of a High Representative for the elections, autonomous from UNOCI, to verify all stages of the electoral process. In July, the Secretary-General appointed Antonio Monteiro to the post, on behalf of the international community. Monteiro made his first visit to the country in August 2005. In September, however, the UN and AU acknowledged that elections could not be held by the end of October as scheduled. At a meeting on 14 September, the AU Peace and Security Council entrusted ECOWAS with determining how to overcome the political impasse. ECOWAS met in an emergency session later in the month, which was followed by an AU summit in Addis Ababa on 6 October that recommended President Gbagbo remain in office beyond 30 October to avert a political crisis. Elections were to be organized within a year.

The UN Security Council met on 13 October 2005 to consider this and other issues. The Council supported the AU Peace and Security Council decision that Gbagbo should stay on until elections are held, no later than October 2006. The Council also supported the appointment of a new, widely acceptable, and more powerful prime minister, through consultations led by President Thabo Mbeki of South Africa as the AU-appointed mediator, President Olusegun Obasanjo of Nigeria as chair of the AU, and President Tandja Mamadou of Niger, as chair of ECOWAS. The FN was not assuaged and continued to insist on the prime minister–ship for themselves, leading to an impasse that was finally resolved on 5 December with the appointment of Charles Konan Banny. A new international working group, composed of a long list of states and organizations, was given responsibility for preparing a "road map" for the transition, culminating in elections. Sanctions have been threatened if deadlines are not met. Steps to be taken along the way include resolving the long-standing dispute over Ivorian identity—critical to the rebels—and disarmament in the north and south (which the FN insists should not occur before elections). It is also envisaged that a national forum will be launched to broaden the range of voices in the peace process.

In October 2005 the Security Council also expressed its intention to review UNOCI's strength at the end of its mandate in January 2006. The Secretary-General had been calling for an expansion since the events of November 2004. The Council balked then but, after the Pretoria Agreement created new responsibilities for UNOCI in June 2005, authorized the addition of 850 military personnel and three formed police units totaling 375 officers.

Both UNOCI and Licorne have robust mandates, which they have put to use mainly by establishing a large presence in the zone of confidence to deter violations. However, the peace operations would have difficulty dealing with more than two major crises at a time or protecting civilians in the face of systematic attacks in ethnically divided areas like the western part of the country and Abidjan. A proposed solution, authorized in Resolution 1609, is the temporary redeployment of troops from neighboring missions (UNMIL and UNAMSIL). As the situation in Liberia stabilizes, that option may become more feasible, but there are many operational, legal, and budgetary issues that would first have to be sorted out with troop contributors.[3]

The stalled political process and poor security situation inhibited progress in other areas. Little progress was made on disarmament throughout the year, the rule of law remains weak and the legislative and judicial branches are not effective. The human rights situation continues to deteriorate in both north and south, as reflected in the regular reports published by UNOCI's small human rights component. Humanitarian access to affected

populations declined and appeals frequently go unanswered.

As the end of 2005 approached, Côte d'Ivoire remained a divided country in danger of getting worse. Fundamental issues that must be addressed before credible elections can be organized concern the dismantling of militias, the disarmament process, and the identification of eligible voters. The engagement of the international community—as reflected in the Security Council and the host of participants in the international working group—was encouraging. But given the proliferation of external actors and the lack of political will displayed by the Ivorian parties, it remains to be seen whether the international community will be sufficiently cohesive to act effectively.

Notes

1. United Nations, *Sixth Progress Report to the Secretary General on the United Nations Operation in Côte d'Ivoire,* S/2005/604, 26 September 2005, para. 16.

2. The uneasy relationship between France and its former colony suffered another blow in November 2005, when it was confirmed that French troops suffocated an Ivoirian prisoner in an armed vehicle in May. The force commander was suspended from duty as the investigation continued. Todd Pitman, "In Ivory Coast, French Seek to Mend Image While Keeping the Peace," *The Boston Globe,* 3 November 2005.

3. For a description of the cooperation among the UN missions in West Africa, see Box 3.4.1 in Mission Note 3.4 on Liberia. An existing example of this arrangement exists among UNTSO, UNIFIL and UNDOF, as described in Mission Note 4.18.

3.4

Liberia

The year 2005 was a watershed for the UN Mission in Liberia (UNMIL). The main challenge the peace operation faced was how to translate security gains into meaningful political, economic, and social progress. The operation accomplished a central goal by assisting the political transition to an elected government, while continuing to provide security throughout the country. Innovative measures to improve economic governance were agreed on with international partners, though implementation is not likely to be easy. Useful steps were taken to improve integration within the mission, and new forms of cooperation with neighboring UN peace operations were adopted. The year ended with a stable though fragile peace, as thoughts turned to how the international community could best help to consolidate the gains made.

Background

UNMIL was deployed to oversee implementation of the comprehensive peace agreement (CPA) of 18 August 2003, which brought to an end civil war between the government of Charles Taylor and two rebel groups, Liberians United for Reconciliation and Democracy (LURD) and the Movement for Democracy in Liberia (MODEL). LURD first emerged in 1999 and, later joined by MODEL, demanded the resignation of Taylor, whose election to power in 1997 ended seven years of civil war. Up to 250,000 people, out of a total population thought to be 3 million, died in Liberia's fourteen years of violence.[1] Almost half the population was displaced.

The conflict embroiled the subregion. For many years, Taylor provided financial and other support to opposition rebels in Sierra Leone and Guinea, which led to the imposition of UN sanctions in 2001 and, from 2003, a travel ban on government leaders. Guinea and Côte d'Ivoire, in turn, were alleged to have been backing Liberian rebels financially and militarily. Up to 300,000 of Liberia's displaced fled to Guinea, Côte d'Ivoire, and Sierra Leone. The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) brokered peace talks in June 2003 between Taylor and the rebels, which were abruptly canceled after Taylor was indicted for war crimes by the Special Court for Sierra Leone. A cease-fire agreed on 17 June failed to prevent heavy fighting in the capital Monrovia and, amid a mounting humanitarian crisis, pressure increased for international intervention. The United States, in particular, was called on to intervene, given its historical ties with Liberia, and the George W. Bush administration deployed three US warships near the coast in late July.

Taylor was finally persuaded to resign, and on 11 August 2003 took up Nigeria's offer of asylum. This opened the way to the ECOWAS-sponsored peace agreement, which provided for a transitional government and set in place the timetable for a transition to an elected administration in January 2006. The national transitional government of Liberia (NTGL) took over from an interim regime on 14 October 2003.

Liberia is rich in mineral deposits including gold, oil, and iron ore, with large timber and rubber resources and a long, accessible coastline. Yet decades of graft and mismanagement

left over 80 percent of the population below the poverty line. In 2003, unemployment is estimated to be around 85 percent, with high levels of youth illiteracy.

Mission Mandate and Deployment

The Security Council authorized the establishment of an ECOWAS peacekeeping mission on 1 August 2003 (Resolution 1497), after donor governments agreed to provide the financial resources for an interim period pending establishment of a UN operation. The neighboring UN Mission in Sierra Leone (UNAMSIL) was tasked with providing logistical support to the ECOWAS force. On 19 September the Security Council adopted Resolution 1509, establishing UNMIL and authorizing the transfer of authority from ECOWAS to the UN mission by 1 October 2003.

UNMIL was designed as a broad multidimensional UN operation deployed under Chapter VII of the Charter. Its mandate is divided into five broad areas: support for implementation of the cease-fire agreement; protection of UN staff, facilities, and civilians; support for humanitarian and human rights assistance; support for security sector reform; and support for implementation of the peace process. The mandate and functions of the previous UN Office in Liberia (UNOL) were transferred to UNMIL.

Some of the mandated tasks fall within the "traditional" functions of multidimensional UN peacekeeping: monitoring the cease-fire; implementing a comprehensive disarmament, demobilization, reintegration, and repatriation (DDRR) program; facilitating the provision of humanitarian assistance and promoting human rights; helping to rebuild the Liberian police force; and assisting with national elections. Other functions reflected the evolution of UN peacekeeping over the past decade, as well as recognition that previous efforts of the international community in Liberia had inadequately addressed the causes and consequences of a long civil war: the protection of civilians under imminent threat of physical violence;

Map No. 4255.6   UNITED NATIONS
October 2005

Department of Peacekeeping Operations
Cartographic Section

UN Mission in Liberia (UNMIL)

- Resolution passage and start date — 19 September 2003 (UNSC Res. 1509)
- SRSG — Alan Doss (United Kingdom)
- Force commander — Lieutenant-General Chikabidid Obiakor (Nigeria)
- Police commissioner — Mohammed Al hassan (Ghana)
- Budget — $722.54 million (1 July 2005–30 June 2006)
- Strength as of 31 October 2005 — Troops: 14,645; Military observers: 199; Civilian police: 1,101; International civilian staff: 558; Local civilian staff: 834; UN volunteers: 435

"helping to establish the necessary security conditions" for humanitarian assistance; providing security at key government installations; assisting the transitional government to restore proper administration of natural resources; and assisting with the establishment of state authority and a functioning administrative structure at the national and local levels. Two especially noteworthy features of UNMIL's mandate are the comprehensive rule of law functions and

Child soldiers disarm at a UN-run disarmament
camp in northern Liberia, September 2004

the mission's role in forming a restructured Liberian military, as well as police force.

The rapid timeline for startup of the mission meant UNMIL was a laboratory for UN rapid deployment efforts.[2] Some of the initiatives undertaken reflected lessons learned from past operations; others represented a first attempt to implement recommendations contained in the Brahimi Report. The UN financed, for the first time, some elements of troop-contributing country (TCC) predeployment reconnaissance visits. The rehatting of 3,500 ECOWAS troops facilitated rapid deployment, although the benefits were diminished by the lack of sufficient equipment. Civilian deployment was assisted through the first use of a rapid deployment team roster of prescreened and trained UN staff, although it was more successful getting support than substantive civilian staff to the field. The roster was not helpful in filling longer-term civilian posts, and the incumbency rate was less than 50 percent six months into the mission, which delayed the setting in motion of elements of UNMIL's mandate, particularly

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Box 3.4.1 Inter-Mission Cooperation

An important innovation since 2003 has been the emphasis on inter-mission and cross-border cooperation among UN peacekeeping missions in West Africa: UNMIL, UNAMSIL, and the UN Operation in Côte d'Ivoire (UNOCI). This was largely a consequence of the regional context of peace and stability in West Africa, reflected in the complex linkages of the conflicts, refugee return, repatriation of ex-combatants, implementation of DDR programs, arms transfers and cross-border smuggling, and humanitarian assistance. Security Council concern to maximize efficiencies between neighboring missions as a way of controlling rising UN peacekeeping budgets also factored into the consideration.

Consultation between the Special Representatives of the Secretary-General for Côte d'Ivoire, Liberia, Sierra Leone, West Africa, and Guinea Bissau increased in 2005. An inter-mission working group was established to develop long-term strategies for the peace processes in the region and to coordinate activities. At the operational level, a joint early warning initiative was put in place by the military components of the three missions. Liaison officers are in the three military headquarters. Cross-border cooperation, including joint patrolling, is under discussion, but is complicated by the political and legal considerations that need to be addressed to enable military personnel from one

peacekeeping force to operate in more than one mission area. Another issue under discussion is the possible establishment of a subregional reserve force, based in one mission area but rapidly deployable to all three.

The impending closure of UNAMSIL, and the installation of a successful peacebuilding mission, led UNMIL to assume responsibility for security to the Special Court for Sierra Leone on 1 December 2005. In preparation, a company of 250 UNMIL troops was deployed to the court on 15 November, with a small support unit in Freetown. The UNMIL force commander has overall command of these troops.

in relation to rule of law reform and political affairs. Mission startup was also facilitated by the establishment, within thirty days, of an interim force headquarters for UNMIL through the deployment of the Standby High-Readiness Brigade for UN Operations (SHIRBRIG). Pre–commitment mandate authority, recommended in the Brahimi Report, provided early financing for costs associated with technical assessment missions and strategic lift. And the Strategic Deployment Stocks (SDS) mechanism provided UNMIL with equipment to launch the mission.

Key Developments and Challenges

Early Challenges
By early 2004, UNMIL forces were deployed countrywide and basic stability had been achieved. Two weaknesses from UNMIL's first year continued to be felt into 2005: poor integration of the mission's components, and a false start on DDRR. Some argued the first problem stemmed from a failure to fully incorporate humanitarian and development partners in the initial planning phase for the mission. The multiple locations of UNMIL components in Monrovia did not help matters, nor did tensions between the military and humanitarian actors regarding security restrictions around the country. The existing UN Country Team in Liberia did not feel adequately consulted as the key forum it is meant to be under the integrated mission concept.[3] Cooperation between UN humanitarian, development, and security components in Liberia improved with the appointment of Alan Doss, a UN Development Programme (UNDP) career professional, as the Special Representative of the Secretary-General in August 2005.

The initial—and in retrospect premature—launch of the DDRR program in December 2003 led to widespread riots, violence, and looting across the capital, forcing UNMIL to suspend the DDRR program after ten days. The program was relaunched in April 2004 with more success, and it came to a formal end in November of that year. As of August 2005, a total of 37,500 demobilized ex-combatants were in rehabilitation and reintegration projects funded by bilateral partners and a further 35,448 accommodated in projects covered by the UNDP's trust fund for DDRR. Continued funding shortfalls meant that 26,000 ex-combatants remained outside such programs. The volatility of disgruntled ex-combatants, many of them young men, was seen as the most significant threat to stability in Liberia.

Political Transition: Elections
One of UNMIL's main functions in 2005 was to assist the political transition through national elections, which according to the CPA had to be held no later than October 2005. UNMIL's role was to provide security, assist in the establishment of electoral offices countrywide, and provide public information and voter education training. The UNMIL Electoral Division provided technical assistance and capacity-building support to the National Elections Commission (NEC), and coordinated other international assistance to enable the NEC to meet its responsibilities. Notwithstanding allegations that former president Charles Taylor was trying to disrupt Liberian politics from his asylum in Nigeria, security remained stable throughout the run-up to the elections. This was due in part to UNMIL's Chapter VII mandate, substantial presence (15,000 troops), cordon and search operations to recover hidden arms caches prior to the polls, and signals by the SRSG in August that it would "react robustly" to any effort to destabilize the polls.[4]

The main challenges were logistic, notably voter registration and the organization of three levels of elections in a single day during the rainy season. Over 1.3 million voters were registered, although the decision not to register refugees in camps outside of Liberia elicited wide debate among UN bodies in Liberia. The election campaign started officially on 15 August, with twenty-two presidential candidates and political parties involved. A large turnout voted on 11 October, with no incidents of violence reported at 3,070 polling sites across the country. As no presidential

Box 3.4.2 HIV/AIDS and Peacekeeping

The UN Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) has set a precedent in the UN's efforts to assess the impact of its programs to address the risk of peacekeepers contracting or spreading HIV. It was the first operation to have an HIV/AIDS policy adviser from the start of a mission. In May and June 2005, the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO), the Joint UN Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS), and the US Centers for Disease Control (CDC) collaborated on an HIV/AIDS knowledge, attitude, and practice survey, interviewing 667 UNMIL uniformed peacekeepers, including military observers, civilian police, and personnel from eight different contingents. The survey found:

- Eighty-eight percent of respondents stated that they had been tested at some point in their lifetime; 80 percent had been tested specifically in preparation for deployment to Liberia, of which only half had received any counseling with the test. Even within given contingents, differences were reported on whether the test had been mandatory or voluntary.
- Ninety-one percent had received predeployment HIV/AIDS training and, of personnel who had been deployed for at least a month, 88 percent had received training in the mission area. However, peer education programs were very weak.
- Overall, 76 percent of respondents were considered to have a comprehensive knowledge of HIV; this was determined on their ability to correctly identify three ways to prevent the transmission of HIV and also reject three misconceptions on transmission.

The need to address HIV/AIDS was originally underlined in Security Council Resolution 1308 of June 2000, which focused attention on the potential links between the disease and instability. This has led to a wide variety of initiatives:

- In 2001, the UNAIDS and the DPKO signed a collaboration framework to coordinate strategies and technical support; and in 2003, the UNAIDS seconded an AIDS adviser to the DPKO headquarters.
- In 2005, the Fifth Committee of the General Assembly approved a post for an AIDS policy adviser within the DPKO. All peacekeeping operations have either AIDS advisers or, in the case of smaller missions, focal points.
- HIV/AIDS is included in pre-deployment training guidance and materials and UNAIDS has developed a peer education kit and provides HIV/AIDS awareness cards in twelve languages.
- Responses to HIV/AIDS are also being mainstreamed into UN-mandated functions, such as disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR) programs and training for national police forces.
- In the past year, efforts have been made to link increased awareness of sexual exploitation and abuse and HIV/AIDS education for peacekeepers.

A Liberian woman casts her ballot during the presidential runoff election in the capital, Monrovia, 8 November 2005

© Tim Hetherington/Reuters/Corbis

candidate scored the required absolute majority in the first round, a runoff between former professional footballer George Weah and former UN and World Bank official Ellen Johnson Sirleaf was held on 8 November. Johnson Sirleaf won in the second round, garnering almost 60 percent of the vote. When supporters of Weah took to the streets in protest, SRSG Doss repeated his warning that UNMIL "would react robustly to any effort to disrupt the hard won peace that this country now enjoys,"[5] and made good on the threat two days later when UN police fired tear gas to disperse a stone-throwing crowd. After investigating allegations of electoral fraud, the National Electoral Council proclaimed Johnson Sirleaf the winner on 23 November.

Economic Recovery: Governance

Economic governance was a central issue for peacebuilding in Liberia throughout 2005 and led in September to the initiation of a potentially significant international oversight process for postconflict countries. Decades of mismanagement of public finances, exploitation of natural resources, and widespread graft played a large role in Liberia's conflicts, and the installation of the transitional government in 2003 did not break this pattern. European Commission–funded audits of the Central Bank of Liberia (CBL) and five state-owned enterprises, International Monetary Fund consultations, and an investigation by ECOWAS all revealed extensive corruption. The UN's Panel of Experts, reviewing the sanctions in place since 2003, concluded in June 2005 that transparent and accountable mechanisms for the oversight of the timber and diamond industries were still lacking and that current sanctions on Liberia should be maintained.

In May 2005, international partners, led by the European Commission and the World Bank, and with some consultation with UN headquarters personnel, initiated an action plan for Liberia that would have provided for international control over Liberia's revenue streams, budgeting, and expenditure management through the assignment of international experts with cosignature authority in the Central Bank, finance, and other key ministries. The NTGL objected to the plan as tantamount to international trusteeship and presented its own counterproposal, the Governance and Economic Management Assistance Programme (GEMAP), on 19 July. A compromise plan, retaining the key cosignatory element of the international plan, was hammered out and presented to the NTGL on 10 August. However, the chairman of the transitional government continued to withhold agreement, notwithstanding personal interventions from the UN Secretary-General, as well as threats by the European Commission and the World Bank to suspend assistance. On 9 September, just before departing for the World Summit in New York, Chairman Bryant signed his government's agreement to GEMAP.

The controversy surrounding GEMAP's negotiation does not augur well for its implementation, and the attitude of the newly elected government remains to be seen. Coordinated international efforts and funding will be required. UNMIL, which had actively participated in the negotiation of the GEMAP, is expected to assist in efforts to establish an anticorruption commission, while the UNDP will support efforts to ensure local governance capacity building. UNMIL will serve on the apex Economic Governance Steering Committee (EGSC), which monitors the implementation of the GEMAP, as well as the technical committees of the EGSC. The Security Council, in renewing UNMIL's mandate on 19 September, requested the Secretary-General to include information on GEMAP's implementation progress in his regular reports on UNMIL.

The year 2005 ended on a positive note in Liberia, with the completion of peaceful elections. But difficulties encountered during the year revealed the scale of the peacebuilding challenge ahead. Hesitancy in charting new ways to support institution building and governance reform illustrates the conceptual and operational gaps that still exist between peacekeeping and peacebuilding in UN peace operations. The installation of an elected government provides UNMIL an opportunity to develop a long-term postconflict strategy.

Notes

1. Figure cited in International Crisis Group, *Rebuilding Liberia: Prospects and Perils,* Africa Report no. 75, 30 January 2004.

2. This section draws on United Nations, Department of Peacekeeping Operations, Best Practices Unit, *Lessons Learned Study on the Start Up Phase of the United Nations Mission in Liberia,* April 2004, available online at http://pbpu.unlb.org/pbpu/library/liberia%20lessons%20learned%20(final).pdf.

3. The initial experience of integration in Liberia was an incentive for the independent study of integrated missions carried out in 2004–2005 at the request of the UN Executive Committee on Humanitarian Affairs (ECHA). Espen Barth Eide, Anja Therese Kaspersen, Randolph Kent, and Karen von Hippel, *Report on Integrated Missions: Practical Perspectives and Recommendations,* Independent Study for the Expanded UN ECHA Core Group, May 2005.

4. Nick Tattersall, "UN Force Plans Tough Action to Guard Liberia Polls," Reuters, 25 August 2005.

5. "Liberia: Sirleaf Heads for Victory as Authorities Study Weah's Complaint," IRIN, 10 November 2005, IRINnews.org.

Timor-Leste

United Nations peacekeepers withdrew from Timor-Leste during 2005, marking the end of the latest phase of the organization's long, and successful, engagement there. The UN Mission of Support in East Timor (UNMISET) was succeeded by the UN Office in Timor-Leste (UNOTIL), a political mission with a mandate to support the new government in building state institutions and maintaining security.

Background

UN involvement began in 1960, when the General Assembly added Timor-Leste to its list of non-self-governing territories. On 28 November 1975, representatives of Frente Revolucionária do Timor-Leste Independente (Fretilin) declared independence. This was followed, on 7 December of the same year, by a military intervention and occupation by Indonesia. In July of the following year Indonesia formally annexed Timor-Leste as its twenty-seventh province. This annexation was rejected by the United Nations, which continued to recognize Portugal as the administering power. Security Council Resolutions 384 (1975) and 389 (1976) called for the withdrawal of Indonesian forces. Annual General Assembly resolutions, principally supported by Portugal, kept the status of Timor-Leste on the UN's agenda for the following two decades. From 1982, the Secretary-General was requested by the General Assembly to hold talks with Indonesia and Portugal to resolve the status of the territory. Throughout the period of occupation armed resistance continued, with substantial loss of life.

In January 1999, Indonesia proposed that a referendum be held, offering the people of Timor-Leste what amounted to a choice between autonomy within Indonesia and independence. On 5 May 1999, Indonesia and Portugal signed an agreement in New York requesting the Secretary-General to organize and conduct a "popular consultation" to determine whether or not the people of Timor-Leste would accept the Indonesian autonomy proposal. Indonesia undertook to provide a secure environment. On 11 June 1999, the Security Council created the UN Mission in East Timor (UNAMET), to carry out the consultation. After some delays due to security concerns, the consultation took place on 30 August 1999, with 78.5 percent of voters rejecting the Indonesian proposal. Pro-Indonesian militias immediately launched a campaign of violence, which was not contained by the Indonesian authorities. In addition to a heavy loss of life, East Timor was physically devastated—much of the housing stock was destroyed, as were economic assets and key infrastructure. Indonesian administrators—including almost all people with higher skills and education—left the territory. This was a second exodus from East Timor, the first being the departure of an educated group of Timorese after the Indonesian invasion.

UNTAET and UNMISET

When the violence erupted, the Secretary-General, Security Council members, and others

TIMOR-LESTE

Map No. 4255.11   UNITED NATIONS
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assisting in the development of public services, coordinating humanitarian relief, building capacity for self-government, and creating the conditions for sustainable development. In effect, it became the government of the devastated territory for a transitional period.

Sergio Vieira de Mello was appointed transitional administrator, taking up office in Dili on 13 November. Humanitarian operations were swiftly initiated, and were gradually phased out during the first half of 2000. In February 2000, INTERFET withdrew, transferring authority to the UNTAET military component. Key INTERFET contributors—including Australia—agreed to "rehat" forces deployed along the land border.

Despite its robust mandate and 8,000 well-armed soldiers, UNTAET's military component operated under rules of engagement (ROEs) that were later deemed to be too restrictive. The mission faced a serious threat from organized militia groups infiltrating from across the land border with West Timor, leading in one case to the displacement of up to 3,000 East Timorese. UNTAET was tested in repeated firefights with the militias, leading to a number of casualties, including the death of two UN peacekeepers. Three UN staff members were murdered in Atambua, West Timor, on 6 September.

UNTAET concluded that its ROEs were insufficient for military engagement with a determined, well-armed opposition. The Special Representative of the Secretary-General (SRSG) supported a request from the military command for new rules of engagement, the need for which was underlined by the Security Council in its Resolution 1319, calling for UNTAET to respond robustly to the militia threat. The DPKO approved an "amplified" concept of self-defense. Offensive operations were not authorized, but the warning requirements were liberalized, such that hostile intent could reasonably be inferred from the behavior of particular militia members. Forceful action was taken on a number of occasions to disarm and detain militias. By early 2001 it appeared that the militias

engaged in intensive diplomatic efforts to convince Indonesian authorities to accept an international security presence in Timor. After a Security Council mission to the island, backed by heavy pressure from the United States and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) as well as active telephone diplomacy by the Secretary-General, President B. J. Habibie relented and invited the UN in "as a friend" to help quell the violence. The Security Council authorized on 15 September 1999 the establishment and deployment of the Australian-led International Force for East Timor (INTERFET), to restore peace and security under Chapter VII of the UN Charter. The first elements of this force were deployed five days later, after which the security situation progressively improved. On 25 October the Security Council passed Resolution 1272, establishing the UN Transitional Administration in East Timor and giving it a sweeping mandate to administer the territory, including "all legislative and executive authority, including the administration of justice." Under Chapter VII, UNTAET was tasked with providing security, maintaining law and order, establishing an effective administration,

Box 3.5.1 The Economic Impact of UNTAET and UNMISET, 1999–2004

April 2005 saw the publication of an interim report of the Economic Impact of Peacekeeping project, supported by the Peace Dividend Trust and the Best Practices Section of the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO). Recalling earlier criticisms of the 1992–1993 UN Transitional Authority in Cambodia for unbalancing the local costs and wages through its heavy spending, this report analyzed the impact of UN Transitional Administration in East Timor (UNTAET) and UNMISET on the economy of Timor-Leste to the end of 2004. It argued that the missions had a number of positive effects:

• The peace operations created a secure environment permitting basic economic activity and investment.
• Although the chaos of 1999 drove inflation up to 10 percent, it fell to 5 percent or below in 2000–2004, contrary to a widespread belief that the UN presence created inflationary pressures.

• UNTAET was the largest single employer during a troubled period, with almost 2,000 staff, whose experience now adds to the country's human capital.
• The provision of services by UNTAET and UNMISET enhanced Timor-Leste's productive capacity, although it is difficult to quantify this precisely.
• The services put in place for internationals may provide the infrastructure for a future tourist industry.

Nonetheless, the report also drew negative conclusions, including:

• Of total mission procurement worth $35,052,000, only $4,767,000 was spent on local goods and services (although greater local spending might have been inflationary).
• In 1999 the UN set a minimum wage for local staff of $85 per month, compared to a minimum in neighboring Indonesia of $40. While the nascent Timorese government set a competitive

wage, the resulting distortion was an obstacle to developing the private sector.
• The best-educated workers gravitated toward UN posts, disadvantaging the government and other employers.
• The finite nature of the UN presence militated against long-term planning, with most projects lasting only one year.
• While Timor-Leste's electricity supply was destroyed in 1999, UNTAET used large portable generators rather than construct a new power plant—resulting in Asia's most expensive power generation system.

The Economic Impact of Peacekeeping project will produce further reports and recommendations, building on these lessons and covering other missions.

Source: M. Carnahan, S. Gilmore, and M. Rahman, *Interim Report: Economic Impact of Peacekeeping—Phase I* (New York: United Nations, DPKO Best Practices Unit, April 2005).

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had largely ceased their organized military campaign.

UNTAET's efforts in the area of governance and public administration fell into two main phases. From late 1999 to mid-2000 the UN mission directly assumed most administrative and executive functions, with an emphasis on laying the foundation for future development. This included passing basic enabling legislation, including regulations on the body of laws that would be applied, the basic institutions that would administer the territory, the currency that would be used, and the National Consultative Council. Also during the first phase, UNTAET established a civilian mobile phone network, opened the

port and airport under civilian authority, and established a central fiscal authority and a central payments office, as precursors to a treasury and central bank. Proto-ministries were established to support the reconstruction of the education and health systems and other services.

Partly in response to complaints about the slow pace of "Timorization," during the second phase of its administration, starting in mid-2000, the mission set up a series of power-sharing cabinets with the Timorese leadership, with authority being progressively passed to the hosts. A broad effort to build capacity was launched, though progress was slow in some key areas, such as in the judiciary. Support

was also provided to the development of a constitution and for the holding of elections. Timor-Leste became independent on 20 May 2002, with independence leader Alejandro "Xanana" Gusmão sworn in as the first president of the new republic.

Following independence, UNTAET was withdrawn, and was replaced by the UN Mission of Support in East Timor. UNMISET's role was threefold: to provide troops and police for the country's external and internal security; to further assist in the development of a Timor-Leste police service; and to provide a broad range of "capacity building" and other forms of support to public administration. Most of the UN's executive functions were handed over to the new Timorese government, but UNMISET retained interim law enforcement duties to deal with the crime problem pending establishment of a fully functioning domestic police force. UNMISET also maintained a substantial military presence of 5,000 to deter continuing threats from militias based in West Timor. A new Timorese defense force was created, but large numbers of Falantil—a disciplined and professional fighting force—were demobilized and not incorporated in the new army, creating a cadre of disaffected ex-combatants. By the end of 2003, the Timorese civilian administration had assumed responsibility for managing day-to-day affairs, although the downsizing of UNMISET's police and military components was delayed due to lingering security threats. The main challenges remaining at the end of 2004 related to the weak state of Timor's public administration, which became the focus of the mission's exit strategy developed in consultation with state authorities.

UNOTIL

In the run-up to the end of UNMISET's mandate in May 2005, a division of opinion arose among UN member states as to the best way forward. One group of countries—principally the main donors to the UN peacekeeping budget—felt that the United Nations had completed its peacekeeping work in Timor-Leste, and that the time had come to bring that level of engagement to an end. These countries noted that incidents on the border were declining and that there was no evidence of further organized militia activity.

Led by the United Kingdom and the United States, these countries argued that, whatever follow-on arrangements were made for UNMISET, there should be no military component to the mission. For the major donors, this remains a point of ongoing concern, as missions with a military component are normally financed at the United Nations peacekeeping scale of assessments, whereas missions without military components can be funded from the regular budget, which distributes the financial burden somewhat more widely. This issue, not limited to the mission in Timor-Leste, also informs a wider push for more discipline in developing and implementing "exit strategies."

The government of Timor-Leste, supported in the Security Council by Brazil and others, argued the contrary position. They claimed that the peace in Timor-Leste was not yet fully secure and could benefit from a continued small presence, principally deployed along the land border with Indonesia. They asserted that the regular liaison with the Indonesian forces on the other side of the border kept a useful degree of international attention on issues connected with the border—smuggling, security incidents, allegations of activity by former militia members—and helped to resolve issues on the ground before they could escalate. It also ensured a quick and professional flow of information from the border area to UN headquarters and capitals. Those in favor of a limited extension of UN presence in Timor-Leste noted that the North Atlantic powers had been content to keep much more substantial forces in the Balkans under a UN mandate for a decade beyond the end of hostilities, whereas a different standard appeared to be applying to places outside of Europe.

Persuasive intervention from Timorese foreign minister José Ramos Horta managed

to secure something of a compromise. The Security Council agreed to replace UNMISET with a scaled-down follow-on mission, the UN Office in Timor-Leste. Continuing a wider trend, however, this new mission was mandated only for a period of one year, hindering effective medium-term planning, already a weakness of United Nations peace operations.

UNOTIL was mandated to work in three main areas:

- Support for the public administration and justice system of Timor-Leste and for justice in the area of serious crimes.
- Support for the development of law enforcement in Timor-Leste.
- Support for the security and stability of Timor-Leste.

The UN continues to confront the issue of accountability for serious crimes, a source of contention for years. Following the violence associated with the vote on independence in 1999, there had been calls, both inside the United Nations and outside, for those principally responsible to be brought to justice. Within Indonesia, an ad hoc human rights tribunal was established, but that did not quiet international demands for justice. In Timor-Leste a serious crimes unit was established, and eighty-seven defendants were tried by special panels, of whom eighty-four were convicted of crimes against humanity and other crimes. The most serious charges, however, were directed at individuals living outside of Timor-Leste, often in Indonesia. Without Indonesia's cooperation in arresting those against whom charges had been laid, the process was perceived by many to be inadequate.

A Commission of Experts dispatched by the Secretary-General recommended that an international tribunal be established to pursue the matter. This, however, was not supported by most member states. Moreover, the governments of Timor-Leste and Indonesia agreed to establish a Commission on Truth

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UN Office in Timor-Leste (UNOTIL)

• Resolution passage	28 April 2005 (UNSC Res. 1599)
• Start date	20 May 2005
• SRSG	Sukehiro Hasegawa (Japan)
• Senior military adviser	Colonel Fernando José Reis (Portugal)
• Senior police adviser	Malik Saif Ullah (Pakistan)
• Budget	$22.01 million
	(21 May 2005–31 December 2005)
• Strength as of	Military observers: 15
31 October 2005	Police: 58
(unless otherwise noted)	International civilian staff: 131
	(30 August 2005)
	Local civilian staff: 275
	(30 August 2005)
	UN volunteers: 37
	(30 September 2005)

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and Friendship, without powers of prosecution, apparently signaling that efforts to bring to justice the main perpetrators of the 1999 violence were at an end.

In the area of law enforcement, UNOTIL advisers have focused on strengthening the capacity of the border patrol unit and other specialized units, building leadership skills of the national police in both administrative and operational areas, and the management of the police headquarters. Some progress has been made, but skills remain weak in many areas, and allegations of corruption are widespread. In addition, relations between the police and armed forces remain strained, and clashes have occurred.

Security in the crucial border areas improved during the first half of 2005. In April, the governments of Timor-Leste and Indonesia made a provisional agreement settling the dispute over some 96 percent of the border. The foreign ministers of the two countries marked the agreement by jointly laying the first border marker. In October, however, there were renewed reports of infiltrations into Timor-Leste by mobs and armed men, operating in or near the disputed border areas.

Internally, security appeared to improve during 2005. Local elections took place in a number of areas, with few problems. A major

Timor-Leste's President Xanana Gusmão, left, inspects Timorese police force members during a celebration of the third anniversary of its independence in Dili, 20 May 2005

political dispute, ostensibly over the teaching of religion in state schools, pitted Prime Minister Mari Alkatiri against a range of conservative opponents, led by the dominant Catholic Church. Despite large public demonstrations in Dili, the protests ended without the violence that had followed civil unrest in 2004.

Prospects for the Future

Timor-Leste is rightly seen as a major UN success story. Almost four years after independence, however, there is still some risk of a renewal of violence. The country is poor—among the poorest countries in the world—with an annual per capita gross national product of about $400. Unemployment is among the highest in the region. The skills that are needed to sustain a functioning state are still weak, particularly in the area of rule of law, and corruption appears to be growing. Society remains fragmented, and mechanisms for dispute resolution are weak. Across the border with Indonesia, former members of the militias that devastated the country in 1999 are still present. While these no longer appear well organized, and their activities may be more criminal than political, they remain a potential problem.

UNOTIL's presence undoubtedly contributes to the stability of Timor-Leste, and is almost universally recognized as doing so by the government and people of the country. Its role, however, is hampered by its impending closure, presently scheduled for May 2006. The incidents on the border in October reinforce the necessity of continued engagement by the United Nations as the country moves through its postwar transition and into the new challenges that will be faced as oil and gas revenues come on stream in the latter part of the decade. UNOTIL is one of several missions on the UN's agenda that poses the challenge of long-term attention to postconflict stabilization, a challenge to which the newly approved Peacebuilding Commission may have to respond.

3.6

Afghanistan

In 2005 the final benchmarks of the Bonn Process were met, culminating in the establishment of a government in the Islamic Republic of Afghanistan. The UN Assistance Mission in Afghanistan (UNAMA) now faces the challenge, together with the government, of identifying a new framework for ongoing support to build security, improve governance, and promote development, while reducing the country's dependence on illegal narcotics and building closer ties with the region. The International Security Assistance Force (ISAF), whose mandate was originally supposed to expire with the completion of the Bonn Process, will expand its role both geographically and functionally in support of these objectives.

Background

After the events of 11 September 2001, a coalition of international forces led by the United States attacked the Taliban regime and Al-Qaida in Afghanistan. By late November of that year, the Taliban were effectively removed from power, and Kabul fell to Northern Alliance forces acting with intelligence and aerial support from the US military. After intense UN-facilitated negotiations outside Bonn, Germany, an interim administration headed by Hamid Karzai was selected to assume power in Kabul.

The Bonn Process became the road map for Afghanistan's emergence as a sovereign, self-governing state after more than two decades of conflict, foreign invasion, and civil war. The process provided for a six-month interim administration that would prepare for the convening of an Emergency Loya Jirga (ELJ) to elect/select a transitional administration. The transitional administration would in turn prepare for a Constitutional Loya Jirga, ratify a new constitution, and hold national elections within two years. The interim and transitional administrations would also preside over other key reforms in the fields of public administration, justice, human rights, monetary policy, and public finance. The final benchmark of the Bonn agreement was election of a fully representative government, achieved with the 18 September 2005 elections to the Wolesi Jirga (lower house of the National Assembly) and provincial councils. On 9–11 November the provincial councils elected two-thirds of the members of the upper house (Mesharano Jirga); the rest of the members were appointed by President Karzai.

An annex to the Bonn agreement requested the UN Security Council to authorize deployment of a multinational force to assist the government in providing security. Accordingly, the Security Council authorized the creation of ISAF on 20 December 2001, with a mandate to operate within Kabul and its environs under the initial command of the United Kingdom. ISAF deployed alongside—but operationally distinct from—coalition forces under overall US command, which continued to wage battle against the Taliban and Al-Qaida forces.

ISAF was created to address the security/military dimension of the Bonn agreement, in particular by providing security against factional fighting in Kabul. To oversee and help implement the political side of

AFGHANISTAN

Map No. 4255.5   UNITED NATIONS
October 2005

Department of Peacekeeping Operations
Cartographic Section

International Security Assistance Force (ISAF), Afghanistan

- Authorization date   20 December 2001 (UNSC Res. 1386)
                             13 September 2005 (UNSC Res. 1623,
                             current authorization)
- Start date   December 2001
- Head of mission   Lieutenant-General Mauro Del Vecchio
                             (Italy)
- Budget as of $78.5 million
  30 September 2005
- Strength as of   Troops: 12,400
  30 September 2005

UN Charter to assist in the maintenance of security in support of a succession of post-Bonn Afghan governments and the UN. NATO took over command and control of the mission in August 2003. A detailed military technical agreement between the ISAF commander and the interim authority of Afghanistan provides the framework for ISAF operations. On the basis of those provisions, ISAF was to exist only until the successful conclusion of the Bonn Process, that is, until the general elections in 2005. But NATO's Secretary-General and other allied officials subsequently pledged that the mission would remain in Afghanistan until peace and stability were restored.

The initial role of ISAF was to assist Afghanistan in providing a safe and secure environment within Kabul and surrounding areas. In carrying out this mission, ISAF conducted patrols throughout sixteen police districts, either alone or jointly with the Kabul City Police. ISAF also runs civil–military cooperation (CIMIC) projects throughout the city, focusing on the provision of basic human needs such as fresh water, electric power, and shelter.

After repeated calls by Hamid Karzai, UN Special Representative Lakhdar Brahimi and nongovernmental organizations, NATO leaders, acting on Security Council Resolution 1510 (2003), finally agreed to expand the reach of ISAF beyond Kabul. Germany took over a provincial reconstruction team (PRT) in Kunduz in September 2003 and transformed it into the largest PRT in the country. These are relatively small, civil–military organizations, under the authority of either NATO or coalition forces. Although the models differ, they are all broadly involved in security, governance, and reconstruction. As of the end of November 2005 there were twenty-three PRTs across the country, of which ISAF directed nine. ISAF coordinates its activities with the Afghan government through various high- and field-level forums such as the PRT Executive Committee, chaired by the Afghan minister of interior, as well as

the process, the Security Council on 28 March 2002 established an integrated mission. UNAMA, under the leadership of Special Representative of the Secretary-General (SRSG) Lakhdar Brahimi, was tasked with monitoring and assisting the Afghan government in meeting the benchmarks of the Bonn Process.

ISAF: Mandate, Functions, and Challenges

Security Council Resolutions 1386, 1413, and 1444 mandate ISAF under Chapter VII of the

through embedded Afghan military officers at each PRT.

ISAF was involved in security sector reform (SSR) and in training the first units of the new Afghan National Army and National Police. The mission continued to operate and control Kabul International Airport's military and civilian air traffic (some 3,000 flights per month). In late 2004, ISAF helped equip the airport with night vision equipment allowing it to airlift Afghan pilgrims to Saudi Arabia during the Hajj season on a twenty-four-hour basis. ISAF also supported the disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration of over 58,000 former combatants, which ended in July 2005. It is also assisting the government of Afghanistan in the disarmament of an estimated 120,000 persons belonging to illegally armed groups, who will eventually return to civilian life.

ISAF commands a degree of credibility after assisting the Afghan forces and coalition in providing security for the Emergency Loya Jirga in June 2002, Constitutional Loya Jirga

from December 2003 to January 2004, presidential elections in October 2004, and elections to the National Assembly and provincial councils in September 2005. The size of the mission increased from its initial level of 8,000 troops to 12,000 during the period of the recent elections. According to the UK Defense Secretary and NATO Secretary-General, as many as 20,000 extra soldiers could be deployed, mainly to stabilize the south, still a center of insurgent activity.

Nevertheless, ISAF faced significant challenges as 2005 drew to a close. The scope of the mission and the security needs of the country are far greater than the resources provided to it. Most PRTs are underresourced and understaffed, especially the civilian political and assistance personnel. Although there are standardized terms of reference for the PRTs agreed upon by NATO and the coalition forces, each team has a degree of leeway in choosing the activities it deems most appropriate. In general, the ISAF PRTs' peace support activities include vehicular patrols, coordination with

A Canadian soldier from the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) patrols Mirza Abdul Qadir village west of Kabul, June 2004

local authorities, and provision of reconstruction assistance.

In response to a recent increase of violence, particularly in the south, ISAF is strengthening its posture and presence in Afghanistan. Under NATO command, it has taken over a large number of PRTs and is expected to eventually take control of all provinces in a counterclockwise order, except the eastern region, where the coalition forces will control the porous border area with Pakistan. NATO and the coalition agreed on a four-phase process involving the northeast, west, south, and southeast respectively. During the first and second phases, ISAF established PRTs in areas where there was little antigovernment insurgency. In 2005, it began moving to the south where conditions are less secure. As ISAF begins to constitute a larger portion of the total international security presence in Afghanistan, it becomes even more urgent that contributing countries operate under a common set of rules and a common command, with fewer national caveats.

The cultivation, processing, and trafficking of narcotics in 2004–2005 complicated the security environment in Afghanistan. The NATO-written ISAF mission statement requires specific authorization from the ISAF commander for any participation in counternarcotic operations. An example of the problem this can create: the German parliament prohibited German troops in Afghanistan from participating in any counternarcotics activities, yet ISAF PRTs currently operate in locations where their local Afghan partners, including subnational officials, are either involved in the drug trade or indirectly benefit from it.

Moreover, the initial division of labor between ISAF and coalition forces placed ISAF in largely secure areas in the northern half of the country. Now that ISAF is expanding to more hostile environments, such as Kandahar, it risks losing the higher degree of credibility it enjoys with development actors relative to Operation Enduring Freedom (OEF). It may have to adopt more aggressive force protection methods that could potentially alienate local communities.

There are competing visions for the future of the mission following the official end of the Bonn Process. The United States is pushing for the unification of command of OEF and ISAF, which would entail an eventual takeover of combat operations by NATO. Some ISAF troop contributors thus far refuse to engage in a war-fighting mission.

UNAMA: Mandate, Functions, and Challenges

Established in early 2002 by Resolution 1401 for an initial period of twelve months, UNAMA's mandate is to assist Afghans to:

- Create political legitimacy through democratization.
- Maintain peace and stability by negotiating disputes with the help of the UN Secretary-General's good offices.
- Monitor and report on the human rights situation.
- Advise on the development of institutions and assist in coordinating external support to the reconstruction process.

To support these functions, the mission is divided into two primary "pillars," or components, each headed by a Deputy SRSG. One is responsible for relief, recovery, and reconstruction (RRR). The other is responsible for the electoral process, disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR), and the verification of political and other human rights. The mission has special advisers on human rights, gender, drugs, rule of law, police, military and demobilization, and legal issues, to complement the primary pillars.

UNAMA's contribution to stabilization and transition in Afghanistan has been significant. It successfully managed presidential elections in October 2004—the first in the country's history—and parliamentary elections in September 2005. Voter registration was a major challenge, including help in the drafting of laws governing political parties and the elections process. UNAMA was also

responsible for convening two Loya Jirgas, which involved complex political negotiations and logistical arrangements.

UNAMA initially focused on institutions in the capital, but due to the spread of violence and power struggles across the country, it also established and then strengthened field offices to address destabilizing factors at the local level. Soon after its creation, it deployed human rights officers to register complaints and recommend corrective action where appropriate. They remain present throughout the country, although nongovernmental organizations have complained that the number of officers is too few. The Independent Afghan Human Rights Commission presented its report *A Call for Justice* to President Karzai in January 2005, claiming that violations by power holders and local officials were still common practice.

UNAMA helped with strategic aid coordination, shifting operational coordination to the government. It also helped convene the Afghan Development Forum, and has led the current discussions of a post-Bonn conference to be held in London early in 2006. It also worked closely with the Afghan government in monitoring various reform programs (over which UNAMA does not have direct control), such as judicial reform, public administration reform, and security sector reform.

UN Assistance Mission in Afghanistan (UNAMA)

• Resolution passage and start date	28 March 2002 (UNSC Res. 1401)
• SRSG	Jean Arnault (France)
• Budget	$63.6 million (1 January 2005–31 December 2005)
• Strength as of 31 October 2005 (unless otherwise noted)	Military observers: 12
	Civilian police: 6 (30 August 2005)
	International civilian staff: 198 (30 August 2005)
	Local civilian staff: 688 (30 August 2005)
	UN volunteers: 43 (30 September 2005)

Election workers sort the ballot papers at a counting center in Kabul, 18 October 2004

AP Photo/Emilio Morenatti

In other sectors, such as DDR, UNAMA's role was largely that of policymaker, providing secretariat support and some technical advice. There have been uneven results in DDR, but somewhat better results in training the Afghan National Army. The reform and training of the Afghan National Police is viewed as painfully slow. The least successful reform attempts, however, have been in the judicial system and in counternarcotics.

In terms of the parliamentary elections, all Bonn benchmarks were met more or less on schedule, credit for which is owed in part to UNAMA. As 2005 drew to a close, the future of the mission was the subject of debate about the kind of advice, monitoring, and support the nascent democracy in Afghanistan would need. Discussions currently center on a three-year mandate focused on security, governance, and economic benchmarks, and on joint Afghan–UN monitoring of both the Afghan government and donors. The plan is for the new mandate to come from an international declaration at a conference in London in January 2006, to be confirmed by the Security Council.

Afghanistan has been a truly multilateral project of international counterterrorism, state building, and economic cooperation. The relative success of the mission, culminating in presidential elections at the end of 2004 and parliamentary and local elections in late 2005, had a great deal to do with the local population's acceptance of the international presence. If the strains caused by the international presence throughout Afghanistan grow, that relationship could change.

The year 2005 was marked by major developments for ISAF—expanding its size and geographic coverage by taking over more PRTs and venturing into more challenging environments—and by the conclusion of the Bonn Process. But these events do not warrant declaring "mission accomplished" and scaling down military and economic assistance. In October 2005 the UN was leading discussions with the Afghan government and donors over a post-Bonn agreement, known as the Kabul Agenda. Continued international security and political support to the Afghan government will undoubtedly be needed to consolidate gains to date.

* * *

Democratic Republic of Congo

From October 2004 to October 2005 the UN Organization Mission in the Democratic Republic of Congo (MONUC) saw its authorized strength increase from 10,800 to 17,042 personnel, with the further addition of 300 troops authorized in late October 2005. Its mandate was also expanded, in terms of both the tasks it was to accomplish and its ability to use force to accomplish them. A three-phase military campaign plan was launched in the eastern region of the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) in March 2005, starting with the province of Ituri and then moving southward to the Kivus. As the end of the year approached, significant military operations by Congolese troops and MONUC peacekeepers were underway in the east, along with other forms of pressure to get the militias to disarm, demobilize, and, in the case of foreign armed elements, to repatriate, following expiration at the end of September of a deadline for all foreign troops to leave the country. MONUC also took on an ever-widening range of tasks related to the DRC's political, economic, and social transition. A successful program of voter registration was undertaken throughout the country, in anticipation of a constitutional referendum at the end of 2005 and elections scheduled for June 2006.

Background

Laurent-Desiré Kabila seized the presidency of the DRC in 1997, after a year-long insurgency supported by regional actors. Following a brief period of stability, war resumed, pitting government forces supported by Angola, Namibia, and Zimbabwe against multiple rebels backed by Uganda and Rwanda. A cease-fire agreement was signed in 1999 by all six governments and two rebel movements—the Movement for the Liberation of the Congo (MLC) and the Congolese Rally for Democracy (RCD)—that called for deployment of a UN force to monitor and assist its implementation. While the UN Security Council approved an initial peacekeeping mission, hostilities continued.

In January 2001, Laurent Kabila was shot and his son Joseph took over the presidency. The Inter-Congolese Dialogue opened later that year. In 2002, both Rwanda and Uganda struck deals with the DRC to withdraw their forces from the east. and by the end of the year, most forces of the five neighboring states involved in the conflict were out of the country, although Uganda only formally withdrew in the spring of 2003.

In December 2002, the Global and All-Inclusive Accord between the government and main rebel groups was signed in Pretoria, South Africa, formally putting an end to the civil war in the DRC. A transitional government was established, with Joseph Kabila as president and representatives of the president's party, the RCD-Goma, the MLC, and the unarmed opposition and civil society as four vice presidents. The Government of National Unity and Transition was launched in June 2003, and a two-year timeline was agreed to for the holding of elections, involving a referendum on the constitution, followed by legislative and presidential elections. Given that the accord allowed for two

possible six-month extensions of the transition, the ultimate cutoff date for the transitional period was envisaged to be 30 June 2006.

Insecurity in eastern parts of the country also continued to destabilize the transition. A crisis in Bunia in the spring of 2003 led to the temporary deployment of an EU-mandated, French-led emergency force (Operation Artemis), with a mandate to provide security

for a three-month period pending reinforcement of the UN presence in the area. An even more serious challenge to the DRC's peace process came in May–June 2004, when two groups of dissidents led by Laurent Nkunda and Jules Mutebutsi overran the town of Bukavu in South Kivu. MONUC's inability to prevent this takeover led to riots and serious violence throughout the DRC, some directed at MONUC. The dissidents withdrew in June, but the loss of credibility of the peace operation and the transitional government led to an increase in MONUC's strength and a more robust mandate.

Mission Mandate and Deployment

The UN's initial mandate of 6 August 1999 in the DRC was limited, and only ninety military liaison personnel were deployed to implement it. They were later incorporated into MONUC when the mission was established by the Security Council in November 1999. By Resolution 1291 of 24 February 2000, MONUC's mandate was expanded to include monitoring the cease-fire agreement, developing an action plan for overall implementation of the agreement, verifying the disengagement and redeployment of forces, facilitating humanitarian assistance and human rights monitoring, and, under Chapter VII, taking the necessary action "in the areas of deployment of its battalion and as it deems it within its capabilities" to protect civilians under imminent threat of physical violence. The Security Council authorized the deployment of 5,537 military personnel. MONUC grew incrementally over the years to reach an authorized strength of 17,841 at the end of October 2005, the largest peace operation under UN command. Over 2,500 civilian staff and UN volunteers are also part of the mission.

Thus MONUC started as a small liaison mission and grew to a major multidimensional operation with significant responsibilities to support a complex transitional process in a highly volatile environment. Its political

Map No. 4255.8   UNITED NATIONS
October 2005

Department of Peacekeeping Operations
Cartographic Section

UN Organization Mission in the Democratic Republic of Congo (MONUC)

- Resolution passage and start date: 30 November 1999 (UNSC Res. 1279)
- SRSG: William Lacy Swing (United States)
- Force commander: Lieutenant General Babacar Gaye (Senegal)
- Police commissioner: Daniel Cure (France)
- Budget: $1,133.67 million (1 July 2005–30 June 2006)
- Strength as of 31 October 2005: Troops: 15,197
  Military observers: 724
  Civilian police: 300
  International civilian staff: 811
  Local civilian staff: 1,373
  UN volunteers: 470

and civilian tasks range from supporting the transitional government and helping to run credible elections, to facilitating the return of hundreds of thousands of refugees and internally displaced persons, and monitoring human rights. MONUC is deeply involved in the disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR) process, as well as broad-based security sector reform of both the military and police.[1]

The prevailing insecurity in the country meant the mission was given a more robust Chapter VII mandate as it progressed. Resolution 1493, adopted in the aftermath of the crisis in Ituri in April/May 2003, delineated a set of purposes for which force could be used: in self-defense; to protect United Nations personnel, facilities, installations, and equipment; to ensure the security and freedom of movement of its personnel; to protect civilians and humanitarian workers under imminent threat of physical violence; and to contribute to the improvement of the security conditions in which humanitarian assistance is provided. These specific mandated tasks were followed by the more generic authorization of MONUC "to use all necessary means to fulfill its mandate in the Ituri district and, as it deems within its capabilities, in North and South Kivu." Thus MONUC had Chapter VII authority for its entire mandate, full enforcement power in Ituri, and limited enforcement power "within its capabilities" for the protection of civilians and in the Kivus.

Security Council Resolution 1565 (2004)—adopted in the aftermath of the Bukavu crisis—expanded MONUC's enforcement powers to include maintaining a presence in volatile areas, deterring the use of force that threatened the political process, discouraging cross border movements of combatants between the DRC and Burundi, and seizing arms that violated the embargo imposed in resolution 1493. In addition, it was tasked with supporting the transitional government in maintaining order in strategic areas, disarming foreign combatants, contributing to the disarmament portion of the national DDR program, and providing a secure environment for free, transparent, and peaceful elections. The increase in troop strength by 5,900 personnel allowed for the deployment of an Indian brigade to North Kivu and a Pakistani brigade to South Kivu, both equipped with force multipliers such as attack and surveillance helicopters. This also allowed MONUC to create a mobile reserve force from its remaining contingents, which could be moved to different locations in the east, depending on requirements. In this manner, MONUC had at its disposition three full brigades in the east (Ituri, North Kivu, and South Kivu), as well as a reserve force.

In an innovative step to improve command and control over forces operating in a complex environment, MONUC created a divisional headquarters led by a two-star general. The divisional headquarters, rendered operational on 14 February 2005 and situated in Kisangani, is responsible for tactical operations in eastern DRC, commanding and coordinating the day-to-day activities of the three eastern brigades. It initially chose Ituri as its main effort, conducting frequent, mobile, and temporary operations with the aim of disarming the Ituri armed groups. In July 2005 the main effort switched to South Kivu and then to North Kivu later in the year.

MONUC's increasingly robust posture from 2003 onward reflects the Security Council's determination to bring the DRC peace process to a successful conclusion, which would not be possible without the creation of a secure environment for the holding of credible elections. Resolutions 1493 and 1565 form the basis for robust measures against Ituri militia groups and foreign armed combatants in support of the FARDC, particularly the ex-FAR/Interahamwe. This was reinforced by resolution 1649 adopted on 21 December 2005, as was MONUC's authority to use force to deter armed groups from threatening the political process and to protect civilians, which had been interpreted to allow for preemptive action when necessary. Impartiality has been understood to mean adherence to the objectives of the mandate: force can be used against parties that fail to comply with agree-

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Box 3.7.1 Sexual Exploitation and Abuse in UN Peace Operations

In 2004 there was considerable coverage of allegations of sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA) by UN peacekeeping mission staff in the DRC. As the UN attempted to improve its complaints mechanism, there was a sharp increase in reports of SEA. Whereas the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) had investigated allegations of SEA against five staff and nineteen military personnel in 2003 worldwide, MONUC received seventy complaints from May to September 2004 alone. The UN Office of Internal Oversight Services (OIOS) reported sexual favors being bought with food—as little as two eggs—and the exploitation of orphans.

Further to a request from the UN General Assembly's Special Committee on Peacekeeping Operations, the Secretary-General invited Prince Zeid, permanent representative of Jordan to the United Nations, to conduct a comprehensive analysis on SEA by peacekeeping personnel. Released in March 2005, the study identified five principal challenges:

• The diverse categories of personnel employed in each peace operation are governed by different legal systems.

• A lack of specialized investigative expertise limits the capacity for thorough reviews of allegations.
• There is a need to raise awareness of SEA and establish organizational, managerial, and command responsibility for the problem.
• There is a need for compliance measures and individual disciplinary, financial, and criminal accountability for SEA.
• While UN personnel have immunity in their countries of deployment, this can be waived, but local judicial systems may be insufficient to assure fair trial.

In response to this analysis and policy proposals by Prince Zeid, the UN has implemented and planned a variety of measures to prevent SEA, including:

• Amending the legal agreements with troop-contributing countries and contracts with all categories of peacekeeping personnel to include prohibitions on SEA.
• Investigating allegations of SEA abuse in ten missions, and establishing conduct and discipline units in eight.

• Briefing personnel at all levels on the problem, developing interagency networks to coordinate responses in the field, and creating a database to track misconduct in all missions.
• Developing compliance measures in missions, including the designation of "off-limits premises" and requiring military personnel to remain in uniform when off-base.
• Designing a policy on victim assistance and focal points on SEA within missions to work with local populations and facilitate the receipt of complaints.
• Handing over investigations into allegations to OIOS, which is also conducting a global review of the state of discipline in peace operations.
• Establishing a Group of Legal Experts to study means of strengthening criminal accountability of UN staff for crimes committed while serving in peacekeeping operations.

As of November 2005 these policies had resulted in 221 investigations of SEA, of which nearly half had resulted in the repatriation of military personnel or sacking of civilian staff.

Source: United Nations, *Measures Implemented in 2004–2005 in Peacekeeping Operations to Address Sexual Exploitation and Abuse* (New York: Peacekeeping Best Practices Unit/DPKO, 28 July 2005); UN News Center, "UN Refugee Official Sentenced to Three Year's Jail for Underage Sex" (1 November 2005).

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ments and Security Council resolutions, particularly when civilian lives are at risk. Given that the Ituri armed groups failed to respect their commitments under the Acte d'Engagement of May 2004 and continued to pose a serious threat to the civilian population, the mission was prepared to engage in their forcible disarmament. The relatively strong consensual framework between the main parties of the transition has relegated smaller groups such as the Ituri militias to the status of unlawful bandits, allowing force to be used

against them without undermining the transition as a whole (see below).

Key Developments and Challenges

Important revisions to the mandate at the end of 2004 and an increase in MONUC's military strength enhanced the mission's capacity to help the transition move forward. It assumed a wider range of tasks in the political, economic, and social spheres and became deeply involved in elections, "essential legislation,"

and security sector reform. The primary mechanism for involvement in these fields is the device of the joint commission, three of which were established.

The joint commission on essential legislation worked to move the legislative agenda forward and to ensure that the promulgated laws conform to international legal and democratic standards. The transitional government promulgated twelve laws in the last year, including the law on voter registration and a draft constitution in May 2005. A draft electoral law—adopted by the Council of Ministers on 25 October—went to the National Assembly on 7 November but had not been adopted by the end of November.

The joint commission on elections was instrumental in helping the Independent Electoral Commission (IEC) establish an electoral budget and a plan of action for the voter registration process. With the help of UNDP, MONUC, and international donors, the IEC succeeded in opening offices throughout the DRC and in completing the voter registration process in a country the size of Western Europe with no road infrastructure. As of 21 November, 22.3 million people had registered out of an estimated electorate of 22–28 million. The referendum on the draft constitution, originally scheduled to take place on 27 November was postponed to 18 December 2005.

Although initially less productive than the other joint commissions, mainly due to lack of political will on the part of former belligerents keen to maintain a military power base, the joint commission on security sector reform became more active in the latter part of the year. The transitional government, faced with strong international pressure, created ten DDR orientation centers and five *brassage* centers for the disarmament of combatants, followed by integration for soldiers wanting to remain within the Forces Armées de la République Démocratique du Congo (FARDC). With the assistance of Belgium, Angola, South Africa, the EU, and MONUC, six integrated brigades, currently deployed in

Ituri and North and South Kivu, were formed, although their deployment was complicated by irregular salary payments, as well as inadequate supply of equipment and basic resources by the transitional government. A plan was established to deploy twelve more integrated brigades by March 2006. All issues pertaining to DDR and police reform are also discussed in this joint commission, and extensive police training is underway by MONUC's civilian police personnel as well as the EU.

The need to address issues of good governance and sound economic management was actively considered in the latter part of 2005. As a first step, it was agreed that these issues would be discussed in biweekly meetings between the International Committee in Support of the Transition (ICST) and *espace presidential*. While an ad hoc committee of experts would provide background analysis, a joint commission was not formed because of concerns within the DRC government and on the Security Council about undue interference in sovereign affairs.

In response to continued insecurity in eastern DRC and in the context of the forthcoming elections, the newly strengthened MONUC imposed a deadline of 1 April 2005 for voluntary disarmament in Ituri, stepping up its cordon and search operations. In a strong display of force, MONUC dismantled the Front Nationaliste Intégrioniste (FNI) headquarters in Loga, killing almost sixty militia members in the exchange of fire. This growing robustness on the part of the mission was not without risk: on 25 February 2005, nine Bangladeshi peacekeepers were killed in an ambush as they carried out a foot patrol near a displaced persons camp. However, the use of force convinced most Ituri militias to lay down their arms: 15,600 had disarmed by 25 June 2005, leaving behind a recalcitrant group of about 1,500 (according to MONUC) who continued to receive military and financial assistance from neighboring states. In November, MONUC stepped up, with some success, military efforts to deal once and for all with these diehard remnants. Meanwhile, incursions of

elements of the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) prompted the FARDC to deploy two battalions to the border with Sudan, alongside a MONUC military observer team and company.

Having stabilized Ituri to a considerable degree, MONUC switched its main military effort to the Kivus. The mission worked in conjunction with the FARDC to weaken and repatriate the ADF/Nalu (1,500–2,000 Ugandan combatants in North Kivu) and the FDLR (10,000–12,000 former Rwandan combatants in North and South Kivu, some but not all of whom were involved in the 1994 genocide). Following the failure of the Rome Sant'Egidio mediation process to result in any significant voluntary demobilization of the FDLR, despite the promise on 31 March to lay down arms and return to Rwanda, MONUC and the FARDC commenced joint-operations to disrupt and destabilize them. During these operations, MONUC and the FARDC destroyed six empty camps on 14 July 2005, after having first given warnings to the FDLR to leave. A deadline for voluntary repatriation of 30 September was issued to the FDLR by the Tripartite Plus Joint Committee, a US-sponsored confidence-building mechanism comprising the DRC, Rwanda, Uganda, and Burundi. Further robust action by MONUC and the FARDC began on 31 October, which included the use of UN attack helicopters, heliborn troops, and armored personnel carriers in an attempt to rid North Kivu's Virunga National Park of FDLR fighters and renegade Mayi-Mayi elements. An important goal of such operations is to take advantage of a growing split within the FDLR.

The "protection of civilians" mandate gives MONUC the authority to act forcefully in the Kivus, although there were concerns about reprisals against civilians and the impact robust action would have on voter registration. Some FDLR-perpetrated attacks against Congolese civilians did occur as a result of the more robust posture, and those responsible threatened further attacks. Nevertheless, voter registration proceeded smoothly in both North and South Kivu. It is still too soon to tell whether or not this military pressure on the FDLR will lead to their wholesale repatriation to Rwanda, but these hardened fighters proved to be more resilient than the Ituri militias.

Most MONUC operations were undertaken jointly with the FARDC. A question that concerned the mission throughout 2005 was whether it should hold off on robust operations until the FARDC had sufficient capacity to take the lead. Under resolution 1565, MONUC has a mandate to *support* FARDC-led operations to disarm foreign combatants. The Tripartite Plus Joint Committee proposed that the mandate be changed to give MONUC the authority to take the lead in these operations—an issue that was being discussed in the Security Council in the latter part of the year. To some, the impending elections lent a sense of urgency to this and a closely related question: could the UN operate jointly with the FARDC without simultaneously taking on responsibility for training the Congolese army, which itself was a source of insecurity and human rights abuses in some areas?

Efforts to improve regional relations were also actively pursued during 2005. Rwanda's renewed threat in late November 2004 to undertake military operations in the DRC if something were not done against the FDLR, and Uganda's very vocal criticisms about the DRC's incapacity to deal with either the ADF/Nalu problem or the Lord's Resistance Army incursion, indicated the fragile nature of these relations. However, progress was made on a number of fronts, most notably on the creation of an "intelligence fusion cell" to assist the three governments in generating actionable intelligence on armed groups. In addition to its ongoing logistical and secretariat support to the joint verification mechanism, which allows the DRC and Rwanda to verify each other's claims regarding FDLR positions and alleged Rwandan Defense Forces incursions into the DRC, MONUC provides assistance to the fusion cell.

Although MONUC's strength and capacity to use force has increased markedly through-out the year, the large size of the

DRC, the complexity of its peace process, and the country's very poor infrastructure render the provision of security for credible elections difficult. In this connection, the Secretary-General identified two sources of insecurity: the continued existence of armed groups who might try to disrupt or delay elections and law and order problems associated with tensions between political parties in the major urban centers. MONUC has no troops in large parts of the country and even where it has substantial deployments, it is impossible to secure all towns and villages at the same time. The Security Council's response to the Secretary-General's request for an additional brigade to help provide security for the elections in Katanga province was to authorize a personnel increase of 300. It also authorized five additional formed police units, for a total of 750 officers, to be deployed in major cities with a mandate to support the national police in crowd control and to protect UN facilities. Two of these units had been deployed by 15 November.

The intertwined political, security, humanitarian, and human rights challenges prompted MONUC to adopt an "integrated mission concept,"[2] which is designed to ensure that the UN system as a whole shares an overall strategic objective for the peace process and coordinates its responses and activities in an effective manner. This coordinated approach is especially important in the east where disarmament and demobilization must be followed by swift reintegration of ex-combatants and more broad-based reconstruction.

* * *

The challenges ahead for MONUC are substantial. The shift toward a more robust approach met with considerable success in the Ituri region in the east; whether a similar success can be achieved in the Kivus remained to be seen as 2005 drew to a close. The presence of foreign armed groups in the DRC was certainly a threat to regional security, but the primary responsibility for disarming and

GIANLUIGI GUERCIA/AFP/Getty Images

South African peacekeepers with MONUC patrol in the sunset, 25 December 2004, at the outskirts of Kirumba, after they established a buffer zone to stop clashes between rival army factions

repatriating them rested with the FARDC, which would require more government and donor support if it was to acquire the capacity to do so. The successful registration campaign and consitutional reform bode well for the prospect of elections in 2006, but the fragility of the DRC peace process and the complexity of subregional dynamics suggest there is no reason to be sanguine.

Notes

1. A range of bilateral and institutional partners are assisting with security sector reform, including a European Union police training mission (EUPOL), based in Kinshasa.

2. See Espen Barth Eide, Anja Therese Kaspersen, Randolph Kent, and Karen von Hippel, *Report on Integrated Missions: Practical Perspectives and Recommendations,* Independent Study for the Expanded UN ECHA Core Group, May 2005, p. 27.

4 Mission Notes

4.1

Aceh, Indonesia

The December 2004 tsunami offered an unexpected political opportunity for peacemaking in the Indonesian province of Aceh, site of a long-running insurgency. The need to cooperate on a large-scale humanitarian operation brought about tentative reconciliation between the government of Indonesia and the separatist Free Aceh Movement (Gerakan Aceh Merdeka [GAM]). A memorandum of understanding signed on 15 August 2005 outlined steps in that direction, including demilitarization and Indonesian troop withdrawal. The European Union and five members of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) deployed the 250-strong Aceh Monitoring Mission (AMM) to observe its implementation, which became operational on 15 September 2005. While the AMM's mandate is limited, it is the EU's first in Asia and the first such collaboration between the EU and ASEAN countries.

Aceh has been a center of resistance to the Indonesian government since the country gained independence from the Netherlands in 1945. Formed in 1976, the GAM, developed into a de facto government of the province with its own tax system and armed forces. But from 1990 to 1998 the Indonesian army and paramilitary forces mounted counterinsurgency operations, reportedly claiming one thousand lives. The 1998 fall of President Haji Mohamed Suharto offered an opportunity for peace—in 2001 Megawati Sukarnoputri gained the presidency on a platform that included peace in Aceh.

In December 2002, Indonesia and GAM signed a framework agreement on the cessation of hostilities, which included provisions for third-party monitoring. After prolonged negotiations failed to achieve progress on Aceh's political status, President Megawati authorized new military operations against the GAM in May 2003. But violence never returned to pre-2002 levels and even before the tsunami there was a new impetus for peace. The International Crisis Group (ICG) has claimed that in October 2004 the new Indonesian government of President Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono reached a secret agreement with exiled GAM leaders on the cessation of hostilities.

The tsunami provided both sides with the opportunity to make difficult public political choices. Immediately following the tragedy, GAM declared a unilateral cease-fire so as to allow humanitarian aid to be delivered. It also sent representatives to talks in Helsinki, moderated by an independent nongovernmental organization, the Crisis Management Initiative (CMI), founded by former Finnish president Martti Ahtisaari. Five rounds of talks produced the August Memorandum, which formally

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EU Aceh Monitoring Mission (AMM)

- Authorization date   9 September 2005 (Joint Council Action 2005/643/CFSP)
- Start date   September 2005
- Head of mission   Pieter Feith (Netherlands)
- Budget as of $18.1 million (2005)
  30 September 2005
- Strength as of   Military observers: 216
  30 September 2005

ended the violence, offered an amnesty to imprisoned GAM members, and prompted the deployment of the AMM.

The AMM's main purpose is to observe implementation of the August Memorandum. Formally, it has acted on the invitation of the Indonesian government and with the full support of the GAM. Its tasks include monitoring demobilization of the GAM, assisting in the decommissioning of its arms, as well as the withdrawal of Indonesian forces, the maintenance of human rights, and the development of new legislation affecting the province. While it has the right to rule on disputed amnesty cases, the AMM is not empowered to take on the role of facilitator or negotiator, which remain the prerogative of the CMI.

The European Union's Political and Security Committee (PSC) is responsible for the AMM's political control and strategic guidance, under overall authority of the Council of the EU. The head of the mission is a senior Council official, Pieter Feith, supported by a principal deputy from Thailand, Lieutenant General Nipat Thonglek, and two EU deputies. The initial mandate was six months. Disarmament and troop withdrawals in Aceh were scheduled to be completed by 31 December, with the mission scheduled to end on 15 March 2006.

The AMM is a fully integrated operation under EU leadership, with 130 personnel from the EU, plus Norway and Switzerland. Another ninety-six staff are supplied by five "ASEAN contributing countries"—Brunei, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand—which are involved in the mission in their own right rather than representing ASEAN. The mission headquarters are in the regional capital of Banda Aceh, with monitoring cells located in ten district offices across the province. These are complemented by mobile decommissioning teams. While the mission includes a number of former military personnel, it is an unarmed civilian force—the Indonesian government bears responsibility for its security.

By the end of September 2005 the AMM had overseen the first stage of withdrawal of Indonesian troops and the destruction of the first batch of weapons surrendered by the GAM. In this period, 6,671 Indonesian military and around 1,300 police moved out of Aceh, and a total of 243 arms were handed over by the GAM. The next phase was launched the day before its 15 October deadline and concluded in ten days. With all parties apparently keen to keep up this pace, military and police withdrawals concluded on 29 December and 5 January, respectively. The only Indonesian Security personnel left in the province were native to it.

Nonetheless, some difficulties arose in the amnesty process. By early October 2005, the GAM was concerned that around a hundred of its members had not yet been released by the Indonesian government. Ambassador Feith declared his determination to pursue this issue, and was optimistic that a solution would be found by the mission's conclusion. The delivery of assistance to former GAM members, organized by the International Organization for Migration (IOM) and monitored by the AMM, also encountered difficulties, as the GAM refused to reveal their names for security reasons.

As the demobilization process continued, the focus of the AMM began to shift toward monitoring human rights. Human right experts were scheduled to gradually replace arms specialists within the mission. A decision on extending the AMM beyond its six-month mandate was scheduled to be made by January 2006.

Mindanao, Philippines

During 2005, the Moro Insurgency in the southern Philippines and the central government in Manila moved closer to resolving their three-decade conflict, due in part to the engagement of the International Monitoring Team (IMT) deployed to Mindanao in November 2004. Progress toward resolution has been bolstered by a military stalemate reached during the past year, and by political transition within the Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MILF) due to the death of its chairman, Hashim Salamat, in July 2003. Additionally, the Philippine central government's mounting concern that the war zone has become a haven for terrorists, the financial burden of its continued military campaign, and the MILF's worries that the United States might expand its military role in the south have encouraged both parties to return to the negotiating table.

In 1996, the secular nationalist Moro National Liberation Front (MNLF) signed a peace agreement with the Manila government under which the Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao (ARMM) was established as an initial step toward Moro self-government. Despite this progress, however, the more radical Moro Islamic Liberation Front continued its armed struggle for the establishment of an independent Muslim state. The Philippine government and the MILF first forged a cease-fire pact in 1998, but the agreement collapsed when then-president Joseph Estrada ordered a full assault against the rebel groups' headquarters and camp in Mindanao. In 2001, Malaysia hosted a renewed effort to come to a peaceful agreement. These efforts similarly collapsed in February 2003 when clashes on the ground flared up over allegations that the MILF was building its strength and providing safe haven for alleged terrorists.

In February 2004, a significant breakthrough occurred when Manila and the MILF agreed to resume peace talks brokered by Malaysia on behalf of the Organization of the Islamic Conference (OIC). In July 2004, the MILF agreed to cooperate with the Philippine armed forces against Jemaah Islamiah (JI), the mainly Indonesian-based, pan–Southeast Asian terrorist network with alleged ties to Al-Qaida and to kidnapping gangs that were believed to have found sanctuary in rebel-controlled areas. In return for this collaboration, Manila dropped its criminal charges against MILF personnel over alleged bombings carried out in 2003.

In an environment in which both sides were making concessions and the cease-fire was generally holding, the IMT was given a one-year mandate. The sixty-member team is composed of fifty Malaysian military observers, ten Bruneians, and four Libyans. IMT

International Monitoring Team (IMT)

- Authorization and start date   November 2004
- Head of mission   Major-General Dato 'Zulkifeli bin Mohd Zin (Malaysia)
- Budget as of $2.7 million (2005)
  30 September 2005
- Strength as of   Military observers: 64
  30 September 2005

members are sponsored by their respective governments, although operational costs are borne by the Philippine government. The team members wear their official military uniform but do not carry any firearms in the conduct of their mission. Based in Cotabato City, the IMT has satellite offices in locations with heavy MILF concentrations. Agreed between the MILF and the Philippine government in Manila, the IMT's terms of reference are to monitor the cessation of hostilities, and to ensure that the peace process progresses to a stage in which the conflict-affected areas can be rehabilitated, reconstructed, and redeveloped.

The IMT's presence helps to create conditions conducive to peace negotiations between the MILF and the Philippine government. While the parties to the conflict have set up mechanisms for cooperating with the IMT and ensuring its freedom of movement, the monitors are escorted by security from the Philippine government and the MILF at all times.

Throughout 2004, the MILF and the Philippine government accused each other of committing cease-fire violations, and continued to mount attacks against army outposts and rebel-controlled territory respectively. In April 2005 they were able to return to the negotiating table in Port Dickson, Malaysia. Following three days of negotiations, Manila and the MILF agreed that a "breakthrough" had been achieved on key issues relating to Moro peoples' ancestral homeland. Although they were able to reach broad consensus on a number of issues, the most crucial and difficult elements were tabled for discussion at the June 2005 round of talks. These included matters that go beyond the 1996 agreement with the MNLF, such as Moro aspirations for political self-determination.

A meeting in April 2005, which brought together senior figures from the MILF and MNLF may constitute a step toward solidifying their 2001 "unity agreement." The need to build a common political platform is imperative to addressing the continued allegations that, although MILF leaders are engaged in peace negotiations and deny any ties to JI, local commanders have operational and training links with the organization. A political format that provides greater autonomy and builds on the steps already taken toward regional self-management could not only form the basis for a political solution, but also reduce the climate of lawlessness.

At the end of October, an environment of optimism prevailed, with the head of the Philippine government negotiating panel, Silvestre Afable, stating that he was hopeful an agreement could be signed within the first six months of 2006. He added that the government had agreed in principle to share revenues from ancestral lands in Mindanao with the MILF as part of a proposed peace agreement, and that the government was considering offering federal state status for MILF territories or Muslim-dominated areas in Mindanao. In early November, the MILF dismantled a newly built camp, in compliance with the IMT's earlier ruling that the construction was in violation of a 2003 agreement signed by both sides.

4.3

Burundi

In 2005, the UN Operation in Burundi (ONUB) supported the country in a challenging period of transition in which it sought to ensure security during the national election process as well as support disarmament, demobilization, reintegration (DDR) efforts. The threat posed by a potential spoiler remains, and violent confrontations afflicted the western provinces of the country throughout the year. Nevertheless, the installation of a democratically-elected government created a sufficiently stable environment by the end of 2005 that discussions in the UN turned to consideration of establishing a "partners" forum to consolidate the transition to lasting peace.

After years of violent conflict, the Arusha Agreement was signed in August 2000 by seventeen political parties, the government, and the National Assembly, but not by the main rebel groups—the Conseil National pour la Defense de la Democratie–Forces pour la Defence de la Democratie (CNDD-FDD) and the Peuple Hutu–Forces Nationales de Liberation (Palipehutu-FNL). In November 2003, the CNDD-FDD signed a cease-fire agreement and joined the transitional government. The FNL agreed to a cease-fire in May 2005, but despite strenuous efforts, remained outside the peace process as of November.

The African Union sent a mission to Burundi (AMIB) in 2003—the first-ever peacekeeping operation under the auspices of the newly formed AU. Staffed by contingents from Ethiopia, Mozambique, and South Africa, and military observers from other African countries, the mission was deployed on the understanding that the UN would take over after twelve months. Widely regarded as a successful mission (though not every aspect of its ambitious mandate was fulfilled), AMIB's forces were integrated into ONUB on 1 June 2004, in a smooth transition.

ONUB has a broad Chapter VII mandate, including the right to use "all necessary means" within its capacity and areas of deployment to achieve its objectives. Over 6,000 military, police, and civilian personnel were deployed across Burundi throughout most of the year.

ONUB was mandated to oversee the disarmament and demobilization of militias and rebel groups; monitor borders, with particular attention to the illegal arms trade; coordinate with the UN Mission in the Democratic

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UN Operation in Burundi (ONUB)

- Resolution passage   21 May 2004 (UNSC Res. 1545)
- Date of effect   1 June 2004
- SRSG   Carolyn McAskie (Canada)
- Force commander   Major-General Derrick Mbuyiselo Mgwebi (South Africa)
- Police commissioner   Ibrahima Diallo (Mali)
- Budget $292.27 million (1 July 2005–30 June 2006)
- Strength as of 31 October 2005   Troops: 5,357
  Military observers: 190
  Civilian police: 88
  International civilian staff: 318
  Local civilian staff: 383
  UN volunteers: 138

Republic of the Congo; create a safe environment for refugees; and assist with free and fair elections. It played a significant role in humanitarian efforts, providing security to UN agencies working in difficult areas, and through a series of quick-impact projects.

Communal elections were held in June, which were relatively peaceful in all but five communes in Rural Bujumbura and Bubanza provinces, both FNL-infiltrated areas. A South African peacekeeper was shot, and there were numerous civilian injuries and fatalities, but turnout was high and the elections were widely considered a success. They provided a major victory for candidates allied with the main Hutu political party turned rebel movement, the CNDD-FDD. Despite a steady cycle of isolated incidents of violence by FNL rebels in subsequent months, relatively peaceful elections were held for the legislature and the senate in July. On 19 August, Pierre Nkurunziza, the leader of CNDD-FDD, was elected president of Burundi by parliament. This electoral process marked the first peaceful transition in Burundi's history as an independent state.

Meanwhile, the DDR program has continued, with almost 20,000 former combatants be expected to be demobilized by the end of December 2005. Police integration and training proceeded reasonably well throughout the year. Co-deployment of ONUB officers alongside their Burundian counterparts proved particularly useful during the constitutional referendum, when ONUB police offered assistance to the local police to strengthen security measures before, during, and after the voting process.

Securing a stable cease-fire with the FNL remained a significant challenge for Burundi. The election of President Nkurunziza saw a sharp increase in FNL activity in stronghold provinces. The continuing military confrontation has had serious consequences for the civilian population. The problem of impunity is yet to be addressed, although the adoption of Security Council Resolution 1606—which requests the Secretary-General to initiate negotiations with the Burundian government on setting up

An ONUB soldier is seen under a flag of Burundi, while patrolling in the streets of Bujumbura to prevent incidents two days before the parliamentary elections, 2 July 2005
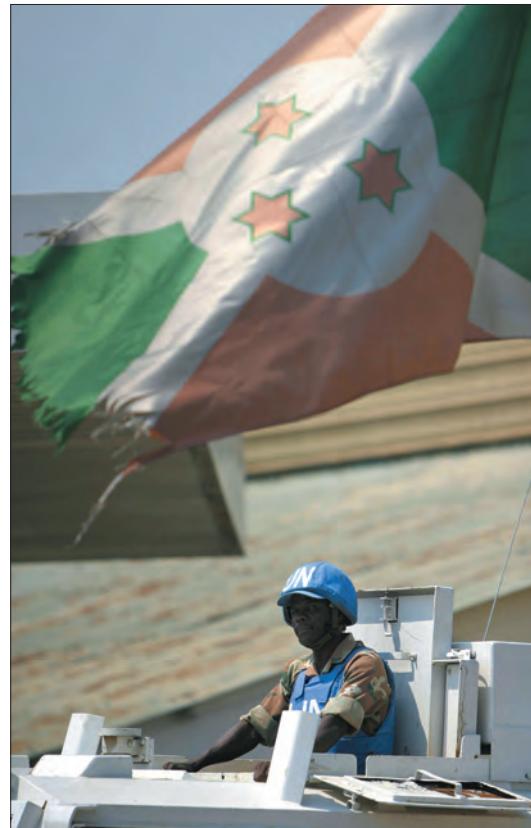
JOSE CENDON/AFP/Getty Images

a truth commission and special chamber—is a positive step in that direction.

In September 2005, on the basis of extensive consultations with other external actors, the Secretary-General recommended the establishment of an "international support mechanism" that could possibly be linked with the UN Peacebuilding Commission (once established) to support the new government as it proceeds with consolidating peace in the country. With the window of opportunity provided by the election, the central challenge in 2006 will be to lay the foundation for a more sustainable peace. This will require tackling key peacebuilding challenges while ensuring that continuing tensions with the FNL and complex regional dynamics do not undermine the currently fragile stability.

Box 4.3.1 The *Human Security Report*

October 2005 saw the first edition of the *Human Security Report,* produced by the Human Security Centre at the University of British Columbia. This aims to give "a comprehensive and evidence-based portrait of global security" with specific reference to violence against individuals. Its overall message is a positive one: contrary to conventional wisdom, since the end of the Cold War, "civil wars, genocides and international crises have all declined sharply." It notes that:

- The total number of armed conflicts has declined by over 40 percent since the early 1990s.
- In 2004 there were twenty-five ongoing secessionist conflicts—the lowest annual rate since 1976.
- Between 1988 and 2000 there was an 80 percent decline in the number of genocides and politicides.
- Wars, on average, are growing less deadly: in 2002 the average armed conflict claimed 600 lives, compared with 38,000 in 1950.

The report argues that one major factor in promoting security has been a surge in peacekeeping, by the UN in particular. The number of UN peace operations has more than doubled since 1988, when there were just seven, and there has been an even greater proliferation in preventive diplomacy and peace-making activities. The report notes a recent RAND study that found that two-thirds of UN nation-building operations can be judged a success, but that only half of US missions reached the same level.

It also demonstrates a number of long-term trends that may shape the need for, and types of, future operations:

- By the beginning of the twenty-first century, wars in sub-Saharan Africa were claiming more lives than all those in the rest of the world: battle deaths in the region were close to zero in 1950, but have now risen to an annual average of 100,000.
- There is a clear correlation between poverty and war: a state with an annual per capita gross domestic product (GDP) of $250 has a 15 percent chance of collapsing into war within a five-year period. In contrast, where per capita GDP is $2,500, the probability is two percent.
- Nonetheless, both economic and ethnic discrimination are in decline world-wide: in 1950, 45 percent of governments practiced some sort of ethnic discrimination compared to 25 percent in 2002.

While emphasizing positive themes, the report states that there is "no room for complacency" and urges a continuation in the "international activism" it identifies as the key driver for peace in the 1990s.

Source: Andrew Mack et al., *The Human Security Report* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2005).

4.4

Iraq

In 2005, the security situation in Iraq remained volatile while an elected Iraqi government gained power and a new constitution was approved by referendum. While the new government requested that the US-led Multinational Force in Iraq (MNF-I) remain for at least another year, US forces passed the domestically significant mark of 2,000 field deaths, and twelve other troop contributors withdrew their contingents in 2005. The development of a domestic security force has been slow, but the reemergence of the Iraqi state offered some political space for them to grow further.

From May 2003 to June 2004, Iraq was governed by the Coalition Provisional Authority (CPA), led by the United States under its obligations as an occupying force. An interim government reestablished Iraqi sovereignty on 28 June 2004. On 30 January 2005, multiparty elections were held in Iraq for the first time in over half a century. Despite election boycotts from the Turkmen minority in Kurdistan and a low voter turnout among Sunnis, the elections were generally held to be a success, and a National Assembly (*Majlis Watani*) was formed. The December 15 elections on Iraq's first full-term Parliament were relatively peaceful and turnout was over 70%.

The current mandate for the MNF-I forces in Iraq derives from Security Council Resolution 1546, passed on 8 June 2004. This stemmed from an exchange of letters between Iraqi interim prime minister Ayad Allawi and then US secretary of state Colin Powell, attached to the resolution, in which the interim government formally requested the force's

Multinational Force in Iraq (MNF-I)	
• Authorization date	16 October 2003 (UNSC Res. 1511) 8 June 2004 (UNSC Res. 1546, modified)
• Start date	October 2003
• Head of mission	General George W. Casey Jr. (United States)
• Budget as of 30 September 2005	$67 million (2005)
• Strength as of 30 September 2005	Troops: 160,000 Civilian police: 1,051

support. On 8 November 2005 the Security Council adopted Resolution 1637 extending the mandate of the MNF-I until the end of 2006. The extension was requested by Iraqi prime minister Ibrahim Jaafari in a letter to the Council. MNF-I forces have remained widely deployed across Iraq, with troop and police concentrations changing in accordance with military operations and insurgency intensity. In 2005, the predominately Sunni western region of the country experienced the most intense combat.

MNF-I works alongside not only domestic police and security forces, but the UN Assistance Mission for Iraq (UNAMI) and the NATO Training Mission Iraq (NTM-I). After the 19 August 2003 bombing of UNAMI headquarters in Baghdad, which killed Special Representative of the Secretary-General (SRSG) Sergio Vieira de Mello and twenty-one other UN staff members, most international UN

NATO Training Mission in Iraq (NTM-I)

- Authorization date   8 June 2004 (UNSC Res. 1546)

  30 July 2004 (establishment of NATO Training Implementation Mission in Iraq [NTIM-I])

  16 December 2004 (modified into full-fledged training mission)

- Start date   August 2004
- Head of mission   Lieutenant-General Martin E. Dempsey (United States)
- Budget as of $11.7 million
  30 September 2005
- Strength as of   Troops: 155
  30 September 2005

UN Assistance Mission for Iraq (UNAMI)

- Resolution passage   14 August 2003 (UNSC Res. 1500)
  and start date   (Security Council Resolution 1500)
- SRSG   Ashraf Jehagir Qazi (Pakistan)
- Budget $144 million (2005)
- Strength   UN guard unit: 134

  Military advisers: 5

  International civilian staff: 221

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personnel were withdrawn to a regional headquarters in Amman. UNAMI nevertheless continued to play a significant role, bolstered by Special Envoy Lakdhar Brahimi, who helped to broker transitional arrangements during this fragile period.

In 2005, a reduced UNAMI operated from Baghdad's secure Green Zone, the Amman headquarters, and subregional offices in Iraq. It provided technical assistance in the run-up to the January elections, and the first meeting of the transitional National Assembly in March. After the transitional government was sworn in, UNAMI was closely involved in providing legal assistance and facilitating the creation of the new constitution. The poll on the constitution proved relatively calm, and was approved by a three-quarters majority,

although this result was again marred by Sunni opposition. In addition to humanitarian activities, the UN faced the difficult task of offering neutral assistance to the Iraqi government while monitoring its human rights performance, particularly concerning trials of members of the former regime.

In security terms, the development of an Iraqi force capable of maintaining security has been slow. The MNF-I claims that there are now 75,000 troops in the army, 190 in the air force, and 110 in the navy, but widespread doubts exist as to the capability and loyalty of these troops—doubts often acknowledged by the MNF-I's commanders. A counterterrorist force and a commando battalion have conducted numerous high-profile operations, but questions of human rights observance and abuses have emerged.

Similar questions remain over the police. By June 2005, the government claimed to have over 61,000 trained and equipped regular police and 31,000 officers in police commando, public order, and mechanized police battalions. The independence, loyalty, and efficacy of these units have been tested and questioned frequently. In both the military and police forces, the challenges appear to stem from insurgent penetration as well problems of training and equipment: 35,000 police officers were trained in seven months, with over 22,000 receiving eight weeks of basic training; the course has been extended to ten weeks, and seven basic police academies are graduating over 3,500 officers each month.

Support for training Iraqi security forces has been provided by NATO since 2003. The NATO Training Implementation Mission in Iraq (NTIM-I) was deployed on 14 August 2003, in response to a request from Interim Prime Minister Allawi for assistance with developing Iraqi security forces. The mission was tasked with identifying training opportunities. In December 2004 NTIM-I was replaced by NTM-I, which had a broader mandate, including the reestablishment of Iraq's higher-level military training institutions and

an Iraqi training command. Also tasked with coordinating national contributions of military equipment, NTM-I has overseen a major influx of matériel ranging from 306 million rounds of ammunition to 24,000 radios.

Although responsibility for Iraqi security continues to lie with MNF-I, in 2005 it received both political and practical support from the UN and NATO. Progress toward the broader goal of Iraqi self-reliance in security and stability was modest at best.

4.5

Central African Republic

In 2005, the CEMAC Multinational Force in the Central African Republic (FOMUC) saw not only an extension of its mandate, but also an increase in the challenges it faces. These included urban rioting and a serious deterioration of the security situation in the northern region of the country, which borders Chad and Sudan. Nonetheless, FOMUC has brought a degree of stability to the capital, Bangui, and other cities, contributing to Central African Republic's (CAR) first free and fair elections since 1993.

CEMAC Multinational Force in the Central African Republic (FOMUC)

- Authorization date   2 October 2002 (Libreville Summit)
  21 March 2003 (Libreville Summit, Amended)
- Start date   December 2002
- Head of mission   Brigadier-General Auguste Roger Bibayi Itandas (Gabon)
- Budget as of $9.6 million (2005)
  30 September 2005
- Strength as of   Troops: 380
  30 September 2005

FOMUC was established at the Libreville Summit of the Central African Economic and Monetary Community (CEMAC) in December 2002. It was a response to an attempted coup that October against President Ange-Felix Patassé by General François Bozizé, army chief of staff and a former ally accused of complicity in another attempted putsch in 2001. Originally 200 strong, the mission, primarily consisting of Gabonese troops, focused on securing Bangui and protecting Patassé. On paper, its mandate included protecting the border with Chad, initiating disarmament, and restructuring the military.

General Bozizé gained asylum in France, but he soon returned to Chad, which had allegedly supported an ongoing rebellion by his supporters in the north of CAR. The regional dimension of the conflict was underlined by the presence of Congolese rebels and Libyan forces fighting for Patassé, having come to his aid in 2001. FOMUC was established to facilitate the Libyans' departure, and duly left soon after France's deployment. The broader elements of its mandate were unachievable given the continued violence, and FOMUC's troop strength grew to approximately 350 to handle its more limited tasks.

On 17 February 2003, soldiers loyal to Bozizé seized Bangui, causing three FOMUC fatalities. Patassé was abroad, and the general formed a transitional government, promising elections. While his forces had originally been fighting FOMUC, he now called for its presence to be increased. The former colonial power, France, also deployed 300 troops to Bangui to evacuate foreign citizens and help restore order.

While the African Union called for sanctions in response to the coup, General Bozizé reached out to Congo and Gabon. On 21 March, CEMAC held an emergency summit and chose to extend FOMUC's mandate, and to expand it to include securing the cities of Bouar, Sibu, and Carnot, as well as the northern region of the country. Its authority to reorgan-

ize CAR armed forces and disarm others was expanded, and its strength was formally raised to 380.

FOMUC was able to contribute to some military reform, but disturbances often threatened to outstrip the progress made. In 2003, ongoing banditry, poaching, and fears of a new insurrection led General Bozizé to request further support from France, which provided 200 more troops for professional training of CAR armed forces. By early 2004 a French-trained CAR mixed-intervention battalion was able to carry out a reasonably successful mission in the north, and in March France agreed to train and equip three more battalions and thirty gendarmerie units.

The UN Peacebuilding Support Office in CAR (BONUCA; established by the Secretary-General in February 2000) has assisted FOMUC and France in overhauling the security sector. Its contributions have included support to a national committee on good governance, help in drafting a military justice code, and a civilian police component that had trained 110 police officers and 286 gendarmes by June 2005. More broadly, BONUCA has supported the work of specialized UN agencies in CAR.

By December 2004, there was sufficient stability for a new constitution to be accepted by referendum, although the run-up to the vote was marred by violence in the north. The ensuing March 2005 elections, also assisted by BONUCA, were pluralistic and widely accepted as fair, and put President Bozizé in the lead for a runoff to be held in May. But before that could be held, violence escalated in April as self-described "former liberators" blockaded the main highway from Bangui to the north, demanding "bonuses promised."

CAR and FOMUC forces responded robustly, leaving ten dead and fifteen injured—including four FOMUC wounded. Negotiations involving the Special Representative of the Secretary-General Lamine Cissé, Bozizé , FOMUC's force commander, and Chad's ambassador in Bangui defused the situation. Bozizé went on to win the runoff with two-thirds of

votes cast, but the security situation in the north began to deteriorate in June, driving 11,000 refugees into Chad. These refugees reported unidentified gunmen indulging in looting and random violence.

FOMUC's mandate was renewed to the end of 2005 by CEMAC on 2 June, with the expectation of further renewals. Its interpretation of the mandate has altered: in late August it declared that it would leave a residual presence in Bangui but concentrate its resources in support of CAR forces in the north. In accordance with this new interpretation of the mandate, one hundred troops were deployed in the northeastern town of Bria in October to combat banditry. While this task falls within its 2003 mandate, it raises major operational challenges: the FOMUC force commander announced that its primary center of operations would be 500 kilometers from the capital.

While the mission is thus shifting from defending the center of government to establishing law and order in the field, there is no clear political solution to the long-standing violence in the north. The International Monetary Fund (IMF) has argued that the basic cause of CAR's instability is a lack of funds to pay civil servants and soldiers. In October, civil servants began to strike in response to the government's failure to pay workers. Moreover, while the AU lifted its sanctions in 2004, and the EU promised 100 million euros to CAR, the economic outlook remains troubled. The discovery of diamond mines in the southwestern region of the country may offer a solution, but CAR has been identified as a center for smuggling conflict diamonds, including those from the Democratic Republic of the Congo. The new mines may prove a flash point in the future.

With drug smuggling also on the increase, and HIV levels rising, FOMUC's relatively small force and its partners face major challenges in stabilizing CAR—a significant geographical and political link in the interwoven conflicts of central Africa.

Peace Operations in Africa

Map No. 4255.2   UNITED NATIONS
October 2005

Department of Peacekeeping Operations
Cartographic Section

4.6

Sri Lanka

The assassination of Foreign Minister Laksh-man Kadirgamar on 12 August 2005 cast the Norwegian-supported peace process in Sri Lanka into doubt and raised public questions over the role of the Sri Lanka Monitoring Mission (SLMM). The assassination marked the nadir of a year of steadily increasing tension. Meanwhile, the SLMM operated without enforcement authority in an environment where agreements are flagrantly violated.

After almost two decades of civil war between the Sri Lankan government and the Liberation Tamil Tigers Eelam (LTTE)—a struggle over both Sinhalese-Tamil ethnicity and the governance of the Jaffna peninsula—in 2000, the LTTE began to explore peace talks and announced a unilateral cease-fire just before the end of the year. The ceasefire lapsed in April 2001, but was redeclared after the general election in December of that year. The government reciprocated with its own unilateral cease-fire offer, formalized in a memorandum of understanding in February 2002 and mediated by Norway and other Nordic countries. While talks broke down in 2003, the ceasefire to date has largely held.

The SLMM was established on 22 February 2002 when the government of Sri Lanka and the LTTE signed a ceasefire agreement. Based on the agreement, Norway and Sri Lanka concluded a status-of-mission agreement that, among other things, sets out the privileges and immunities of SLMM and its members. The SLMM comprises members from the five Nordic countries—Norway, Sweden, Finland, Denmark, and Iceland—and is mandated to oversee the CFA, which calls for a

Sri Lanka Monitoring Mission (SLMM)	
• Authorization date	22 February 2002 (Government of Sri Lanka and the Liberation Tamil Tigers Eelam [LTTE])
• Start date	February 2002
• Head of mission	Hagrup Haukland (Norway)
• Budget as of 30 September 2005	$2.1 million (2005)
• Strength as of 30 September 2005	Military observers: 60

cessation of military operations, conditions for the separation of forces, and the free movement of personnel and nonmilitary goods.

The SLMM is headquartered in Colombo and maintains six district offices and a liaison office in Killinochchi, as well as points of contact in various locations in the north and east. District offices operate mobile units and patrol in their areas of responsibility. The SLMM has the authority to inquire into complaints anywhere in Sri Lanka, but must rely on the goodwill of relevant parties to provide access and information, and to ensure safe conduct.

The year 2005 saw continual tension and a great deal of investigative work for the SLMM. In the period between 1 January and 31 October, more than 1,200 complaints were recorded against both parties in a ratio of more than four to one against the LTTE. The mission must investigate and rule on each of these complaints.

In December 2004, Sri Lanka was badly affected by the Indian Ocean tsunami. As in

the case of Aceh, there were initial hopes that the impact of the natural disaster would help to overcome divisions and create the potential for a breakthrough in the stalemated peace process. The government and LTTE did agree on a joint mechanism for allocating relief funds, but the agreement was challenged in the Supreme Court and not implemented. Jockeying over control of the funds began, with the LTTE accusing the Sri Lankan government of deliberately failing to direct aid to Tamils and refusing to allow a visit by the UN Secretary-General to LTTE-held regions in January 2005. In February, the assassination of a senior LTTE leader launched a further cycle of violence, marked by widespread killings and reprisals in Batticola and Thannamunai in April through early May. The deterioration of conditions in the east has been described by commentators as a shadow war. The assassination of Minister Kadirgamar is alternatively seen as a last straw proving the failure of the cease-fire agreement, or a step that will force both parties to seek real concessions to avoid full-scale war.

The relevance of the SLMM has been challenged by these events. Polls have shown mixed attitudes—a loss of faith in the SLMM by those who believe that more violence is inevitable, and the recognition of the necessary and vital role for monitoring by those who still hope for peace. Escalating violence at the end of the year generated real concerns about a return to full-scale civil war.

Presidential elections held on 17 November 2005 were won by Mahinda Rajapakse, who appointed Ratnasiri Wickremanayake as his prime minister. Both have taken a hard line toward the LTTE in the past, and the new president once expressed the need to "review" the CFA, although he later invited Norway to continue its observer role. Meanwhile, Mr. Jayantha Dhanapala, the Secretary-General of the Secretariat for the Coordination of the Peace Process, resigned before the elections but continues to serve as an adviser to the process.

Solomon Islands

The year 2005 saw a return to stability in the Solomon Islands, attributable largely to the presence and efforts of the regional assistance mission RAMSI. While rebuilding the chief institutions of governance will take some time, as will economic recovery, law and order have been restored and the country is clearly on the rebound.

In 1998, an outbreak of intercommunal violence on the main island of Guadalcanal displaced nearly 20,000 Malaitians. An Australian-brokered peace agreement in October 2000 led to elections in late 2001, but a general climate of instability and insecurity prevailed. The next two years witnessed sharp economic decline, high unemployment, and a lack of basic services for the majority of the population. Conflict fueled by a variety of factors led to new violence in the summer of 2003. A campaign of intimidation began, led by militants under the banner of the Guadalcanal Liberation Front (GLF) and the command of Harold Keke, a Guadalcanalese rebel who had refused to sign the Townsville Peace Agreement in 2000. In Honiara, the capital, the government and citizenry were threatened by former militants who had been part of the Malaita Eagle Force (MEF), the Malaitan opposition to the GLF. Further weakening the government, many of these militiamen had been integrated into the special constables unit and were committing crimes in uniform. Faced with these difficulties, Prime Minister Sir Alan Kemakeza requested support from Australia. The governments of the Solomon Islands, Australia, and New Zealand then took the matter to the Pacific Islands Forum (PIF). The PIF notified

Regional Assistance Mission in the Solomon Islands (RAMSI)	
• Authorization date	23–30 October 2000 (Pacific Islands Forum Communiqué 2000)
• Start date	July 2003
• Head of mission	James Batley (Australia)
• Budget as of 30 September 2005	$171.3 million (2005)
• Strength as of 30 September 2005	Troops: 80 Civilian police: 300 Civilian staff: 120

the UN Security Council on 22 July 2003 and RAMSI was deployed on 24 July of that year.

The initial 2,000-strong contingent, led by Australia, with contributions from Fiji, New Zealand, Papua New Guinea, and Tonga, was granted a mandate by the Solomon Islands' parliament "to reinforce and uphold the legitimate institutions and authorities in Solomon Islands, and ensure respect for the Constitution and implementation of the laws." RAMSI's deployment produced immediate results in terms of security. Harold Keke surrendered on 13 August 2003, and forty of his GLF fighters laid down their weapons. Senior MEF commanders, including Jimmy "Rasta" Lusibaea, surrendered their guns and ammunition to RAMSI shortly thereafter. Almost all internally displaced persons had returned by the middle of August 2003, and by the end of that year, almost 4,000 firearms had been collected and destroyed, nearly 3,000 arrests had been made, and 15 police posts had been established throughout the country. Over 400

police officers (about one-third of the active police service) were dismissed, stood down, or retired. Many more were arrested and put on trial.

In 2003, RAMSI reduced its troop presence and began to focus on economic reform, the machinery of government, accountability, and law and justice (with support from the UN, donors, and international financial institutions). By 2005, in addition to Australia, New Zealand, Fiji, Papua New Guinea, and Tonga, four other Pacific Island countries, (Cook Islands, Kiribati, Samoa, and Vanuatu), each contributed a handful of police personnel to RAMSI. Australia continues to play a dominant role, providing the majority of the Participating Police Force (PPF) and non-police staff. RAMSI has a presence in every province through the PPF, which has seventeen police posts outside of Honiara. Approximately a hundred civilian advisers, seconded to various ministries, as well as a continued presence of one hundred soldiers supporting and protecting the civilian and police mission components, complement the PPF presence.

Over the past twelve months, the Solomon Islands have remained mostly peaceful. On 22 December 2004, however, an Australian Federal Police Protective Service officer serving with RAMSI was shot and killed. This led to the immediate redeployment of an Australian infantry company, to perform rapid response capability out of Townsville. The conviction of Harold Keke on 18 March 2005 passed without incident.

In 2004 the Solomon Islands saw an economic growth rate of 5.5 percent—the highest among any PIF nation, though low for post-conflict countries on the rebound. An increase in fiscal revenue of over 40 percent has also helped restore budgetary stability. Perhaps more importantly, foreign investment has begun to return; a palm-oil plantation has recently reopened in the Guadalcanal plains, and there is discussion about reopening the Gold Ridge Mine.

The challenges facing RAMSI in 2006 are the challenges facing Solomon Islanders. Law and order have been successfully restored, and signs of economic growth are encouraging; there is a continued risk, however, of austerity measures and aid-conditioned restructuring alienating the population. Also of concern is the dual structure of the police, with a real risk of the PPF undermining the Royal Solomon Islands Police. The May 2005 PIF "Eminent Persons Group Report" on RAMSI identified additional key challenges facing the country: battling corruption, improving the working culture in the public service, creating a business-friendly environment, giving opportunities to the majority of the population living in the villages, encouraging development in all parts of the country, and supporting infrastructure development.

For RAMSI, this means helping to manage the transition from an emergency situation to transitional recovery and long-term development. The accomplishments to date suggest that there is cause for hope. However, in order to ensure that the gains made thus far outlast RAMSI, it is essential for the mission to continue to build local capacity.

Box 4.7.1 Enhanced Cooperation Programme: Australian Police in Papua New Guinea

A Papua New Guinea (PNG) Supreme Court ruling derailed Australia's first post-RAMSI attempt at further intervention in the Pacific region, six months after Australian federal police began patrolling their former colony.

Signed in June 2004, Australia's five-year, nearly AUD$1 billion (US$744 million) enhanced cooperation program (ECP) stipulated the deployment—which commenced in December—of 210 Australian police officers and 64 public servants to bolster the PNG state against service delivery breakdowns, a growing law and order crisis, and endemic corruption in politics, business, and the public service. In May 2005 the PNG Supreme Court declared unconstitutional a treaty clause granting Australian officers immunity from prosecution. The police were then promptly withdrawn.

Like RAMSI, the ECP established in response to Canberra's concern over 'failed states' in the Pacific—which are potential threats to Australia's security. The program also reflects new thinking around enhancing the effectiveness of aid to PNG and suggests post-RAMSI confidence in the positive potential of intervention in the region. Its aim is to transfer skills to local counterparts by (1) empowering Australian police to exercise the functions of the Royal PNG Constabulary, including the power of arrest; (2) giving Australian officials positions in police headquarters, criminal investigations, prosecutions, and other areas; (3) placing Australian public servants in mentoring and supervisory roles in strategic, in-line PNG government positions; and (4) integrating Australian judges and legal officials into the judicial system.

At the time of writing, the principal challenge facing the ECP is how to redeploy the police. A compromise arrangement may accomplish this, but in vastly reduced numbers and not on the front line of law enforcement activities—with perhaps forty Australian officers in resource-rich provinces to build capacity among provincial police and station commanders. If approved, the ECP still faces important questions about sovereignty and accountability, given that the degree of direct control envisioned for the Australians is a significant departure from the traditional role of consultants and contractors.

4.8

Ethiopia and Eritrea

On 7 December 2005, Eritrea ordered the expulsion of Canadian, European, and US personnel from the UN Mission in Ethiopia and Eritrea, capping a period of sharply escalating tension in the region. Eritrea's earlier flight ban on UN helicopters remained in place, as did its restrictions on the movement of UNMEE staff and vehicles in the temporary security zone (TSZ). In late November, Ethiopia and Eritrea's deployment of troops to the border region prompted the Security Council to adopt Resolution 1640 demanding that Ethiopia accept the boundary commission's 2002 decision that awarded a disputed town to Eritrea, that Eritrea reverse its ban on UN helicopter flights and other restrictions on UNMEE, and that both parties return to their December 2004 levels of troop deployment within thirty days. Thus, the last months of 2005 saw continued stalemate over the boundary demarcation, threats to the security

of UNMEE staff, and severe curtailments on the operational capacity of the mission.

UNMEE was established in July 2000 to monitor a cessation of hostilities agreement (the Algiers Agreement) between Ethiopia and Eritrea signed the month before. That agreement was followed in December 2000 by a comprehensive peace agreement (CPA) between the two countries, the core feature of which was the establishment of an agreed process leading to demarcation of the boundary. While both agreements were negotiated under the auspices of the Organization of African Unity (OAU), the UN was called on to assist in their implementation. The mission is headed by a Special Representative of the Secretary-General (SRSG), Legwaila Joseph Legwaila, who maintains close contact with the political and military leadership of Ethiopia and Eritrea, as well as with the OAU. Although initially limited to 100 military observers and civilian support staff, UNMEE has grown to a mission of over 3,000 personnel.

UNMEE's principal tasks are to monitor the cessation of hostilities, the redeployment of Ethiopian forces, and the position of Eritrean troops, who are to remain twenty-five kilometers from their Ethiopian counterparts, creating the TSZ. The mission also coordinates human rights, mine action, and other humanitarian activities in and around the TSZ. It chairs the Military Coordination Commission (MCC), which is composed of representatives of the parties, and is tasked with resolving issues related to the implementation of UNMEE's mandate.

UN Mission in Ethiopia and Eritrea (UNMEE)

- Resolution passage and start date
  31 July 2000 (UNSC Res. 1312)
- SRSG
  Legwaila Joseph Legwaila (Botswana)
- Force commander
  Major-General Rajender Singh (India)
- Budget
  $176.64 million
  (1 July 2005–30 June 2006)
- Strength as of 31 October 2005
  Troops: 3,080
  Military observers: 205
  International civilian staff: 191
  Local civilian staff: 244
  UN volunteers: 74

An independent boundary commission set up pursuant to the CPA rendered its ruling on the demarcation in April 2002. Although decisions of the commission were meant to be "final and binding," Ethiopia rejected the ruling on the grounds that it was "not in the interest of peace" between the two countries or in the subregion, and called for direct talks between the two neighbors. Eritrea, for its part, insisted that the commission's decision was binding and that any further dialogue with Ethiopia was contingent upon its full implementation.

In November 2004, the Ethiopian government announced a five-point proposal that accepted the boundary commission's decision in principle. Eritrea dismissed the proposal, claiming that it failed to signal Ethiopia's unconditional respect for the work of the commission. Meanwhile, Eritrea has been unwilling to engage with the Secretary-General's Special Envoy for Ethiopia and Eritrea, Lloyd Axworthy, fearing that doing so would open the door to renegotiating the commission's decision. The boundary commission itself has been frustrated by Ethiopia's repeated obstruction of efforts to implement the decision, despite the government's professed acceptance of it.

Although neither Ethiopia nor Eritrea have called for renewed conflict, increasing incidents of violence in the border region and troop incursions into the neutral zone occurred over the course of the past year and became more frequent in November. In December 2004, Ethiopia redeployed troops south of the TSZ, in what Eritrea viewed as a provocation. Restrictions were placed on UNMEE's military police in Asmara, direct flights between Addis Ababa and Asmara were suspended, and Eritrea closed the mission's main supply route to its contingent in Sector West, citing unexplained "illegal" activities by UN personnel.

In early October 2005, Eritrea banned UN helicopter flights in its airspace forcing peacekeepers to abandon eighteen out of a total of forty small posts along the border and to end demining activities. The helicopter restrictions curtailed UNMEE's operational efficiency and reconnaissance along the border region by more than half. In November, Ethiopian prime minister Meles Zenawi confirmed that he had moved thousands of troops to the north of the country, stating that the move intended to prevent an invasion by Eritrea. However, in response to the Security Council's demand, Ethiopia redeployed its forces away from the border to pre-December 2004 levels by December 2005.

At the end of October 2005, Eritrea imposed further restrictions on UNMEE's operational capabilities by limiting night ground operations and restricting land patrols to main roads. Applying to the central and western sector of the buffer zone in Eritrean territory, these restrictions prevented UNMEE from operating in nearly 60 percent of the area, and from reporting with certainty on military activities on the Eritrean side of the border. In November, the security zone along the border was declared off-limits to all UN staff except peacekeeping troops. Eritrea repeatedly denied requests to either explain or withdraw its ban on helicopter flights and restrictions on ground patrols. It also repeatedly warned of looming conflict due to Ethiopia's refusal to accept the 2002 border demarcation decision.

In his capacity as chair of the Working Group on Peacekeeping Operations, Ambassador Kenzo Oshima (Japan) visited the region to meet with local officials and UNMEE troops to convey the Security Council's continued support for their presence on the ground. The Council condemned the expulsion of UNMEE personnel in early December, but agreed to relocate them temporarily to Ethiopia. The year ended with serious concerns about the possible outbreak of war, and options being weighed for the future of the mission, ranging from the status quo, to complete withdrawal, to converting UNMEE into a preventative force.

4.9

Sierra Leone

Closed at the end of 2005 after more than six years, the UN Mission in Sierre Leone (UNAMSIL) is now widely regarded as a success despite its troubled beginning. Yet while relative peace exists in the country, many sources of instability remain, which will take time and sustained investment to address. The year 2005 was one of transition, balancing a phased drawdown with increases in local capacity, while agreeing on the shape and mandate of a successor UN mission.

UNAMSIL was established in October 1999 to support the implementation of the Lomé Agreement, signed by the government of Sierra Leone and the Revolutionary United Front (RUF) following eight years of war,

human rights atrocities, misrule, coups, and failed peace agreements. Originally designed to monitor a cease-fire and support peacebuilding in an environment secured by the more robust Economic Community of West African States Cease-Fire Monitoring Group (ECOMOG), UNAMSIL's mandate was hurriedly expanded in early 2000 as ECOMOG withdrew. The ensuing chaotic handover created a security vacuum that RUF fighters quickly exploited. This culminated in the crisis of May 2000, in which some 500 UN peacekeepers were taken hostage. Security was restored when UNAMSIL stood its ground and was reinforced by a small but potent United Kingdom force under national command, backed by an offshore naval presence. Shortly thereafter, the UN mission was expanded to 17,500 troops with a more robust mandate.

In May 2001, a new round of political talks produced the Abidjan Accords which put the peace process back on track. Disarmament proceeded as envisaged and successful elections were held in April 2002. UNAMSIL began a process of "gradual, phased and deliberate" drawdown, linked to five key benchmarks: capacity building for the army and police; reintegration of ex-combatants; restoration of government control over diamond mining; consolidation of state authority; and progress toward ending the conflict in Liberia. In June 2005, UNAMSIL's mandate was extended for a final six months to the end of the year.

Since the Sierra Leonean government assumed primary responsibility for security

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UN Mission in Sierra Leone (UNAMSIL)

- Resolution passage and start date — 22 October 1999 (UNSC Res. 1270)
- SRSG — Daudi Ngelautwa Mwakawago (Tanzania)
- Force commander — Major-General Sajjad Akram (Pakistan)
- Police commissioner — Commissioner Hudson Benzu (Zambia)
- Budget — $107.54 million (1 July 2005–30 June 2006)
- Strength as of 31 October 2005 — Troops: 1,396
  Military observers: 78
  Civilian police: 56
  International civilian staff: 218
  Local civilian staff: 399
  UN volunteers: 83

across the country in September 2004, there have been no reported security incidents requiring UNAMSIL assistance. The army continues to receive training from a UK-led advisory team. Meanwhile, UNAMSIL civilian police supported development of the Sierra Leonean police force, which reached 9,500 by December 2005. Worrying concerns remain, however, about inadequate accommodation, transport, and equipment available to the national police and armed forces.

The official program for disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR) of ex-combatants ended in June 2004. Reintegration efforts continue, however, and are now focused on employment opportunities not just for former fighters but for youth in general.

Progress has been made in extending government control over Sierra Leone's diamond resources, whose illegal exploitation funded much of the conflict. Implementation of the Kimberley Process contributed to a substantial increase in legal exports of diamonds in 2004, and a comprehensive minerals policy was launched in December of that year.

Consolidation of state authority remains a long-term challenge. The centerpiece of the government's strategy is to decentralize power to local councils. Local elections in May 2004 passed off peacefully, and in September 2005 the UN Secretary-General reported that formerly tense relations between local councils and tribal chiefdoms were "evolving satisfactorily." Concerns remain, however, about lack of capacity in the local councils, and particularly the absence of mechanisms to ensure financial accountability.

Security improvements in Liberia, culminating in the peaceful elections of October 2005, are grounds for optimism in Sierra Leone. The border with Guinea, however, remains tense. In March 2005, a group of UNAMSIL military observers were detained by Guinean forces and held for several hours near the disputed village of Yenga.

The human rights situation in Sierra Leone has improved and should progress further with the implementation of institutional reforms, including those recommended by the Truth and Reconciliation Commission, whose report was published in August 2005. Trials of those deemed most responsible for human rights violations during the war are under way at the Special Court for Sierra Leone. UNAMSIL forces responsible for the court's security were transferred to the command of the UN Mission in Liberia (UNMIL).[1]

These are remarkable developments. Yet as UNAMSIL prepares to withdraw, many potential sources of tension remain, including poverty, regional instability, corruption in the management of state revenues, youth unemployment, weaknesses in the rule of law, and low capacity for public service delivery. There are fears that progress may stagnate as international attention turns to other crises. Economic growth is expected to slow, and a public opinion survey found that around half the respondents feared some decline in security and accountability after the mission withdraws.

UNAMSIL's successor, the UN Integrated Office in Sierra Leone (UNIOSIL), is intended to address these concerns and to ensure a cohesive approach among UN agencies. UNIOSIL is a first—a Security Council mandated follow-on mission that combines the features of a special political mission and an integrated country team. With an initial mandate of twelve months, it will work on governance, human rights and rule of law, police and military assistance, development, and public information. But the drawdown experience has already shown that it is hard to attract resources, human and financial, to yesterday's crisis. UNOSIL's primary challenge will be to sustain the international attention necessary to consolidate a peace that has been six years in the making.

Box 4.9.1 Public Perceptions of Peacekeeping in Sierra Leone

In January and February 2005, Jean Krasno conducted a public opinion survey in Sierra Leone to assess perceptions of UNAMSIL. Based on 872 questionnaire responses, the survey is intended to give "a glimpse of what the people of Sierra Leone are thinking at a given time." Results included:

- Almost all respondents, 98 percent, believed that the security situation had improved since UNAMSIL's deployment.
- Four-fifths rated the disarmament process as "good" or "very good."
- Only half thought that UNAMSIL personnel "always" treated the local population with respect, although 45 percent believed that it "sometimes" did so.

- Four-fifths felt that UNAMSIL personnel had attempted to resolve communities' problems. Of these, 65 percent found UNAMSIL personnel "very helpful" and only 6 percent found them unhelpful.
- While 73 percent were glad that ECOMOG had intervened in Sierra Leone, respondents were evenly divided on whether peacekeeping should be carried out solely by the UN, or also by other actors.
- Asked who should launch a mission in cases where the UN would not or could not, 36 percent preferred a West African force, and 48 percent preferred an all-African force. Three-quarters felt that African missions should "always" be

followed up by "full-blown" UN peacekeeping operations.

While 41 respondents did not have any complaints against UNAMSIL, 201 referred to sexual exploitation issues. While this represents only 23 percent of those surveyed, it is noted that critical respondents were concentrated in the capital, Freetown, and in the western town of Port Loko. Other negative issues concerning UNAMSIL raised by respondents included reckless driving, and fears for the employment prospects of local staff after the mission's departure.

Source: Jean Krasno, *Public Opinion Survey of UNAMSIL's Work in Sierra Leone* (New York: United Nations, DPKO Best Practices Unit, 2005).

Note

1. For a description of the cooperation among UN missions in West Africa, see the box in Mission Review 3.4 on Liberia.

Bosnia and Herzegovina

A decade after the Dayton Accords brought peace to Bosnia and Herzegovina (BiH), it remains divided into Serb and Croat-Bosniak entities and organized crime is widespread. The country has become a test for the European Union's external policies. In December 2004, NATO's Stabilization Force (SFOR) was replaced by a European force (EUFOR)—which at 7,000 personnel is the largest EU deployment to date. The year 2005 was also the third and last year of the mandate of the EU Police Mission (EUPM), its biggest civilian operation. While both the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) and NATO continue to have missions in BiH, the international presence there is not only about state building but also about offering the prospect of EU membership.

The EU has been involved in BiH since the outbreak of war there, and it has maintained a monitoring mission throughout the former Yugoslavia since 1993 (covered in the data on non-UN missions in this volume). But the prospect of membership has become explicit since the European Council's 2002 decision to "double-hat" the international community's High Representative in BiH, Lord Ashdown, as EU Special Representative (EUSR). While Ashdown has continued to press domestic politicians to proceed down the "road to Europe," 2005 saw temporary setbacks as Bosnian Serb leaders blocked significant police reforms. While these difficulties were overcome by year's end, they led to criticism of EUPM's role in facilitating change.

In the meantime, EUFOR has successfully managed a complex operational relationship with NATO, which maintains a small headquarters in Sarajevo. EUFOR has also been proactive in tackling certain aspects of organized crime. Both EU missions were mandated to cooperate with the European and international agencies overseeing Bosnia's reconstruction—their work raises policy questions over how peace operations can continue to contribute to long-term political transformations.

The EUPM was launched in January 2003 to replace the UN's International Police Task Force (IPTF). It had no direct responsibility for law and order. Rather, it advised and monitored institutionally separate Bosnian Serb and Croat-Bosniak forces, an arrangement that reflected BiH's complex postwar political structure. Although reduced from their wartime levels—during which they were effectively paramilitaries—the BiH forces remained overstaffed. The EUPM's primary goal was to help them "develop a professional, politically neutral and ethnically unbiased law-enforcement system," with the key

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European Union Police Mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina (EUPM)

- Authorization date   11 March 2002 (Council Joint Action 2002/210/CFSP)
- Start date   January 2003
- Head of mission   Kevin Carty (Irish)
- Budget $21.1 million
- Current strength   Civilian police: 367
         Civilian staff: 53

political objective being the formation of single, statewide police.

The EUPM's scale and activities represented a reduction from those of the IPTF, which was formed in 1996 after Dayton and shifted from limited oversight of the domestic police to include their democratization and modernization. The EUPM's mandate was less expansive, and whereas the IPTF fielded 1,527 police officers in mid-2002, its successor has typically deployed just over 400 police officers, supported by approximately 50 international and 300 local civilian staff. It departed from the IPTF's strategy of co-location, by which officers were present in all Bosnian police stations. EUPM members were placed in "medium-high level" offices only, and the mission concentrated on training and overall reform.

The EUPM's advising and monitoring function precluded "executive powers or the deployment of an armed component." Its pub-

AP Photo/Hidajet Delic

German Army peacekeeper gets the new EUFOR sign attached to his uniform sleeve by an officer at the German military base Rajlovac, near Sarajevo on 30 November 2004

lic security role was confined to liaison with domestic police and EUFOR "in extremis." Its authority rested on the right to request the sacking of "noncompliant" domestic officers by the High Representative. Since its inception, observers have criticized the EUPM for not using this authority more—it has made one request to date—and in tackling political obstruction more broadly. There is considerable anecdotal evidence of problems in the early phase of operations, including uncertainty over goals and local sensitivities.

Once established, the EUPM worked closely with the office of Lord Ashdown to create the State Investigation and Protection Agency to pursue war crimes and terrorist suspects. While it also succeeded in developing a single Serb Border Service, the impact of its training on the quality and effectiveness of rank-and-file police has been limited.

Progress toward the unification of the Serb and Croat-Bosniak police forces proved uneasy, and the EUPM's contribution uncertain. Unification was a prerequisite for BiH's progress toward a stabilization and association agreement (SAA) with the EU—widely interpreted as a step toward membership. The EUPM played a relatively small role in the activities of the Police Restructuring Commission (PRC), which set out a program of rationalization and unification at the close of 2004. Talks on implementing this broke down in May 2005, with Bosnian Serb leaders rejecting a unified police structure.

With a 15 September deadline to meet conditions for SAA talks, the EUPM publicly encouraged a renewed effort to break the deadlock, although it was temporarily distracted by a highly critical report on its performance from the International Crisis Group (ICG). When, on 5 October, the Bosnian Serb parliament belatedly voted to accept a unified police service, observers attributed the volte face to high-level political pressure, possibly linked to the EU's decision to negotiate an SAA with Serbia and Montenegro.

Yet the move helped open the way for EU leaders to offer Bosnia SAA talks on 21

November. Two days later, the country's leaders agreed to subordinate their political structures to a single presidency, replacing the Dayton system by which three presidents representing Bosniaks, Croats, and Serbs had participated in a rotating presidency. This constitutional shift was welcomed as the most significant step yet to political stability.

As the successor to NATO's Stabilization Force, EUFOR's mandate in BiH derives from the Dayton Accords. After taking over from the original Implementation Force in December 1996, SFOR gradually reduced from 60,000 troops to 7,000, as stability grew. In parallel with this reduction, the percentage of US troops in SFOR declined from a third in 1996 to 12 percent in 2004, fueling discussions of the possibility of its transformation into an EU mission. These were slowed by doubts over European capabilities, exacerbated by political differences arising from the Iraq crisis.

EUFOR was finally authorized by the European Council in July 2004. UN Security Council Resolution 1575 confirmed the mission's Chapter VII mandate. On 2 December, EUFOR duly replaced SFOR. Operation Althea is open-ended, to be terminated at the European Council's discretion. Whereas senior US officials had argued that EUFOR would essentially "police" Bosnia, the EU has underlined the mission's continuity with SFOR as a "deterrent" force, maintaining troop levels at approximately 7,000. While analysts think this number is higher than strictly necessary in military terms, EUFOR has also assumed the role of regional reserve for NATO's Kosovo Force (KFOR).

EUFOR's formal relations with NATO are labyrinthine, as the EU lacks autonomous command structures of its own. While its force commander is an EU officer, he is answerable to EU cells at NATO headquarters in Italy and Belgium. The operation commander is thus NATO's Deputy Supreme Allied Commander Europe (DSACEUR). But in issues regarding Althea, DSACEUR reports solely to EU bodies in Brussels, which in turn

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EU Military Operation in Bosnia and Herzegovina (EUFOR)

• Authorization date	12 July 2004 (EU Council Joint Action 2004/570/CFSP) 9 July 2004 (UNSC Res. 1551)
• Start date	December 2004
• Head of mission	Major General David Leakey (Britain)
• Budget as of 30 September 2005	$86.3 million (2005)
• Strength as of 30 September 2005	Troops: 6,656

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inform NATO of developments. Surprisingly, this structure has worked well in practice, and relations between the two organizations have proved effective in the field.

Non-EU nations are permitted to contribute troops to the mission, and 15 percent of EUFOR's manpower comes from outside the European Union, most notably from Bulgaria, Canada, and Turkey. While there is no residual US presence in the mission, there have been significant public information efforts to emphasize the continuity from SFOR. EUFOR's approval rating among all Bosnian citizens in the wake of the transfer was just over 44 percent, roughly on a par with other international organizations and its predecessor.

To maintain deterrence, EUFOR units are deployed throughout Bosnia in a pattern similar to that employed by SFOR. Additionally, a 500-strong integrated police unit (IPU) is based in Sarajevo, to be deployed as gendarmerie to handle civil crises. EUFOR has yet to face an outbreak of disorder, but exercises have been conducted through 2005 to demonstrate the IPU's readiness and robustness. The larger Operation Rehearsal was held in January to simulate a NATO reinforcement, emphasizing the possibility of its intervention in any future crisis. EUFOR has also continued SFOR's Harvest operations, targeting illegal weapons in collaboration with local authorities and police. It has been closely involved in intelligence-gathering against war

Map No. 4255.3   UNITED NATIONS
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Department of Peacekeeping Operations
Cartographic Section

crimes suspects and in operations against or-
ganized crime, from drug smuggling to illegal
logging.

EUFOR's force commander has also exer-
cised statutory powers over Bosnia's military,
which, like the police, has remained divided
on ethnic lines since Dayton. These powers
were of particular relevance in April 2005,
when Bosnian Serb recruits swore allegiance
to the Bosnian Serb entity rather than the state
at an induction ceremony. EUFOR required

the Serb entity to suspend all recruit and con-
script training at the base involved, removing a
senior officer deemed to be responsible for
failing to handle the incident satisfactorily.
This incident was treated as further proof of
EUFOR's expansive interpretation of a strong
mandate, contrasted with self-imposed limita-
tions on the EUPM.

While EUFOR maintains security in BiH,
NATO has a headquarters in Sarajevo. The
US senior military representative in charge of
this mission also commands US forces based
in northeastern BiH, maintained under a
bilateral agreement between Washington and
the Bosnian government. These troops can be
deployed in the pursuit of war crimes sus-
pects, for which NATO headquarters shares
responsibility with EUFOR.[1]

Politically, NATO headquarters also assists
and monitors BiH's efforts to enter NATO's
Partnership for Peace (PfP) program, a goal
approved by the Defense Reform Commission
in September 2005. The military corollary of
the SAA, this would require unification of

NATO Headquarters Sarajevo

- Authorization date   28 June 2004 (Communiqué of NATO Istanbul Summit)
  22 November 2004 (UNSC Res. 1575)
- Start date   2 December 2004
- Head of mission   Senior Military Representative, Brigadier-General Louis Weber (United States)

post-Dayton structures, as the Serb and Croat-Bosniak militaries have remained divided. Progress toward a single Bosnian army has been uneven but real: while Croat and Bosniak politicians approved the transition in January 2005, their Serb counterparts only did so in September. NATO headquarters also became involved in the induction ceremony incident, collaborating with EUFOR in censuring those involved.

In June 2005, NATO troops raided the house of the fugitive war crimes suspect, former Bosnian Serb leader Radovan Karadzic, and in August it temporarily detained his son. But Karadzic remains at large (and is thought to move between Serbia and Montenegro and BiH), as does the former military commander Ratko Mladic. The long-term success of NATO headquarters and EUFOR is tied to their capture, a condition for BiH's progress toward the EU and PfP.

Also involved in BiH's security and political reform is the OSCE Mission to Bosnia and Herzegovina, which both assisted the Defense Reform Commission and has supported the collection and destruction of small arms in coordination with EUFOR. Mandated under Dayton, this mission is autonomous of the Office of the High Representative, and while it continues to maintain field offices across the country, is gradually reducing its role. In 2005 the OSCE mission declared that it would no

OSCE Mission to Bosnia and Herzegovina	
• Authorization date	8 December 1995 (Fifth Meeting of the Ministerial Council)
• Start date	December 1995
• Head of mission	Douglas Alexander Davidson (United States)
• Budget as of 30 September 2005	$20.1 million (2005)
• Strength as of 30 September 2005	Civilian staff: 119

longer involve itself in electoral procedures, formerly one of its main areas of responsibility. Nonetheless, it maintains a Department for Security Cooperation that is engaged in assisting BiH forces to comply with not only international standards, but also intelligence reform and political oversight of security affairs.

While both the OSCE and NATO continue to be proactive in maintaining peace in Bosnia, the Office of the High Representative may be wound down as early as 2006, with the EUSR formally becoming the principal international post in BiH. This may coincide with the end of Lord Ashdown's tenure, expected in early 2006. While this process is not yet confirmed, and may be affected by the EU's own uncertain political evolution, the Europeanization of Bosnia's security continues.

Box 4.10.1 The EU in Macedonia

While expanding its role in BiH and continuing its involvement in Kosovo within the UN Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK), the EU has also maintained a police mission (the EU Police Mission in the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia [EUPOL Proxima]) in the former Yugoslav republic of Macedonia (FYROM). Launched in 2003 to operate until December 2004, its mandate was extended for one year as tensions grew around the country's Albanian minority. But these tensions have dissipated, and the EU mission has concentrated on police and border service reforms in a largely stable environment.

The situation in FYROM has been a source of concern to the international community since it withdrew from Yugoslavia in 1991. Separatist aspirations among segments of the Albanian community (25 percent of the population) were exacerbated by limitations on their minority rights. From 1992 to 1999 the UN maintained a preventive deployment force there, complemented by an OSCE "spillover mission" from Kosovo, which is still in place. Tensions mounted after Yugoslavia's withdrawal from Kosovo, which encouraged ethnic Albanian radicals to become increasingly assertive in FYROM, taking control of the northwestern region of the country in 2001.

With Kosovo Albanians contributing to this insurgency, NATO deployed 3,500 troops to FYROM at the government's request in August 2001. NATO maintained operations there until March 2003, when it was replaced by the EU's first military mission—known as Concordia. This ran until December 2003

and its departure coincided with the deployment of Proxima. NATO has retained a headquarters in the capital, Skopje, a rear base for its Kosovo force. It also provides security sector assistance, as FYROM had the advantage of

EU Police Mission in the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (EUPOL Proxima)

- Authorization date   29 September 2003 (EU Council Joint Action 2003/681/CFSP)
- Start date   December 2003
- Head of mission   Brigadier-General Jürgen Scholtz (Germany)
- Budget as of $13.2 million (2005)
  30 September 2005
- Strength as of   Civilian police: 128
  30 September 2005   Civilian staff: 28

joining NATO's Partnership for Peace program as early as 1995.

Like the EUPM in Bosnia, EUPOL Proxima has no executive authority, but prioritizes training activities. These center on border security, public order, and organized crime. They also contribute to FYROM's overall policy of decentralization, intended to give the Albanian community increased autonomy. In police terms, this involves a considerable devolution of authority to regional centers, and EUPOL personnel are located in both these and smaller stations, while four teams work alongside border police and within the interior ministry. While the mission originally focused on Albanian-majority areas, it has expanded its activities

to promote police reform throughout the country.

The year in review began with questions about FYROM's commitment to minority rights. In November 2004 the decentralization process received popular

approval through a referendum, but disputes over the rights issue within the governing coalition led to the prime minister's resignation. While elections in February 2005 saw minor violence, this did not escalate and the government has remained relatively stable since.

In this improved political environment, EU Ministers offered Macedonia membership talks in December 2005, and decided to replace Proxima with a security sector reform mission of approximately 30 staff. Additionally, the OSCE mission has been and will remain involved in police affairs. Nonetheless, critics have suggested that EUPOL has not had time institute a new police culture, especially within the border police.

Note

1. The headquarters is not usually defined as a peace operation and is thus not included in the non-UN data in this volume. However, its continued involvement in Bosnian political affairs leads to its coverage here.

Abkhazia-Georgia

During 2005 the UN Observer Mission in Georgia (UNOMIG) witnessed a series of promising developments in the region, although a mutually acceptable settlement on Abkhazia's status within Georgia remained elusive. Following an eight-month hiatus in contact between the two parties, a UN-hosted meeting in April 2005 signaled a resumption of the formal peace process. The Georgian leadership affirmed its commitment to a peaceful solution and its readiness to engage with the new Abkhaz leadership, elected in January 2005. However, Abkhazia questioned this commitment in view of Georgia's increased military expenditure and its closure of the Abkhaz portion of the Black Sea to international maritime traffic. Strains between the parties and between the Georgian government and Russia culminated in a vote by the Georgian parliament in October that called for a withdrawal of the CIS peacekeeping force (CISPKF).

UNOMIG was established in August 1993 with an initial mandate to verify compliance with a cease-fire agreed by the government of Georgia and the Abkhaz authorities. After a period of resumed fighting, the two parties signed an agreement on a cease-fire and separation of forces (the Moscow Agreement) in May 1994, mediated by the Russian Federation. On the basis of that agreement, the CISPKF was established to observe the cease-fire, conduct joint patrols with UNOMIG in the Kodori Valley, maintain a "security zone" free of armed forces and heavy military equipment, and through its presence "promote the safe return of refugees and displaced persons,

UN Observer Mission in Georgia (UNOMIG)	
• Resolution passage and start date	24 August 1993 (UNSC Res. 858)
• SRSG	Heidi Tagliavini (Switzerland)
• Chief military observer	Niaz Muhammad Khan Khattak (Pakistan)
• Senior police adviser	Colonel Jozsef Boda (Hungary)
• Budget	$34.56 million (1 July 2005–30 June 2006)
• Strength as of 31 October 2005	Military observers: 120 Civilian police: 12 International civilian staff: 102 Local civilian staff: 184

especially in the Gali district." The CISPKF was initially composed of 3,000 peacekeepers, but later reduced to 1,200. Although originally envisaged as a multinational force, the reluctance of other states to contribute troops under Russian command resulted in a solely Russian force. The UN Security Council adopted Resolution 937 in July 1994, expanding UNOMIG's mandate to include observation of the CIS force, monitoring of the cease-fire, verification of troop withdrawals from the security zone, and oversight of the withdrawal of Georgian troops from the Kodori Valley.

Humanitarian and human rights concerns in the conflict zone posed a major challenge for UNOMIG throughout 2005. The mission worked with a range of organizations to provide assistance to vulnerable groups affected by the conflict. Human rights protection and promotion has been a core activity of UNOMIG

CIS Peacekeeping Forces in Georgia, Abkhazia

- Authorization date   14 May 1994
                                         21 July 1994 (UNSC Res. 937)
- Start date   June 1994
- Head of mission   Sergey Chaban (Russia)
- Budget as of   —
  30 September 2005
- Strength as of   Troops: 2,325
  30 September 2005

since 1996, when a joint UNOMIG–Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights office was established in Sukhumi. Although the reporting and capacity-building functions of the office proceeded well in 2005, the unwillingness of Abkhaz authorities to permit the opening of a human rights suboffice in the Georgian-populated Gali district was a setback. With a new political leadership in Sukhumi that has sought to exert its autonomy, human rights will likely remain a critical function for UNOMIG.

UNOMIG's civilian component continued to work closely with local law enforcement agencies. Although Abkhaz authorities have been relatively open to collaboration with the UN civilian police force, they have been reluctant to permit UNOMIG to deploy police advisers on the Gali side of the cease-fire line. This has limited the mission's capacity to address crime. In a continued effort to build local capacity, UNOMIG hosted a training course on human rights, law enforcement, and community policing for the Georgian police force.

The lack of security in the region remained a core concern throughout the year. In the Gali district, armed robberies, shootings, abductions, detentions, and explosions were reported. Similar incidents were documented in other areas, where local populations have reported threats by the Georgian armed forces and by Abkhazis, and violence prompted by criminal activity such as smuggling. In response to these incidents, and to the robbery of eleven

UNOMIG military observers and two interpreters, the mission increased the security level for its personnel operating in the lower Gali district. The Georgian government reacted to increased levels of crime by tightening its border with Abkhazia.

The deteriorating security situation prompted the Special Representative of the Secretary-General to convene a meeting on 12 May 2005 between the Georgian and Abkhaz sides at UNOMIG's Gali headquarters, also attended by the force commander of CISPKF. The discussion concluded with the signing of a protocol to the Moscow Agreement by both parties, UNOMIG and the CISPKF. The parties committed to making force strength figures transparent in the conflict zone, enhancing communication by law enforcement agencies, maintaining a minimum distance between the positions of law enforcement agencies and the cease-fire line, exchanging information on criminal activities, and ensuring the continued safety of the staff of international organizations in the region. Despite these commitments made in May, the situation failed to improve in the months that followed. In early November, UNOMIG expressed concern that the security situation in Gali had deteriorated, and maintained its offer to establish a human rights office and to deploy a UN police force in the area.

UNOMIG and the CISPKF continued to cooperate on security matters. Regular meetings between the chief military observer of UNOMIG and the CISPKF force commander as well as respective liaison teams helped to improve working relations between the missions, which over the years had been strained by the issue of compliance with UN norms regarding rules of engagement and codes of conduct.

Nevertheless, the presence of CISPKF in the region remains a source of tension. The Georgian government has long held that Russia's dominating role has complicated its efforts to reestablish authority in the Abkhaz region. Although Russia officially recognizes Georgian sovereignty in Abkhazia, Tbilisi

accuses Moscow of backing, arming, and financing the rebels, and for supporting Abkhazia in the 1992–1993 civil war. Moreover, the provisions of the Moscow Agreement pertaining to the repatriation of approximately 200,000 displaced Georgians, most of whom continue to be housed in the Zugdidi region close to the conflict zone and Tbilisi, have not been fulfilled, which remains one of the single largest issues for the Georgian government. Return of internally displaced persons was one of the UN's core functions; in October 2005 it hosted a meeting of Georgian and Abkhaz officials to discuss the issue.

The interposition of peacekeepers has played a constructive short-term role in separating opposing forces, stabilizing cease-fire lines, and creating an environment conducive to the provision of humanitarian assistance. However, the UN and CIS's effort to share security tasks in Abkhazia has been deeply affected by regional and geopolitical strains. In October 2005, the Georgian parliament voted to plan for a possible withdrawal of the Russian-led CISPKF on the grounds that it had not been able to provide adequate security. Soon thereafter, Russian president Vladimir Putin stated that the Russian Federation would remove its forces from Abkhazia if the Georgian government made a clear request. Although CISPKF remained in Georgia through the end of November, the Georgian government continued to argue that the presence of Russian peacekeepers in Abkhazia posed a threat to its national security due to their engagement in criminal activities and support of the Abkhaz "separatist" government.

The Abkhaz conflict and tension regarding the role of the CISPKF in Abkhazia is only one piece of the troubled Russian–Georgian relationship. In the past year, Tbilisi has repeatedly accused Moscow of providing military assistance to separatists in both Abkhazia and South Ossetia. On the Russian side, Moscow insists that Tbilisi is enabling Chechen separatists to seek shelter in the isolated Pankisi Gorge in northern Georgia. Russian media reports allege that elements of the Georgian military and political leadership have joined forces with Chechen separatists in an alliance against the Russian Federation. It remains to be seen what impact these geopolitical tensions will have on the future of UNOMIG and the CISPKF, which remain mutually dependent in both structure and function.

4.12

South Ossetia–Georgia

Following significant fighting in summer 2004, the situation in South Ossetia has stabilized somewhat in the past year, and the Joint Peacekeeping Forces (JPKF) have been relatively successful in maintaining a cease-fire. Yet mortar attacks in the latter part of 2005, an unauthorized military parade in the South Ossetian administrative center of Tskhinvali, and a Georgian initiative to change the structure of the Joint Control Commission (JCC) have injected a great degree of uncertainty into the peacekeeping environment.

South Ossetia–Georgia Joint Peacekeeping Forces (JPKF)

- Authorization date   24 June 1992
         (Georgia and Russia)
- Start date   July 1992
- Head of mission   Marat Kulakhmetow (Russia)
- Budget   —
- Strength as of   Troops: 586
     30 September 2005   Military observers: 40

The active phase of the conflict in South Ossetia lasted from January 1991 to June 1992 and displaced almost 100,000 people. Like many of the conflicts that broke out in the immediate aftermath of the Soviet collapse, the South Ossetian conflict has its roots in Soviet ethnicity policy and the desire for autonomy. In November 1989, with the breakup of the Soviet Union looming and Georgian nationalism on the rise, the South Ossetian regional government sought to upgrade its status from an autonomous region (oblast) to an autonomous republic within Georgia. The Georgian government refused and retaliated with a law abolishing South Ossetia's status as an oblast in winter 1990. In January 1991 several thousand Georgian troops marched on Tskhinvali, ushering in a year of violent clashes and urban fighting. In May 1992, the deaths of a reported thirty-six South Ossetian civilians, including women and children, threatened to expand the conflict beyond the two parties—that is, to involve the Russian Federation directly.

The severity of the May 1992 incident led to negotiation of the Sochi Agreement, on the settlement of the Ossetian–Georgian conflict (June 1992), and to the establishment of the JPKF, composed of Russian, Georgian, and Ossetian units. The agreement also called for a cease-fire, a demilitarized security zone, the return of refugees and displaced persons, and the commencement of a political process under the auspices of the JCC, made up of Georgian, Russian, and North and South Ossetian representatives, with participation from the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE). The JCC coordinates the activities of the JPKF, whose principal mandate is to separate combatants, prevent a resumption of hostilities, and stem the flow of arms into the region. Although the Georgian government would have liked the JCC and JPKF to compel South Ossetia back under Tbilisi's control, the South Ossetians were able to establish their own state's institutions, including a presidency, parliament, cabinet, and national guard.

Russian peacekeepers with the Joint Peacekeeping Forces in South Ossetia deployed on a hill near the village of Eredvi, August 2004

Violence broke out once again in summer 2004, after newly elected Georgian president Mikhail Saakashvili ordered the destruction of the Ergneti Market, notorious for the availability of weapons and illicit drugs, as part of a ramped-up countersmuggling campaign. Saakashvili moved a significant number of Georgian troops into the conflict zone and ordered them to prepare for a "protracted, full-scale war." A tense summer culminated in a series of bloody clashes between Georgian troops and South Ossetian militias in August that left more than twenty dead. A new cease-fire was signed on 18 August by the JCC cochairs and Georgian prime minister Zurab Zhvania.

The 2004 hostilities strained the already tense relationship between Georgia, South Ossetia, and Russia. It also illuminated the lack of trust that has marked the peacekeeping and diplomacy efforts thus far. Since then, there have been numerous small flare-ups in violence, including a two-week exchange of fire between Georgian and South Ossetian peacekeepers in November 2004, and the kidnapping of four Georgian civilians in June 2005.

There is a marked lack of trust between Georgian and Russian participants in the JPKF and the JCC, and a lack of faith in the peacekeeping arrangement. On 13 September South Ossetia formally expressed concern over the appointment of the new commander of the Georgian peacekeeping forces (because of his role in the summer 2004 campaign). On 20 September the South Ossetian administration staged a military parade in Tskhinvali, raising great concern on the Georgian side about the meaning of demilitarization and demilitarized zones as specified in the Sochi Agreement and the Document on Demilitarization (2004). That night, mortar shells of unidentified origin fell on Tskhinvali, injuring seven civilians.

Simultaneously, the JCC has come under attack for its lack of efficacy and perceived bias. The South Ossetians have demanded an increase in their status on the commission, while Georgia has threatened to leave the JCC altogether, arguing that they cannot possibly have an equal voice in a body composed of Russia, North Ossetia (loyal to the Russian Federation), and South Ossetia. Recent events reveal how difficult it will be to resolve the underlying political issues within the current framework.

4.13

Moldova–Trans-Dniester

The year 2005 saw rising tensions but little overt violence in Moldova–Trans-Dniester. The Joint Control Commission (JCC) and its joint peacekeeping forces have, in essence, maintained a fourteen-year stalemate, with relative peace but little movement on a political strategy that could facilitate resolution of the Trans-Dniestran question. A promising development occurred on 22 April, when Ukrainian president Viktor Yushchenko proposed a peace plan. Unfortunately, that plan appears to have been imperiled by the events of 19 July, described below.

Joint Control Commission Peacekeeping Forces

- Authorization date   21 July 1992 (Moldova and Russia)
- Start date   July 1992
- Head of mission   —
- Budget as of   —
  30 September 2005
- Strength as of   Troops: 1,120
  30 September 2005

Tensions between the government in Chisinau and Trans-Dniester emerged with the collapse of the Soviet Union. In 1989, Moldova, which had been carved out of Romania and Ukraine at the end of World War II, declared Moldovan to be the sole official language of the country. This had a dramatic impact on the population living to the east of the Dniester River, the bulk of whom were Russian and Ukrainian speakers. In 1990, Trans-Dniester unilaterally seceded from Moldova, and by late 1991, the two sides were embroiled in a full-scale war, in which Russian forces (stationed in Trans-Dniester as part of the typical Soviet deployment pattern) were also implicated. In total, the conflict produced nearly 700 deaths, 1,250 injuries, and 100,000 refugees.

Moldovan–Trans-Dniestran hostilities ended with the signing of a cease-fire agreement, negotiated by Russia, on 21 July 1992. The Yeltsin–Sneuger Agreement provided for the creation of a ten-kilometer security zone on both sides of the Dniester River, and a Russian-dominated, tripartite peacekeeping force composed of Russian, Moldovan, and Trans-Dniestran units. It also created the JCC, composed of Moldovan, Trans-Dniestran, Russian, Ukrainian, and Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) participants, to serve as the political mechanism for the resolution of the conflict and to supervise the peacekeeping operation. Finally, the cease-fire agreement demanded the return of refugees, the removal of the economic blockade, special status for the city of Bendery, and the "strict neutrality" of the Soviet Fourteenth Army. The cease-fire has held in recent years, but full implementation of the agreement has been hampered by questions about the impartiality of the Russian-led peacekeeping forces and the perceived ineffectiveness of the JCC.

Trans-Dniester has experienced escalating tensions since mid-2004, including economic blockades, the obstruction of diplomatic visits by Chisinau, and the forcible closure of several

Moldovan-language schools. This tension erupted in violence on 19 July 2005, when Russian peacekeepers fired into the air in order to subdue a brawl near the conflict zone. The brawl had been precipitated when Russian peacekeepers demanded that a visiting US lawyer destroy photographs he had taken of a bridge over the Dniester River.

The events of July threatened to derail the so-called Yushchenko Plan, a Ukrainian-sponsored seven-step strategy for peace. This strategy includes the adoption of a law on the autonomous status of Trans-Dniester as well as the holding of democratic elections in the separatist republic under the supervision of international monitors. Support for the plan had been seen both in Tiraspol and in Chisinau,

but the status of the initiative remained stalled at the end of October 2005.

In November 2004 the OSCE mission head in Moldova went so far as to say that the present peacekeeping structure "has outlived its usefulness." The Moldovans have withdrawn from negotiations at least twice in the last year, leaving the JCC in April. The OSCE has recently taken a more active role in the resolution of the conflict. This, plus recent political changes in Ukraine, may help to overcome the current stalemate, but the most difficult questions of the Trans-Dniestran conflict—how long peacekeepers will stay and what the final status of Trans-Dniester will be—remain unanswered.

Western Sahara

The United Nations Mission for the Referendum in Western Sahara (MINURSO) underwent a moderate restructuring in the course of 2005, in the context of deteriorating compliance with agreements reached by Morocco and the Frente Popular para la Liberación de Saguia el-Hamra y de Río de Oro (Polisario). Meanwhile, the political stalemate over the future of Western Sahara continued. In October 2005, the Secretary-General appointed Peter Van Walsum as his Personal Envoy in a new effort to break the deadlock.

MINURSO was established in 1991 in accordance with "settlement proposals" that called for a cease-fire and the holding of a referendum on self-determination. In 1988, both the government of Morocco and the Polisario agreed to the plan in principle. In March 1997, following numerous failed efforts to implement the referendum proposal, the Secretary-General appointed former US secretary of state James Baker as his Personal Envoy. Baker was asked to work with the parties to the conflict to assess whether the settlement plan could be implemented in its existing form, or whether adjustments could be made to make it acceptable to both Morocco and Polisario.

Following a number of initiatives aimed at breaking the deadlock, Baker presented in January 2003 the "Peace Plan for Self-Determination of the People of Western Sahara." The Plan provided for a five-year interim period during which governance responsibilities would be shared between Morocco and Polisario, followed by a choice of integration, autonomy, or independence. Both parties initially rejected the proposal, but Polisario accepted it in July 2003. Morocco rejected essential aspects of the plan, indicating that any solution would have to be within the framework of Moroccan sovereignty. Polisario, for its part, was unwilling to discuss implementation of the Baker Plan unless independence remained on the table. Seventeen years have passed since the settlement proposals, but MINURSO's mandate to hold a referendum remains unfulfilled. Baker resigned in June 2004 after seven years as Personal Envoy and was replaced by Van Walsum in October 2005.

Despite the political stalemate during the year in review, MINURSO continued to monitor the cease-fire, foster overall security in the region, and help build confidence between the two parties. The mission worked with a number of other actors, including the International

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UN Mission for the Referendum in Western Sahara (MINURSO)

- Resolution passage and start date: 29 April 1991 (UNSC Res. 690)
- SRSG: Francesco Bastagli (Italy)
- Force commander: Brigadier-General Kurt Mosgaard (Denmark)
- Budget: $48.66 million (1 July 2005–30 June 2006)
- Strength as of 31 October 2005: Troops: 47
  Military observers: 202
  Civilian police: 6
  International civilian staff: 131
  Local civilian staff: 97

Western Sahara family visits to refugee camps
in Tindouf, Algeria, June 2004

Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) on the exchange of prisoners of war, and the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) in the implementation of confidence-building measures, including the exchange of family visits between the territory and refugee camps. After being suspended for a period, the family visits resumed in November. Long-standing tensions over the status of prisoners of war (POWs) were alleviated on 18 August 2005, when the Polisario released all of the remaining 404 Moroccan POWs. MINURSO welcomed this development and urged continued cooperation between the parties and with the ICRC to account for those that are still missing in relation to the conflict.

At the same time, both parties continued to accuse each other of violations. Since May, violent demonstrations in the territory, coupled with allegations of human rights abuses, were indications that the situation could be deteriorating. In March 2005, MINURSO completed an assessment of the state of compliance with Military Agreement Number 1, and found a deterioration had been taking place progressively, including installation and upgrading of radar and surveillance capabilities as well as restrictions on the movement of both civilian and military UN personnel.

In the summer of 2005 the UN conducted a review of MINURSO's military, administrative, and civilian components. Aimed at strengthening the mission's capacity to monitor the cease-fire and military agreements, the review resulted in the launch of a restructuring exercise, which entailed the closure of sector headquarters to enable MINURSO to deploy more observers to the nine military observer team sites, and the establishment of a civilian–military joint mission analysis cell. In October, a new concept of operations reflecting these changes was approved. A further adjustment of the mission's administrative and civilian component—a net reduction of thirty-nine posts while creating twenty-four UN volunteer positions—was recommended. If approved, it will be implemented in a phased manner through mid-2006.

Middle East, Non-UN Operations (MFO Sinai, TIPH 2)

The Multinational Force and Observers Sinai (MFO Sinai) was established on the basis of a protocol appended to the Camp David Accords of 26 March 1979, which marked the formal cessation of war between Israel and Egypt. The Camp David Accords contemplated creation of a UN peacekeeping mission, but Arab opposition to the accords meant it proved difficult to gain agreement on such a force. In the interim, verification functions were carried out by the US Sinai Field Mission (SFM). In 1981 the president of the Security Council announced that the UN could not provide a peacekeeping force, leading to efforts by the United States to secure an arrangement outside the United Nations framework.

The mandate of MFO Sinai is tripartite: to observe compliance with the security arrangements of the peace treaty through the operation of checkpoints, reconnaissance patrols, and observation posts; to verify and report on the implementation of the provisions of the annex to the Treaty of Peace at least twice per month and upon request from either party; and to protect the Strait of Tiran and ensure freedom of navigation.

After two decades of quietly and successfully fulfilling its mission, and contributing to stability along the Israel–Egypt border in an otherwise fraught region, 2005 brought a significant new development: the Israeli withdrawal from Gaza. In negotiations in advance of the withdrawal, Egypt agreed to deploy additional security forces and police along its border with Gaza to help guarantee security, especially regarding the smuggling of weaponry via tunnels—a recurring problem in past years. In the first expansion of MFO Sinai's mandate since its inception, the sponsoring parties agreed to monitor the deployment of Egyptian border guards. The multinational observers are tasked with verifying that the deployment is consistent with the terms agreed between Egypt and Israel. They are to maintain permanent, temporary, and mobile sites in the area where the border guard force is deployed, and verify the number and characteristics of personnel, weapons, equipment, and infrastructure of the border guard force. In November 2005, the European Union agreed to deploy observers to the Gaza-Egypt border.

This new element of MFO Sinai's mandate, combined with the EU's planned deployment, could have ramifications beyond the immediate area of operations. In a fraught region, creative peacekeeping configurations may help to untangle the ongoing Israeli–Palestinian conflict.

Multinational Force and Observers (MFO Sinai)

- Authorization date   3 August 1981
  (Protocol to the Treaty of Peace)
- Start date   March 1982
- Head of mission   James A. Larocco (United States)
- Budget as of $51 million
  30 September 2005   (estimated budget for 2005)
- Strength as of   Military observers: 1,686
  30 September 2005   Civilian staff: 15

The Temporary International Presence in Hebron (TIPH) was established in the aftermath of a political crisis that arose after an Israeli resident of the Kiryat Arba Settlement on 25 February 1994 opened fire on Palestinian worshippers during Friday dawn prayers at the Mosque of Ibrahim, killing twenty-nine. The Security Council condemned the massacre and called for a temporary international presence to guarantee the safety and protection of the Palestinians, as required by Annex II of the Oslo Accords (the Declaration of Principles). The Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) also withdrew from further peace negotiations pending the agreement of Israel to international observers in Hebron. Following Norwegian mediation, on 31 March 1994, the PLO and Israel signed an agreement to create TIPH.

The function of TIPH—which was withdrawn in August 1994 and reestablished in 1996—is to provide the Palestinian residents of Hebron with a sense of security, to promote stability through monitoring and reporting, and to conduct various assistance activities. Despite its broad mandate, TIPH is a very small mission of seventy-two personnel from Denmark, Italy, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, and Turkey, armed only with pistols for self-defense. Its reports are strictly confidential and are shared only with Israel, the Palestinian Authority, and the six member countries. TIPH operates on a strict nonintervention policy, using digital cameras and notebooks to record incidents.

The TIPH has had a difficult history in Hebron, especially since the outbreak of the

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Temporary International Presence in Hebron 2 (TIPH 2)

• Authorization date	15 January 1997 (Protocol Concerning the Redeployment in Hebron); 21 January 1997 (Agreement on the Temporary International Presence in Hebron)
• Start date	January 1997
• Head of mission	Arnstein Øverkil (Norway)
• Budget as of 30 September 2005	$1.5 million (2005)
• Strength as of 30 September 2005	Troops: 6 Civilian police: 26 Civilian staff: 40

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second intifada in 2000. In 2002, two TIPH observers were killed by a Palestinian gunman, who was eventually arrested by Israeli police. Relationships with settlers have often been troubled, with frequent incidents of stone-throwing, causing minor injuries to TIPH staff. The past year, in particular, has seen many moments of tension and small incidents of stone-throwing or harassment, though fortunately the situation has not exploded as many feared. Regional political developments in 2005, including the Israeli withdrawal from Gaza, did not affect TIPH directly. If and when the question of full or partial Israeli withdrawal from the West Bank is engaged, the question of Hebron—and thus TIPH's mandate—will be a thorny issue.

4.16

Cyprus

During 2005, the UN Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus (UNFICYP) continued to monitor the cease-fire, sought to encourage the resumption of normal civilian activities in the buffer zone, and engaged in humanitarian activities. Although the overall situation in Cyprus remained stable, official contact between the parties has not resumed, and the Greek Cypriot side has decided to conduct military exercises for the first time in four years. Turkish forces are likely to conduct their own exercises in November. Meanwhile, in an effort to gain Greek Cypriot agreement with his 2003 settlement plan, the UN Secretary-General met with Turkish and Greek heads of state in May 2005 to discuss the possibility of resuming negotiations. It remains to be seen what impact the mission's implementation of a new concept of operations, aimed at reducing its overall troop strength, ensuring greater mobility, and strengthening its civil affairs and civilian police component, will have on the security environment.

UNFICYP was established on 4 March 1964 to prevent further fighting between the Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot communities and to help maintain law and order. Following the resurgence of hostilities that led to Turkey's military intervention and the establishment of a de facto cease-fire in 1974, its responsibilities were expanded to include supervision of the cease-fire, maintenance of a buffer zone, and engagement in humanitarian activities. In the absence of a political settlement on the underlying conflict, the Security Council has continually extended UNFICYP's mandate in six-month intervals.

After the events of 1974, the Security Council requested the Secretary-General to use his good offices to find a formula for reunification of the island acceptable to both Greek Cypriots and Turkish Cypriots. Various efforts in succeeding years foundered. An intensive effort was undertaken between 1999 and early 2003 by the Secretary-General's envoy Alvaro de Soto, culminating in a comprehensive settlement proposal. In March 2003, the proposal was submitted to the parties by the Secretary-General. Although it did not prove possible to reach agreement at that time, talks resumed in early 2004 and simultaneous referenda were held. The settlement plan was approved by the Turkish Cypriot electorate but rejected by the Greek Cypriots.

UN Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus (UNFICYP)

- Resolution passage and start date — 4 March 1964 (UNSC Res. 186)
- SRSG — Michael Møller (Denmark)
- Force commander — Major-General Herbert Joaquin Figoli Almandos (Uruguay)
- Budget — $45.62 million (including voluntary contributions of a one-third share from Cyprus and $6.5 million from Greece) (1 July 2005–30 June 2006)
- Strength as of 31 October 2005 — Troops: 842
  Civilian police: 69
  International civilian staff: 38
  Local civilian staff: 110

In this evolving context, UNFICYP continues to fulfill its monitoring tasks by investigating hundreds of alleged cease-fire violations and buffer zone infringements each year. It typically responds by deploying troops, issuing verbal or written protests, and conducting follow-up action to ensure that the violation has been rectified. A new concept of operations was proposed in September 2004 and adopted in February 2005, increasing UNFICYP's civilian police component from 45 to 69, and reducing its overall troop strength from 1,224 to 860. UNFICYP added a military observation group, but reduced the number of operational sites where it is deployed.

A joint review of UNFICYP carried out by the mission and UN headquarters in May 2005 revealed that the overall environment on the island was stable and the cease-fire line relatively calm. A decrease in the number of incidents in the mission signified that the strength reduction had not led to a deterioration of the security situation, but incidents in a few sensitive locations increased, particularly where Greek and Turkish Cypriots are in close proximity, such as Nicosia. Cited as a serious concern by UNFICYP, this surge in incidents in the buffer zone is a development that will be closely monitored in the coming months. The Turkish Cypriot side's 19 May 2005 lifting of the restrictions that it had imposed on UNFICYP in July 2000 enabled the mission to restore its operational capabilities in and around the buffer zone.

Another function entrusted to UNFICYP is to encourage the resumption of normal civilian activity in the buffer zone. To this end, it facilitates farming, ensures a smooth supply of electricity and water, provides emergency medical services, and encourages bicommunal contacts. In cooperation with the UN Development Programme (UNDP), UNFICYP also discharges various humanitarian functions. Since the opening of the civilian passages in 2003, Greek and Turkish Cypriots have continued to cross to the north and south at significant rates, with few incidents of violence. The

AP Photo/UNFICYP

A specialized member of the EU-funded UN demining project
works in UNFICYP-patrolled buffer zone near Nicosia, Cyprus, in May 2005

absence of official contacts between the sides has highlighted the useful role UNFICYP plays in enabling the two parties to maintain contact. Sensitive humanitarian and other meetings occur under UN auspices, including some that involve political parties from the north and the south.

The process of accession to the European Union has served both to provide incentives in the peace process and to add further complexity to efforts to resolve the conflict between the two parties. On 1 May 2004, Cyprus acceded to the EU. While this development has had significant benefits, it has created new sources of tension associated with Turkey's reluctance—in the absence of the comprehensive settlement—to formally recognize the Republic of Cyprus, as well as a surge in litigation in the European Court of Human Rights over property claims. These issues have increased tension between the two parties and made the possibility of developing a political solution that is acceptable to both parties appear more remote. Meanwhile, UNFICYP will continue to play its historical role of helping to maintain stability until such time as there is a resolution of the conflict.

4.17

India and Pakistan

As one of the UN's oldest peacekeeping operations, the UN Military Observer Group in India and Pakistan (UNMOGIP) was established in 1949 and has consisted for many years of approximately forty-five military observers deployed to supervise the cease-fire between Indian and Pakistani forces, based on the Karachi Agreement of 27 July 1949. Large-scale military hostilities broke out again in 1965–1966 and in 1971, after which a cease-fire was secured and included in the Simla Agreement. However, from 1989 until 2003, firing along the line of control (LoC) between the two armies was commonplace and there were frequent incidents of violence in Indian-administered Jammu and Kashmir. In recent years, political relations between the two countries have improved, including tentative cooperation to deal with the aftermath of the devastating earthquake in October 2005. Despite India's official position that UNMOGIP has no operational role to play since the Simla Agreement of 1972, UNMOGIP continues to perform the limited function of monitoring the cease-fire along the LoC, pending settlement of the underlying dispute over Jammu and Kashmir.

The LoC that was established in 1972 follows, with minor deviations, the cease-fire line that had been established under the 1949 Karachi Agreement. However, India and Pakistan retained divergent positions on UNMOGIP's continued role. India took the position that the mandate of UNMOGIP had lapsed, as it related specifically to the cease-fire line under the Karachi Agreement. Pakistan disagreed with this position and continued to lodge complaints

UN Military Observer Group in India and Pakistan (UNMOGIP)	
• Start date	January 1949
• Chief military observer	Major-General Dragutin Repinc (Croatia)
• Budget	$8.37 million (appropriation for 2005)
• Strength as of 31 October 2005	Military observers: 44 International civilian staff: 21 Local civilian staff: 47

of cease-fire violations with UNMOGIP. In November 2003, the government of Pakistan declared a unilateral cease-fire covering the international border between the two countries, the LoC and the working boundary between Pakistan and Jammu and Kashmir.

Without a Security Council decision to make a change, UNMOGIP has continued to fulfill its mandate established in 1949 with virtually the same administrative arrangements. Its task is to monitor the cease-fire along the LoC and report to the Secretary-General on developments that affect the observance of the cease-fire. It investigates complaints and reports on them to United Nations headquarters. India has somewhat restricted the activities and movement of UN personnel on its side of the LoC by requiring the UN military observers to travel in Indian army convoys, and has rejected proposals that the UN take a mediating role in the conflict. However, both governments have continued to provide UNMOGIP with accommodation, transportation, security, and other support.

Political relations between India and Pakistan have fluctuated over the years, but took a turn for the better in January 2004, when an agreement was reached to commence a bilateral "composite dialogue" on an agreed range of issues, including Jammu and Kashmir. Numerous confidence-building measures were instigated and further progress was made in April 2005, when the two states held a mini-summit to discuss the fate of Jammu and Kashmir. In September 2005, India announced that it would reduce its troop levels in Indian-administered Jammu and Kashmir, pending an end to alleged infiltration of militants from across the LoC.

Although India has yet to follow through on this reduction, diplomatic developments are encouraging. However, concerns have been raised by representatives of civil society on both sides of the LoC that public engagement on the fate of Jammu and Kashmir has been limited and fails to address fully the concerns of the local population. During the past year, the Secretary-General has supported the composite dialogue and the confidence-building measures undertaken by the governments of India and Pakistan, including the introduction of a bus service between Muzafarrabad and Srinagar, across the LoC.

On 8 October 2005, the region suffered a devastating earthquake, killing more than an estimated 73,000 people and leaving some 3 million homeless, primarily on the Pakistan-administered side of the LoC. There were also UNMOGIP casualties. The two governments cautiously sought to cooperate in providing assistance to the victims of the earthquake. In the immediate aftermath, India stated that it would permit Pakistani helicopters to operate over the LoC. Similarly, President Pervez Musharraf offered to open the LoC to enable earthquake survivors and their families to cross, and to help with relief and reconstruction efforts. In November, the two countries opened five crossing points initially to facilitate the movement of relief supplies, and eventually of civilians.

Despite these goodwill gestures, violence in the region persists, including continued attacks by suspected militants and counter-insurgency activities by the Indian military. In the week following the earthquake, the Indian army killed twenty-nine suspected militants, and Ghulam Nabi Lone, the education minister in Indian-administered Jammu and Kashmir, was assassinated. UNMOGIP's narrow mandate and India's thus far unchanged position on its status mean that the mission's capacity to contribute to a further easing of tensions remains limited.

4.18

Middle East, UN Operations (UNTSO, UNDOF, UNIFIL)

Every one of Israel's borders with an Arab neighbor has, at some point since 1945, been monitored or protected by a UN or other international peace operation. All these operations are integrally linked to the broader Arab–Israeli peace process. This was true in 1948, when the UN Truce and Supervision Operation (UNTSO) was established as the UN's first-ever and longest-running operation and is as true today, as the broader peace process and regional dynamics continue to set political and operational challenges for UN peacekeeping.

UNTSO was established by Security Council Resolution 50 to monitor cease-fire lines negotiated in 1948 between the fledgling state of Israel and the Arab governments with which it was then at war. Currently, UNTSO's primary function is to provide observers and logistical support to the UN Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL) (through Observer Group Lebanon) and the UN Disengagement Observer Force (UNDOF) (discussed below). Periodic reviews by troop contributors have confirmed that having UNTSO provide centralized, readily available observers to these missions is more efficient than providing the same services separately through UNIFIL and UNDOF. As such, it provides an interesting model of centralized operational support to multiple missions in a small subregion.

On Israel's southern border with Egypt, the Multinational Force and Observers Sinai (MFO Sinai) is the major non-UN operation in the region, and it is discussed separately in Chapter 4.15.

UN Troop Supervision Organization (UNTSO)	
• Resolution passage and start date	29 May 1948 (UNSC Res. 50)
• Chief of staff	Brigadier-General Clive Lilley (New Zealand)
• Budget	$29.04 million (appropriations for 2005)
• Strength as of 31 October 2005	Military observers: 151 International civilian staff: 101 Local civilian staff: 117

On Israel's border with Syria, UNDOF functions as a paradigmatic example of a UN interpositional disengagement force, one of only a handful of such missions still deployed. Established by Security Council Resolution 350 in 1974, its deployment was called for in an armistice agreement which, still in effect, defined the terms of Israel's withdrawal from territory it occupied during the 1973 war. UNDOF was established to create a buffer between Syrian and Israeli forces in the mountainous Golan Heights. For all of the vitriol that sometimes passes between these tense neighbors, the buffer between them has been absolutely quiet since it was formed, and UNDOF has helped to ensure that this segment of the broader regional conflict has remained stable.

UNDOF has no mandate to help resolve the impasse between Israel and Syria, its role being limited to observation and reporting of

UN Disengagement Observer Force (UNDOF)

- Resolution passage and start date
  31 May 1974 (UNSC Res. 350)
- Force commander
  Major-General Bala Nanda Sharma (Nepal)
- Budget
  $41.52 million
  (1 July 2005–30 June 2006)
- Strength as of 31 October 2005
  Troops: 1,030
  International civilian staff: 37
  Local civilian staff: 103

In the first twenty-two years of its existence, the basic political conditions under which UNIFIL was supposed to implement its mandate—namely full cooperation of all parties in a context of Israeli withdrawal—were never established. Following Israel's partial withdrawal from southern Lebanon in 1985, UNIFIL's area of operations became an unstable, de facto buffer zone between Israeli and unofficial Lebanese forces.

The first real opportunity to implement UNIFIL's mandate came in 2000, when Israel withdrew its forces behind a "Blue Line" identified by the UN, which the Security Council confirmed was in accordance with Resolution 425. UNIFIL's mandate was renewed and the mission was redeployed—and later augmented to include an infantry battalion—to undertake more active monitoring of the Blue Line. Using observation posts (staffed by UNTSO-supplied observers) along the Blue Line itself, as well as helicopter patrols, UNIFIL has monitored land and air violations by Lebanese armed groups and the Israeli defense force and has reported these violations to the Security Council. A flare-up of these violations in November 2005 led to UN and other international efforts to restore relative calm.

By the end of November 2005, a critical element of Resolution 425—the restoration of Lebanese government authority in the south—remained unfulfilled. In the aftermath of the Israeli withdrawal, the government of Lebanon clearly has responsibility for the restoration of order. Some of UNIFIL's critics believe its presence in southern Lebanon serves as an excuse for the government not to act, especially in terms of confronting Hezbollah. Others, however, argue that so long as Syria maintained its presence in Lebanon, it was unrealistic to believe that the Lebanese government could restore its authority in the south, and that UNIFIL still had a calming effect (including by making a significant contribution to the economy of the south). On 29 July 2005 the Security Council extended UNIFIL's mandate, but pointedly called on the government to

violations of the line of disengagement. Even when Israel and Lebanon were engaged in tense negotiations over Israel's withdrawal from southern Lebanon in 2000, and notwithstanding the fact that territory bordering Lebanon and Syria (the Shab'a farms) became entangled in these negotiations, UNDOF's operational line was never in question. Indeed, its existence helped determine the line behind which Israel had to withdraw. UNDOF is unlikely to see any changes to its mandate or operating conditions unless there is a major escalation between these neighbors or, more hopefully, a resolution of the remaining contentious issues in this track of the regional peace process. The broader political context in which UNDOF exists was affected by the passage in late 2004 of Security Council Resolution 1559, calling for Syrian withdrawal from Lebanon. However, to date, rising tensions within Syria and mounting international pressure on its government have not affected UNDOF's operations.

The same cannot be said of the UN Interim Force in Lebanon. Established in 1978 by Security Council Resolutions 425 and 426 to assist in the provision of security in southern Lebanon following Israel's invasion of the area, UNIFIL was given a three-part mandate: to confirm the withdrawal of Israeli forces, to restore international peace and security, and to assist the government of Lebanon in ensuring the return of its effective authority in the area.

A UNIFIL armored vehicle patrols
the border with Israel in Kfar Kila village
in south Lebanon, June 2005

UN Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL)

- Resolution passage 19 March 1978 (UNSC Res. 425/426)
  and start date
- Force commander Major-General Alain Pellegrini
  and chief of mission (France)
- Budget $94.25 million
  (1 July 2005–30 June 2006)
- Strength as of Troops: 2,009
  31 October 2005 International civilian staff: 101
  Local civilian staff: 294

fulfill its responsibilities under Resolution 425, "including through the deployment of sufficient numbers of Lebanese armed and security forces, to ensure a calm environment throughout the area, including along the Blue Line, and to exert control and monopoly over the use of force on its entire territory and to prevent attacks from Lebanon across the Blue Line." Resolution 1559 also called specifically for "the disbanding and disarmament of all Lebanese and non-Lebanese militias." These Security Council statements add urgency to the issue of the unfulfilled element of UNIFIL's mandate.

Moreover, the UN's demand in Security Council Resolution 1559 that Syria withdraw from Lebanon, and Syria's official compliance some months later, created a new internal dynamic in Lebanon. The launching of a UN investigation into the assassination of former Lebanese prime minister Rafik Hariri, and the rising tensions associated with that event and the international pressure surrounding it, generated unease within UNIFIL's area of operations.

All this leaves the thorny question of what role, if any, UNIFIL should play in assisting the government of Lebanon in fulfilling its responsibilities under Resolution 425, and in the context of Resolution 1559 with respect to "militias"—a coded reference to Hezbollah and Palestinian armed groups. Until those questions are resolved, UNIFIL will continue to function in a complex political and operational environment, one fraught with risks to the UN and to the continued viability of the mission.

5 Global Statistics on UN Missions

The data in this chapter covers all UN missions in the period running from 1 July 2004 to the third quarter of 2005. While a number of exceptions are noted, this coverage reflects the UN's 2004/05 budgetary year (which concluded on 30 June 2005) in addition to information available on later months. In almost all cases, the data presented here is aggregated from the mission-by-mission material in Chapter 7. Where other sources have been used, they are indicated in the footnotes.

5.1 Total Troops, July 2004–September 2005
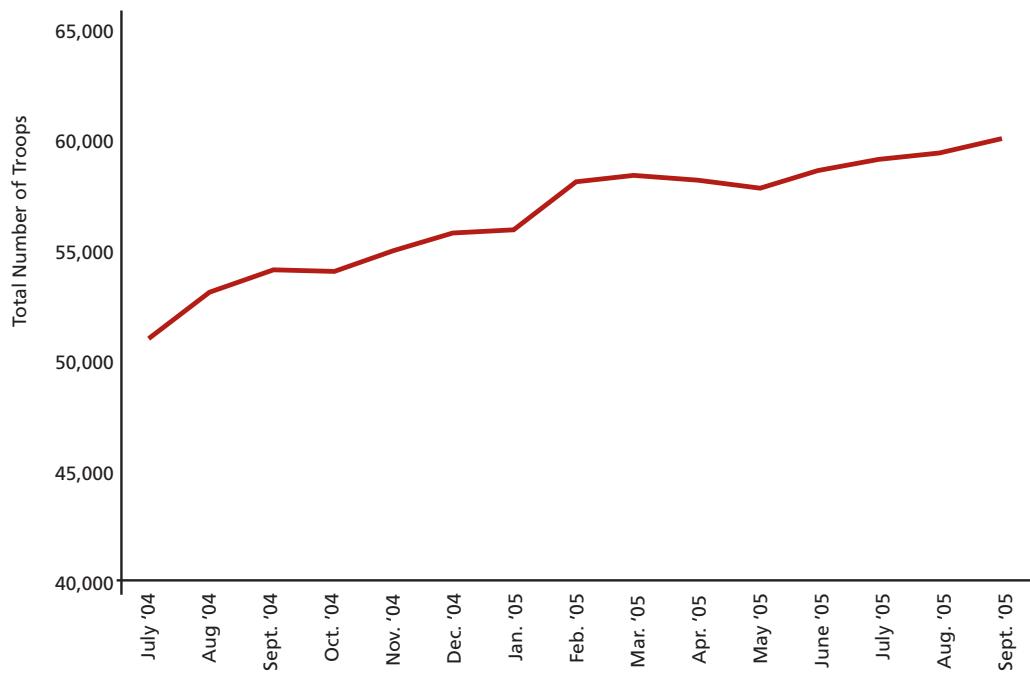
Source: DPI (DPKO website).

**5.2 Top Twenty Troop Contributors to UN Missions,
30 September 2005**
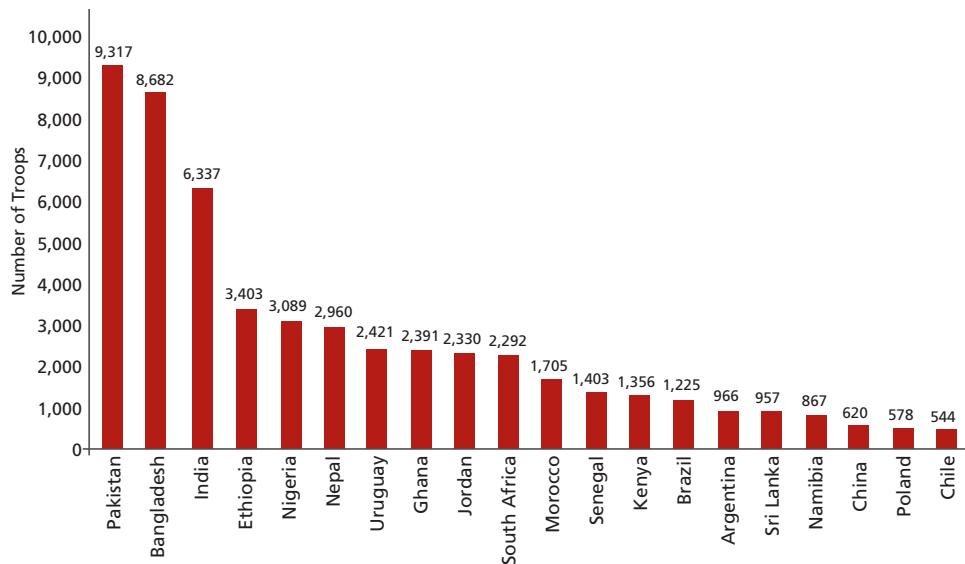
Source: DPI (DPKO website).

**5.3 Troops Deployed, by UN Mission,
30 September 2005**
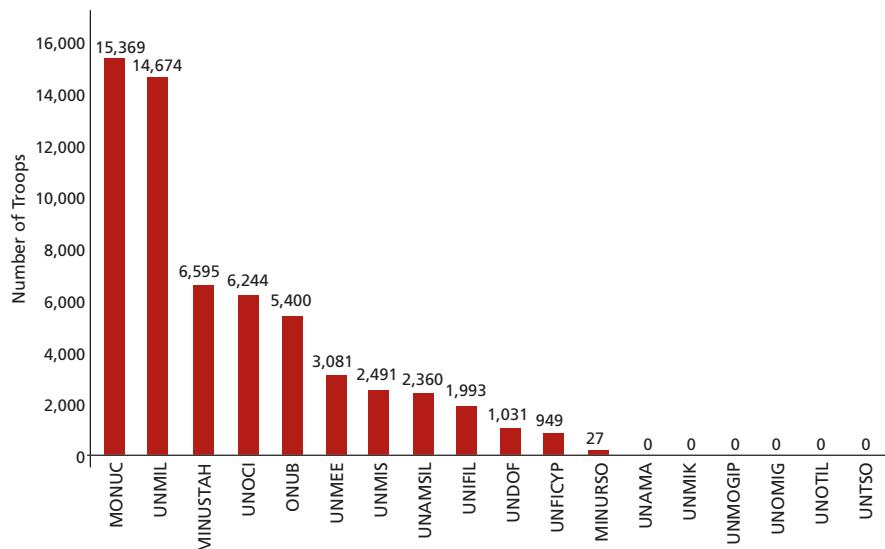
Source: DPI (DPKO website).

5.4 Total Military Observers, July 2004–September 2005

Source: DPI (DPKO website).

5.5 Top Twenty Military Observer Contributors to UN Missions, 30 September 2005
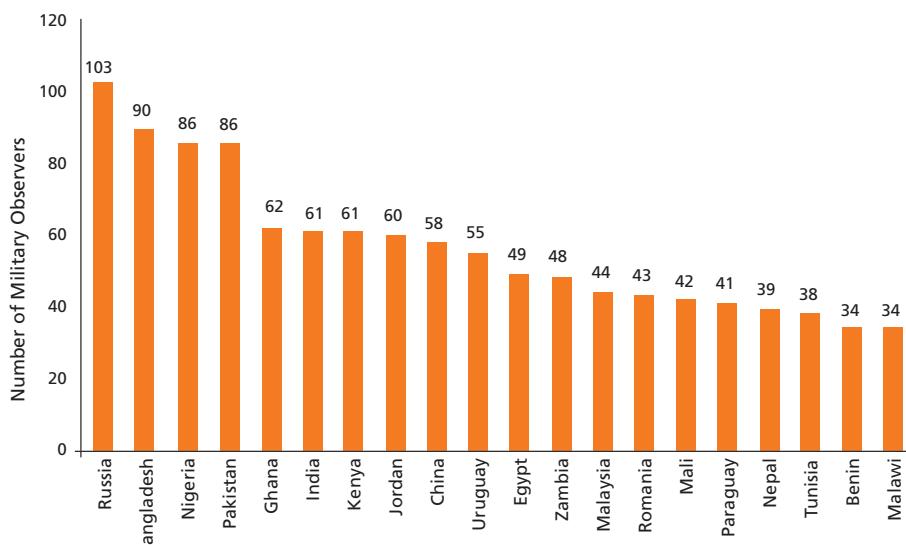
Source: DPI (DPKO website).

5.6 Military Observers Deployed, by UN Mission, 30 September 2005
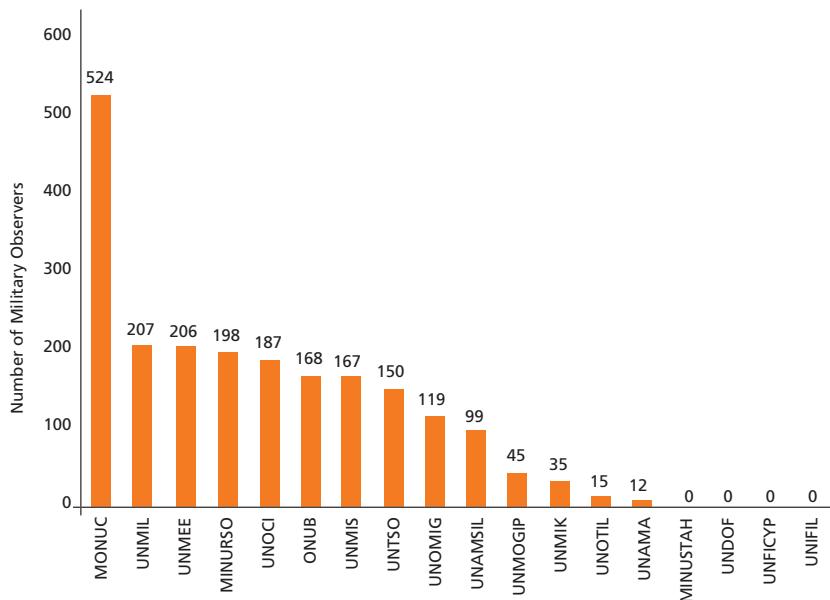
Source: DPI (DPKO website).

5.7 Total Police, July 2004–September 2005
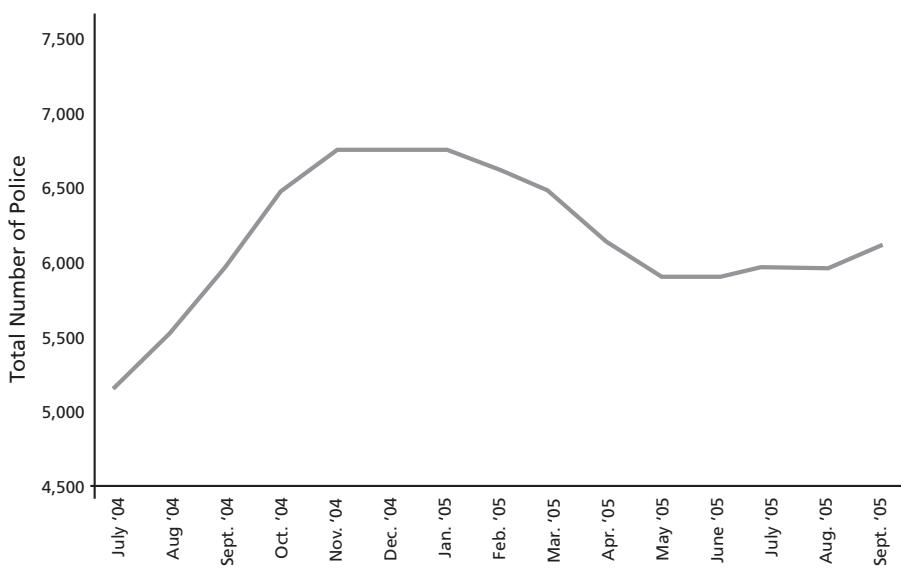
Source: DPI (DPKO website).

**5.8 Top Twenty Police Contributors to UN Missions,
30 September 2005**
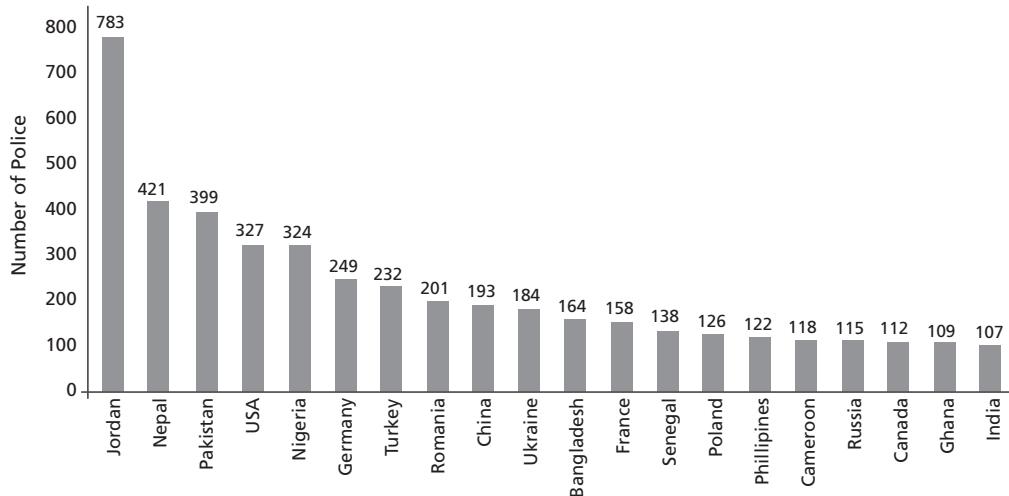
Source: DPI (DPKO website).

**5.9 Police Deployed, by UN Mission,
30 September 2005**
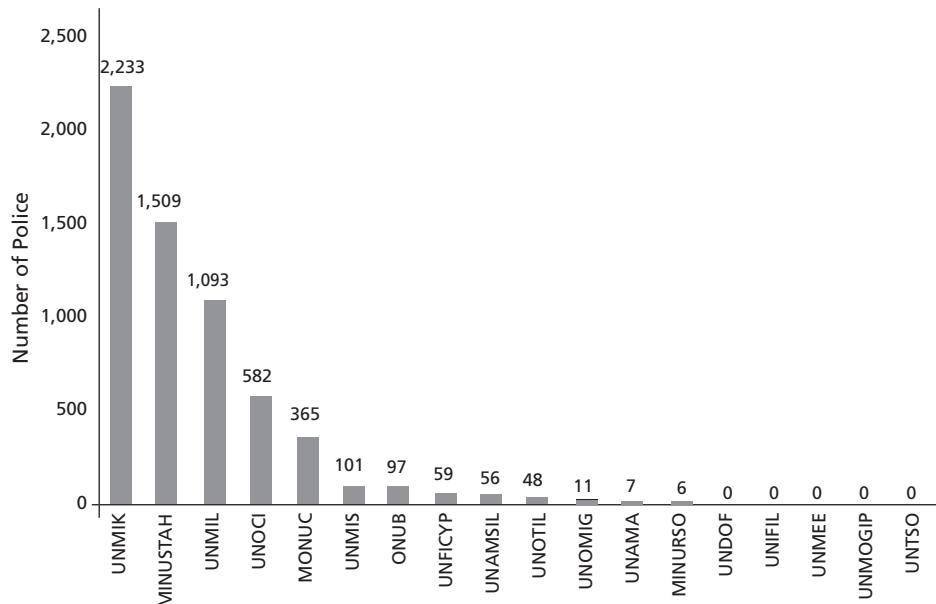
Source: DPI (DPKO website).

5.10 Contributions of Military Personnel by Region, 30 September 2005

Central and
South America
9.7%

North America
0.4%

Europe
7.0%

Middle East
3.9%

Africa
30.6%

East Asia and
the Pacific
2.5%

Central and South Asia
45.8%
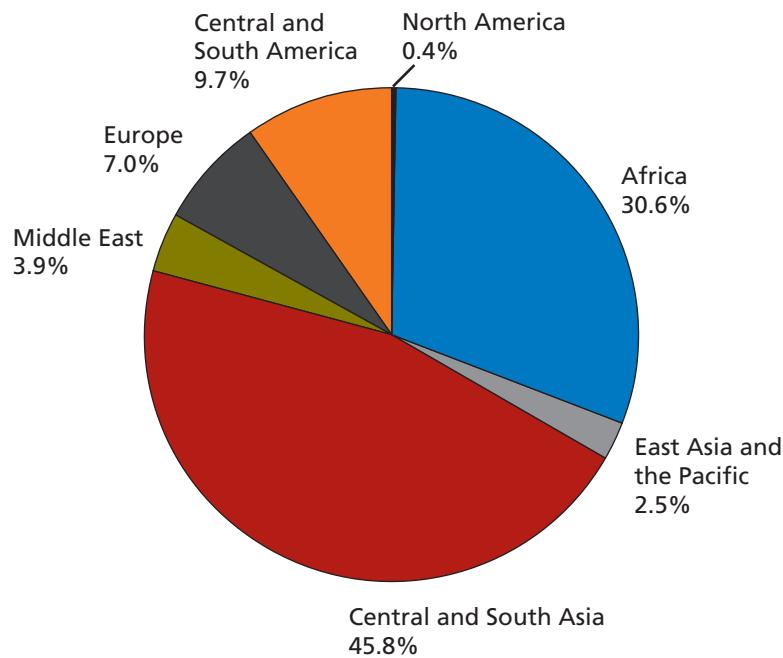
Region	Troops/Military Observers	Percentage of Total
Africa	19,104	30.6%
East Asia and the Pacific	1,583	2.5%
Central and South Asia	28,547	45.8%
Middle East	2,409	3.9%
Europe	4,387	7.0%
Central and South America	6,067	9.7%
North America	249	0.4%
TOTAL	**62,346**	

Source: DPI (DPKO website).

Note: The regions used here and in the tables below are defined as follows: **Africa:** all members of the African Union and Morocco (but see Middle East below). **Central and South Asia:** all members of the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (including Afghanistan, which joined the organization during 2005) and all members of the Commonwealth of Independent States to the east of the Caspian Sea, other than Russia. **East Asia and the Pacific:** all states in or bordering on the Pacific, the states of South-East Asia and Mongolia. **Central and South America:** all members of the Organization of American States other than Canada, Mexico, and the United States. **Europe:** all states to the north of the Mediterranean, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Cyprus, Georgia, Malta, Russia, and Turkey. **Middle East:** all members of the Gulf Cooperation Council, Lebanon, Iraq, Iran, Israel, Jordan, Syria, and Yemen (while Egypt is included under Africa as a member of the AU, the contingent of UNTSO stationed on the Suez Canal is counted under the Middle East deployment section to reflect its line of command). **North America:** Canada, Mexico, and the United States.

5.11 Deployment of Military Staff Within Regions, 30 September 2005

Central and
South America
10.6%

Europe
1.8%

Middle East
5.1%

Central and
South Asia
0.1%
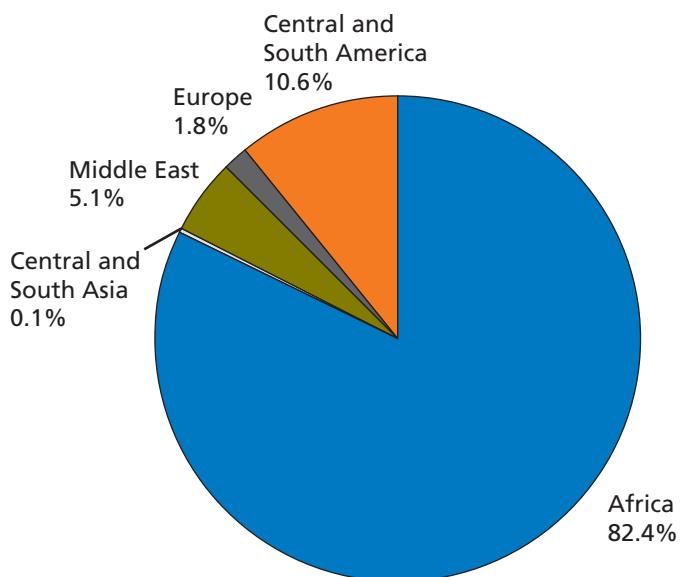
Africa
82.4%

Region	Troops/Military Observers	Percentage of Total
Africa	51,402	82.4%
East Asia and the Pacific	15	0%[a]
Central and South Asia	57	0.1%
Middle East	3,174	5.1%
Europe	1,103	1.8%
Central and South America	6,595	10.6%
North America	—	—
TOTAL	**62,346**	

Source: DPI (DPKO website).
Note: a. This figure rounds to zero percent and thus does not appear in the pie chart above.

5.12 Contributions of Police by Region, 30 September 2005
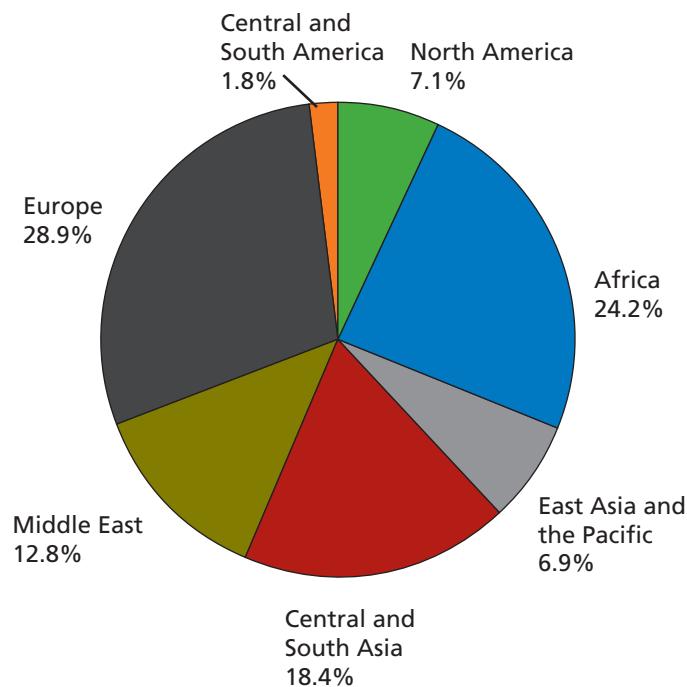
Region	Police	Percentage of Total
Africa	1,494	24.2%
East Asia and the Pacific	423	6.9%
Central and South Asia	1,132	1.8%
Middle East	791	12.8%
Europe	1,780	28.9%
Central and South America	108	1.8%
North America	439	7.1%
TOTAL	**6,167**	

Source: DPI (DPKO website).

5.13 Deployment of Police Within Regions, 30 September 2005

Central and
South America
24.5%

Africa
37.3%

East Asia and
the Pacific
0.8%

Central and
South Asia
0.1%
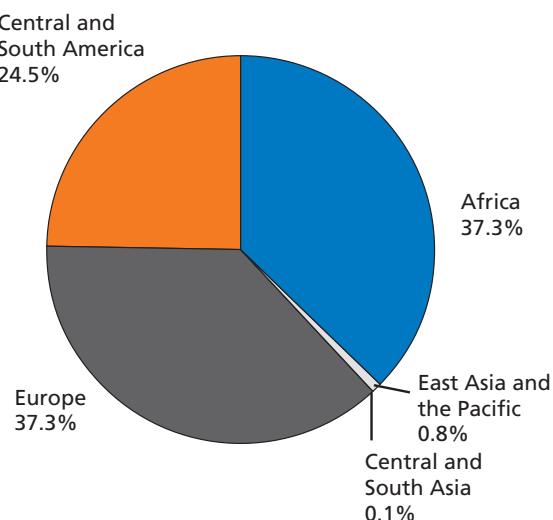
Europe
37.3%

Region	Police	Percentage of Total
Africa	2,300	37.3%
East Asia and the Pacific	48	0.8%
Central and South Asia	7	0.1%
Middle East	—	—
Europe	2,303	37.3%
Central and South America	1,509	24.5%
North America	—	—
TOTAL	**6,167**	

Source: DPI (DPKO website).

5.14 Total Civilian Staff (international, national, and UNVs), July 2004–August 2005
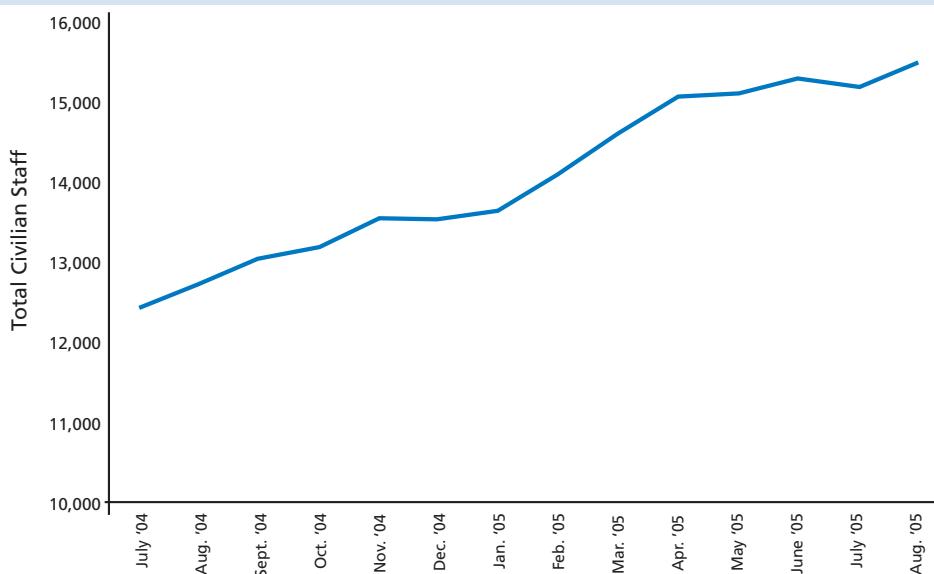
Source: PKFD; UNV Programme; DPKO PMSS.

5.15 Highest Representation of Nationalities Among Civilian Staff
(as of June 2005)

UN Missions
International Professional and General Svc Staff
Total International Staff in missions = 5083

UN Missions
National Professional and General Svc Staff
Total National Staff in missions = 8984

Rank	Country	Number of Intl'l Staff	Percentage Intl'l Staff	Rank	Mission	Number of National Staff	Percentage National Staff
1	United States	328	6%	1	UNMIK	2511	28%
2	Canada	287	6%	2	MONUC	1323	15%
3	Kenya	212	4%	3	UNMIL	754	8%
4	United Kingdom	207	4%	4	UNMIS	699	8%
5	France	185	4%	5	UNAMA	688	8%
6	Philippines	182	4%	6	MINUSTAH	448	5%
7	India	140	3%	7	UNAMSIL	420	5%
8	Ghana	124	2%	8	ONUB	384	4%
9	Ethiopia	111	2%	9	UNOCI	290	3%
10	Australia	100	2%	10	UNIFIL	287	3%
11	Nigeria	89	2%	11	UNOTIL	275	3%
12	Pakistan	80	2%	12	UNMEE	246	3%
13	Germany	79	2%	13	UNOMIG	186	2%
14	Croatia	77	2%	14	UNTSO	119	1%
15	Fiji	71	1%	15	UNFICYP	109	1%
16	Lebanon	68	1%	16	UNDOF	100	1%
17	Italy	66	1%	17	MINURSO	98	1%
18–19	Bosnia and Herzegovina, Sierra Leone	65 each	1% each	18	UNMOGIP	47	1%
20	Tanzania	63	1%				

Source: PKFD.

5.16 Highest Representation of Nationalities in UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations
(as of 30 June 2005)

DPKO HQ Staff

Total HQ Staff = 556

Rank	Country	Number of Staff	Percentage of Total HQ Staff
1	United States	122	22%
2	Philippines	39	7%
3	United Kingdom	23	4%
4	India	21	4%
5	Australia	16	3%
6–8	Canada, France, Russia	15 each	3% each
9	Germany	12	2%
10–11	Japan, New Zealand	11 each	2% each
12–14	Kenya, Myanmar, Uruguay	10 each	2% each
15–16	Ghana, Ireland	9 each	2% each
17–18	Italy, Trinidad and Tobago	8 each	1% each
19–21	Guyana, Pakistan, Republic of Korea	7 each	1% each

Sources: DPKO PMSS; DPKO Executive Office.
Note: DPKO missions include UNLB. DPKO HQ excludes staff on contracts of less than one year.

	Troops	Military Observers	Police[a]	International Staff	National Staff	UNVs	Total
				5.17 UN Peacekeeping Personnel, 30 September 2005			
MINURSO	27	198	6	129	98	—	458
MINUSTAH	6,595	—	1,509	418	453	161	9,136
MONUC	15,369	524	365	803	1359	460	18,880
ONUB	5,400	168	97	322	388	155	6,530
UNAMA	—	12	7	198[b]	688[b]	41	946
UNAMSIL	2,360	99	56	218	410	82	3,225
UNDOF	1,031	—	—	37	102	—	1,170
UNFICYP	949	—	59	37	109	—	1,154
UNIFIL	1,993	—	—	103	287	—	2,383
UNMEE	3,081	206	—	193	245	72	3,797
UNMIK	—	35	2,233	631	2,405	200	5,504
UNMIL	14,674	207	1,093	556	826	442	17,798
UNMIS	2,491	167	101	406	735	63	3,963
UNMOGIP	—	45	—	24	47	—	116
UNOCI	6,244	187	582	337	375	190	7,915
UNOMIG	—	119	11	101	180	—	411
UNOTIL	—	15	48	131[b]	275[b]	37	506
UNTSO	—	150	—	100	118	—	368
TOTAL	**60,214**	**2,132**	**6,167**	**4,744**	**9,100**	**1,903**	**84,260**

Sources: DPI (DPKO website); PKFD; UNV Programme; PMSS.
Notes: a. Police figures include formed police units.
b. International and national staff data for UNOTIL and UNAMA as of 30 August 2005.

5.18 UN Civilian Staff by Type, 30 June 2005

	UN Missions		DPKO HQ	
Political and Civilian Affairs	1,328	10%	53	10%
Humanitarian Affairs and Development	194	1%	63	11%
Administration and Mission Support	12,102	89%	440	79%
TOTAL	**13,624**		**556**	

Sources: DPKO PMSS; DPKO Executive Office.
Note: DPKO missions include UNLB. DPKO HQ excludes staff on contracts of less than one year.

5.19 Total Peacekeeping Fatalities, July 2004–October 2005
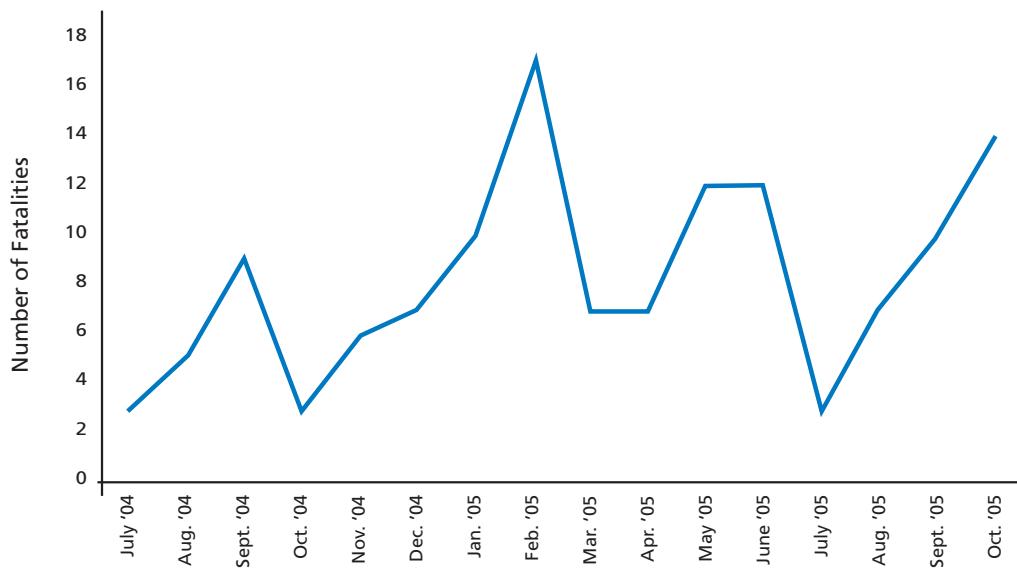
Source: DPKO Situation Centre.

5.20 Fatalities by Mission, July 2004–October 2005

	Number of Fatalities	Percentage of Fatalities
MINURSO	1	1%
MINUSTAH	10	7%
MONUC	22	16%
ONUB	16	12%
UNAMA	0	0%
UNAMSIL	16	12%
UNDOF	1	1%
UNFICYP	1	1%
UNIFIL	1	1%
UNMEE	2	1%
UNMIK	9	7%
UNMIL	41	30%
UNMIS	0	0%
UNMOGIP	1	1%
UNOCI	8	6%
UNOMIG	1	1%
UNMISET/UNOTIL	3	2%
UNTSO	3	2%
TOTAL	**136**	

Source: DPKO Situation Centre.

5.21 Fatalities by Type, July 2004–October 2005

Hostile Act
19 (14%)

Other
17 (12%)

Self-Inflicted
4 (3%)

Accident
31 (23%)

Illness
65 (48%)
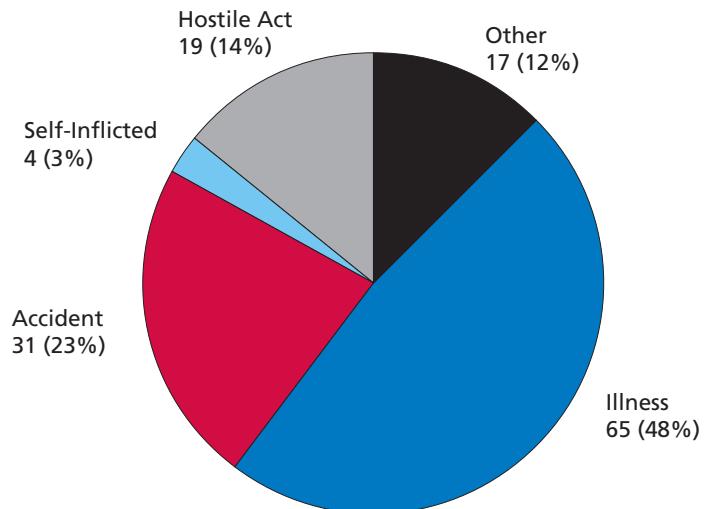
Source: DPI (DPKO website).

5.22 UN Peacekeeping Budgets and Expenditures (in thousands of US dollars)

	Budgeted July 2004–June 2005	Expenditures July 2004–June 2005	Budgeted July 2005–June 2006
MINURSO	44,005	45,283	48,659
MINUSTAH	379,047	377,051	506,368
MONUC	957,833	903,997	1,133,672
ONUB	329,714	303,793	292,272
UNAMSIL	285,227	259,929	107,539
UNDOF	40,902	40,820	41,521
UNFICYP	50,692	50,206	45,616
UNIFIL	92,960	89,254	94,253
UNMEE	198,332	180,330	176,664
UNMIK	294,625	294,497	239,890
UNMIL	822,106	741,086	722,542
UNMIS	222,032	218,866	956,807
UNMISET	85,214	81,000	1,662
UNOCI	378,473	336,721	418,777
UNOMIG	31,927	31,001	34,562
UNLB	28,422	28,185	31,513
Support Account	80,624	79,775	146,935
TOTAL	**4,241,510**	**4,061,793**	**4,999,253**

Sources: UN Documents: A/C.5/59/34, A/60/541, A/C.5/60/L.8, A/C.5/60/L.7, A60/540 DPKO FMSS; DPKO Executive Office.

5.23 Estimated Expenses, January–December 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)

	Estimated Requirements January–December 2005
UNAMA	63,583
UNOTIL	22,028
UNMOGIP	8,370
UNTSO	29,040
Peacekeeping Operations	8,464
TOTAL	**131,485**

Source: DPKO FMSS.

Notes: The figures in this table represent funding for peace operations out of the UN regular budget; estimated expenditures for UNOTIL are for 21 May 2005–31 December 2005.

5.24 2005 Assessed Contributions to Peacekeeping Budget
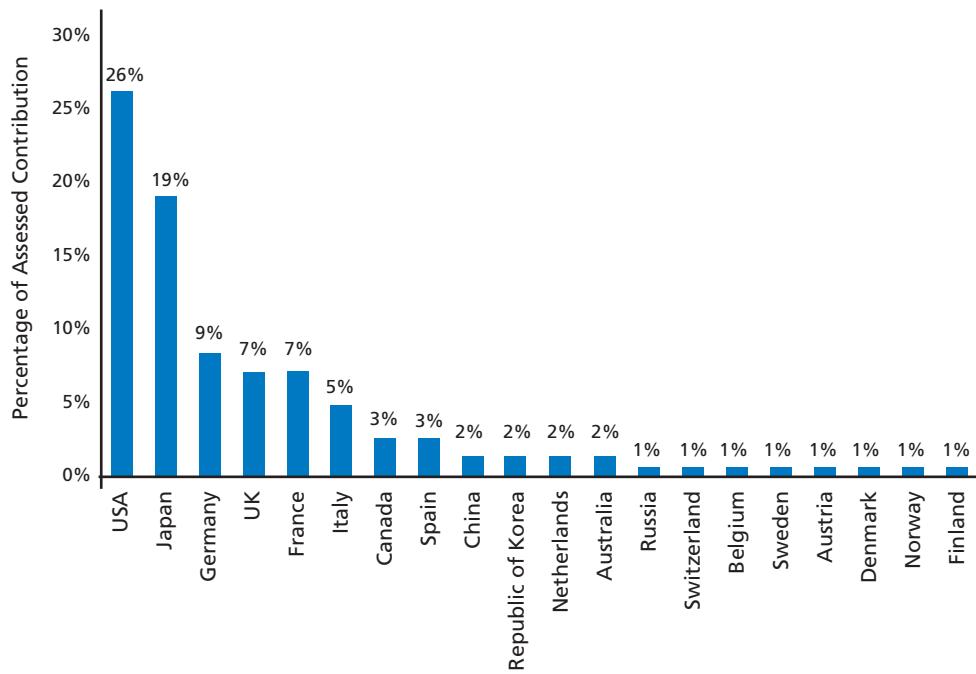
Source: PFD.

5.25 2005 Assessed Contributions to Regular Budget

Source: PFD.

Member State	2005 Effective Assessment Rate	Outstanding Contributions as at 31 December 2004	Assessments Issued in 2005	Collections Received/ Adjustments in 2005	Credits Utilitized in 2005a	Outstanding Contributions as at 30 September 2005
United States	26.48%	722,527.60	898,596.50	969,032.30	44,584.90	607,506.90
Japan	19.47%	758,554.40	640,746.20	792,806.20	30,852.50	575,641.90
Germany	8.66%	103,250.70	285,090.60	333,181.00	13,142.20	42,018.10
UK	7.38%	26,104.70	243,149.40	217,355.10	11,364.80	40,534.30
France	7.26%	108,994.00	239,300.00	227,934.30	11,184.90	109,174.90
Italy	4.89%	99,427.90	160,779.00	201,092.30	7,469.40	51,645.10
Canada	2.81%	9,945.80	92,583.70	84,616.10	4,268.00	13,645.40
Spain	2.52%	47,155.00	82,940.20	70,142.70	3,853.20	56,099.30
China	2.47%	108,480.50	81,473.10	116,691.80	4,227.60	69,034.20
Republic of Korea	1.80%	70,306.70	56,965.70	36,088.20	2,560.70	88,623.50
Netherlands	1.69%	5,946.60	55,622.60	49,727.60	2,584.10	9,257.50
Australia	1.59%	5,603.20	52,397.20	47,843.60	2,434.20	7,722.60
Russia	1.32%	4,650.30	43,653.40	39,833.10	2,023.80	6,446.90
Switzerland	1.20%	14,406.40	39,396.60	35,042.50	1,830.30	16,930.20
Belgium	1.07%	27,142.80	35,183.80	39,643.10	1,634.60	21,048.90
Sweden	1.00%	3,511.60	32,847.00	29,991.40	1,526.00	4,841.10
Austria	0.86%	14,893.50	28,272.10	37,146.70	1,313.50	4,705.40
Denmark	0.72%	4,484.00	23,631.40	23,534.60	1,097.90	3,482.90
Norway	0.68%	2,396.60	22,347.80	19,986.70	1,038.20	3,719.50
Finland	0.53%	1,879.20	17,542.50	16,027.50	808.7	2,585.50

5.26 Top Twenty Assessed Financial Contributors to UN Peacekeeping Operations, 30 September 2005 (In thousands of US dollars)

Source: Contributions Service, OPPBA.

Note: a. These amounts are derived from unencumbered balance of appropriations and other income for peacekeeping operations, utilized at the time that assessments for the same peacekeeping operations were issued.

5.27 Mandate Duration and Renewal, July 2004–December 2005

Operation	Mandate periods
UNMISET/UNOTIL	6 months · 6 months · 12 months
UNAMIS/UNMIS	3 months · 3 months · 3 months · 7 days · 7 days · 6 months · 6 months
ONUB	6 months · 6 months · 6 months · 1.5 mo · 6 mo
MINUSTAH	6 months · 6 months · 24 days · 8 months
UNOCI	12 months · 1 mo · 20 days · 7 months
UNMIL	12 months · 12 months · 6 months
UNAMA	12 months · 12 months
UNMEE	6 months · 6 months · 6 months · 6 months
MONUC	12 mo · 2 mo · 6 months · 6 months · 12 months
UNAMSIL	6 months · 9 months · 6 months
UNMIK	Ongoing until Security Council decides otherwise
UNOMIG	6 mo · 6 months · 6 months · 6 months
MINURSO	6 months · 6 months · 6 months · 6 months
UNDOF	6 months · 6 months · 6 months
UNIFIL	6 mo · 6 months · 6 months · 6 months
UNFICYP	6 months · 6 months · 6 months
UNMOGIP	Ongoing until Security Council decides otherwise
UNTSO	Ongoing until Security Council decides otherwise

July '04 · Aug. '04 · Sept. '04 · Oct. '04 · Nov. '04 · Dec. '04 · Jan. '05 · Feb. '05 · Mar. '05 · Apr. '05 · May '05 · June '05 · July '05 · Aug. '05 · Sept. '05 · Oct. '05 · Nov. '05 · Dec. '05 · Jan. '06

Source: UNSC resolutions.

5.28 UN Operations Timeline, 1945–2005
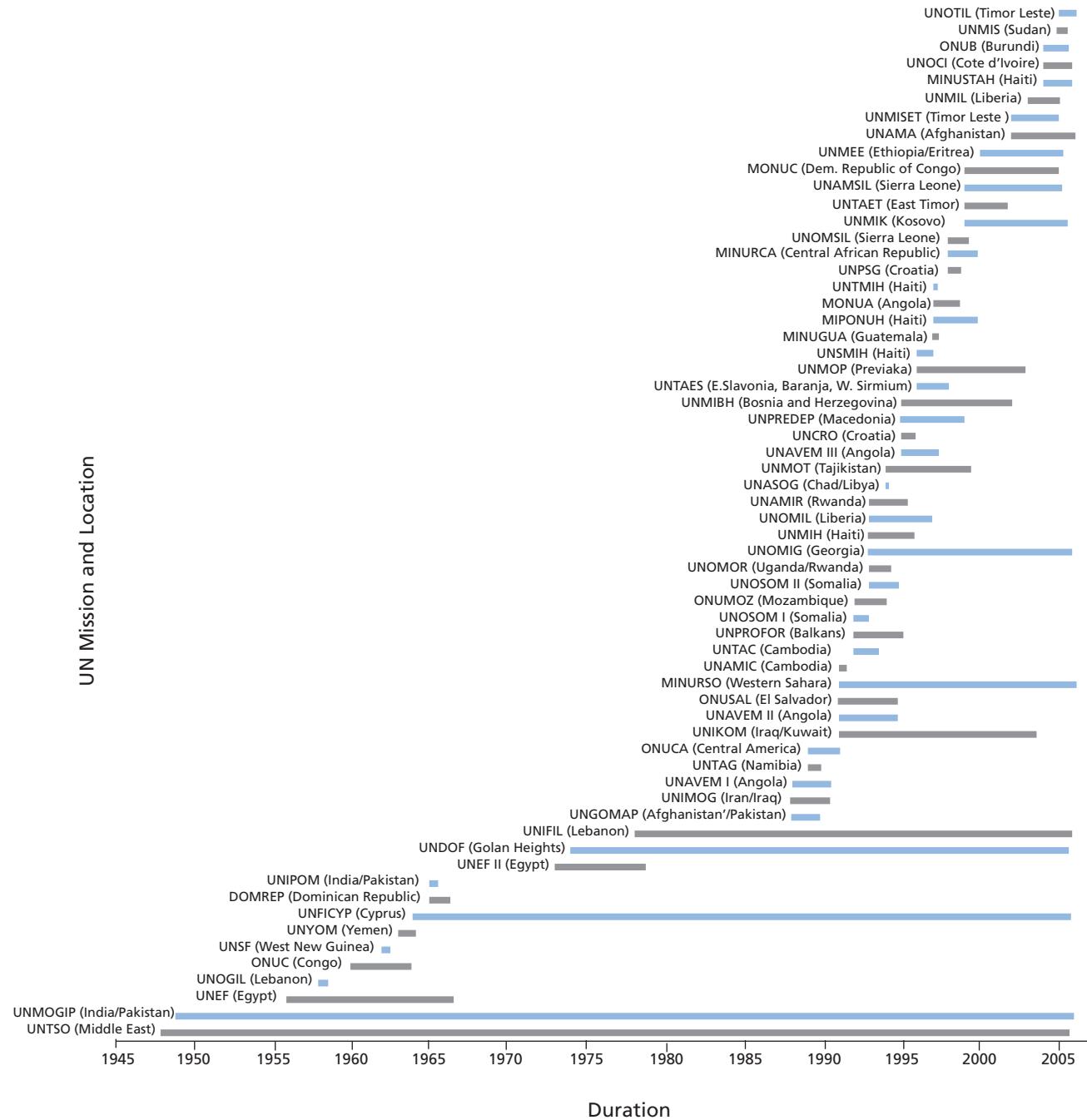
Source: UNSC resolutions.

6

Global Statistics
on Non-UN Missions

sipri

This chapter presents data on peace operations conducted under the authority of regional organizations and nonstanding coalitions of states; these data are compiled by the Stockholm International Peace Research Institute (SIPRI).

* * *

Listed here are twenty-five non-UN multilateral peace operations that started, were ongoing, or terminated in 2005. This chapter lists only operations conducted by regional organizations or ad hoc coalitions of states with the stated intention to (a) serve as an instrument to facilitate the implementation of peace agreements already in place, (b) support a peace process, or (c) assist conflict prevention and/or peacebuilding efforts.

SIPRI uses the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) description of peacekeeping as a mechanism to assist conflict-ridden countries to create conditions for sustainable peace. This may include monitoring and observing cease-fire agreements; undertaking confidence-building measures; protecting the delivery of humanitarian assistance; assisting with demobilization and reintegration processes; strengthening institutional capacities in the areas of judiciary and the rule of law (including penal institutions); policing and human rights; electoral support; and economic and social development. This chapter thus covers a broad range of peace missions to reflect the growing complexity of mandates of peace operations and the potential for operations to change over

the course of their mandate. This chapter does not include good offices, fact-finding, or electoral assistance missions.

The operations are divided into two loosely defined categories: those with military and observer functions (Table 6.1), and those with primarily policing and other civilian functions (Table 6.2). Legal instruments underlying the establishment of an operation—UN Security Council resolutions or formal decisions by regional organizations—are cited in the third column. The start dates for the operations refer to dates of first deployments. The lists of participating states presented in this volume are not comprehensive and refer only to the main contributors to a mission. For a complete list of countries participating in each mission, consult the SIPRI Yearbook.

Mission fatalities are recorded as a total from the beginning of the mission until the last reported date for 2005, and as a total for 2005. Where possible, information on cause of death is included. Unless otherwise stated, all figures are as of 30 September 2005.

Data on multilateral peace operations are obtained from the following categories of open sources: (a) official information provided by the secretariat of the authorizing organization; (b) information from the mission on the ground, either in official publications or in responses to annual SIPRI questionnaires; and (c) information from national governments contributing to the mission in question. These primary sources are supplemented with a wide selection of publicly available secondary sources, consisting of specialist journals, research reports, news agencies, and international, regional, and local newspapers.

Table 6.3 lists the estimated declared costs of the peace operations under way in 2005. Budget figures are given in millions of US dollars; conversions from budgets set in other currencies are based on 30 September 2005 market exchange rates. The issue of financing peace operations is a complicated one and warrants a brief explanation on the different ways in which peacekeeping budgets are calculated and how they are financed.

Mission Costs

Unlike UN budgets (discussed on p. 164), figures for operations conducted by regional organizations such as the EU and NATO do not cover all operational costs, but only common costs. These largely consist of the running costs of EU and NATO headquarters (the costs of civilian personnel and operations and maintenance) and investments the infrastructure necessary to support the operation. The costs of deploying personnel are borne by individual sending states and do not appear in the budget figures given here.

Most EU missions are financed in one of two ways, depending on whether they are civilian or military missions. Civilian missions are funded through the Community Budget, while military missions or missions with military components are funded through the ATHENA mechanism, to which only the participating member states contribute. In missions by other organizations, such as the OAS Mission in Haiti and in general the ad hoc missions, budget figures for missions may cover the implementation of programs such disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR).

For these reasons, budget figures presented in Table 6.3 are best viewed as estimates, and the budgets for different missions should not be compared. There are certain limitations to the data, partially due to varying definitions of what constitutes the total cost of an operation. The coverage of official data varies significantly between operations; sometimes a budget is an estimate, while in other cases it is actual expenditure. Last, the time period covered for financial data varies from mission to mission.

Table 6.1 Non-UN Military and Observer Missions

Name	Location	Authorization Date	Start Date	Principal Troop Contributors (2005)	Principal Military Observer Contributors (2005)	Principal Civilian Police Contributors (2005)	Principal Civilian Staff Contributors (2005)	Troops, Military Observers, Civilian Police, Civilian Staff (Actual)	Total Fatalities to Date in 2005 (due to: hostilities, accidents, illness)
African Mission in Sudan (AMIS)	Darfur and Sudan	28 May 2004 (Agreement with Sudanese Parties) 30 July 2004 (UNSC Res. 1556)	June 2004	Chad, Gambia, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, South Africa	Egypt, Gabon, Kenya, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa, Zambia	Ghana, Nigeria, South Africa, Uganda, Zambia	—	Troops: 4,855 Military observers: 650 Civilian police: 1,222	8 / 8 (2,1,5)
CEMAC Multinational Force in the Central African Republic (FOMUC)	Central African Republic	2 October 2002 (Libreville Summit) 21 March 2003 (Libreville Summit, Amended)	December 2002	Chad, Republic of Congo, Gabon	—	—	—	Troops: 380	6
Joint Control Commission Peacekeeping Force	Moldova–Transdniestra	21 July 1992 (Moldova and Russia)	July 1992	Moldova, Russia (Transdniestra)	—	—	—	Troops: 1,120	32
South Ossetia Joint Force	South Ossetia–Georgia	24 June 1992 (Georgia and Russia)	July 1992	Georgia, Russia	—	—	—	Troops: 586 Military observers: 40	19
CIS Peacekeeping Forces in Georgia	Abkhazia, Georgia	21 October, 1994 (CIS Council of Collective Security) 21 July 1994 (UNSC Res. 937)	June 1994	Russia	—	—	—	Troops: 2,325	125

continues

Table 6.1 Continued

Name	Location	Authorization Date	Start Date	Principal Troop Contributors (2005)	Principal Military Observer Contributors (2005)	Principal Civilian Police Contributors (2005)	Principal Civilian Staff Contributors (2005)	Troops, Military Observers, Civilian Police, Civilian Staff (Actual)	Total Fatalities to Date in 2005 (due to: hostilities, accidents, illness)
EU Monitoring Mission (EUMM)	Western Balkans	7 July 1991 (EC and six republics of the former Yugoslavia) 1997 (Memo of Understanding with Albania) 1998 (Memo of Understanding with Croatia)	July 1991	—	Finland, France, Germany, Italy, Norway, Slovakia, Sweden	—	—	Military observers: 90	11
EU Military Operation in Bosnia and Herzegovina (EUFOR ALTHEA)	Bosnia and Herzegovina	12 July 2004 (Council Joint Action 2004/570/CFSP) 9 July 2004 (UNSC Res. 1551)	December 2004	Finland, France, Germany, Italy, Netherlands, Spain, United Kingdom	—	—	—	Troops: 6,656	2 / 2 (–, 1, –)
EU Aceh Monitoring Mission (AMM)	Aceh, Indonesia	9 September 2005 (Joint Council Action 2005/643/CFSP)	September 2005	—	Brunei Darussalam, Finland, Germany, Malaysia, Netherlands, Philippines, Singapore, Sweden, Thailand, United Kingdom	—	—	Military observers: 216	—
NATO Kosovo Force (KFOR)	Kosovo, Serbia and Montenegro	10 June 1999 (UNSC Res. 1244)	June 1999	Czech Republic, France, Germany, Italy, Spain, United States	—	France, Italy	—	Troops: 17,174	71

continues

Table 6.1 Continued

Name	Location	Authorization Date	Start Date	Principal Troop Contributors (2005)	Principal Military Observer Contributors (2005)	Principal Civilian Police Contributors (2005)	Principal Civilian Staff Contributors (2005)	Troops, Military Observers, Civilian Police, Civilian Staff (Actual)	Total Fatalities to Date in 2005 (due to: hostilities, accidents, illness)
International Security Assistance Force (ISAF)	Afghanistan	20 December 2001 (UNSC Res. 7248) 13 September 2005 (UNSC Res. 1623, current authorization)	December 2001	Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Netherlands, Spain	—	—	—	Troops: 12,400	101 / 19 (–, 19, –)
NATO Training Mission in Iraq (NTM-I)	Iraq	8 June, 2004 (UNSC Res. 1546) 30 July 2004 (Establishment of NATO Training Implementation Mission, NTIM-I) 16 December 2004 (Modified into full-fledged training mission)	August 2004	Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, Lithuania, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States	—	—	—	Troops: 155	—
Multinational Force and Observers (MFO)	Sinai, Egypt	3 August 1981 (Egypt and Israel)	April 1982	—	Colombia, Fiji, Italy, Uruguay, United States	—	United States	Military observers: 1,686 Civilian staff: 15	49 / 1 (–, –, 1)
Temporary International Presence in Hebron (TIPH 2)	Hebron	15 January 1997 (Protocol Concerning the Redeployment in Hebron) 21 January 1997 (Agreement on the Temporary International Presence in Hebron)	January 1997	Turkey	—	Denmark, Italy, Norway	Denmark, Italy, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey	Troops: 6 Civilian police: 26 Civilian staff: 40	2

Table 6.1 Continued

Name	Location	Authorization Date	Start Date	Principal Troop Contributors (2005)	Principal Military Observer Contributors (2005)	Principal Civilian Police Contributors (2005)	Principal Civilian Staff Contributors (2005)	Troops, Military Observers, Civilian Police, Civilian Staff (Actual)	Total Fatalities to Date in 2005 (due to: hostilities, accidents, illness)
Sri Lanka Monitoring Mission (SLMM)	Sri Lanka	22 February 2002 (Government of Sri Lanka and the Liberation Tamil Tigers Eelam)	February 2002	—	Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden	—	—	Military observers: 60	—
Operation Licorne	Côte d'Ivoire	27 February 2004 (UNSC Res. 1528, current authorization)	February 2003	France	—	—	—	Troops: 4,000	20
Regional Assistance Mission in the Solomon Islands (RAMSI)	Solomon Islands	23 October 2000 (Pacific Islands Forum Communiqué 2000)	July 2003	Australia, Fiji, Papua New Guinea, New Zealand, Tonga	—	Australia, Cook Islands, Fiji, Kiribati, Papua New Guinea, Nauru, New Zealand, Samoa, Tonga, Tuvalu, Vanuatu	—	Troops: 80 Civilian police: 300 Civilian staff: 120	1
Multinational Force in Iraq (MNF-I)	Iraq	16 October 2003 (UNSC Res. 1511) 8 June 2004 (UNSC Res. 1546, modified)	November 2003	Italy, South Korea, Poland, United Kingdom, United States	—	Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Croatia, Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, Hungary, Jordan, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, Sweden, United Kingdom, United States	—	Troops: 160,000 Civilian police: 1,051	2,121 / 640 (496, 110, 19)
International Monitoring Team (IMT)	Philippines	November 2004 (Trilateral decision between Malaysia, Philippines, and the MILF)	November 2004	—	Brunei Darussalam, Libya, Malaysia	—	—	Military observers: 64	—

Table 6.2 Non-UN Civilian Police and Civilian Missions

Name	Location	Authorization Date	Start Date	Principal Troop Contributors (2005)	Principal Military Observer Contributors (2005)	Principal Civilian Police Contributors (2005)	Principal Civilian Staff Contributors (2005)	Troops, Military Observers, Civilian Police, Civilian Staff (Actual)	Total Fatalities to Date in 2005 (due to: hostilities, accidents, illness)
EU Police Mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina (EUPM)	Bosnia and Herzegovina	11 March 2002 (Council Joint Action 2002/210/CFSP)	January 2003	—	—	France, Germany, Netherlands, Spain, United Kingdom	Finland, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Spain, United Kingdom	Civilian police: 367 Civilian staff: 53	3
EU Police Mission in the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (EUPOL PROXIMA)	Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	29 September 2003 (Council Joint Action 2003/681/CFSP)	December 2003	—	—	France, Germany, Netherlands, Spain, Sweden	France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Spain, Sweden	Civilian police: 128 Civilian staff: 28	—
EU Police Mission in Kinshasa (EUPOL Kinshasa)	Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of the Congo	9 December 2004 (Council Joint Action 2004/847/CFSP	April 2005	—	—	Belgium, Canada, France, Italy, Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden, Turkey	—	Civilian police: 19 Civilian staff: 9	—
OAS Special Mission for Strengthening Democracy in Haiti	Port-au-Prince, Haiti	16 January 2002 (OAS Permanent Council Decision CP/Res. 806) June 2004 (OAS General Assembly, A/Res. 2058, amended)	June 2004	—	—	—	Argentina, Canada, Colombia, Dominica, Ecuador, Grenada, Grenada, Mexico, Peru	Civilian police: 6 Civilian staff: 24	1, 1 (–, –, 1)

Table 6.2 Continued

Name	Location	Authorization Date	Start Date	Principal Troop Contributors (2005)	Principal Military Observer Contributors (2005)	Principal Civilian Police Contributors (2005)	Principal Civilian Staff Contributors (2005)	Troops, Military Observers, Civilian Police, Civilian Staff (Actual)	Total Fatalities to Date in 2005 (due to: hostilities, accidents, illness)
OSCE Spillover Mission to Skopje	Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	18 September 1992 (16th Committee of Senior Officials)	September 1992	—	—	—	Austria, Germany, Italy, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States	Civilian staff: 84	—
OSCE Mission to Bosnia and Herzegovina	Bosnia and Herzegovina	8 December 1995 (5th Meeting of the Ministerial Council)	December 1995	—	—	—	Austria, Germany, Italy, United Kingdom, United States	Civilian staff: 119	—
OSCE Mission in Kosovo (OMiK)	Kosovo, Serbia and Montenegro	1 July 1999 (PC.DEC/296)	July 1999	—	—	—	Bulgaria, Germany, Italy, United Kingdom, United States	Civilian staff: 225	3

Table 6.3 Cost of Non-UN Military, Observer, Civilian Police, and Civilian Missions

Name	Location	Cost ($m) 2005/Unpaid
Non-UN Military and Observer Missions		
African Mission in Sudan (AMIS)	Darfur, Sudan	—a
CEMAC Multinational Force in the Central African Republic (FOMUC)	Central African Republic	9.6
Joint Control Commission Peacekeeping Force	Moldova-Transdniester	—
South Ossetia Joint Force	South Ossetia–Georgia	—
CIS Peacekeeping Forces in Georgia	Abkhazia, Georgia	—
EU Monitoring Mission (EUMM)	Western Balkans	5.0
EU Military Operation in Bosnia and Herzegovina (EUFOR ALTHEA)	Bosnia and Herzegovina	86.3
EU Aceh Monitoring Mission (AMM)	Aceh, Indonesia	18.1
NATO Kosovo Force (KFOR)	Kosovo, Serbia and Montenegro	29.8
International Security Assistance Force (ISAF)	Afghanistan	78.5
NATO Training Mission in Iraq (NTM-I)	Iraq	11.7
Multinational Force and Observers (MFO)	Sinai, Egypt	51.0
Temporary International Presence in Hebron (TIPH-2)	Hebron	1.5
Sri Lanka Monitoring Mission (SLMM)	Sri Lanka	2.1
Operation Licorne	Côte d'Ivoire	261.9
Regional Assistance Mission in the Solomon Islands (RAMSI)	Solomon Islands	171.3
Multinational Force in Iraq (MNF-I)	Iraq	67,800.8
International Monitoring Team (IMT)	Philippines	2.7
Non-UN Civilian Police and Civilian Missions		
EU Police Mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina (EUPM)	Bosnia and Herzegovina	21.1
EU Police Mission in the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (EUPOL PROXIMA)	Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	13.2
EU Police Mission in Kinshasa (EUPOL Kinshasa)	Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of the Congo	5.2
OAS Special Mission for Strengthening Democracy in Haiti	Haiti	15.0
OSCE Spillover Mission to Skopje	Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	13.5
OSCE Mission to Bosnia and Herzegovina	Bosnia and Herzegovina	20.1
OSCE Mission in Kosovo (OMiK)	Kosovo, Serbia and Montenegro	40.4

Note: a. While a figure for the AMIS budget for the year in review was not available for this study, it is reported that "the AU advised the European Commission in August 2005 that its estimated cash requirements for a year of AMIS operation (1 July 2005-30 June 2006) at a projected personnel level of 7,936 was 52,405,835." (International Crisis Group, *The EU/AU Partnership in Darfur: Not Yet a Winning Combination,* Brussels, October 2005).

7

UN Mission-by-Mission Statistics

This chapter contains data on all current missions of the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO). It is based on public UN documents and sources, combined with data provided by DPKO and other UN departments (those noted below are within DPKO unless otherwise stated). As missions are budgeted for in a variety of ways, and departments report on similar issues in different formats, no one format can be applied to all missions. Notes are supplied within the data to explain discrepancies in addition to those identified here.

The most obvious discrepancy within each dataset is that of dates. As of early November 2005, data were typically available up to the end of August or September, but not universally so. Variations in types of data sources and reporting dates between missions are often a result of differences in the reporting and funding mechanisms for three types of UN peacekeeping missions:

- Peacekeeping missions funded by the biennial UN budget, which runs from January in even years to December of odd years (UNMOGIP and UNTSO).
- Department of Political Affairs (DPA) special political missions with a peacekeeping component supported by the DPKO and funded through extrabudgetary resources, which runs on a single calendar-year basis (UNAMA and UNOTIL).
- All other peacekeeping missions funded by the General Assembly on the basis of a financial period, which runs from 1 July of the first year until June 30 of the following.

The features of our datasets are outlined below.

Key Facts
Notes on mandates and key personnel.

Personnel:
First Year of Operation
Separating out the data in the deployment timelines, these show the month-by-month numbers of personnel in the mission in its first year relative to authorized levels.

Mission Deployment Timeline
These graphs show the key developments in the first phase of each mission, defined as its first year of operations and the planning and political decisions in the months leading up to its launch. These data have only been readily available for those missions launched in or after 1999, and we do not supply timelines for older operations.

The graphs show the number of troops and other UN personnel through the mission's launch relative to their authorized strength—which is often raised as the mission evolves. Additionally, markers show major events during the deployment phase. While these vary from mission to mission, they typically—but not exclusively—include:

1. The Secretary-General's report to the Security Council—this normally precedes resolution and makes recommendations on mission establishment, structure, and concepts of operation.
2. UN Security Council resolution dates—for mandate establishment and renewal, and the expansion of the mission.
3. The first assessment mission (technical, multidisciplinary).
4. Approval of the first mission budget by the General Assembly.
5. The first report by the Secretary-General to the Security Council following the establishment of the mandate
6. The date of the appointment of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General (SRSG).
7. The "entry on duty" (EOD) of the SRSG—his or her assumption of responsibilities.
8. The arrival of the SRSG in the field.
9. Comparable dates for a force commander (FC) or police commissioner (PC).
10. The first meeting of troop-contributing countries relating to the mission.
11. The issuance of a concept of operations.
12. The issuance of directives to the FC (the "handover" of operational responsibility to the field).

The *authorized* levels for military and police personnel are based on the relevant Security Council resolutions. Authorized levels

of international and local civilian staff are derived from financial and budgetary reports and in certain cases from data provided by the Peacekeeping Financing Division (PFD)—part of the UN's Office of Program Planning, Budget, and Accounts, which is outside DPKO—and other UN public sources where necessary. The PFD also provided details on authorized levels of UN volunteers (UNVs).

Actual military and police strengths to late 2000 was provided by the Force Generation Service and the Police Division—later data are available at the DPKO's website, which is maintained by the Department of Public Information (DPI). The Personnel Management and Support Service (PMSS) provided data on civilian staff, with the PKD providing the most recent figures. Figures for UNVs were supplied by the UNV Programme office in Bonn.

Personnel: Since 1999

Focusing on the last five years (up to June 2005), these show force levels on an annual basis. For years prior to the 2004—2005 financial year, the *actual* personnel levels are the average for the given year, while *authorized* levels are typically those stated in the official budgetary and financial reports covering that year (the same set of sources used for the deployment timeline). For the 2004—2005 financial year, average actual and authorized personnel levels were calculated based on data collected from Security Council resolutions (for authorized military and police levels), the DPKO website (for actual military and police levels), and the PFD and UNV Programme (for actual civilian strength levels).

Exceptions to this rule include UNMOGIP and UNTSO, where the *authorized* strength is derived from the UN's biannual Proposed Program Budget for the Biennium (PPBB), through which they are funded. *Actual* and *authorized* levels of UNAMA staff are derived from the Secretary-General's report to the General Assembly and Security Council, as it funded as a special political mission.

Personnel: July 2004—September 2005

These graphs cover personnel trends through the last UN financial year and the first quarter of the 2005—2006 financial year on a month-by-month basis. They are usually based on *authorized* strengths in Security Council resolutions and PFD documents. *Actual* civilian strengths are based on PFD documents and the PMSS, while actual military and police strengths were derived from the DPKO website. Again, authorized personnel information on UNTSO and UNMOGIP was derived from the PPBB; information on UNAMA and UNOTIL derives from the Secretary-General's reports on these as special political missions. Authorized military and police strengths for UNAMSIL and UNMIK are based on drawdown plans for these missions.

Military and Police Contributors: 30 August 2005

These data show all contributors to the mission on 30 August and are derived from the DPKO website. In the case of UNMIS, the extent to which the mission had grown by 31 October has led us to include a special table on its state at that date.

Military Units: 30 August 2005

These data show units in the field on the day in question by their type and country of origin. It based on information provided by the FGS. In observer and political missions—and the observer elements of larger missions—military staff are not formed into traditional units, and these personnel are not recorded here. A special table for UNMIS as of 31 October is also provided here.

Civilian Staff: 30 June 2005

These data break down civilian staff into three broad categories (political and civil affairs, humanitarian affairs and development, and administration and mission support). They are based on information provided by the PMSS. There are some inconsistencies between this information and that from the PFD on staff, reflecting different reporting methods; therefore the reader should exercise due caution.

Fatalities: Inception—October 2005

These data are provided by the DPKO Situation Centre—there may be certain discrepancies with equivalent data on the DPKO website,

but the Situation Centre's information is more up-to-date on this issue.

Vehicles: 30 August 2005
These data cover both UN-owned vehicles in the field on 30 August (provided by the Surface Transport Section) and those vehicles owned by national contingents serving in the mission (from a database managed by the Contingent Owned Equipment and Management Section).

Aircraft: 30 August 2005
These data have been provided by the Air Transport Section and identify aircraft by their type (fixed-wing or helicopter) and supplier (contractors or [named] governments).

The financial mission expenditure tables are broken down into the three following categories, although there was some variation in subcategories in 2000–2001:

1. *Military and police personnel.* Includes mission subsistence allowance, travel on emplacement, rotation and repatriation, death and disability compensation, rations, and clothing allowances for military observers and police. This section also includes expenditures on major contingent-owned equipment, and freight and deployment of contingent-owned equipment.

2. *Civilian personnel.* Covers salaries, staff assessment, common staff costs, hazardous duty stations allowances, and overtime for international and national staff. Also covers costs associated with United Nations Volunteers.

3. *Operational costs.* Costs associated with general temporary assistance (salaries, common staff costs, staff assessment), government-provided personnel and civilian electoral observers (allowances and travel), consultants, official travel of civilian personnel, facilities and infrastructure, as well as self-sustainment costs of contingent-owed equipment. Also included are costs associated with ground, air, and naval transportation costs in mission, communications, IT, medical, special equipment,

other supplies, services and equipment, and quick impact projects.

Mission Expenditures:
August 1999—June 2004
Covering the five financial years prior to the most recent, this overview of expenditures has typically been derived from mission financing reports, financial performance reports, and reports on mission budgets. Information on UNTSO, UNMOGIP, and UNAMA has been provided by the Financial Management and Support Services (FMSS).*

Financial Performance:
July 2004—June 2005
The data for the last financial year were provided by the FMSS. They show both estimated requirements and actual expenditures. Estimated requirements on UNAMA and UNOTIL have been derived from estimates regarding the special political missions published by the Secretary-General.

Expenditure Summary:
July 2004—June 2005
This breaks the expenditures shown in the financial performance data into the three broad categories used for expenditures since 1999 above.

Expenditures on Contingent Owned
Equipment: July 2004—June 2005
These data, supplied by the FMSS, cover contingents' expenditures on major equipment (for which they can be reimbursed by the UN) as well as self-sustainment (rations, etc.).

Voluntary Contributors:
July 2004—June 2005
These data cover those countries supplying of financial support to missions other than through assessed contributions. They are provided by the Accounts Division, OPPBA. Differences in reporting cycles mean that there are some discrepancies between these figures and those in the Financial Performance tables.

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* Prior to the July 2001–June 2002 financial year, "Staff Assessment" was reported as an additional line item in "Gross Expenditures" for each mission. Since then, staff assessment has been included as part of the "Civilian Personnel" line. For the sake of consistency, figures for the 1999–2000 and 2000–2001 financial years are shown using the current financial reporting method and include staff assessment expenditures as part of civilian personnel expenditures. For those years civilian personnel expenditures will thus appear to be higher than in the official UN financial reports.

7.1 UNOTIL (UN Office in Timor-Leste)*

UNOTIL Personnel: First Months of UNOTIL Operation

Date	Military Observers		Police		International Staff		National Staff		UNVs	
	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized
May 05	15	15	51	60	126	244	428	535	62	107
June 05	15	15	51	60	126	150	426	398	59	56
July 05	15	15	41	60	126	100	294	233	40	56
Aug. 05	15	15	41	60	131	100	275	233	39	37
Sept. 05	15	15	48	60	N/A	100	N/A	233	37	37
Oct. 05	15	15	58	60	95	100	228	233	34	37
Nov. 05	15	15	56	60	92	100	228	233	35	37

Sources: UN Documents: A/59/290, A/60/425; DPI (DPKO website); DPKO PMSS; UNV Programme; PKD.

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*Some of the data in this section relates to UNOTIL's predecessors, the United Nations Mission in East Timor (UNMISET) and the United Nations Transitional Administration in East Timor (UNTAET).

UNOTIL Mission Deployment Time

Feb.
18: SG report recommends mission

Apr.
28: Council resolution establishes mandate for 20 May 2005

May
13: Con Ops issued
16: UNMISET TCC meeting
20: End of UNMISET mandate; official start of UNOTIL mandate
21: SRSG EOD; EOD Senior Police Advisor
27: SRSG appointed

June
23: Directives to FC issued

Aug.
18: SG mission report
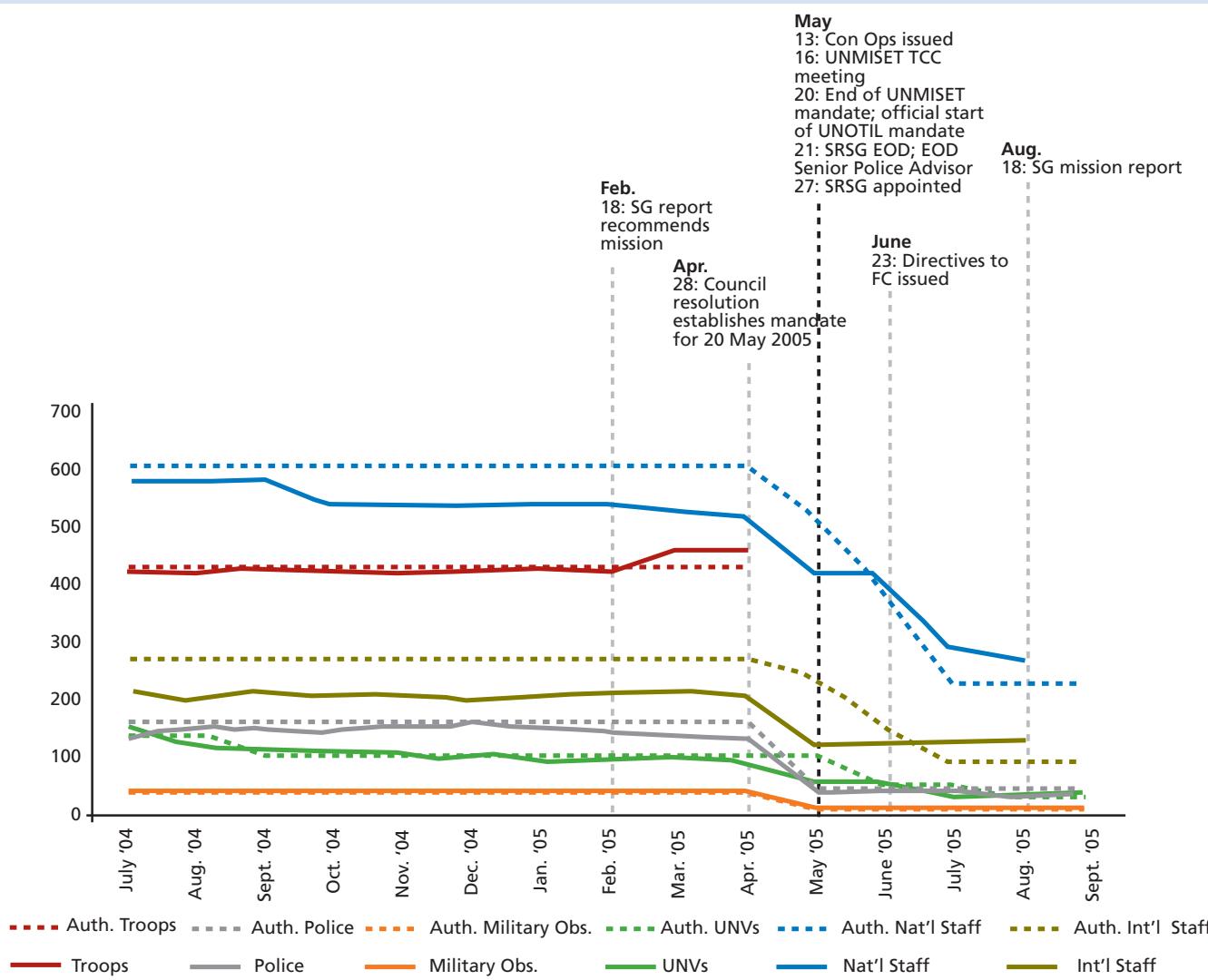
Sources: UN Documents S/RES/1599, S/2005/99, S/2005/356, A/RES/58/27, S/2005/533, S/RES/1410, S/2002/432, A/59/290, A/60/425; DPI (DPKO website); DPKO PMSS; UNV Programme.

Notes: Actual and authorized personnel levels prior to May 2005 are figures for UNMISET. SRSG arrives July 2002 as Resident Coordinator; appointed to SRSG 21 May 2004. UNOTIL initially funded under General Assembly Resolution 58/27 for "unforeseen and extraordinary expenses."

UNOTIL/UNMISET/UNTAET Personnel: Since 1999
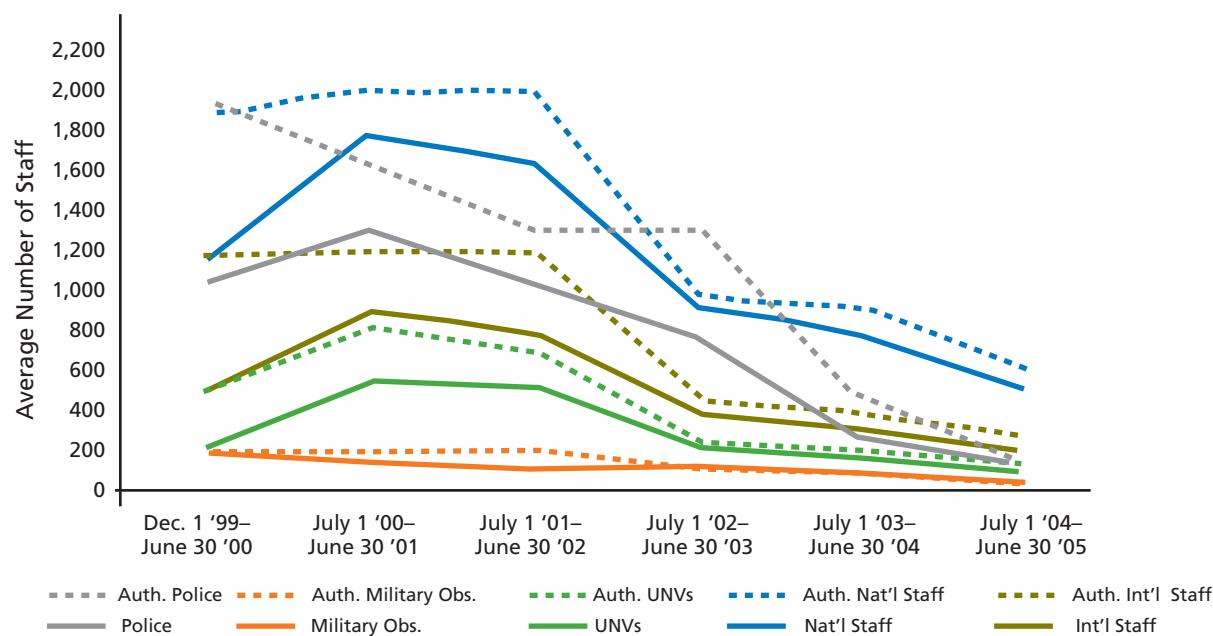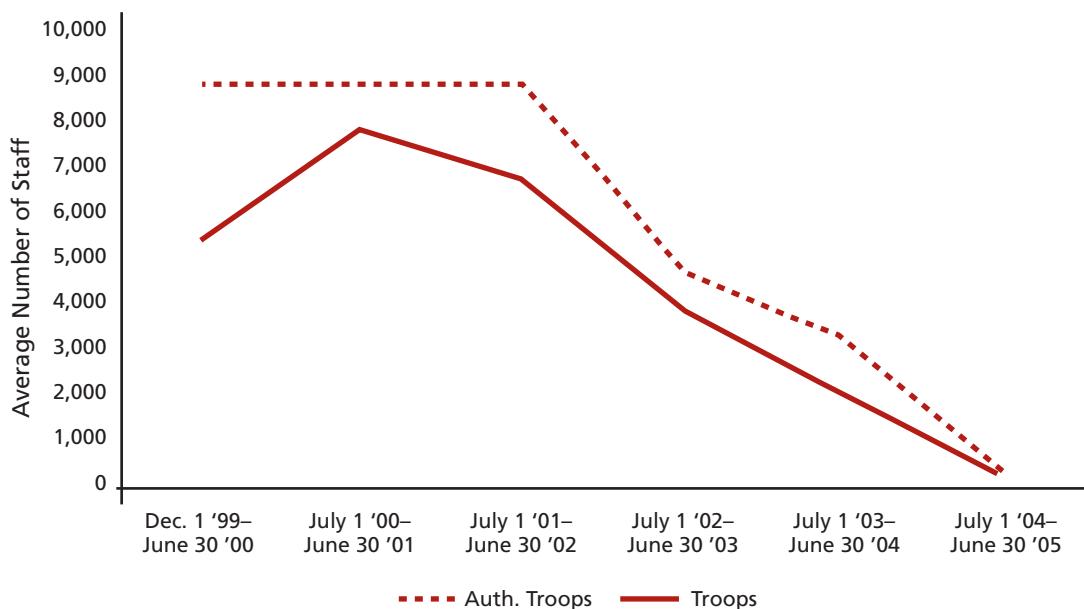
Sources: UN Documents A/55/925, A/56/922, A/57/666, A/58/636, A/59/655; DPKO FGS; PFD.

UNOTIL Military and Police Contributors: 30 August 2005				
Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total
China	—	—	7	7
Australia	—	2	4	6
Philippines	—	2	4	6
Portugal	—	3	3	6
Malaysia	—	3	2	5
Brazil	—	2	2	4
Pakistan	—	1	3	4
Spain	—	—	4	4
Jordan	—	1	2	3
Samoa	—	—	3	3
Bangladesh	—	—	2	2
Turkey	—	—	2	2
Croatia	—	—	1	1
New Zealand	—	1	—	1
Russia	—	—	1	1
Sri Lanka	—	—	1	1
TOTAL	**—**	**15**	**41**	**56**

Source: DPI (DPKO website).

UNOTIL Civilian Staff: 30 June 2005	
Type	Percentage Staff
Political and Civil Affairs	8%
Humanitarian Affairs and Development	1%
Administration and Mission Support	91%

Source: DPKO PMSS.

UNOTIL Aircraft: 30 August 2005		
	Commerical	Gov't
Fixed Wing Aircraft	1	—
Helicopters	2	—
Total	**3**	**—**

Source: DPKO Air Transport Section.

UNOTIL/UNMISET/UNTAET Fatalities: Inception–October 2005

Time Period	Total	Appointment Type					
		Troop	MilOb	Police	Intl Staff	Natl Staff	Other[a]
UNTAET (1999–2002)	21	16	1	2	1	1	—
UNMISET (2002–2005)	13	9	2	—	—	1	1
UNOTIL (2005–)	0						
May-June		—	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**34**	**25**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**2**	**1**

Time Period	Total	Incident Type				
		Hostile Act	Illness	Accident	Self-Inflicted	Other[b]
UNTAET (1999–2002)	21	2	6	10	—	3
UNMISET (2002–2005)	13	2	3	5	—	3
UNOTIL (2005–)	0					
May-June		—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**34**	**4**	**9**	**15**	**0**	**6**

Source: DPKO Situation Centre.
Notes: Discrepancies may exist between these data and those available at the DPI DPKO website, as the DPI DPKO website is still under review and may contain omissions or errors.
a. "Other" refers to consultants, UNVs, etc.
b. Incident type is unknown, uncertain, or under investigation.

UNOTIL Vehicles: 30 August 2005

Contingent Owned Vehicles		UN Owned Vehicles	
Vehicle Type	Quantity	Vehicle Type	Quantity
Support Vehicles (Commercial Pattern)	16	4x4 Vehicles	182
Support Vehicles (Military Pattern)	9	Ambulances	3
		Automobiles	2
		Buses	15
		Material Handling Equipment	10
		Trucks	18
Total	**25**	**Total**	**230**

Sources: DPKO Surface Transport Section; DPKO Contingent Owned Equipment and Property Management Section.

UNMISET/UNTAET Mission Expenditures:
December 1999–June 2004 (in thousands of US dollars)

Category	Dec 99–Jun 00	Jul 00–Jun 01	Jul 01–Jun 02	Jul 02–Jun 03	Jul 03–May 04
Military and police personnel	98,689.6	231,072.3	190,461.0	131,110.2	81,434.6
Civilian personnel	67,009.5	184,879.5	122,647.0	64,806.2	51,785.4
Operational requirements	125,699.5	109,079.6	140,950.0	92,024.7	62,787.6
Other	611.4	2,556.5	—	—	—
Gross requirements	**292,010.0**	**527,587.9**	**454,058.0**	**287,941.1**	**196,007.6**
Staff assessment income	4,041.8	14,444.0	13,109.4	8,232.9	6,946.4
Net requirements	**287,968.2**	**513,143.9**	**440,948.6**	**279,708.2**	**189,061.2**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	—	60.0	60.0	60.0	60.0
Total requirements	**292,101.0**	**527,647.9**	**454,118.0**	**288,001.1**	**196,067.6**

Sources: UN Documents: A/55/925, A/56/922, A/57/666, A/58/636, A/59/655.
Notes: UNTAET expenditures December 1999–June 2002; UNMISET expenditures July 2002–June 2004.

UNMISET Financial Performance:
July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)

Category	Approved	Actual	Variance	Variance %
Military observers	1,354.5	1,481.9	(127.4)	(9.4)
Military contingents	11,059.3	12,863.9	(1,804.6)	(16.3)
Civilian police	5,063.2	5,153.5	(90.3)	(1.8)
Formed police units	—	—	—	—
International staff	29,475.1	26,573.4	2,901.7	9.8
National staff	2,653.0	2,573.0	80.0	3.0
United Nations Volunteers	3,812.2	4,168.2	(356.0)	(9.3)
General temporary assistance	7,339.8	6,935.9	403.9	5.5
Government-provided personnel	—	—	—	—
Civilian electoral observers	—	—	—	—
Consultants	117.6	43.5	74.1	63.0
Official travel	484.5	465.2	19.3	4.0
Facilities and infrastructure	6,031.6	5,390.9	640.7	10.6
Ground transportation	2,336.4	2,010.6	325.8	13.9
Air transportation	10,209.1	9,334.2	874.9	8.6
Naval transportation	—	—	—	—
Communications and IT	2,698.4	2,105.6	592.8	50.0
Supplies, services and equipment	2,519.0	1,900.8	618.2	10.8
Quick-impact projects	—	—	—	—
Gross requirements	**85,153.7**	**81,000.5**	**4,153.2**	**4.9**
Staff assessment income	5,762.0	4,905.0	857.0	14.9
Net requirements	**79,391.7**	**76,095.5**	**3,296.2**	**4.2**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	60.0	—	60.0	100.0
Total requirements	**85,213.7**	**81,000.5**	**4,213.2**	**4.9**

Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNOTIL Estimated Requirements: 21 May–31 December 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)	
Category	Estimated Requirements
Military observers	444.6
Military contingents	—
Civilian police	1,658.4
Formed police units	—
International staff	6,885.0
National staff	1,102.6
United Nations Volunteers	833.6
General temporary assistance	3,050.8
Government-provided personnel	—
Civilian electoral observers	—
Consultants	190.4
Official travel	211.6
Facilities and infrastructure	2,392.7
Ground transportation	560.7
Air transportation	2,568.6
Naval transportation	—
Communications and IT	1,261.4
Supplies, services and equipment	769.3
Public information programme	98.0
Total estimated requirements	**22,027.7**

Source: UN Document: A/60/425.

Notes: Estimates are as of 11 October 2005, as per A/60/425. The ongoing operation of UNOTIL is being funded partly through the utilization of savings realized under the UN Advance Mission in Sudan (UNAMIS) and partly through the use of commitments granted by the Advisory Committee on Resolution 58/273 of 23 December 2003.

UNMISET Expenditure Summary: July 2004–June 2005
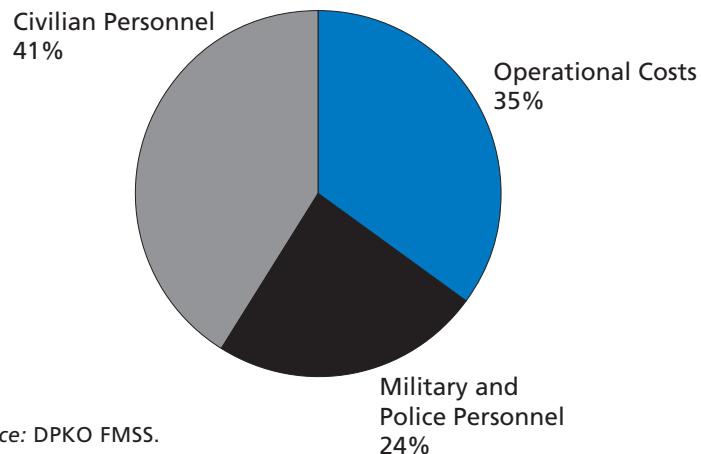
Civilian Personnel
41%

Operational Costs
35%

Military and
Police Personnel
24%

Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNMISET Expenditures on Contingent Owned Equipment: July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)

Major equipment	1,286.9
Self-sustainment	1,681.1

Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNMISET Voluntary Contributors: July 2004–July 2005 (contributions in thousands of US dollars)

Contributor	Contributions in kind (budgeted)	Contributions in kind (non-budgeted)	Contributions in cash (budgeted)	Total
Australia	60	—	—	60
Total	**60**	**—**	**—**	**60**

Source: Accounts Division, OPPBA.

7.2 UNMIS (UN Mission in the Sudan)

UNMIS Key Facts

Latest mandates	23 September 2005 (date of issue and effect) UNSC Res. 1627 (six-month duration) 24 March 2005 (date of issue and effect) UNSC Res. 1590 (six-month duration)
First mandate	24 March 2005 (date of issue and effect) UNSC Res. 1590 (six-month duration)
SRSG	Jan Pronk (first SRSG, Netherlands) SG letter of appointment: 17 June 2004; effective 1 August 2004[a]
Force commander	Major-General Fazle Elahi Akbar (first commander, Bangladesh) Entry on duty: 4 September 2004
Police commissioner	Commissioner Glenn Gilbertson (United Kingdom) Entry on duty: 2 October 2004

Note: a. Mr. Pronk was appointed SRSG of the United Nations Advance Mission in Sudan (UNAMIS), which was established as a special political mission by Security Council Resolution 1547 of 11 June 2004.

UNMIS Personnel: First Months of Operation

	Troops		Military Observers		Police	
Date	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized
Mar. 05	30	9,250	0	750	8	715
Apr. 05	57	9,250	0	750	12	715
May 05	350	9,250	82	750	26	715
June 05	960	9,250	141	750	26	715
July 05	1,204	9,250	145	750	70	715
Aug. 05	1,708	9,250	148	750	70	715
Sept. 05	2,491	9,250	167	750	101	715
Oct. 05	3,519	9,250	168	750	228	715
Nov. 05	3,638	9,250	362	750	222	715

	International Staff		National Staff		UNVs	
Date	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized
Mar. 05	91	1,018	85	2,623	12	214
Apr. 05	224	1,018	312	2,623	20	214
May 05	262	1,018	401	2,623	25	214
June 05	306	1,018	520	2,623	33	214
July 05	365	1,018	606	2,623	48	214
Aug. 05	398	1,018	699	2,623	52	214
Sept. 05	406	1,018	735	2,623	63	214
Oct. 05	496	1,018	881	2,623	66	214
Nov. 05	N/A	1,018	N/A	2,623	N/A	214

Sources: UN Document S/RES/1590; DPI (DPKO website); DPKO PMSS; PFD; UNV Programme.

UNMIS Mission Deployment Timeline

Jan.
31: SG recommends
establishment of mission

Mar.
24: Council resolution
authorizes mission

Apr.
1: Directives to FC issued
21: GA approves budget
29: Con Ops issued

May
8: Military HQ ready
27: SG visits Sudan

June
23: SG mission report
30: SG appoints
Panel of Experts
Concerning Sudan

Sept.
21: TCC meeting
23: Mandate renewed

Legend:
- - - - Auth. Troops
- - - - Auth. Nat'l Staff
- - - - Auth. Int'l Staff
- - - - Auth. Military Obs.
- - - - Auth. Police
- - - - Auth. UNVs
——— Troops
——— Nat'l Staff
——— Int'l Staff
——— Military Obs.
——— Police
——— UNVs

Sources: UN Documents S/RES/1590, S/RES/1627, S/2005/57, S/2004/503, S/2005/57, S/2004/763, S/2004/453, A/RES/59/292, S/2005/411, S/2005/428; PI (DPKO website); DPKO PMSS; PKD; UNV Programme; DPKO Military Division; UN Security Council website ("Meetings" page).

Notes: Secretary General's SRSG appointment letter issued 18 June 2004; SRSG EOD 1 August 2004; Chief military advisor EOD 4 September 2004; Chief police advisor EOD 2 October 2004; UN technical advisors deployed late April 2004. United Nations Advance Mission in Sudan (UNAMIS) established 11 June 2004 (Res 1547).

| | | | | **UNMIS Military and Police Contributors: 30 August 2005** | | | | |

Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total	Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total
Bangladesh	691	13	1	705	Austria	5	—	—	5
India	332	5	2	339	Cambodia	—	5	—	5
Nepal	228	—	4	232	El Salvador	—	5	—	5
Italy	216	—	—	216	Finland	3	—	2	5
Egypt	98	2	—	100	Kyrgyzstan	—	5	—	5
Denmark	41	—	—	41	Uganda	—	4	1	5
Norway	15	6	2	23	Benin	—	4	—	4
Pakistan	10	8	—	18	Fiji	—	2	2	4
China	7	—	8	15	Ghana	—	—	4	4
Zambia	6	9	—	15	Indonesia	—	4	—	4
Nigeria	—	10	2	12	Kenya	3	—	1	4
Russia	—	5	7	12	Romania	4	—	—	4
Zimbabwe	—	4	8	12	United Kingdom	3	—	1	4
Sweden	7	1	3	11	Croatia	3	—	—	3
Canada	10	—	—	10	Malaysia	2	—	1	3
Australia	3	6	—	9	Spain	3	—	—	3
Jordan	5	3	1	9	Greece	2	—	—	2
Peru	—	8	—	8	Jamaica	—	—	2	2
Brazil	—	7	—	7	Mongolia	—	2	—	2
Germany	5	2	—	7	Namibia	—	2	—	2
Turkey	3	—	4	7	Poland	2	—	—	2
Argentina	—	—	6	6	Moldova	—	1	—	1
Guatemala	—	6	—	6	Mozambique	—	1	—	1
Malawi	—	6	—	6	Sri Lanka	—	—	1	1
Paraguay	—	6	—	6	Switzerland	1	—	—	1
Philippines	—	—	6	6	Tanzania	—	—	1	1
Rwanda	—	6	—	6	**TOTAL**	**1,708**	**148**	**70**	**1,926**

Source: DPI (DPKO website).

UNMIS Military and Police Contributors: 31 October 2005

Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total	Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total
India	941	10	19	970	Sweden	—	3	3	6
Bangladesh	724	13	15	752	Belgium	—	5	—	5
Egypt	632	7	—	639	Ecuador	—	5	—	5
Pakistan	384	8	—	392	El Salvador	—	5	—	5
Zambia	296	8	—	304	Yemen	—	5	—	5
Nepal	226	2	15	243	Austria	4	—	—	4
Italy	211	—	—	211	Benin	—	4	—	4
Denmark	32	—	—	32	Bolivia	—	4	—	4
Norway	15	11	2	28	Cambodia	—	4	—	4
Canada	7	15	—	22	Fiji	—	2	2	4
Zimbabwe	—	13	8	21	Finland	2	—	2	4
China	8	—	12	20	Ghana	—	—	4	4
Russia	—	5	14	19	Indonesia	—	4	—	4
Sri Lanka	—	—	19	19	Krygystan	—	4	—	4
Philippines	—	—	16	16	Malaysia	3	—	1	4
Jordan	4	8	2	14	United Kingdom	3	—	1	4
Brazil	—	9	3	12	Croatia	3	—	—	3
Nigeria	—	10	2	12	Namibia	—	2	1	3
Turkey	3	—	9	12	Romania	3	—	—	3
Australia	5	6	—	11	Jamaica	—	—	2	2
Uganda	—	3	8	11	Moldova	—	2	—	2
Kenya	3	5	1	9	Mongolia	—	2	—	2
Peru	—	8	—	8	New Zealand	—	2	—	2
Germany	5	2	—	7	Spain	2	—	—	2
Malawi	—	7	—	7	Mozambique	—	1	—	1
Argentina	—	—	6	6	Samoa	—	—	1	1
Greece	2	4	—	6	Switzerland	1	—	—	1
Guatemala	—	6	—	6	Tanzania	—	—	1	1
Paraguay	—	6	—	6	United States	—	—	1	1
Rwanda	—	6	—	6	**TOTAL**	**3,519**	**226**	**170**	**3,915**

Source: DPI (DPKO website).

UNMIS Military Units: 30 August 2005

Number	Unit Type	Country
1 + 2 Partial	Engineering Construction Company	Bangladesh, Egypt (partial), India (partial)
1	Headquarters Company	Rwanda
1	Headquarters Signal Unit	India and Pakistan
2 Partial	Infantry Battalion	Bangladesh (partial), India (partial)
1	Infantry Company	Nepal
2 Partial	Level II Medical Units	Bangladesh (partial), India (partial)
1	Military Police Unit	Bangladesh
1	Petroleum Platoon	Bangladesh

Source: DPKO FGS.
Note: Military headquarter staff and military observers not included.

UNMIS Military Units: 31 October 2005

Number	Unit Type	Country
1+ 3 Partial	Engineering Construction Company	Bangladesh, Egypt (partial), India (partial), Pakistan (partial)
1	Engineering Platoon	Zambia
1	Headquarters Company	Rwanda
1	Headquarters Signal Unit	India and Pakistan
3 Partial	Infantry Battalions	Bangladesh (partial), India (partial), Pakistan (partial)
2 + 1 Partial	Infantry Companies	Egypt (partial), Nepal, Zambia
3 Partial	Level II Medical Units	Bangladesh (partial), India (partial), Pakistan (partial)
1	Military Police Unit	Bangladesh
1	Petroleum Platoon	Bangladesh
1	Riverine Unit	Bangladesh
1 Partial	Transport Platoon	Zambia (partial)

Source: DPKO FGS.
Note: Military headquarter staff and military observers not included.

UNMIS Civilian Staff: 30 June 2005

Type	Percentage Staff
Political and Civil Affairs	9%
Humanitarian Affairs and Development	2%
Administration and Mission Support	89%

Source: DPKO PMSS.

UNMIS Fatalities: Inception–October 2005

Time Period	Total	Appointment Type					
		Troop	MilOb	Police	Intl Staff	Natl Staff	Other[a]
2005	0						
March–May		—	—	—	—	—	—
June–September		—	—	—	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**0**	—	—	—	—	—	—

Time Period	Total	Incident Type				
		Hostile Act	Illness	Accident	Self-Inflicted	Other[b]
2005	0					
March–May		—	—	—	—	—
June–September		—	—	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**0**	—	—	—	—	—

Source: DPKO Situation Centre.
Notes: Discrepancies may exist between these data and those available on the DPI DPKO website, as the DPI DPKO website is still under review and may contain omissions or errors.
a. "Other" refers to consultants, UNVs, etc.
b. Incident type is unknown, uncertain, or under investigation.

UNMIS Vehicles: 30 August 2005

Contingent Owned Vehicles

Vehicle Type	Quantity
Combat Vehicles	4
Support Vehicles (Commercial Pattern)	5
Support Vehicles (Military Pattern)	27
Trailers	8
Total	**44**

Sources: DPKO Surface Transport Section; DPKO Contingent Owned Equipment and Property Management Section.

UNMIS Aircraft: 30 August 2005

	Commerical	Gov't
Fixed Wing Aircraft	13	—
Helicopters	13	—
Total	**26**	—

Source: DPKO Air Transport Section.

UNMIS Financial Performance: March–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)				
Category	Approved	Actual	Variance	Variance %
Military observers	870.1	1,486.1	(616.0)	(70.8)
Military contingents	21,051.9	13,091.0	7,960.9	37.8
Civilian police	365.3	591.5	(226.2)	(61.9)
Formed police units	—	—	—	—
International staff	15,036.3	15,530.0	(493.7)	(3.3)
National staff	1,529.3	1,141.1	388.2	25.4
United Nations Volunteers	348.0	682.2	(334.2)	(96.0)
General temporary assistance	244.1	72.6	171.5	70.3
Government-provided personnel	—	—	—	—
Civilian electoral observers	—	—	—	—
Consultants	40.5	262.3	(221.8)	(547.7)
Official travel	2,887.0	2,008.7	878.3	30.4
Facilities and infrastructure	48,983.0	57,518.7	(8,535.7)	(17.4)
Ground transportation	48,335.2	51,941.4	(3,606.2)	(7.5)
Air transportation	29,605.6	25,459.9	4,145.7	14.0
Naval transportation	—	—	—	—
Communications and IT	31,707.8	30,914.3	793.4	(17.6)
Supplies, services and equipment	20,927.6	18,165.9	2,761.7	150.8
Quick-impact projects	100.0	-	100.0	100.0
Gross requirements	**222,031.7**	**218,865.7**	**3,165.9**	**1.4**
Staff assessment income	2,313.1	2,090.1	223.0	9.6
Net requirements	**219,718.6**	**216,775.6**	**2,942.9**	**1.3**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	—	—	—	—
Total requirements	**222,031.7**	**218,865.7**	**3,165.9**	**1.4**

Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNMIS Expenditure Summary: July 2004–June 2005

Civilian Personnel 8%

Military and Police Personnel 10%

Operational Costs 82%
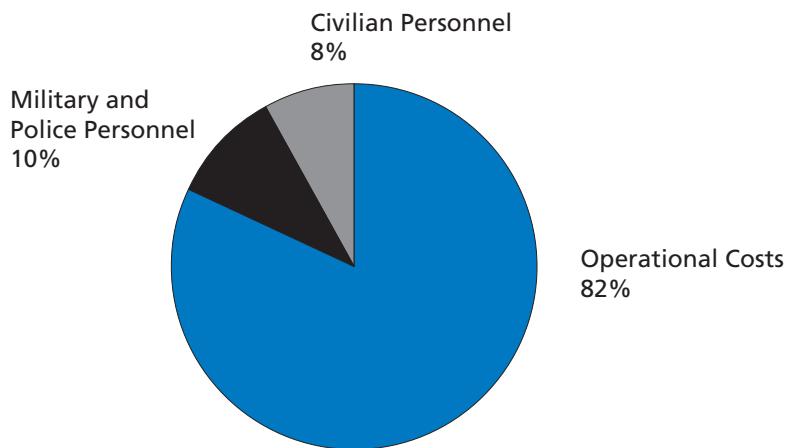
Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNMIS Expenditures on Contingent Owned Equipment: July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)

Major equipment	388.4
Self-sustainment	450.8

Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNMIS Voluntary Contributors

Contributor	Contributions in kind (budgeted)	Contributions in kind (non-budgeted)	Contributions in cash (budgeted)	Total
None	—	—	—	—

Source: Accounts Division, OPPBA.

7.3 ONUB (UN Operation in Burundi)

ONUB Key Facts

Latest mandates	21 December 2005 (date of issue and effect)
	    UNSC Res. 1650 (six-month, ten-day duration)
	30 November 2005 (date of issue), 1 December 2005
	    (date of effect)
	    UNSC Res. 1641 (one-and-one-half-month duration)
	31 May 2005 (date of issue), 1 June 2005 (date of effect)
	    UNSC Res. 1602 (six-month duration)
	1 December 2004 (date of issue and effect)
	    UNSC Res. 1577 (six-month duration)

First mandate	21 May 2004 (date of issue), 1 June 2004 (date of effect) UNSC Res. 1545 (six-month duration)
SRSG	Carolyn McAskie (first SRSG, Canada) SG letter of appointment: 24 May 2004; effective 1 June 2004
Force commander	Major-General Derrick Mbuyiselo Mgwebi (first force commander, South Africa) Entry on duty: 16 June 2004
Police commissioner	Commissioner Ibrahima Diallo (Mali) Entry on duty: 26 June 2004

ONUB Personnel: First Year of Operation

Date	Troops		Military Observers		Police	
	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized
June 04	2,415	5,450	57	200	0	120
July 04	2,561	5,450	98	200	0	120
Aug. 04	3,183	5,450	139	200	0	120
Sept. 04	4,324	5,450	183	200	52	120
Oct. 04	5,262	5,450	184	200	79	120
Nov. 04	5,291	5,450	184	200	82	120
Dec. 04	5,190	5,450	182	200	82	120
Jan. 05	5,188	5,450	190	200	82	120
Feb. 05	5,174	5,450	186	200	85	120
Mar. 05	5,169	5,450	191	200	86	120
Apr. 05	5,186	5,450	192	200	102	120
May 05	5,168	5,450	195	200	106	120

continues

ONUB Personnel: First Year of Operation continued

Date	International Staff		National Staff		UNVs	
	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized
June 04	87	264	34	417	0	61
July 04	144	403	37	423	28	172
Aug. 04	204	403	37	423	57	172
Sept. 04	238	403	72	423	69	172
Oct. 04	264	403	158	423	77	172
Nov. 04	278	403	205	423	95	172
Dec. 04	289	403	208	423	114	172
Jan. 05	310	403	210	423	115	172
Feb. 05	318	403	216	423	127	172
Mar. 05	322	403	217	423	139	172
Apr. 05	322	403	327	423	145	172
May 05	324	403	335	423	142	172

Sources: UN Document: S/RES/1545; DPI (DPKO website); DPKO PMSS; PKD; UNV Programme.

ONUB Mission Deployment Timeline

Feb.
16–27: Multi-disiclinary assessment team

Mar.
16: SG report recommends establishment of mission

Apr.
4: PC EOD

May
21: Council resolution authorizes mission for June 1
24: SRSG appointed

June
1: Official start of mandate; AMIB forces re-hatted
1: Directives issued to FC
16: SRSG EOD
18: GA approves budget
22: Con Ops Issued
25: SRSG arrival

July
16: FC appointed; FC EOD

Aug.
25: SG mission report

Nov.
24: TCC meeting

Dec.
1: Mandate renewed

May
31: SC renews mandate

Legend: Auth. Troops; Auth. Military Obs.; Auth. Police; Auth. UNVs; Auth. Nat'l Staff; Auth. Int'l Staff; Troops; Military Obs.; Police; UNVs; Nat'l Staff; Int'l Staff

Sources: UN Documents S/RES/1545, S/2004/210, S/2004/433, S/2004/682, S/2004/583, S/2004/210, A/RES/58/312; DPI (DPKO website); DPKO PMSS; PKD; UNV Programme; DPKO Military Division; UN Security Council website ("Meetings" page).

ONUB Military and Police Contributors: 30 August 2005

Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total	Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total
Pakistan	1,190	5	—	1,195	China	—	3	—	3
Kenya	1,005	1	—	1,006	Malaysia	—	3	—	3
Nepal	937	6	—	943	Namibia	—	3	—	3
South Africa	913	5	—	918	Paraguay	—	3	—	3
Ethiopia	853	7	—	860	Peru	—	3	—	3
Mozambique	184	3	—	187	Philippines	—	3	—	3
Thailand	177	3	—	180	Romania	—	3	—	3
Jordan	62	5	—	67	Uruguay	—	3	—	3
Mali	2	17	17	36	Bangladesh	—	2	—	2
Burkina Faso	2	13	18	33	Belgium	—	2	—	2
Senegal	5	6	11	22	Cote d'Ivoire	—	—	2	2
Niger	—	1	14	15	Egypt	—	2	—	2
Tunisia	3	12	—	15	Gambia	—	2	—	2
Cameroon	—	—	13	13	Ghana	—	2	—	2
Guinea	—	2	11	13	Portugal	—	2	—	2
Togo	3	10	—	13	Republic of Korea	—	2	—	2
Benin	—	2	9	11	Turkey	—	—	2	2
India	2	7	—	9	Zambia	—	2	—	2
Russia	1	8	—	9	Kyrgyzstan	—	1	—	1
Gabon	—	5	—	5	Madagascar	—	—	1	1
Guatemala	1	4	—	5	Malawi	—	1	—	1
Nigeria	1	2	2	5	Netherlands	1	—	—	1
Yemen	—	5	—	5	Serbia & Montenegro	—	1	—	1
Chad	—	1	3	4	Sri Lanka	—	1	—	1
Algeria	2	1	—	3	**TOTAL**	**5,344**	**178**	**103**	**5,625**
Bolivia	—	3	—	3					

Source: DPI (DPKO website).

ONUB Military Units: 30 August 2005

Number	Unit Type	Countries
2	Aviation Units	Pakistan, South Africa
2	Engineering Companies	Pakistan, Thailand
1	Headquarters Company	Kenya
5	Infantry Battalions	Ethiopia, Kenya, Nepal, Pakistan, South Africa
1	Infantry Company	Mozambique
2	Level II Medical Units	Jordan, Pakistan
1	Maritime Unit	South Africa
1	Special Forces Company	Nepal

Source: DPKO FGS.
Note: Military headquarter staff and military observers not included.

ONUB Civilian Staff: 30 June 2005	
Type	Percentage Staff
Political and Civil Affairs	19%
Humanitarian Affairs and Development	1%
Administration and Mission Support	80%

Source: DPKO PMSS.

ONUB Fatalities: Inception–October 2005

Time Period	Total	Troop	MilOb	Police	Intl Staff	Natl Staff	Other[a]
2004	6						
January-March		—	—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		3	—	—	—	—	—
October-December		2	—	—	—	1	—
2005	10						
January-March		3	—	—	—	—	—
April-June		4	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		2	—	—	—	—	—
October		—	—	1	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**16**	**14**	**—**	**1**	**—**	**1**	**—**

ONUB Fatalities: Inception–October 2005 continued

		Incident Type				
Time Period	Total	Hostile Act	Illness	Accident	Self-Inflicted	Other[b]
2004	6					
January-March		—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	2	1	—	—
October-December		—	2	1	—	—
2005	10					
January-March		—	1	2	—	—
April-June		—	1	3	—	—
July-September		—	1	—	—	1
October		—	1	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**16**	**—**	**8**	**7**	**—**	**1**

Source: DPKO Situation Centre.
Notes: Discrepancies may exist between these data and those available at the DPI DPKO website, as the DPI DPKO website is still under review and may contain omissions or errors.
a. "Other" refers to consultants, UNVs, etc.
b. Incident type is unknown, uncertain, or under investigation.

ONUB Vehicles: 30 August 2005

Contingent Owned Vehicles		UN Owned Vehicles	
Vehicle Type	Quantity	Vehicle Type	Quantity
Aircraft/Airfield Support Equipment	7	4x4 Vehicles	427
Combat Vehicles	90	Ambulances	4
Communications Vehicles	5	Automobiles	7
Engineering Vehicles	40	Buses	53
Material Handling Equipment	7	Engineering Vehicles	2
Support Vehicles (Commercial Pattern)	132	Material Handling Equipment	16
Support Vehicles (Military Pattern)	425	Trucks	45
Trailers	148		
Naval Vessels	5		
Total	**859**		**554**

Sources: DPKO Surface Transport Section; DPKO Contingent Owned Equipment and Property Management Section.

ONUB Aircraft: 30 August 2005		
	Commerical	Gov't
Fixed Wing Aircraft	1	—
Helicopters	6	4 (Russia)
Total	**7**	**4**

Source: DPKO Air Transport Section.

ONUB Mission Expenditures: April 2004–June 2004 (in thousands of US dollars)	
Category	Apr 04–Jun 04
Military and police personnel	11,696.8
Civilian personnel	1,316.6
Operational requirements	27,232.7
Other	—
Gross requirements	**40,246.1**
Staff assessment income	115.5
Net requirements	**40,130.6**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	—
Total requirements	**40,246.1**

Source: UN Document: A/59/748.

ONUB Financial Performance: July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)				
Category	Approved	Actual	Variance	Variance %
Military observers	9,057.2	8,952.1	105.1	1.2
Military contingents	129,404.9	116,604.4	12,800.5	9.9
Civilian police	4,835.2	3,652.8	1,182.4	24.5
Formed police units	—	—	—	—
International staff	41,123.7	40,911.3	212.4	0.5
National staff	4,305.3	3,354.8	950.5	22.1
United Nations Volunteers	5,159.9	4,863.0	296.9	5.8
General temporary assistance	441.2	438.9	2.3	—
Government-provided personnel	—	—	—	—
Civilian electoral observers	—	—	—	—
Consultants	505.6	415.7	89.9	17.8
Official travel	1,685.4	1,628.4	57.0	3.4
Facilities and infrastructure	66,348.7	60,385.3	5,963.4	9.0
Ground transportation	16,623.5	15,630.0	993.5	6.0
Air transportation	13,730.4	7,785.0	5,945.4	43.3
Naval transportation	408.1	111.3	296.8	72.7
Communications and IT	24,768.1	24,462.8	305.3	(10.5)
Supplies, services and equipment	10,317.2	13,598.1	(3,280.9)	(72.1)
Quick-impact projects	1,000.0	998.9	1.1	0.1
Gross requirements	**329,714.4**	**303,792.7**	**25,921.7**	**7.9**
Staff assessment income	5,433.9	4,850.1	583.8	10.7
Net requirements	**324,280.5**	**298,942.6**	**25,337.9**	**7.8**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	—	—	—	—
Total requirements	**329,714.4**	**303,792.7**	**25,921.7**	**7.9**

Source: DPKO FMSS.

ONUB Expenditure Summary: July 2004–June 2005

Civilian Personnel
15%

Military and
Police Personnel
44%

Operational Costs
41%
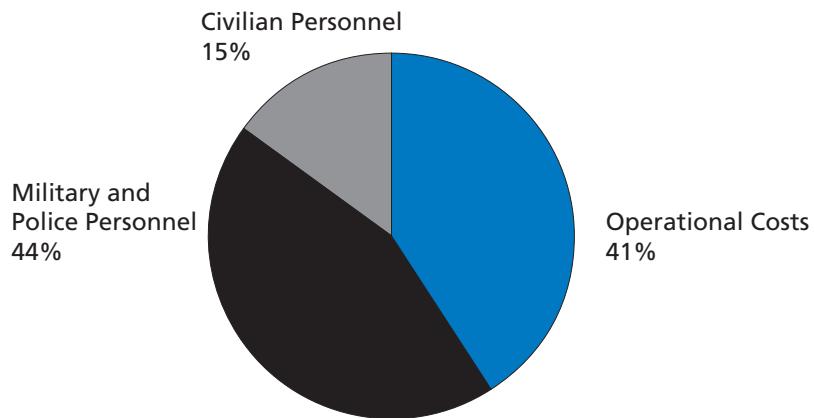
Source: DPKO FMSS.

ONUB Expenditures on Contingent Owned Equipment: July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)

Major equipment	17,391.0
Self-sustainment	20,750.3

Source: DPKO FMSS.

ONUB Voluntary Contributors

Contributor	Contributions in kind (budgeted)	Contributions in kind (non-budgeted)	Contributions in cash (budgeted)	Total
None	—	—	—	—

Source: Accounts Division, OPPBA.

7.4 MINUSTAH (UN Stabilization Mission in Haiti)

MINUSTAH Key Facts	
Latest mandates	22 June 2005 (date of issue), 24 June 2005 (date of effect) UNSC Res. 1608 (seven-month, three-week duration) 31 May 2005 (date of issue), 1 June 2005 (date of effect) UNSC Res. 1601 (twenty-four-day duration) 29 November 2004 (date of issue), 1 December 2004 (date of effect) UNSC Res. 1576 (six-month duration)
First mandate	30 April 2004 (date of issue), 1 June 2004 (date of effect) UNSC Res. 1542 (six-month duration)
SRSG	Juan Gabriel Valdés (Chile) SG letter of appointment 12 July 2004, effective 17 August 2004
Force commander	General Urano Teixeira Da Matta Bacellar (Brazil)[a] Entry on duty: 20 August 2005
First force commander	Augusto H. Ribeiro Pereira (Brazil)
Police commissioner	Commissioner Richard Graham Muir (Canada) Entry on duty: 16 August 2005

Note: a. General Bacellar died on 7 January 2006. General Aldunate Eduardo Herman of Chile was appointed Acting Force Commander on that day.

MINUSTAH Personnel: First Year of Operation										
	Troops		Police		International Staff		National Staff		UNVs	
Date	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized
June 04	2,081	6,700	67	1,622	106	482	0	549	0	153
July 04	2,259	6,700	224	1,622	145	482	0	549	19	153
Aug. 04	2,765	6,700	224	1,622	191	482	0	549	45	153
Sept. 04	3,092	6,700	583	1,622	232	482	0	549	59	153
Oct. 04	3,769	6,700	963	1,622	247	482	0	549	76	153
Nov. 04	4,790	6,700	1,270	1,622	270	482	0	549	89	153
Dec. 04	6,008	6,700	1,398	1,622	291	482	0	549	104	153
Jan. 05	5,994	6,700	1,398	1,622	320	482	137	549	103	153
Feb. 05	6,012	6,700	1,401	1,622	358	482	209	549	120	153
Mar. 05	6,210	6,700	1,398	1,622	379	482	357	549	128	153
Apr. 05	6,207	6,700	1,288	1,622	400	482	351	549	134	153
May 05	6,207	6,700	1,437	1,622	410	482	381	549	139	153

Sources: UN Documents S/RES/1542, S/RES/1608, A/59/736, A/60/386; DPI (DPKO website); DPKO PMSS, PFD.

MINUSTAH Mission Deployment Timeline

Mar.
11: Multidisciplinary assessment team arrives

Apr.
16: SG report recommends establishment of mandate
29: PC EOD
30: Council resolution authorizes mission for 1 June 2004

May
27: FC appointed
31: FC assumes functions

June
1: Official start of mandate; Directives issued to FC

July
12: SRSG appointed
18: GA approves budget

Aug.
17: SRSG assumes responsibilities
20: SRSG EOD
30: SG mission report

Nov.
1: Con Ops issued
29: Mandate renewed

May
31: Mandate renewed

June
22: Mandate renewed

Legend:
- Auth. Troops
- Auth. Police
- Auth. Nat'l Staff
- Auth. Int'l Staff
- Auth. UNVs
- Troops
- Police
- Nat'l Staff
- Int'l Staff
- UNVs

Sources: UN Documents S/RES/1542, S/2004/300, S/2004/565, S/2004/698, S/2004/439, A/RES/58/311, S/RES/1542, S/RES/1608, A/59/736, A/60/386; DPI (DPKO website); DPKO PMSS; DPKO Military Division.

MINUSTAH Military and Police Contributors: 30 August 2005

Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total	Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total
Brazil	1,213	—	3	1,216	Ghana	—	—	27	27
Jordan	757	—	293	1,050	Chad	—	—	19	19
Nepal	758	—	133	891	Egypt	—	—	14	14
Uruguay	778	—	8	786	Mali	—	—	14	14
Sri Lanka	755	—	3	758	Zambia	—	—	13	13
Chile	541	—	38	579	Bosnia & Herzegovina	—	—	12	12
Argentina	557	—	5	562	Niger	—	—	11	11
Pakistan	—	—	248	248	Nigeria	—	—	10	10
Spain	202	—	27	229	Sierra Leone	—	—	7	7
Peru	210	—	—	210	Turkey	—	—	6	6
Philippines	157	—	20	177	Bolivia	4	—	—	4
Morocco	167	—	—	167	El Salvador	—	—	4	4
China	—	—	134	134	Romania	—	—	4	4
Canada	3	—	81	84	Togo	—	—	4	4
Guatemala	83	—	—	83	Paraguay	3	—	—	3
France	2	—	79	81	Yemen	—	—	3	3
Ecuador	67	—	—	67	Mauritius	—	—	2	2
Burkina Faso	—	—	50	50	Croatia	1	—	—	1
Cameroon	—	—	43	43	Malaysia	1	—	—	1
Guinea	—	—	31	31	Senegal	—	—	1	1
Benin	—	—	29	29	**TOTAL**	**6,263**	**—**	**1,401**	**7,664**
United States	4	—	25	29					

Source: DPI (DPKO website).
Note: Police figures include formed police provided by China (125), Jordan (290), Nepal (125), and Pakistan (248).

MINUSTAH Military Units: 30 August 2005

Number	Unit Type	Countries
2	Aviation Units	Argentina, Chile
2	Engineering Companies	Brazil, Chile-Ecuador Composite
1	Headquarters Company	Philippines
9	Infantry Battalions	Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Jordan (2), Morocco-Spain Composite, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Uruguay
1	Infantry Company	Peru
1	Level II Hospital	Argentina
1	Military Police Unit	Guatemala

Source: DPKO FGS.
Note: Military headquarter staff and staff officers (138) not included.

MINUSTAH Civilian Staff: 30 August 2005

Type	Percentage Staff
Political and Civil Affairs	12%
Humanitarian Affairs and Development	2%
Administration and Mission Support	85%

Source: DPKO PMSS.

MINUSTAH Fatalities: Inception–October 2005

Time Period	Total	Appointment Type					
		Troop	MilOb	Police	Intl Staff	Natl Staff	Other[a]
2004	0						
May-June		—	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—	—
2005	10						
January-March		4	—	—	—	—	—
April-June		2	—	1	—	—	—
July-September		—	1	—	—	—	—
October		2	—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**10**	**8**	**—**	**1**	**1**	**—**	**—**

continues

MINUSTAH Fatalities: Inception–October 2005 continued

Time Period	Total	Incident Type				
		Hostile Act	Illness	Accident	Self-Inflicted	Other[b]
2004	0					
May-June		—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—
2005	10					
January-March		2	1	1	—	—
April-June		1	—	2	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	1
October		1	—	—	1	—
Total Fatalities	**10**	**4**	**1**	**3**	**1**	**1**

Source: DPKO Situation Centre.

Notes: Discrepancies may exist between these data and those available at the DPI DPKO website, as the DPI DPKO website is still under review and may contain omissions or errors.

a. "Other" refers to consultants, UNVs, etc.

b. Incident type is unknown, uncertain, or under investigation.

MINUSTAH Ground Transportation: 30 August 2005

Contingent Owned Vehicles		UN Owned Vehicles	
Vehicle Type	Quantity	Vehicle Type	Quantity
Aircraft/Airfield Support Equipment	13	4x4 Vehicles	586
Combat Vehicles	144	Ambulances	4
Engineering Vehicles	86	Buses	36
Material Handling Equipment	25	Engineering Vehicles	1
Support Vehicles (Commerical Pattern)	435	Material Handling Equipment	12
Support Vehicles (Military Pattern)	517	Trucks	39
Trailers	364		
Total	**1,584**		**678**

Sources: DPKO Surface Transport Section; DPKO Contingent Owned Equipment and Property Management Section.

MINUSTAH Aircraft: 30 August 2005		
	Commerical	Gov't
Fixed Wing Aircraft	1	—
Helicopters	2	9 (2 Argentina, 7 Chile)
Total	**3**	**9**

Source: DPKO Air Transport Section.

| MINUSTAH Mission Expenditures: May–June 2004 (in thousands of US dollars)	
Category	May 04–Jun 04
Military and police personnel	7,159.3
Civilian personnel	1,246.5
Operational requirements	26,150.3
Other	—
Gross requirements	**34,556.1**
Staff assessment income	60.7
Net requirements	**34,495.4**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	—
Total requirements	**34,556.1**

Source: UN Document: A/59/748.

MINUSTAH Financial Performance: July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)

Category	Approved	Actual	Variance	Variance %
Military observers	—	—	—	—
Military contingents	148,375.5	141,327.5	7,048.0	4.8
Civilian police	26,136.7	28,881.3	(2,744.6)	(10.5)
Formed police units	16,766.5	22,641.3	(5,874.8)	(35.0)
International staff	50,030.0	46,684.1	3,345.9	6.7
National staff	4,631.3	4,638.4	(7.1)	(0.2)
United Nations Volunteers	4,448.9	4,728.1	(279.2)	(6.3)
General temporary assistance	240.0	906.2	(666.2)	(277.6)
Government-provided personnel	—	—	—	—
Civilian electoral observers	—	—	—	—
Consultants	150.0	42.8	107.2	71.5
Official travel	1,001.8	1,539.2	(537.4)	(53.6)
Facilities and infrastructure	54,076.4	54,408.0	(331.6)	(0.6)
Ground transportation	17,435.5	19,166.3	(1,730.8)	(9.9)
Air transportation	20,112.5	17,088.5	3,024.0	15.0
Naval transportation	395.1	244.3	150.8	38.2
Communications and IT	25,819.9	25,106.4	713.5	(2.0)
Supplies, services and equipment	8,456.7	8,680.1	(223.4)	(33.6)
Quick-impact projects	970.0	968.6	1.4	0.1
Gross requirements	**379,046.8**	**377,051.1**	**1,995.6**	**0.5**
Staff assessment income	6,256.7	5,447.2	809.5	12.9
Net requirements	**372,790.1**	**371,603.9**	**1,186.1**	**0.3**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	—	—	—	—
Total requirements	**379,046.8**	**377,051.1**	**1,995.6**	**0.5**

Source: DPKO FMSS.

**MINUSTAH Expenditure Summary:
July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)**

Civilian Performance
15%

Operational Costs
34%

Military and
Police Personnel
51%
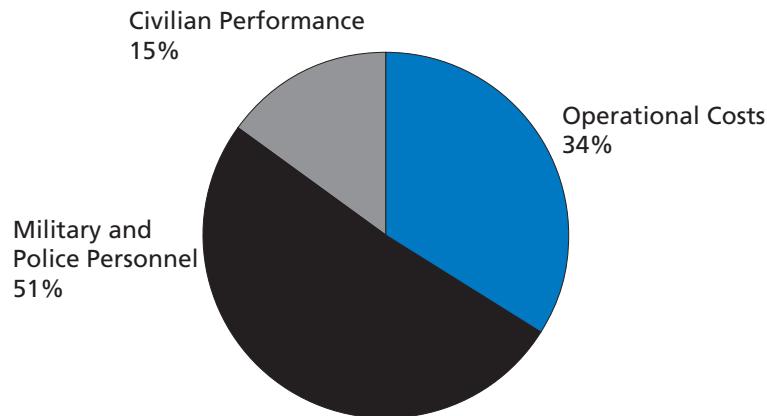
Source: DPKO FMSS.

**MINUSTAH Expenditures on Contingent
Owned Equipment: July 2004–June 2005[a]
(in thousands of US dollars)**

Major equipment	30,808.5
Self-sustainment	21,364.4

Source: DPKO FMSS.
Notes: a. Includes Major equipment and Self-sustainment for formed police units.

MINUSTAH Voluntary Contributors

Contributor	Contributions in kind (budgeted)	Contributions in kind (non-budgeted)	Contributions in cash (budgeted)	Total
None	—	—	—	—

Source: Accounts Division, OPPBA.

7.5 UNOCI (UN Operation in Côte d'Ivoire)

UNOCI Key Facts	
Latest mandates	24 June 2005 (date of issue and effect)
	UNSC Res. 1609 (seven-month duration)
	3 June 2005 (date of issue), 4 June 2005 (date of effect)
	UNSC Res. 1603 (20 days duration)
	4 May 2005 (date of issue and effect)
	UNSC Res. 1600 (seven-month duration)
	4 April 2005 (date of issue and effect)
	UNSC Res. 1594 (one-month duration)
First mandate	27 February 2004 (date of issue), 4 April 2004 (date of effect)
	UNSC Res. 1528 (twelve-month duration)
SRSG	Pierre Schori (Sweden)
	SG letter of appointment: 25 February 2005,
	effective 1 April 2005
First SRSG	Albert Tevoedjre (Benin)
Force commander	Major-General Abdoulaye Fall
	(first force commander, Senegal)
	Entry on duty: 4 April 2004
Police commissioner	Commissioner Yves Bouchard (Canada)
	Entry on duty: 4 April 2004

UNOCI Personnel: First Year of Operation

	Troops		Military Observers		Police	
Date	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized
Apr. 04	1,572	6,040	123	200	6	350
May 04	2,915	6,040	121	200	60	350
June 04	3,360	6,040	134	200	85	350
July 04	4,735	6,040	148	200	133	350
Aug. 04	5,844	6,040	164	200	133	350
Sept. 04	5,843	6,040	166	200	212	350
Oct. 04	5,834	6,040	168	200	216	350
Nov. 04	5,842	6,040	153	200	213	350
Dec. 04	5,846	6,040	154	200	215	350
Jan. 05	5,843	6,040	166	200	215	350
Feb. 05	5,848	6,040	171	200	218	350
Mar. 05	5,850	6,040	188	200	218	350

	International Staff		National Staff		UNVs	
Date	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized
Apr. 04	90	384	90	404	7	227
May 04	124	384	123	404	8	215
June 04	156	384	168	404	21	215
July 04	187	384	173	404	37	215
Aug. 04	204	384	205	404	49	215
Sept. 04	216	384	231	404	64	215
Oct. 04	225	384	241	404	77	215
Nov. 04	228	384	241	404	70	215
Dec. 04	241	384	249	404	62	215
Jan. 05	257	384	270	404	70	215
Feb. 05	268	384	293	404	84	215
Mar. 05	274	384	307	404	91	215

Sources: UN Documents S/RES/1528, S/RES/1609; DPI (DPKO website); DPKO PMSS; PKD; UNV Programme.

UNOCI Mission Deployment Time

May
13: Council authorizes inclusion of ML officers in MINUCI

Feb.
27: Council resolution authorizes mission as of 4 April 2004

Dec.
3–11: Assessment mission

Jan.
6: SG report recommends establishment of mission

Mar.
25: FC appointed (from ECONUCI)
-Month end: PC on the ground

Apr.
4: Official start of mandate; FC EOD; PC EOD; SRSG EOD
5: Con Ops issued

June
1: Directives to FC issued
2: SG mission report

July
30: GA approves budget; Arrival of technical team to assess police necessities

Feb.
25: New SRSG appointed

Apr.
1: New SRSG EOD
4: Mandate renewed

May
4: Mandate renewed

June
3: Mandate renewed
24: Mandate renewed

Legend:
- - - - Auth. Troops
- - - - Auth. Military Obs.
- - - - Auth. Police
- - - - Auth. UNVs
- - - - Auth. Nat'l Staff
- - - - Auth. Int'l Staff
——— Troops
——— Military Obs.
——— Police
——— UNVs
——— Nat'l Staff
——— Int'l Staff

Sources: UN Documents S/RES/1528, S/RES/1594, S/RES/1600, S/RES/1603, S/RES/1609, S/RES/1479, S/2004/3, S/2003/168, S/2004/267, S/2004/443, A/RES/58/310, A/60/420; DPI (DPKO website); DPKO PMSS; PKD; UNV Programme; DPKO Military Division; UN Security Council website ("Meetings" page).

Notes: July–September 2005 authorized civilian staff based on requested amount as per A/60/420. A TCC meeting takes place 24 March 2005.

UNOCI Military and Police Contributors: 30 August 2005

Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total	Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total
Bangladesh	3,026	10	1	3,037	Romania	—	5	—	5
Morocco	734	1	—	735	Yemen	—	5	—	5
Ghana	403	6	1	410	Dominican Republic	—	4	—	4
Pakistan	375	8	—	383	Moldova	—	4	—	4
Niger	367	6	3	376	Philippines	1	3	—	4
Senegal	323	8	22	353	Uganda	2	2	—	4
Benin	309	6	16	331	Argentina	—	—	3	3
Togo	296	6	1	303	Bolivia	—	3	—	3
Jordan	210	7	2	219	Central African Republic	—	—	3	3
France	188	2	10	200	Croatia	—	3	—	3
Cameroon	—	—	50	50	El Salvador	—	3	—	3
Nigeria	—	5	22	27	Guinea	—	3	—	3
Djibouti	—	—	24	24	Namibia	—	3	—	3
Turkey	—	—	24	24	Nepal	—	3	—	3
Uruguay	1	1	11	13	Peru	—	3	—	3
Paraguay	2	9	—	11	Serbia & Montenegro	—	3	—	3
Russia	—	11	—	11	Tunisia	1	2	—	3
Canada	—	—	9	9	Ecuador	—	2	—	2
Kenya	4	5	—	9	Ireland	—	2	—	2
Brazil	3	4	—	7	Lebanon	—	—	2	2
Chad	—	3	4	7	Poland	—	2	—	2
China	—	7	—	7	Zambia	—	2	—	2
India	—	7	—	7	Portugal	—	—	1	1
Gambia	1	5	—	6	Sri Lanka	—	—	1	1
Congo	—	5	—	5	**TOTAL**	**6,246**	**184**	**210**	**6,640**
Guatemala	—	5	—	5					

Source: DPI (DPKO website).
Note: Police figures include two formed police provided by Jordan.

UNOCI Military Units: 30 August 2005

Number	Unit Type	Countries
1	Close Protection Unit	Benin, Ghana, Niger, Senegal, Togo
3	Engineering Companies	Bangladesh, France, Pakistan
1	Gendarme Security Company	Ghana-Niger-Senegal-Togo Composite
1	Headquarters Company	Bangladesh
10	Infantry Battalions	Bangladesh (4), Morocco, Benin, Ghana, Niger, Senegal, Togo
2	Level II Hospitals	Bangladesh, Ghana
1	Signal Company	Bangladesh
1	Special Forces Company	Jordan
1	Transport Company	Pakistan

Source: DPKO FGS.
Note: Military headquarter staff and military observers not included.

UNOCI Civilian Staff: 30 August 2005

Type	Percentage Staff
Political and Civil Affairs	13%
Humanitarian Affairs and Development	2%
Administration and Mission Support	84%

Source: DPKO PMSS.

UNOCI Fatalities: Inception–October 2005

		Appointment Type					
Time Period	Total	Troop	MilOb	Police	Intl Staff	Natl Staff	Other[a]
2004	0						
April-June		—	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—	—
2005	8						
January-March		3	—	—	—	—	—
April-June		1	—	—	—	1	—
July-September		2	—	—	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	1	—	—
Total Fatalities	**8**	**6**	**—**	**—**	**1**	**1**	**—**

		Incident Type				
Time Period	Total	Hostile Act	Illness	Accident	Self-Inflicted	Other[b]
2004	0					
April-June		—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—
2005	8					
January-March		—	2	—	—	1
April-June		—	1	1	—	—
July-September		1	1	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	1
Total Fatalities	**8**	**1**	**4**	**1**	**—**	**2**

Source: DPKO Situation Centre.
Notes: Discrepancies may exist between these data and those available at the DPI DPKO website, as the DPI DPKO website is still under review and may contain omissions or errors.
a. "Other" refers to consultants, UNVs, etc.
b. Incident type is unknown, uncertain, or under investigation.

UNOCI Vehicles: 30 August 2005

Contingent Owned Vehicles

Vehicle Type	Quantity
Combat Vehicles	75
Communications Vehicles	4
Engineering Vehicles	78
Material Handling Equipment	4
Support Vehicles (Commercial Pattern)	137
Support Vehicles (Military Pattern)	639
Trailers	245
Total	**1182**

UN Owned Vehicles

Vehicle Type	Quantity
4x4 Vehicles	580
Airfield Suport	16
Ambulances	8
Automobiles	7
Buses	67
Engineering Vehicles	6
Material Handling Equipment	14
Trucks	81
	779

Sources: DPKO Surface Transport Section; DPKO Contingent Owned Equipment and Property Management Section.

UNOCI Aircraft: 30 August 2005

	Commerical	Gov't
Fixed Wing Aircraft	2	—
Helicopters	8	—
Total	**10**	**—**

Source: DPKO Air Transport Section.

UNOCI Expenditures: April–June 2004 (in thousands of US dollars)

Category	Apr 04–Jun 04
Military and police personnel	29,354.7
Civilian personnel	5,000.1
Operational requirements	48,708.4
Other	—
Gross requirements	**83,063.2**
Staff assessment income	547.3
Net requirements	**82,515.9**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	—
Total requirements	**83,063.2**

Source: UN Document: A/58/788.

				Variance
UNOCI Financial Performance:				
July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)				
Category	Approved	Actual	Variance	%
Military observers	8,909.4	8,629.7	279.7	3.1
Military contingents	139,548.3	134,575.8	4,972.5	3.6
Civilian police	12,801.1	9,568.1	3,233.0	25.3
Formed police units	—	—	—	—
International staff	37,621.0	37,158.5	462.5	1.2
National staff	7,630.1	5,026.4	2,603.7	34.1
United Nations Volunteers	5,466.4	3,605.8	1,860.6	34.0
General temporary assistance	—	—	—	—
Government-provided personnel	362.6	53.5	309.1	85.2
Civilian electoral observers	—	—	—	—
Consultants	224.0	99.4	124.6	55.6
Official travel	1,720.2	1,832.4	(112.2)	(6.5)
Facilities and infrastructure	54,354.3	46,699.9	7,654.4	14.1
Ground transportation	27,782.6	22,442.8	5,339.8	19.2
Air transportation	30,683.7	22,599.4	8,084.3	26.3
Naval transportation	—	—	—	—
Communications and IT	33,842.8	31,258.6	2,584.2	14.7
Supplies, services and equipment	16,726.3	12,394.4	4,331.9	62.7
Quick-impact projects	800.0	776.3	23.7	3.0
Gross requirements	**378,472.8**	**336,721.0**	**41,751.8**	**11.0**
Staff assessment income	6,343.2	4,906.3	1,436.9	22.7
Net requirements	**372,129.6**	**331,814.6**	**40,315.0**	**10.8**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	—	—	—	—
Total requirements	**378,472.8**	**336,721.0**	**41,751.8**	**11.0**

Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNOCI Expenditure Summary: July 2004–June 2005

Civilian Personnel
13%

Military and
Police Personnel
43%

Operational Costs
44%
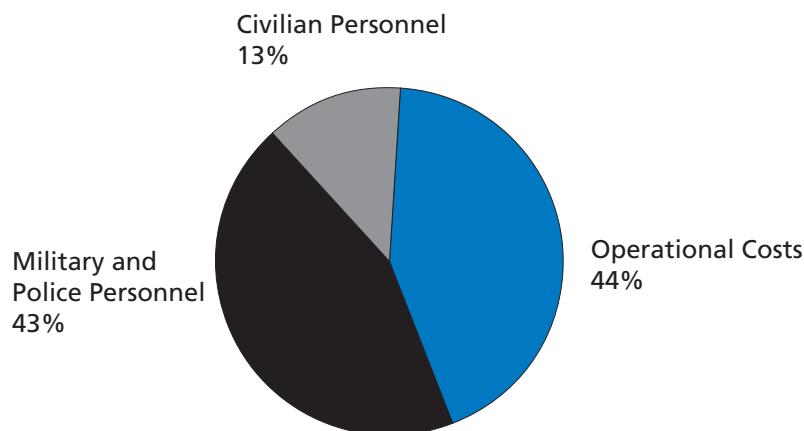
Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNOCI Expenditures on Contingent Owned Equipment: July 2004–June 2005 in thousands of US dollars

Major equipment	21,839.3
Self-sustainment	22,428.3

Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNOCI Voluntary Contributors

Contributor	Contributions in kind (budgeted)	Contributions in kind (non-budgeted)	Contributions in cash (budgeted)	Total
None	—	—	—	—

Source: Accounts Division, OPPBA.

7.6 UNMIL (UN Mission in Liberia)

UNMIL Key Facts	
Latest mandates	19 September 2005 (date of issue and effect)
	UNSC Res. 1626 (six-month, twelve-day duration)
	17 September 2004 (date of issue),
	19 September 2004 (date of effect)
	UNSC Res. 1561 (twelve-month duration)
First mandate	19 September 2003 (date of issue and effect)
	UNSC Res. 1509 (twelve-month duration)
SRSG	Alan Doss (United Kingdom)
	SG letter of appointment: 13 July 2005;
	effective 15 August 2005
First SRSG	Jacques Klein (United States)
Force commander	Lieutenent-General Chikadibia Obiakor (Nigeria)
	effective as of 1 January 2006
First force commander	Lieutenant-General Daniel Ishmael Opande (Kenya)
Police commissioner	Commissioner Mohammed Ahmed Alhassan (Ghana)
	Entry on duty: 15 March 2005

	UNMIL Personnel: First Year of Operation					
	Troops		Military Observers		Police	
Date	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized
Oct. 03	4,481	14,785	6	215	0	1,115
Nov. 03	5,455	14,785	73	215	41	1,115
Dec. 03	8,387	14,785	107	215	312	1,115
Jan. 04	10,903	14,785	108	215	442	1,115
Feb. 04	11,527	14,785	107	215	518	1,115
Mar. 04	13,808	14,785	137	215	551	1,115
Apr. 04	13,938	14,785	169	215	632	1,115
May 04	14,649	14,785	184	215	791	1,115
June 04	13,375	14,785	192	215	1,049	1,115
July 04	13,881	14,785	202	215	1,091	1,115
Aug. 04	14,468	14,785	204	215	1,091	1,115
Sept. 04	14,363	14,785	201	215	1,089	1,115

UNMIL Personnel: First Year of Operation continued

Date	International Staff		National Staff		UNVs	
	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized
Oct. 03	117	607	44	768	1	286
Nov. 03	168	607	104	768	12	286
Dec. 03	160	607	125	768	24	286
Jan. 04	199	607	145	768	72	286
Feb. 04	227	607	153	768	92	286
Mar. 04	262	607	170	768	111	286
Apr. 04	301	607	343	768	128	286
May 04	340	607	430	768	147	286
June 04	382	607	454	768	160	286
July 04	401	635	535	798	174	431
Aug. 04	421	635	543	798	195	431
Sept. 04	444	635	541	798	207	431

Sources: UN Documents S/RES/1509, A/59/624, A/59/736; DPI (DPKO website); PFD; UNV Programme.

UNMIL Mission Deployment Time

July
8: SRSG appointed
14: SRSG EOD

Aug.
1: Council authorizes multinational stabilization force
21: Arrival of multi-disciplinary assessment mission

Sept.
11: SG report recommends UN troop deployment
15: TCC meeting
19: Council resolution authorizes mission as of 1 October
-Directives to FC issued September (no date specified)

Oct.
1: Official start of mandate and take-over of ECOMIL; FC appointment and EOD
28: Con Ops issued

Nov.
1: Permanent HQ operational
2: PC EOD

Dec.
15: SG mission report
23: GA approves budget

June
18: GA adjusts budget

Sept.
19: Mandate renewed

Legend:
- - - - Auth. Troops   - - - - Auth. Military Obs.   - - - - Auth. Police   - - - - Auth. UNVs   - - - - Auth. Nat'l Staff   - - - - Auth. Int'l Staff
——— Troops   ——— Military Obs.   ——— Police   ——— UNVs   ——— Nat'l Staff   ——— Int'l Staff

Sources: UN Documents S/RES/1509, A/59/624, A/59/736, S/RES/1497, S/2003/875, S/2003/695, S/2003/926, A/RES/58/261A, A/RES/58/261B, S/2003/1175; DPI (DPKO website); DPKO PFD; UNV Programme; DPKO Military Division; UN Security Council website ("Meetings" page).

Note: Actual UNV strength for October 2003—March 2004 unavailable.

UNMIL Personnel: Since 2003
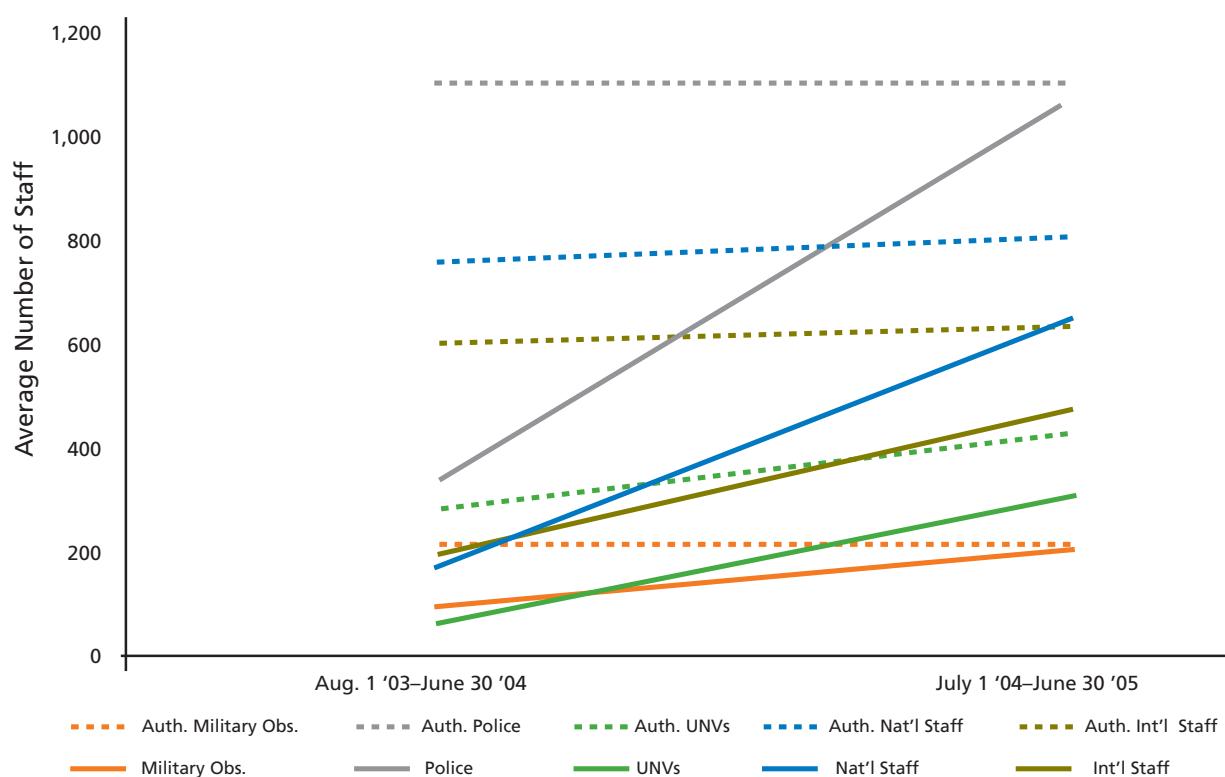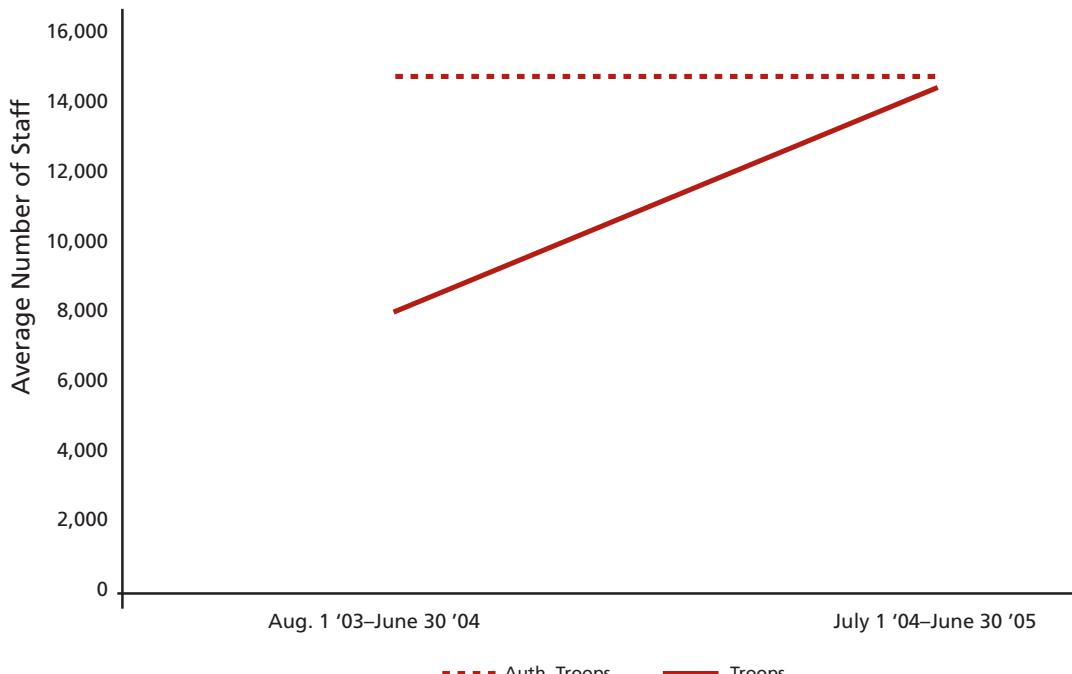
Sources: UN Document A/59/624; PKD; DPI (DPKO website).

UNMIL Personnel: July 2004–September 2005
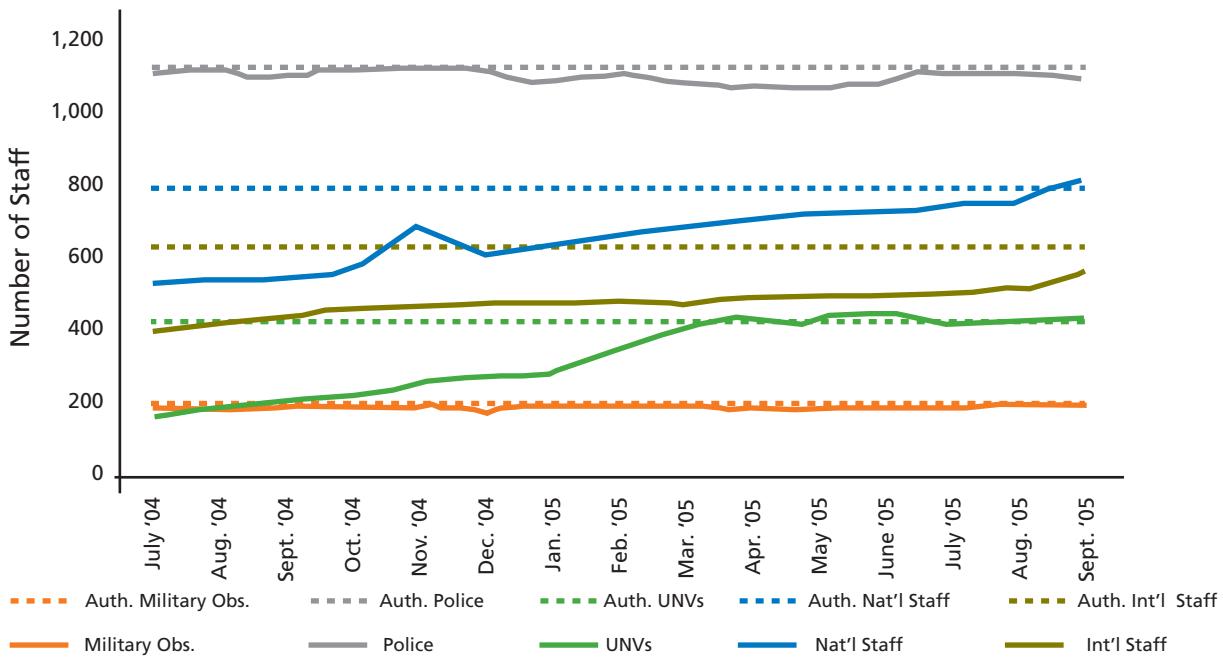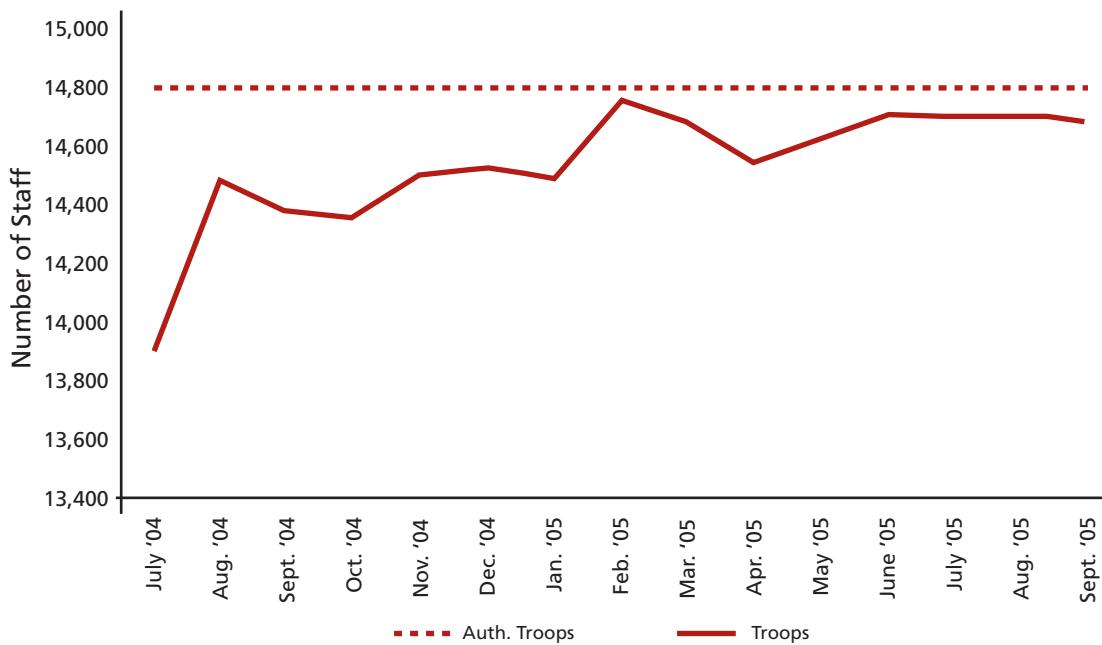
Sources: UN Documents S/RES/1509, A/59/736; DPI (DPKO website); PFD; DPKO PMSS.

Note: S/RES/1509 (2003) authorized 15,000 military personnel, including up to 250 military observers. It was subsequently decided to maintain the military observer strengths at or below 215, therefore allowing a maximum authorized troop strength of 14,750.

UNMIL Military and Police Contributors: 30 August 2005								
Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total	Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total

Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total	Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total
Bangladesh	3,196	17	30	3,243	Egypt	—	8	—	8
Pakistan	2,750	16	21	2,787	Czech Republic	—	3	3	6
Ethiopia	2,547	17	—	2,564	Mali	2	4	—	6
Nigeria	1,966	19	166	2,151	Niger	—	3	3	6
Ghana	856	11	40	907	Norway	—	—	6	6
Namibia	864	3	6	873	Peru	2	3	—	5
Senegal	604	3	10	617	Austria	5	—	—	5
China	567	5	25	597	Poland	—	2	3	5
Ireland	426	—	—	426	Bolivia	1	3	—	4
Ukraine	301	3	11	315	Ecuador	1	3	—	4
Nepal	42	3	256	301	Moldova	1	3	—	4
Jordan	124	7	140	271	Paraguay	1	3	—	4
Sweden	229	—	10	239	Yemen	—	—	4	4
Philippines	172	3	31	206	Benin	1	2	—	3
Gambia	—	5	30	35	Croatia	3	—	—	3
Zimbabwe	—	—	32	32	El Salvador	—	3	—	3
Kenya	4	3	24	31	Indonesia	—	3	—	3
Turkey	—	—	31	31	Kyrgzstan	—	3	—	3
Zambia	—	3	28	31	Romania	—	3	—	3
Fiji	—	—	29	29	Togo	1	2	—	3
United States	6	7	16	29	United Kingdom	3	—	—	3
Russia	—	6	20	26	Argentina	—	—	2	2
Malawi	2	—	20	22	Bulgaria	—	2	—	2
Samoa	—	—	21	21	Finland	2	—	—	2
Uganda	—	—	20	20	Republic of Korea	1	1	—	2
Germany	15	—	2	17	Uruguay	—	—	2	2
Serbia & Montenegro	—	6	8	14	Brazil	1	—	—	1
Bosnia & Herzegovina	—	—	12	12	Denmark	—	1	—	1
Jamaica	—	—	11	11	France	1	—	—	1
Sri Lanka	—	—	11	11	**TOTAL**	**14,692**	**202**	**1,084**	**15,978**
Malaysia	—	10	—	10					

Source: DPI (DPKO website).
Note: Police figures include formed police units provided by Jordan (120), Nepal (250), and Nigeria (125).

UNMIL Military Units: 30 August 2005

Number	Unit Type	Countries
12	Infantry Battalions	Bangladesh, Ethiopia, Ghana, Nigeria, Namibia, Pakistan
3	Level II Hospitals	Bangladesh, China, Pakistan
4	Engineering Units	Bangladesh, China, Pakistan (2)
1	Level III Hospital	Jordan

Source: DPKO FGS.
Note: Military headquarter staff and military observers not included.

UNMIL Civilian Staff: 30 June 2005

Type	Percentage Staff
Political and Civil Affairs	12%
Humanitarian Affairs and Development	2%
Administration and Mission Support	86%

Source: DPKO PMSS.

UNMIL Fatalities: Inception–October 2005

Appointment Type

Time Period	Total	Troop	MilOb	Police	Intl Staff	Natl Staff	Other[a]
2003	5	5	—	—	—	—	—
2004	29						
January-March		10	1	1	—	—	—
April-June		5	—	1	—	—	—
July-September		4	—	—	—	1	—
October-December		4	—	1	—	1	—
2005	30						
January-March		4	—	2	2	—	—
April-June		8	—	—	—	1	—
July-September		4	—	—	—	—	—
October		6	—	1	1	1	—
Total Fatalities	**64**	**50**	**1**	**6**	**3**	**4**	**—**

Incident Type

Time Period	Total	Hostile Act	Illness	Accident	Self-Inflicted	Other[b]
2003	5	—	1	4	—	—
2004	29					
January-March		—	9	2	—	1
April-June		—	6	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	2	1	2
October-December		—	5	1	—	—
2005	30					
January-March		—	5	2	—	1
April-June		—	8	—	—	1
July-September		—	3	1	—	—
October		—	4	3	—	2
Total Fatalities	**64**	**—**	**41**	**15**	**1**	**7**

Source: DPKO Situation Centre.

Notes: Discrepancies may exist between these data and those available on the DPI DPKO website, as the DPI DPKO website is still under review and may contain omissions or errors.

a. "Other" refers to consultants, UNVs, etc.

b. Incident type is unknown, uncertain, or under investigation.

UNMIL Vehicles: 30 August 2005

Contingent Owned Vehicles

Vehicle Type	Quantity
Aircraft/Airfield Support Equipment	4
Combat Vehicles	326
Communications Vehicles	2
Engineering Vehicles	137
Material Handling Equipment	26
Support Vehicles (Commercial Pattern)	435
Support Vehicles (Military Pattern)	1,200
Trailers	488
Total	**2,618**

Sources: DPKO Surface Transport Section; DPKO Contingent Owned Equipment and Property Management Section.

UNMIL Aircraft: 30 August 2005

	Commerical	Gov't
Fixed Wing Aircraft	3	—
Helicopters	8	14 (Ukraine)
Total	**11**	**14**

Source: DPKO Air Transport Section.

UNMIL Mission Expenditures: August 2003–June 2004 (in thousands of US dollars)

Category	Aug 03–Jun 04
Military and police personnel	269,436.1
Civilian personnel	33,596.3
Operational requirements	245,146.3
Other	—
Gross requirements	**548,178.7**
Staff assessment income	3,113.1
Net requirements	**545,065.6**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	100.0
Total requirements	**548,278.7**

Source: UN Document: A/59/624.

**UNMIL Financial Performance:
July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)**

Category	Approved	Actual	Variance	Variance %
Military observers	11,445.8	11,337.8	108.0	0.9
Military contingents	355,738.8	340,018.8	15,720.0	4.4
Civilian police	35,984.6	32,758.2	3,226.4	9.0
Formed police units	11,634.5	9,152.8	2,481.7	21.3
International staff	87,323.7	76,896.2	10,427.5	11.9
National staff	6,121.2	8,757.7	(2,636.5)	(43.1)
United Nations Volunteers	17,763.7	12,965.1	4,798.6	27.0
General temporary assistance	1,468.8	1,630.3	(161.5)	(11.0)
Government-provided personnel	—	—	—	—
Civilian electoral observers	—	—	—	—
Consultants	565.3	353.8	211.5	37.4
Official travel	1,976.9	1,840.5	136.4	6.9
Facilities and infrastructure	100,338.8	90,774.8	9,564.0	9.5
Ground transportation	25,600.6	18,345.3	7,255.3	28.3
Air transportation	74,228.1	54,689.9	19,538.2	26.3
Naval transportation	2,730.0	2,581.3	148.7	5.4
Communications and IT	40,826.5	35,321.9	5,504.6	19.2
Supplies, services and equipment	47,238.7	42,540.9	4,697.8	29.2
Quick-impact projects	1,000.0	1,000.0	—	—
Gross requirements	**821,986.0**	**740,965.5**	**81,020.5**	**9.9**
Staff assessment income	10,084.9	9,768.1	316.8	3.1
Net requirements	**811,901.1**	**731,197.4**	**80,703.7**	**9.9**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	120.0	120.0	—	—
Total requirements	**822,106.0**	**741,085.5**	**81,020.5**	**9.9**

Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNMIL Expenditure Summary: July 2004–2005

Civilian Personnel
14%

Operational Costs
36%

Military and
Police Personnel
50%
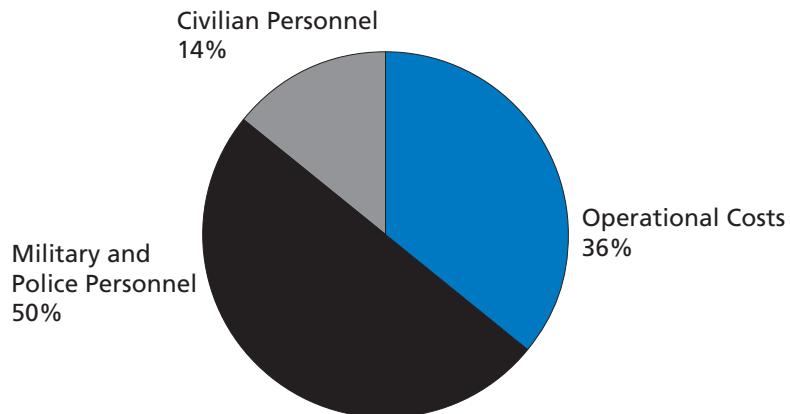
Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNMIL Expenditures on Contingent Owned Equipment: July 2004–June 2005ª (in thousands of US dollars)

Major equipment	76,510.2
Self-sustainment	70,072.3

Source: DPKO FMSS.
Notes: a. Includes Major equipment and Self-sustainment for formed police units.

**UNMIL Voluntary Contributors: July 2004–June 2005
(contributions in thousands of US dollars)**

Contributor	Contributions in kind (budgeted)	Contributions in kind (non-budgeted)	Contributions in cash (budgeted)	Total
Germany	120	—	—	120
Total	**120**	**—**	**—**	**120**

Source: Accounts Division, OPPBA.

7.7 UNAMA (UN Assistance Mission in Afghanistan)

UNAMA Key Facts	
Latest mandates	24 March 2005 (date of issue and effect) UNSC Res. 1589 (twelve-month duration)
First mandate	28 March 2002 (date of issue and effect) UNSC Res. 1401 (twelve-month duration)
SRSG	Jean Arnault (France)[a] SG letter of appointment: 6 February 2004; effective 6 February 2004
First SRSG	Lakhdar Brahimi (Algeria)
Senior Military Adviser	Brigadier Karl-Alexander Wohlgemuth (Austria) Entry on duty: 18 June 2004

Note: a. On 16 December 2005, the Secretary-General informed the Security Council that Tom Koenigs (Germany) will replace Jean Arnault in February 2006.

UNAMA Personnel Since 2002

Chart 1: Average Number of Staff (Military Advisers and Police)

Y-axis: Average Number of Staff (0 to 14)

X-axis categories: Apr. 1 '02–Dec. 31 '02, Jan. 1 '03–Dec. 31 '03, Jan. 1 '04–Dec. 31 '04, Jan. 1 '05–Sept. 30 '05

Legend:
- Auth. Military Advisers (orange dotted)
- Auth. Police (gray dotted)
- Military Advisers (orange solid)
- Police (gray solid)

Chart 2: Average Number of Staff (National and International Staff)

Y-axis: Average Number of Staff (0 to 1,000)

X-axis categories: Apr. 1 '02–Dec. 31 '02, Jan. 1 '03–Dec. 31 '03, Jan. 1 '04–Dec. 31 '04, Jan. 1 '05–Sept. 30 '05

Legend:
- Auth. Nat'l Staff (blue dotted)
- Auth. Int'l Staff (olive dotted)
- Nat'l Staff (blue solid)
- Int'l Staff (olive solid)

Sources: UN Documents A/C.5/56/25/Add.4, A/59/534/Add.1, A/C.5/57/23, A/C.5/58/20; DPI (DPKO website); UNV Programme; DPKO PMSS.

UNAMA Personnel: July 2004–September 2005

Legend (top chart):
- Auth. Military Advisers
- Auth. Police
- Auth. UNVs
- Military Advisers
- Police
- UNVs

Legend (bottom chart):
- Auth. Nat'l Staff
- Auth. Int'l Staff
- Nat'l Staff
- Int'l Staff
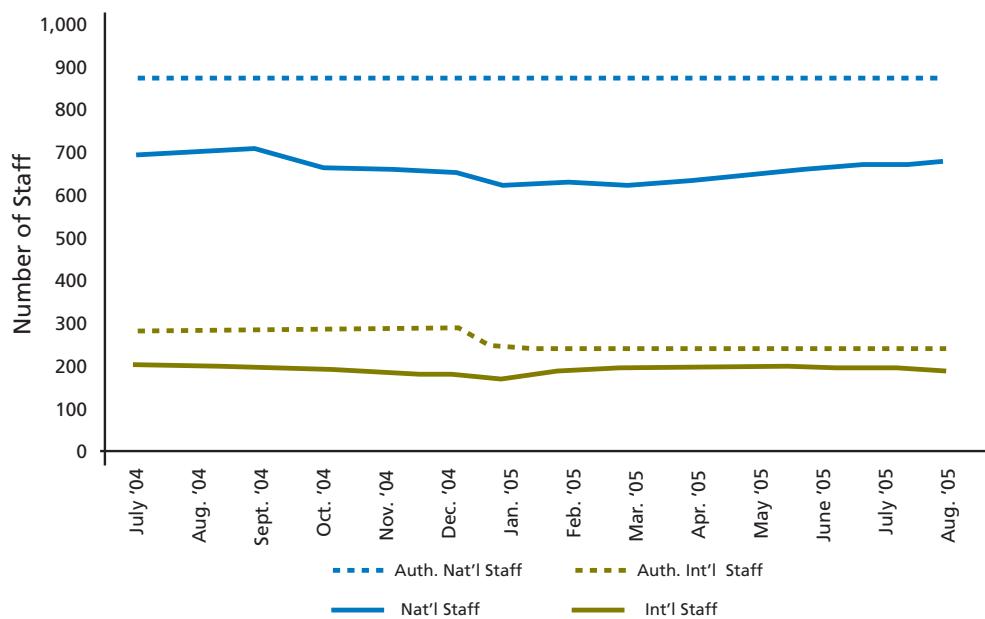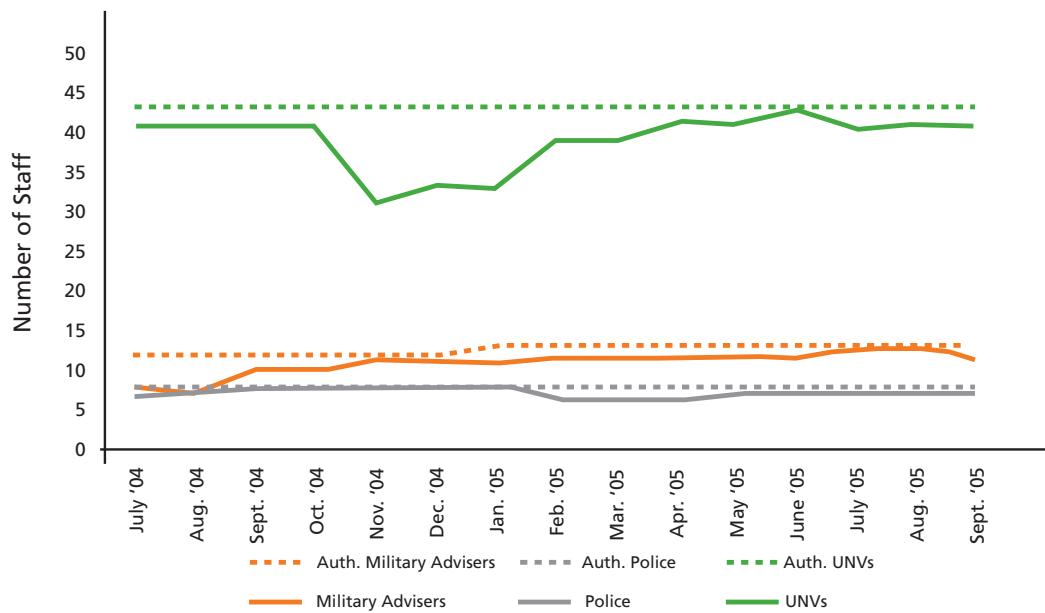
Sources: UN Documents A/C.5/58/20, A/59/534/Add.1; DPI (DPKO website); DPKO PMSS; UNV Programme.

UNAMA Military and Police Contributors: August 2005

Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total
Austria	—	2	—	2
Romania	—	2	—	2
Sweden	—	1	1	2
Australia	—	1	—	1
Bangladesh	—	1	—	1
Canada	—	—	1	1
China	—	—	1	1
Denmark	—	1	—	1
Germany	—	1	—	1
Jordan	—	—	1	1
Nepal	—	—	1	1
New Zealand	—	1	—	1
Nigeria	—	—	1	1
Philippines	—	—	1	1
Poland	—	1	—	1
Republic of Korea	—	1	—	1
Uruguay	—	1	—	1
TOTAL	**—**	**13**	**7**	**20**

Source: DPI (DPKO website).

UNAMA Civilian Staff: June 2005

Type	Percentage Staff
Political and Civil Affairs	12%
Humanitarian Affairs and Development	3%
Administration and Mission Support	84%

Source: DPKO PMSS.

UNAMA Aircraft

	Commerical	Gov't
Fixed Wing Aircraft	3	—
Helicopters	2	—
Total	**5**	**—**

Source: DPKO Air Transport Section.

UNAMA Ground Transportation

Contingent Owned Vehicles

Vehicle Type	Quantity
4x4 On-Off Road	151
Ambulances	25
Automobiles	6
Buses	71
Material Handling Equipment	8
Trucks	17
Total	**278**

Sources: DPKO Surface Transport Section; DPKO Contingent Owned Equipment and Property Management Section.

UNAMA Fatalities: Inception–September 2005

Appointment Type

Time Period	Total	Troop	MilOb	Police	Intl Staff	Natl Staff	Other[a]
2002	1	—	—	—	—	1	—
2003	1	—	—	—	—	1	—
2004	2						
January-March		—	—	—	—	1	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	1	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—	—
2005	0						
January-March		—	—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**4**	—	—	—	—	**4**	—

Incident Type

Time Period	Total	Hostile Act	Illness	Accident	Self-Inflicted	Other[b]
2002	1	—	—	1	—	—
2003	1	—	1	—	—	—
2004	2	—	—	—	—	—
January-March		—	1	—	—	—
April-June		—	1	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—
2005	0					
January-March		—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**4**	—	**3**	**1**	—	—

Source: DPKO Situation Centre.
Notes: Discrepancies may exist between these data and those available at the DPI DPKO website, as the DPI DPKO website is still under review and may contain omissions or errors.
a. "Other" refers to consultants, UNVs, etc.
b. Incident type is unknown, uncertain, or under investigation.

UNAMA Mission Expenditures: 2002–2004 (in thousands of US dollars)		
Category	2002–2003	2004
Military observers	298.8	417.2
Civilian police	206.0	261.9
Posts	39,022.2	33,245.8
United Nations Volunteers	1,474.7	1,654.2
Consultants	893.0	206.2
Official Travel	1,561.6	641.7
Facilities and infrastructure	9,606.4	5,539.6
Ground Transportation	4,143.0	3,618.8
Air Transportation	9,340.4	6,059.5
Communications	4,549.3	2,453.9
Information Technology	3,546.6	1,086.3
Medical	160.4	466.0
Other supplies, services and equipment	5,047.6	1,313.0
Public Information Program	210.4	131.7
Training	—	503.3
Total	**80,060.5**	**57,599.1**

Source: IMIS report ACLDGB52; UN Document A/59/534/Add.1.

UNAMA Estimated Resource Requirements: 1 January 2005–31 December 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)[a]	
Category	Estimated Expenses
Military advisers/liaison officers	527.8
Civilian police advisers	324.8
Staff	38,082.6
UNVs	1,698.5
Official travel	711.8
Operational costs	21,556.5
Information and training programs	681.3
Total net requirements	**63,583.3**

Source: UN Document A/59/534/Add.1.
Note: a. Estimates are as of November 2004.

7.8 UNMEE (UN Mission in Ethiopia and Eritrea)

UNMEE Key Facts

Latest mandates	13 September 2005 (date of issue and effect) UNSC Res. 622 (six-month duration) 14 March 2005 (date of issue and effect) UNSC Res. 1586 (six-month duration) 14 September 2004 (date of issue), 15 September 2004 (date of effect) UNSC Res. 1560 (six-month duration)
First mandate	31 July 2000 (date of issue and effect) UNSC Res. 1312 (six-week duration)
SRSG	Legwaila Joseph Legwaila (first SRSG, Botswana) SG letter of appointment: 29 September 2000; effective 1 November 2000
Force commander	Major-General Rajender Singh (India) Entry on duty: 19 July 2004
First force commander	Major-General Patrick Cammaert (Netherlands)

UNMEE Personnel: First Year of Operation

Date	Troops		Military Observers		International Staff		National Staff		UNVs	
	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized
July 00	0	0	2	100	1	106	0	82	0	0
Aug. 00	0	0	10	100	14	106	0	82	0	0
Sept. 00	0	3980	58	220	49	282	4	322	0	15
Oct. 00	0	3980	100	220	42	282	9	322	0	15
Nov. 00	289	3980	137	220	105	282	51	322	0	15
Dec. 00	1633	3980	144	220	119	282	64	322	0	15
Jan. 01	2654	3980	189	220	141	282	90	322	0	15
Feb. 01	3357	3980	214	220	157	282	109	322	0	15
Mar. 01	3659	3980	219	220	178	282	118	322	0	15
Apr. 01	3652	3980	218	220	199	282	162	322	0	15
May 01	3992	3980	217	220	219	282	217	322	6	15
June 01	3643	3980	216	220	219	282	237	322	6	15

Sources: UN Documents S/RES/1320, A/56/840, A/57/672; DPI (DPKO website); DPKO PMSS; DPKO FGS.

UNMEE Mission Deployment Time

June
30: SG report recommends deployment of ML officers

July
14–18: Multidisciplinary reconnaissance mission
31: Council authorizes deployment of military observers

Aug.
9: SG report recommends troop deployment

Sept.
15: Council authorizes deployment of troops and expansion of mandate
18: SG mission report
29: SRSG appointed

Oct.
25: FC appointed

Nov.
1: SRSG EOD, SRSG arrives early Nov.; FC assumes duties; FC EOD

Dec.
23: GA approves budget

Jan.
1: Directives to FC issued
12: SG mission report

Mar.
15: Mandate renewed

Legend:
- Auth. Troops
- Auth. Military Obs.
- Auth. UNVs
- Auth. Nat'l Staff
- Auth. Int'l Staff
- Troops
- Military Obs.
- UNVs
- Nat'l Staff
- Int'l Staff

Sources: UN Documents S/RES/1312, S/RES/1320, S/2000/643, S/2000/785, S/2000/947, S/2001/45, S/2000/1037, A/RES/55/237, A/RES/55/252A, S/2000/879, A/56/840, A/57/672; DPI (DPKO website); DPKO PMSS; DPKO FGS; DPKO Military Division.
Note: Actual UNV strength for July 2001–September 2001 unavailable.

UNMEE Personnel: Since 2000

Chart 1 (Troops)

Y-axis: Average Number of Staff (0 to 4,500)

X-axis categories:
- July 31 '00–June 30 '01
- July 1 '01–June 30 '02
- July 1 '02–June 30 '03
- July 1 '03–June 30 '04
- July 1 '04–June 30 '05

Legend: Auth. Troops (dashed), Troops (solid)

Chart 2 (Staff)

Y-axis: Average Number of Staff (0 to 300+)

X-axis categories:
- July 31 '00–June 30 '01
- July 1 '01–June 30 '02
- July 1 '02–June 30 '03
- July 1 '03–June 30 '04
- July 1 '04–June 30 '05

Legend: Auth. Military Obs., Auth. UNVs, Auth. Nat'l Staff, Auth. Int'l Staff, Military Obs., UNVs, Nat'l Staff, Int'l Staff

Sources: UN Documents A/56/840, A/57/672, A/58/633, A/59/616; PKD; DPI (DPKO website).

UNMEE Personnel: July 2004–September 2005
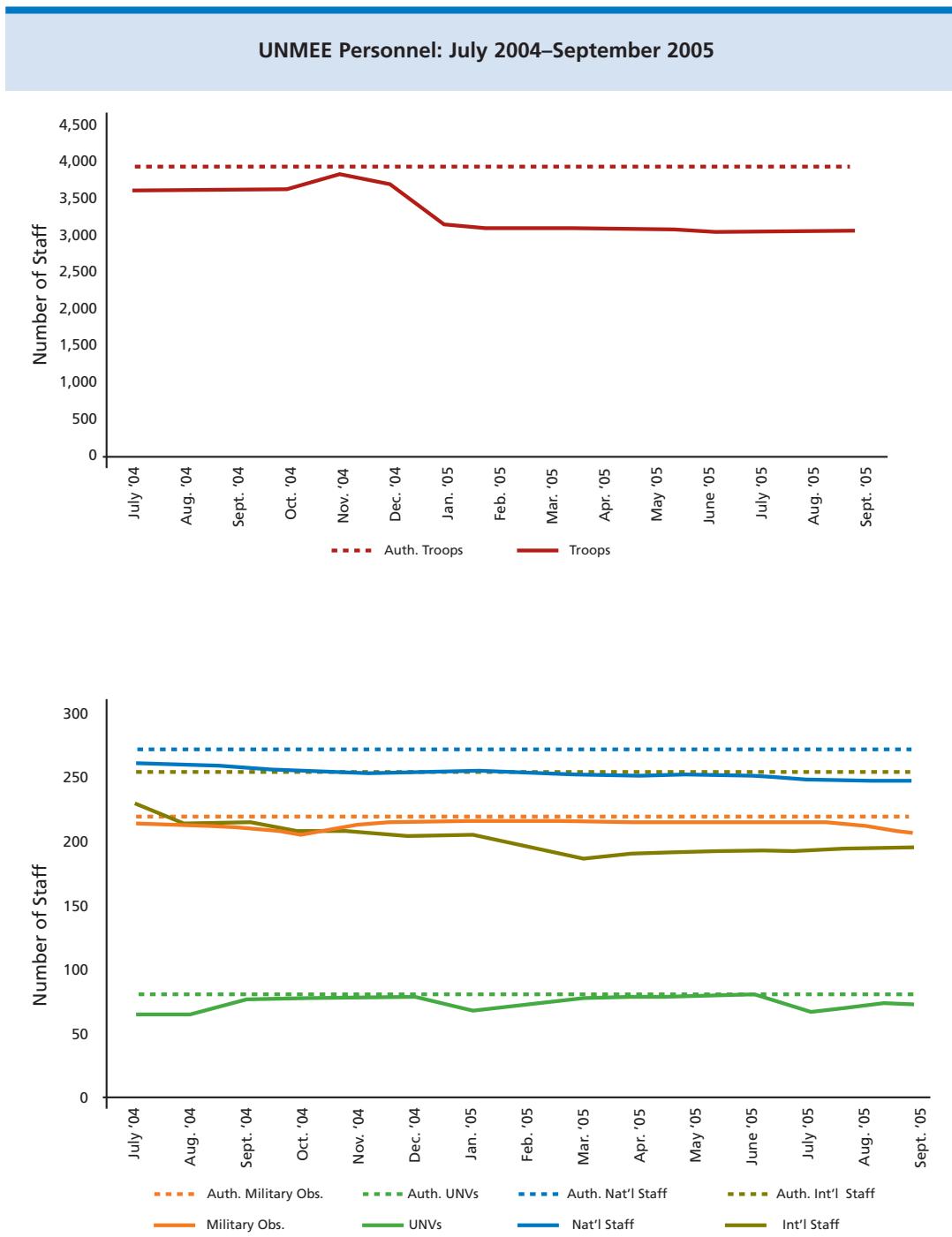
Sources: DPI (DPKO website); PKD; DPKO PMSS; UNV Programme.

UNMEE Military and Police Contributors: 30 August 2005

Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total	Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total
India	1,556	8	—	1,564	Poland	—	6	—	6
Jordan	963	7	—	970	Russia	—	6	—	6
Kenya	325	10	—	335	Nepal	—	5	—	5
Bangladesh	174	7	—	181	Norway	—	5	—	5
Uruguay	36	5	—	41	South Africa	—	5	—	5
Ghana	4	10	—	14	Sweden	—	5	—	5
Zambia	3	10	—	13	Tunisia	3	2	—	5
Tanzania	3	8	—	11	Spain	1	3	—	4
Malaysia	3	7	—	10	Austria	1	2	—	3
Bosnia & Herzegovina	—	9	—	9	Denmark	—	3	—	3
Nigeria	3	6	—	9	Greece	—	3	—	3
Algeria	—	8	—	9	Iran	—	3	—	3
Bulgaria	2	5	—	8	Paraguay	—	3	—	3
China	—	7	—	7	Switzerland	—	3	—	3
Croatia	—	7	—	7	Czech Republic	—	2	—	2
Finland	—	7	—	7	Germany	—	2	—	2
Romania	—	7	—	7	Peru	—	2	—	2
Ukraine	—	7	—	7	France	1	—	—	1
United States	—	7	—	7	Italy	1	—	—	1
Gambia	2	4	—	6	**TOTAL**	**3,083**	**210**	**—**	**3,293**
Namibia	2	4	—	6					

Source: DPI (DPKO website).
Note: Police figures include formed police units provided by Jordan (120), Nepal (250), and Nigeria (125).

UNMEE Military Units: 30 August 2005

Number	Unit Type	Countries
1	Construction Engineering Company	India, Jordan
2	Engineering Demining Company	Bangladesh, Kenya
1	Force Reserve Company	India, Jordan
1	Headquarters Support Company	Kenya
1	Helicopter Unit	Uruguay
2	Infantry Battalions	India, Jordan
1	Levell II Medical Unit	Jordan
1	Military Police Unit	Italy

Source: DPKO FGS.
Note: Military headquarter staff and military observers not included.

UNMEE Civilian Staff: 30 August 2005

Type	Percentage Staff
Political and Civil Affairs	9%
Humanitarian Affairs and Development	0%
Administration and Mission Support	91%

Source: DPKO PMSS.

UNMEE Fatalities: Inception–31 October 2005

Time Period	Total	Appointment Type					
		Troop	MilOb	Police	Intl Staff	Natl Staff	Other[a]
2001	2	2	—	—	—	—	—
2002	2	1	—	—	—	1	—
2003	4	2	—	—	1	1	—
2004	2						
January-March		2	—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—	—
2005	2						
January-March		—	—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	1	—	—
July-September		1	—	—	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**12**	**8**	**—**	**—**	**2**	**2**	**—**

Time Period	Total	Incident Type				
		Hostile Act	Illness	Accident	Self-Inflicted	Other[b]
2001	2	—	1	1	—	—
2002	2	—	1	1	—	—
2003	4	—	4	—	—	—
2004	2					
January-March		—	2	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—
2005	2					
January-March		—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	1	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	1	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**12**	**—**	**9**	**3**	**—**	**—**

Source: DPKO Situation Centre.

Notes: Discrepancies may exist between these data and those available at the DPI DPKO website, as the DPI DPKO website is still under review and may contain omissions or errors.

a. "Other" refers to consultants, UNVs, etc.

b. Incident type is unknown, uncertain, or under investigation.

UNMEE Vehicles: 30 August 2005

Contingent Owned Vehicles		UN Owned Vehicles	
Vehicle Type	Quantity	Vehicle Type	Quantity
Aircraft/Airfield Support Equipment	3	4x4 Vehicles	352
Combat Vehicles	56	Ambulances	2
Communication Vehicles	1	Automobiles	6
Engineering Vehicles	42	Buses	54
Material Handling Equipment	2	Material Handling Equipment	13
Support Vehicles (Commercial Pattern)	110	Trucks	76
Support Vehicles (Military Pattern)	295		
Trailers	38		
Total	**547**		**503**

Sources: DPKO Surface Transport Section; DPKO Contingent Owned Equipment and Property Management Section.

UNMEE Aircraft: 30 August 2005

	Commerical	Gov't
Fixed Wing Aircraft	1	1 (France)
Helicopters	6	3 (1 France, 2 Uruguay)
Total	**7**	**4**

Source: DPKO Air Transport Section.

UNMEE Mission Expenditures: **July 2000–June 2004 (in thousands of US dollars)**				
Category	Jul 00– Jun 01	Jul 01– Jun 02	Jul 02– Jun 03	Jul 03– Jun 04
Military and police personnel	58,852.8	83,695.9	102,877.7	94,115.2
Civilian personnel	14,331.1	27,756.2	31,042.2	34,311.3
Operational requirements	80,993.8	73,555.6	75,699.2	55,173.7
Other	9,928.3	—	—	—
Gross requirements	**164,106.0**	**185,007.7**	**209,619.1**	**183,600.2**
Staff assessment income	1,902.0	3,507.9	4,010.3	4,577.3
Net requirements	**162,204.0**	**181,499.8**	**205,608.8**	**179,022.9**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	—	—	—	—
Total requirements	**164,106.0**	**185,007.7**	**209,619.1**	**183,600.2**

Sources: UN Documents A/56/840, A/57/672, A/58/633, A/59/616.

UNMEE Financial Performance: **July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)**				
Category	Approved[a]	Actual	Variance	Variance %
Military observers	7,222.6	7,428.3	(205.7)	(2.8)
Military contingents	90,327.8	78,122.0	12,205.8	13.5
Civilian police	—	—	—	—
Formed police units	—	—	—	—
International staff	27,620.3	27,003.5	616.8	2.2
National staff	1,321.0	1,190.8	130.2	9.9
United Nations Volunteers	2,815.8	2,917.8	(102.0)	(3.6)
General temporary assistance	—	—	—	—
Government-provided personnel	—	—	—	—
Civilian electoral observers	—	—	—	—
Consultants	—	—	—	—
Official travel	850.0	637.3	212.7	25.0
Facilities and infrastructure	21,335.3	18,213.1	3,122.2	14.6
Ground transportation	6,088.2	5,215.5	872.7	14.3
Air transportation	21,402.9	18,715.7	2,687.2	12.6
Naval transportation	—	—	—	—
Communications and IT	9,532.8	7,998.0	1,534.8	27.9
Supplies, services and equipment	9,814.9	12,887.9	(3,073.0)	(45.6)
Quick-impact projects	—	—	—	—
Gross requirements	**198,331.6**	**180,329.9**	**18,001.7**	**9.1**
Staff assessment income	4,557.4	4,000.9	556.5	12.2
Net requirements	**193,774.2**	**176,329.0**	**17,445.2**	**9.0**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	—	—	—	—
Total requirements	**198,331.6**	**180,329.9**	**18,001.7**	**9.1**

Source: DPKO FMSS.
Note: a. An additional $7 million was approved for the July 2004–June 2005 financial year for the strengthening of the safety and security of staff and premises of the mission. There were no expenditures incurred against this amount.

UNMEE Expenditure Summary: July 2004–June 2005

Civilian Personnel
17%

Military and
Police Personnel
48%

Operational Costs
35%
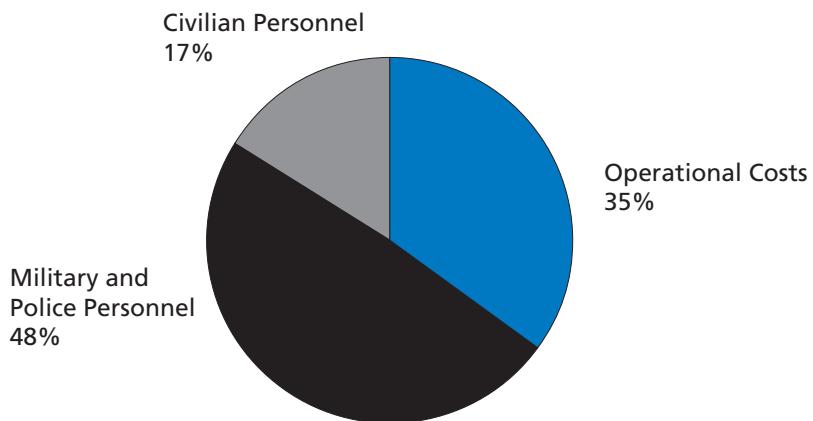
Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNMEE Expenditures on Contingent Owned Equipment: July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)

Major equipment	16,068.2
Self-sustainment	13,991.5

Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNMEE Voluntary Contributors

Contributor	Contributions in kind (budgeted)	Contributions in kind (non-budgeted)	Contributions in cash (budgeted)	Total
None	—	—	—	—

Source: Accounts Division, OPPBA.

MONUC Key Facts	
Latest mandates	28 October 2005 (date of issue and effect)
	UNSC Res. 1635 (eleven-month duration)
	30 September 2005 (date of issue and effect)
	UNSC Res. 1628 (one-month duration)
	6 September 2005 (date of issue and effect)
	UNSC Res. 1621 (troop increase only)
	30 March 2005 (date of issue and effect)
	UNSC Res. 1592 (six-month duration)
	1 October 2004 (date of issue and effect)
	UNSC Res. 1565 (six-month duration)
First mandate	30 November 1999 (date of issue and effect)
	UNSC Res. 1279 (three-month duration)
SRSG	William Lacy Swing (United States)
	SG letter of appointment: 16 May 2003;
	effective 1 July 2003
First SRSG	Kamel Morjane (Tunisia)
Force commander	Lieutenant-General Babacar Gaye (Senegal)
	Entry on duty: 23 March 2005
First force commander	Mountaga Diallo (Senegal)
Police commissioner	Commissioner Daniel Cure (France)
	Entry on duty: 3 January 2005

MONUC Personnel: First Year of Operation								
	Troops		Military Observers		International Staff		National Staff	
Date	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized
Dec. 99	0	0	78	90	25	32	6	40
Jan. 00	0	0	79	90	33	84	8	50
Feb. 00	0	5,037	83	500	46	84	9	50
Mar. 00	0	5,037	107	500	72	84	12	50
Apr. 00	0	5,037	126	500	92	198	20	145
May 00	0	5,037	225	500	111	198	24	145
June 00	0	5,037	258	500	128	199	33	145
July 00	102	5,037	164	500	153	338	154	325
Aug. 00	99	5,037	163	500	165	338	164	325
Sept. 00	91	5,037	159	500	175	338	180	325
Oct. 00	89	5,037	158	500	184	338	264	325
Nov. 00	86	5,037	138	500	191	338	196	325

Sources: UN Documents S/RES/1509, A/59/624, A/59/736; DPI (DPKO website); PKD; UNV Programme.

MONUC Mission Deployment Time

July
15: SG report recommends deployment of military liaison(ML) personnel

Aug.
6: Resolution authorizes deployment of ML personnel

Sept.
Advance military HQ established

Oct.
17: Arrival of technical survey team

Nov.
1: SG report recommends troop deployment
13: SRSG appointed
30: Council resolution authorizes troop deployment

Dec.
29: Directives issed to chief ML officer

Jan.
1: SRSG EOD
17: SG report recommends expansion of mission

Feb.
24: Mandate renewed
28: FC appointed

Apr.
4: FC assumes duties
7: GA approves budget
18: SG mission report
21: FC EOD

May
26: Directives to FC

June
15: GA reduces approved budget

Aug.
23: Mandate renewed

Legend:
- Auth. Troops
- Auth. Military Liaison/Obs.
- Auth. Police
- Auth. UNVs
- Auth. Nat'l Staff
- Auth. Int'l Staff
- Troops
- Military Liaison/Obs.
- Police
- UNVs
- Nat'l Staff
- Int'l Staff

Sources: UN Documents S/RES/1291, A/56/825, S/RES/1258, A/55/935, S/RES/1279, S/RES/1361, S/RES/1258, S/RES/1273, S/1999/1116, S/1999/790, S/1999/1171, S/2000/172, S/2000/330, S/1999/1116, A/RES/54/260A, A/RES/54/260B, S/2000/30; DPKO FGS; DPI (DPKO website); DPKO PMSS; DPKO Military Division.

Note: The graph above reflects MONUC's first year of operations. Since then, the operation has undergone several substantial transformations, especially following Security Council Resolution 1493 of 23 July 2003.

MONUC Personnel: Since 1999
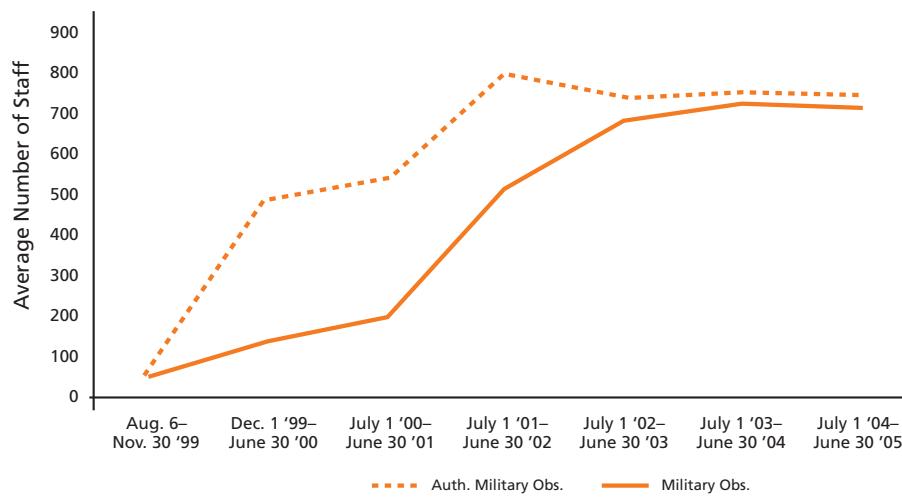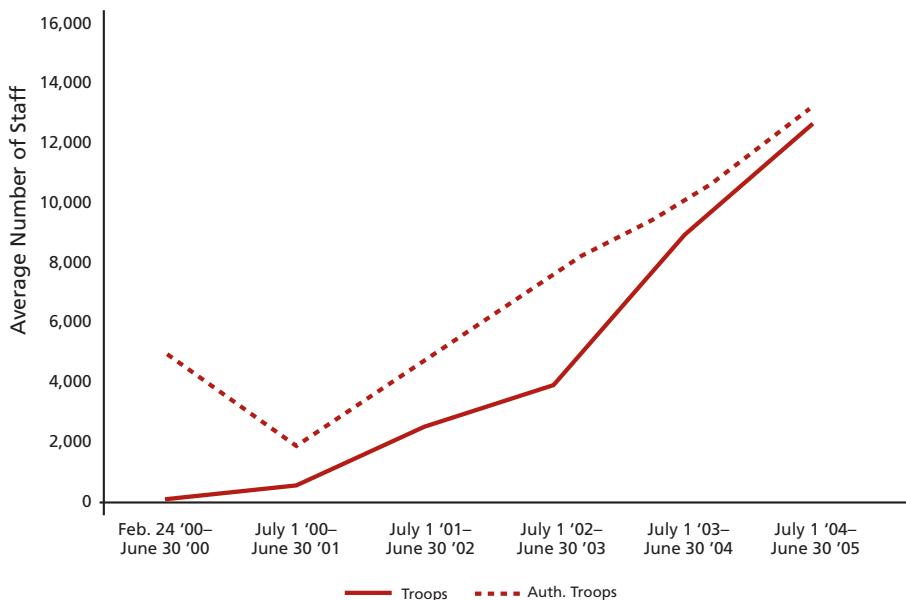
Sources: UN Documents A/55/935, A/56/825, A/57/682, A/58/684, A/59/657; DPKO FGS; DPI (DPKO web-site); DPKO PMSS.

MONUC Personnel: Since 1999
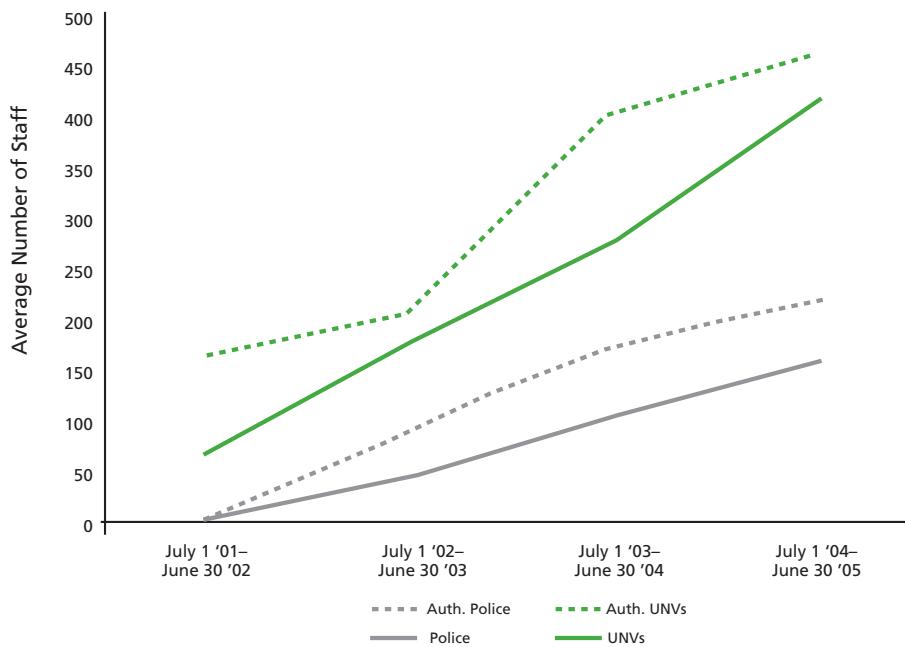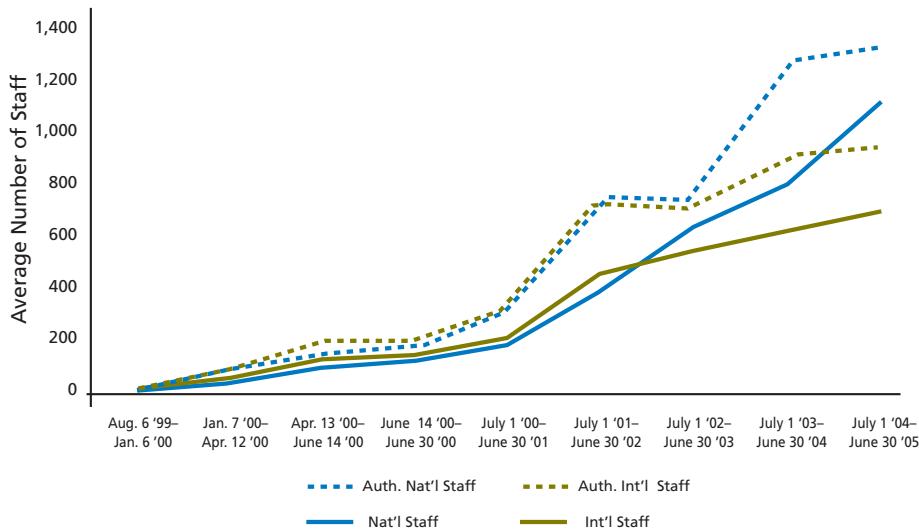
Sources: UN Documents A/58/701, A/59/707; DPI (DPKO website); PFD; DPKO PMSS.

Note: Discrepancies in the authorized troop and police strengths may be seen between the figures shown here and those seen in other UN sources. This may be a result of a certain lack of clarity in Security Council Resolution 1565 (2004), given that formed police units (gendarmes) were not specifically authorized but drawn by MONUC from within authorized military contingents. The authorized staffing figures above are provided by the Peacekeeping Finance Division in the UN Office of Programme Planning, Budget, and Accounts, and are used for mission planning and budgeting purposes.

MONUC Personnel: July 2004–September 2005
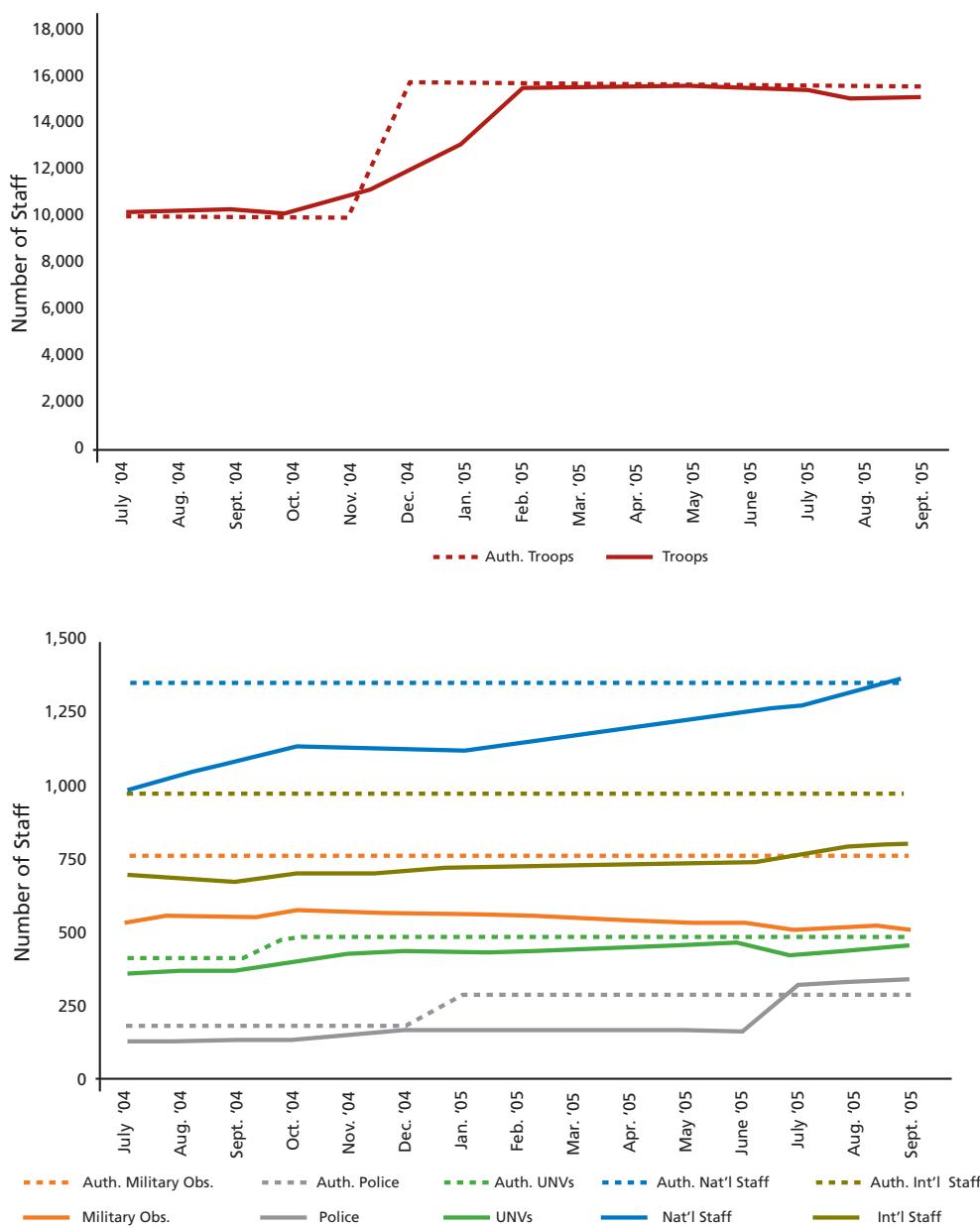
Sources: DPI (DPKO website); PKD; DPKO PMSS; UNV Programme.

MONUC Military and Police Contributors: 30 August 2005									

Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total	Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total
Pakistan	3,769	26	—	3,795	Paraguay	—	17	—	17
India	3,510	36	—	3,546	Cameroon	1	3	9	13
Uruguay	1,544	27	—	1,571	Ukraine	1	12	—	13
South Africa	1,394	3	—	1,397	Sweden	—	5	7	12
Bangladesh	1,302	15	—	1,317	Algeria	—	8	—	8
Nepal	1,119	19	—	1,138	Belgium	8	—	—	8
Morocco	804	1	—	805	Canada	8	—	—	8
Senegal	473	8	19	500	Central African Republic	—	—	8	8
Ghana	462	21	—	483	Côte d'Ivoire	—	—	7	7
Bolivia	221	4	—	225	United Kingdom	7	—	—	7
Tunisia	168	23	—	191	Serbia & Montenegro	6	—	—	6
Indonesia	179	9	—	188	Bosnia & Herzegovina	—	5	—	5
Nigeria	1	29	128	158	Peru	—	5	—	5
Guatemala	106	4	—	110	Portugal	—	—	5	5
China	45	10	—	55	Chad	—	—	4	4
Niger	2	18	32	52	Czech Republic	—	3	—	3
Kenya	12	29	—	41	Ireland	—	3	—	3
Mali	—	26	14	40	Madagascar	—	—	3	3
Guinea	—	—	36	36	Poland	—	3	—	3
Benin	—	18	12	30	Argentina	—	—	2	2
Jordan	6	19	5	30	Denmark	1	1	—	2
Burkina Faso	—	12	15	27	Mongolia	—	2	—	2
Russia	—	23	4	27	Spain	—	2	—	2
Malawi	—	26	—	26	Sri Lanka	—	2	—	2
Egypt	15	8	—	23	Switzerland	2	—	—	2
Romania	—	22	1	23	Turkey	—	—	2	2
Zambia	4	18	—	22	Mozambique	—	1	—	1
France	8	1	11	20	Netherlands	1	—	—	1
Malaysia	12	5	—	17	**TOTAL**	**15,191**	**532**	**324**	**16,047**

Source: DPI (DPKO website).

	MONUC Military Units: 30 August 2005	
Number	Unit Type	Countries
4	Engineering Companies	China, Indonesia, Nepal, South Africa
4	Helicopter Units	Bangladesh, India (3)
2	Level II Medical Units	China, Morocco
1 Partial	Level III Medical Unit	India (partial)
15	Infantry Battalions	Bangladesh, Ghana, India (3), Morocco, Nepal, Pakistan (4), Senegal, South Africa, Tunisia, Uruguay
2	Infantry Guard Companies	Bolivia, Uruguay
2	Military Police Companies	Bangladesh, South Africa
1	Special Forces Company	Guatemala

Source: DPKO FGS.
Note: Military headquarter staff, military observers, and thirty-five level-I medical units not included.

MONUC Civilian Staff: 30 June 2005	
Type	Percentage Staff
Political and Civil Affairs	13%
Humanitarian Affairs and Development	3%
Administration and Mission Support	85%

Source: DPKO PMSS.

MONUC Fatalities: Inception–October 2005

Time Period	Total	Appointment Type					
		Troop	MilOb	Police	Intl Staff	Natl Staff	Other[a]
2001	6	4	1	—	1	—	—
2002	8	3	2	—	1	2	—
2003	14	8	3	—	2	1	—
2004	22						
January-March		4	1	—	—	—	—
April-June		14	1	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	2	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—	—
2005	20						
January-March		10	—	—	—	—	—
April-June		6	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		4	—	—	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**70**	**53**	**8**	**—**	**4**	**5**	**—**

Time Period	Total	Incident Type				
		Hostile Act	Illness	Accident	Self-Inflicted	Other[b]
2001	6	—	4	—	1	1
2002	8	—	4	3	—	1
2003	14	3	7	4	—	—
2004	22					
January-March		2	1	1	—	1
April-June		1	4	10	—	—
July-September		—	2	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—
2005	20					
January-March		9	1	—	—	—
April-June		3	1	2	—	—
July-September		—	1	2	—	1
October		—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**70**	**18**	**25**	**22**	**1**	**4**

Source: DPKO Situation Centre.
Notes: Discrepancies may exist between these data and those available at the DPI DPKO website, as the DPI DPKO website is still under review and may contain omissions or errors.
a. "Other" refers to consultants, UNVs, etc.
b. Incident type is unknown, uncertain, or under investigation.

MONUC Vehicles: 30 August 2005

Contingent Owned Vehicles		UN Owned Vehicles	
Vehicle Type	Quantity	Vehicle Type	Quantity
Aircraft/Airfield Support Equipment	63	4x4 Vehicles	1023
Airfield Support	7	Airfield Support	175
Combat Vehicles	303	Ambulances	22
Communication Vehicles	6	Automobiles	3
Engineering Vehicles	178	Buses	295
Material Handling Equipment	48	Engineering Vehicles	12
Support Vehicles (Commercial Pattern)	237	Material Handling Equipment	88
Support Vehicles (Military Pattern)	1296	Trucks	225
Trailers	437		
Naval Vessels	22		
Total	**2597**		**1843**

Sources: DPKO Surface Transport Section; DPKO Contingent Owned Equipment and Property Management Section.

MONUC Aircraft: 30 August 2005

	Commerical	Gov't
Fixed Wing Aircraft	22	—
Helicopters	15	28 (5 Bangladesh, 23 India)
Total	**37**	**28**

Source: DPKO Air Transport Section.

MONUC Mission Expenditures: August 1999–June 2004 (in thousands of US dollars)					
Category	Aug 99–Jun 00	Jul 00–Jun 01	Jul 01–Jun 02	Jul 02–Jun 03	Jul 03–Jun 04
Military and police personnel	6,003.8	29,656.1	97,177.0	156,973.6	262,734.7
Civilian personnel	6,627.9	31,093.7	68,491.0	93,521.5	112,562.7
Operational requirements	42,633.4	185,247.6	223,159.0	229,456.9	261,188.0
Other	6.3	474.6	—	—	—
Gross requirements	**55,271.4**	**246,472.0**	**388,827.0**	**479,952.0**	**636,485.4**
Staff assessment income	435.7	3,013.7	6,777.6	10,037.6	12,114.2
Net requirements	**54,835.7**	**243,458.3**	**382,049.4**	**469,914.4**	**624,371.2**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	—	—	—	1,780.2	2,345.8
Total requirements	**55,271.4**	**246,472.0**	**388,827.0**	**481,732.2**	**638,831.2**

Sources: UN Documents A/55/935, A/56/825/, A/57/682, A/58/684, A/59/657.

MONUC Financial Performance: July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)			
Category	Approved	Actual	Variance	Variance %
Military observers	41,540.8	41,713.7	(172.9)	(0.4)
Military contingents	332,976.8	329,197.6	3,779.2	1.1
Civilian police	9,302.6	8,852.1	450.5	4.8
Formed police units	—	—	—	—
International staff	115,538.8	106,052.6	9,486.2	8.2
National staff	15,657.2	15,281.8	375.4	2.4
United Nations Volunteer	18,040.2	19,528.2	(1,488.0)	(8.2)
General temporary assistance	—	9.0	(9.0)	—
Government-provided personnel	—	—	—	—
Civilian electoral observers	—	—	—	—
Consultants	51.9	51.6	0.3	0.6
Official travel	4,910.1	6,014.6	(1,104.5)	(22.5)
Facilities and infrastructure	91,804.7	89,812.2	1,992.5	2.2
Ground transportation	33,140.0	29,966.4	3,173.6	9.6
Air transportation	194,901.7	163,037.4	31,864.3	16.3
Naval transportation	3,772.6	3,029.7	742.9	19.7
Communications and IT	61,258.2	57,707.1	3,551.1	11.6
Supplies, services and equipment	30,870.5	29,631.3	1,239.2	3.1
Quick-impact projects	1,000.0	999.3	0.7	0.1
Gross requirements	**954,766.1**	**900,884.6**	**53,881.5**	**48.5**
Staff assessment income	17,523.3	14,878.7	2,644.6	15.1
Net requirements	**937,242.8**	**886,005.9**	**51,236.9**	**33.4**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	3,067.1	3,105.0	(37.9)	(1.2)
Total requirements	**957,833.2**	**903,989.6**	**53,843.6**	**5.6**

Source: DPKO FMSS.

MONUC Expenditure Summary: July 2004–June 2005

Civilian Personnel
16%

Operational Costs
42%

Military and Police
Personnel
42%
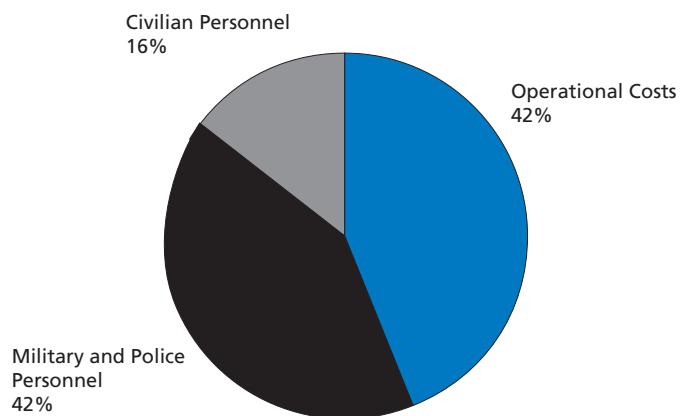
Source: DPKO FMSS.

MONUC Expenditures on Contingent Owned Equipment: July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)

Major equipment	48,413.0
Self-sustainment	51,804.7

Source: DPKO FMSS.

MONUC Voluntary Contributors (contributions in thousands of US dollars)

Contributor	Contributions in kind (budgeted)	Contributions in kind (non-budgeted)	Contributions in cash (budgeted)	Total
Fondation Hirondelle	3,105	—	—	3,105
Total	**3,105**	**—**	**—**	**3,105**

Source: Accounts Division, OPPBA.

7.10 UNAMSIL (UN Mission in Sierra Leone)*

UNAMSIL Key Facts	

Latest mandates	30 June 2005 (date of issue and effect)
	  UNSC Res. 1610 (six-month duration)
	17 September 2004 (date of issue and effect)
	  UNSC Res. 1562 (nine-month and two-week duration)

First mandate	22 October 1999 (date of issue and effect) UNSC Res. 1270 (six-month duration)
SRSG	Daudi Ngelautwa Mwakawago (Tanzania) SG letter of appointment: 28 November 2003; effective 21 December 2003
First SRSG	Oluyemi Adeniji (Nigeria)
Force commander	Major-General Sajjad Akram (Pakistan) Entry on duty: 1 October 2003; departed September 2005
First force commander	Major-General Vijay Kumar Jetley (India)
Police commissioner	Commissioner Hudson Benzu (Zambia) Entry on duty: 13 March 2003; departed September 2005

UNAMSIL Personnel: First Year of Operation

	Troops		Military Observers		Police	
Date	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized
Oct. 99	15	5,800	192	260	0	6
Nov. 99	15	5,800	200	260	0	6
Dec. 99	4,297	5,800	208	260	4	6
Jan. 00	4,601	5,800	243	260	4	6
Feb. 00	4,652	10,840	252	260	6	60
Mar. 00	7,216	10,840	260	260	9	60
Apr. 00	8,158	10,840	260	260	19	60
May 00	11,436	12,740	260	260	24	60
June 00	12,476	12,740	260	260	37	60
July 00	12,187	12,740	260	260	34	60
Aug. 00	12,183	12,740	260	260	34	60
Sept. 00	12,262	12,740	260	260	34	60

continues

*UNAMSIL terminated on 31 December 2005. It was succeeded by the United Nations Integrated Office in Sierra Leone (UNIOSIL), established for an initial period of twelve months beginning on 1 January 2006. The Executive Representative of UNIOSIL is Victor da Silva Angolo.

UNAMSIL Personnel: First Year of Operation continued

Date	International Staff		National Staff		UNVs	
	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized
Oct. 99	26	228	47	282	N/A	72
Nov. 99	47	228	48	282	N/A	72
Dec. 99	64	228	52	282	N/A	72
Jan. 00	84	228	54	282	N/A	72
Feb. 00	120	245	57	306	N/A	72
Mar. 00	139	245	69	306	N/A	N/A
Apr. 00	153	245	90	306	N/A	N/A
May 00	165	245	120	306	N/A	79
June 00	178	245	143	306	N/A	79
July 00	194	245	168	306	N/A	79
Aug. 00	201	245	181	306	N/A	79
Sept. 00	210	245	215	306	N/A	79

Sources: UN Documents S/RES/1270, S/RES/1289, S/RES/1299, A/55/853, A/55/833; DPKO FGS; DPKO PMSS.

Notes: DPKO FGS reports show 340 military observers for November 1999 and 1,039 military observers for February 2000; given the probability of incorrect data entry for these months, it has been decided to show an average of the preceding and following months for those two data points. Actual UNV strength not shown because monthly data are not available; for time period averages of UNV staff in the first year of the mission, see graph "Personnel: Since 1999."

UNAMSIL Mission Deployment Time

July
8: SG visits Freetown
30: SG report recommends expansion of UNOMSIL

Sept.
28: SG recommends establishment of mission

Oct.
22: Council resolution authorizes mission

Nov.
16: SRSG appointed
17: Directives issued to FC
22: FC appointed

Dec.
3: FC EOD
6: SG mission report
7: FC assumes functions
11: SRSG assumes functions
12: SRSG EOD
23: GA approves budget

Feb.
7: Mandate renewed and expanded

May
19: Mandate expanded

June
15: GA reduces budget

Aug.
4: Mandate renewed
18: Con Ops issued

Legend: Auth. Troops, Auth. Military Obs., Auth. UNVs, Auth. Nat'l Staff, Auth. Int'l Staff, Auth. Police, Troops, Military Obs., UNVs, Nat'l Staff, Int'l Staff, Police

Sources: UN Documents S/RES/1270, S/RES/1289, S/RES/1299, A/55/853, A/55/833, S/RES/1509, S/RES/1289, S/RES/1299, S/RES/1313, S/1999/1003, S/1999/836, S/1999/1186, S/1999/1223, S/2000/13, A/RES/54/241, A/RES/54/241B; DPKO FGS; DPKO PMSS; DPKO Military Division.

Notes: See notes to table at p. 243 above.

UNAMSIL Personnel: Since 1999

Chart 1 — Average Number of Staff (Troops)

Legend: - - - Auth. Troops   —— Troops

X-axis categories:
- Oct. 22 '99– Feb. 7 '00
- Feb. 7 '00– May 19 '00
- May 19 '00– June 30 '00
- July 1 '00– Mar. 31 '01
- Apr. 1 '01– June 30 '01
- July 1 '01– June 30 '02
- July 1 '02– June 30 '03
- July 1 '03– June 30 '04
- July 1 '04– June 30 '05

Chart 2 — Average Number of Staff (National/International Staff)

Legend:
- - - - Auth. Nat'l Staff   - - - - Auth. Int'l Staff
- —— Nat'l Staff   —— Int'l Staff

X-axis categories:
- July 1 '99– Aug. 19 '99
- Aug. 20 '99– Oct. 22 '99
- Oct. 22 '99– Feb. 1 '00
- Feb. 7 '00– June 30 '00
- July 1 '00– Mar. 31 '01
- Apr. 1 '00– June 30 '01
- July 1 '01– June 30 '02
- July 1 '02– June 30 '03
- July 1 '03– June 30 '04
- July 1 '04– June 1 '05

Chart 3 — Average Number of Staff (Military Observers)

Legend: - - - Auth. Military Obs.   —— Military Obs.

X-axis categories:
- July 1 '99– Aug. 19 '99
- Aug. 20 '99– Oct. 22 '99
- Oct. 23 '99– June 30 '00
- July 1 '00– June 30 '01
- July 1 '01– June 30 '02
- July 1 '02– June 30 '03
- July 1 '03– June 30 '04
- July 1 '04– June 30 '05

continues

UNAMSIL Personnel: Since 1999 continued
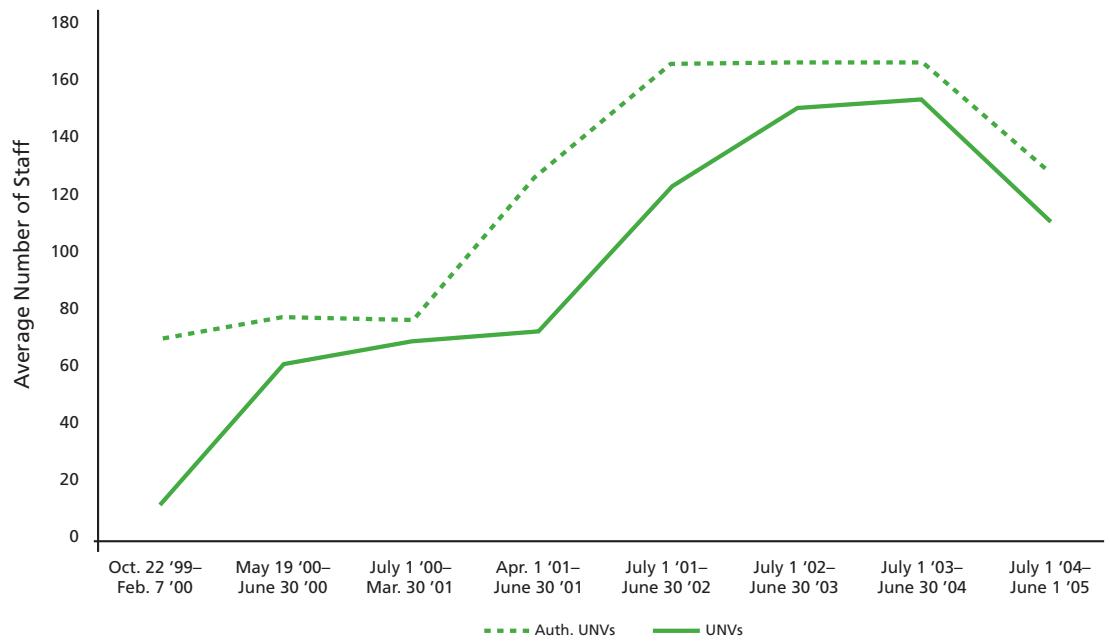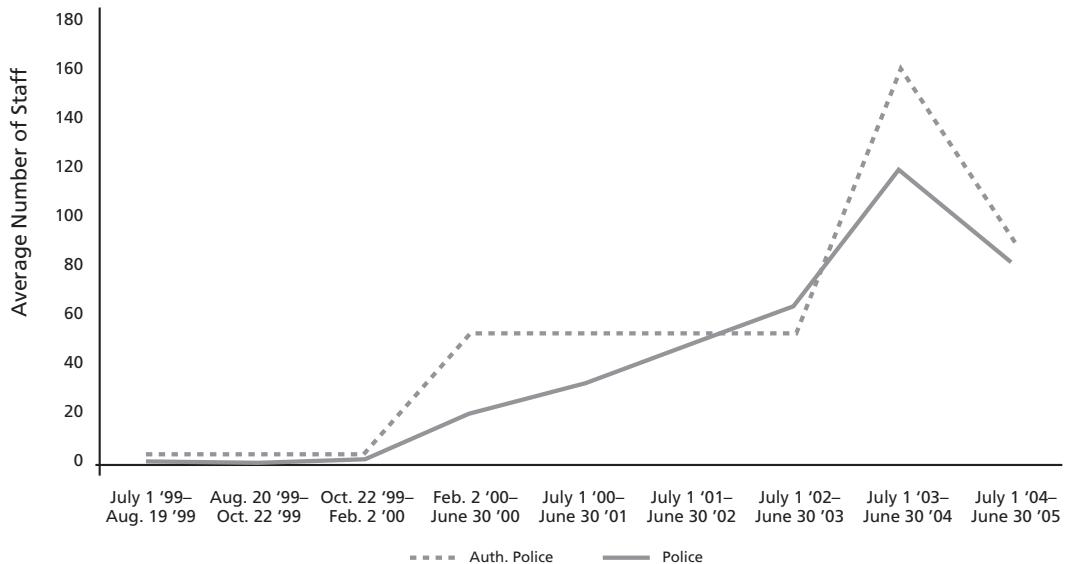
Sources: UN Documents A/55/853, A/56/833, A/57/680, A/58/660, A/59/635; DPKO FGS; PKD.

UNAMSIL Personnel: July 2004–September 2005

Auth. Troops ----   Troops ——

Auth. Military Obs. ----   Auth. Police ----   Auth. UNVs ----   Auth. Nat'l Staff ----   Auth. Int'l Staff ----
Military Obs. ——   Police ——   UNVs ——   Nat'l Staff ——   Int'l Staff ——
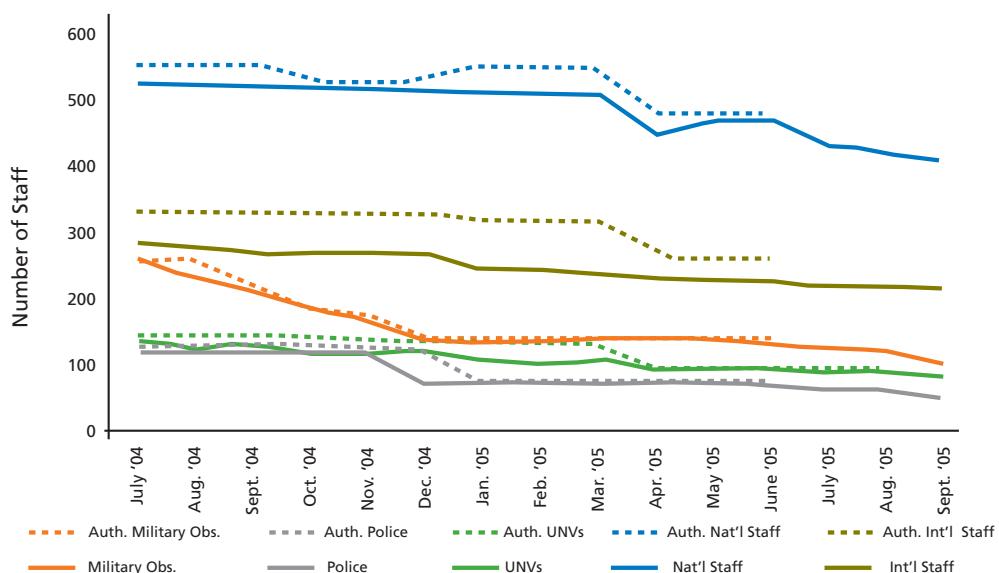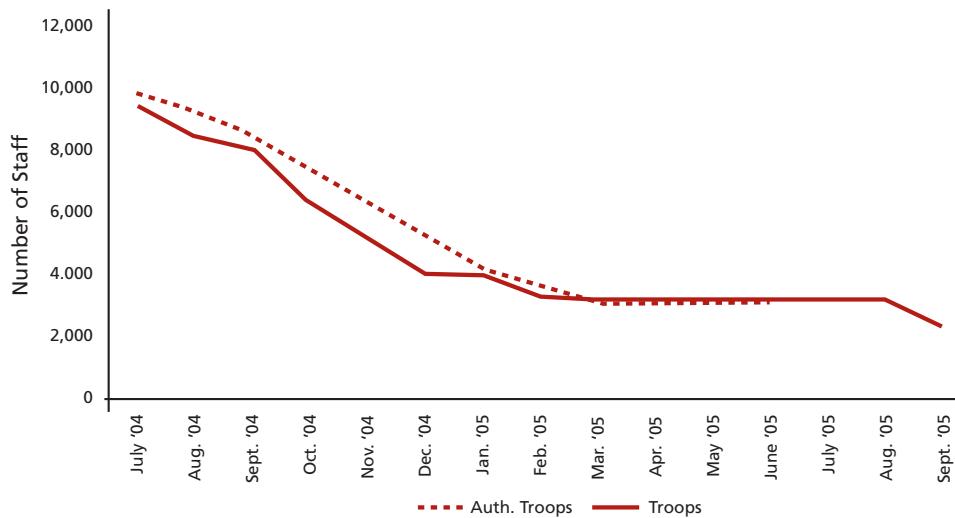
Sources: DPI (DPKO website); PFD; DPKO PMSS; UNV Programme.

Note: Authorized strengths shown above are planned drawdown strengths provided by the PKD. The budget (A/57/681) issued on 20 August 2004 for the 2004—2005 financial year was prepared in accordance with the plan for downsizing of the military component of the mission as outlined by the Secretary-General in his report to the Security Council (S/2004/228), which was endorsed by Security Council Resolution 1537 (2004). During the period, the mission commenced a faster pace of drawdown and withdrawal of the military force as described in the reports of the Secretary-General to the Security Council (S/2004/724, S/2004/965, and S/2005/135).

UNAMSIL Military and Police Contributors: 30 August 2005

Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total	Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total
Pakistan	1,264	8	2	1,274	Sweden	1	1	3	5
Ghana	762	4	5	771	Tanzania	—	5	—	5
Nigeria	752	6	4	762	Turkey	—	—	5	5
Bangladesh	240	8	1	249	Uruguay	—	5	—	5
Russia	109	6	2	117	Kyrgyzstan	—	4	—	4
Jordan	72	3	2	77	Malaysia	—	3	1	4
Kenya	7	6	6	19	Sri Lanka	—	—	4	4
United Kingdom	5	8	2	15	Bolivia	—	3	—	3
Nepal	2	5	5	12	Norway	—	—	3	3
Gambia	—	8	2	10	Thailand	—	3	—	3
Zambia	1	3	6	10	Ukraine	—	3	—	3
Germany	8	—	—	8	Czech Republic	—	2	—	2
Croatia	—	6	—	6	Malawi	—	—	2	2
Indonesia	—	6	—	6	Mauritius	—	—	2	2
Zimbabwe	—	—	6	6	Namibia	—	—	2	2
Egypt	—	5	—	5	China	—	1	—	1
Guinea	—	5	—	5	Slovakia	—	1	—	1
India	—	—	5	5	**TOTAL**	**3,223**	**118**	**70**	**3,411**

Source: DPI (DPKO website).

UNAMSIL Military Units: 30 August 2005

Number	Unit Type	Countries
1	Aviation Unit	Russia
1	Engineering Company	Pakistan
1	Guard and Signal Company	Bangladesh
3	Infantry Battalions	Ghana, Nigeria, Pakistan
2	Level II Hospitals	Jordan and Pakistan
1	Logistics Company	Pakistan
1	Provost Unit	Pakistan

Source: DPI (DPKO website).

UNAMSIL Civilian Staff: June 2005

Type	Percentage Staff
Political and Civil Affairs	8%
Humanitarian Affairs and Development	0%
Administration and Mission Support	92%

Source: DPKO FGS.
Note: Military headquarter staff and military observers not included.

UNAMSIL Fatalities

Personnel Type

Time Period	Total	Troop	MilOb	Police	Intl Staff	Natl Staff	Other[a]
2000	26	26	—	—	—	—	—
2001	41	37	2	—	—	—	2
2002	44	39	—	—	1	4	—
2003	36	29	—	—	1	6	—
2004	33						
January-March		6	—	—	—	1	—
April-June		16	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		3	—	—	—	1	—
October-December		3	—	1	—	2	—
2005	6						
January-March		—	—	—	—	—	—
April-June		3	—	—	—	2	—
July-September		1	—	—	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**186**	**163**	**2**	**1**	**2**	**16**	**2**

Incident Type

Time Period	Total	Hostile Act	Illness	Accident	Self-Inflicted	Other[b]
2000	26	12	8	2	—	4
2001	41	—	18	18	2	3
2002	44	—	19	19	1	5
2003	36	—	19	15	1	1
2004	33					
January-March		—	5	2	—	—
April-June		—	1	15	—	—
July-September		—	2	1	1	—
October-December		—	3	1	—	2
2005	6					
January-March		—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	4	1	—	—
July-September		—	1	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**186**	**12**	**80**	**74**	**5**	**15**

Source: DPKO Situation Centre.

Notes: Discrepancies may exist between these data and those available at the DPI DPKO website, as the DPI DPKO website is still under review and may contain omissions or errors.

a. "Other" refers to consultants, UNVs, etc.

b. Incident type is unknown, uncertain, or under investigation.

UNAMSIL Vehicles: 30 August 2005

Contingent Owned Vehicles		UN Owned Vehicles	
Vehicle Type	Quantity	Vehicle Type	Quantity
Aircraft/Airfield Support Equipment	1	4x4 Vehicles	339
Combat Vehicles	36	Airfield Support	7
Engineering Vehicles	23	Ambulances	4
Material Handling Equipment	2	Automobiles	4
Support Vehicles (Commercial Pattern)	95	Buses	57
Support Vehicles (Military Pattern)	290	Engineering Vehicles	5
Trailers	48	Material Handling Equipment	33
		Motorcycles	7
		Trucks	124
Total	**495**		**580**

Sources: DPKO Surface Transport Section; DPKO Contingent Owned Equipment and Property Management Section.

UNAMSIL Aircraft: 30 August 2005

	Commerical	Gov't
Fixed Wing Aircraft	1	—
Helicopters	6	4 (Russia)
Total	**7**	**4**

Source: DPKO Air Transport Section.

UNAMSIL Mission Expenditures:
July 1999–June 2004 (in thousands of US dollars)

Category	Jul 99–Jun 00	Jul 00–Jun 01	Jul 01–Jun 02	Jul 02–Jun 03	Jul 03–Jun 04
Military and police personnel	132,054.2	329,817.6	352,927.3	371,634.2	266,566.3
Civilian personnel	15,484.3	43,160.6	47,264.0	49,426.3	54,102.1
Operational requirements	115,703.5	124,031.8	217,455.1	182,025.0	128,066.0
Other	96.2	23,724.3	—	—	—
Gross requirements	**263,338.2**	**520,734.3**	**617,646.4**	**603,085.5**	**448,734.4**
Staff assessment income	1,303.0	7,535.4	4,720.5	5,579.3	6,039.2
Net requirements	**262,035.2**	**513,198.9**	**612,925.9**	**597,506.2**	**442,695.2**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	1,550.0	1,350.1	—	—	—
Total requirements	**264,888.2**	**522,084.4**	**617,646.4**	**603,085.5**	**448,734.4**

Sources: UN Documents A/55/853, A/56/833, A/57/680, A/58/660, A/59/635.

UNAMSIL Financial Performance:
July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)

Category	Approved	Actual	Variance	Variance %
Military observers	8,164.6	8,387.3	(222.7)	(2.7)
Military contingents	130,458.6	127,836.7	2,621.9	2.0
Civilian police	4,805.0	4,486.3	318.7	6.6
Formed police units	—	—	—	—
International staff	43,835.7	36,781.8	7,053.9	16.1
National staff	2,721.8	2,983.1	(261.3)	—
United Nations Volunteers	3,855.6	4,561.0	(705.4)	(18.3)
General temporary assistance	—	4.5	(4.5)	—
Government-provided personnel	—	—	—	—
Civilian electoral observers	—	—	—	—
Consultants	25.2	131.1	(105.9)	(420.2)
Official travel	811.3	813.3	(2.0)	(0.2)
Facilities and infrastructure	21,482.0	21,148.2	333.8	1.6
Ground transportation	3,519.3	4,577.3	(1,058.0)	(30.1)
Air transportation	49,866.2	35,340.5	14,525.7	29.1
Naval transportation	—	—	—	—
Communications and IT	10,835.5	9,306.5	1,529.0	18.3
Supplies, services and equipment	10,954.8	8,340.1	2,614.7	56.2
Quick-impact projects	268.0	267.6	0.4	0.2
Gross requirements	**291,603.6**	**264,965.2**	**26,638.4**	**0.1**
Staff assessment income	6,377.1	5,036.6	1,340.5	0.2
Net requirements	**285,226.5**	**259,928.6**	**25,297.9**	**0.1**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	—	—	—	—
Total requirements	**285,226.5**	**259,928.6**	**25,297.9**	**0.1**

Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNAMSIL Expenditure Summary: July 2004–June 2005

Civilian Personnel
17%

Operational Costs
34%

Military and
Police Personnel
49%
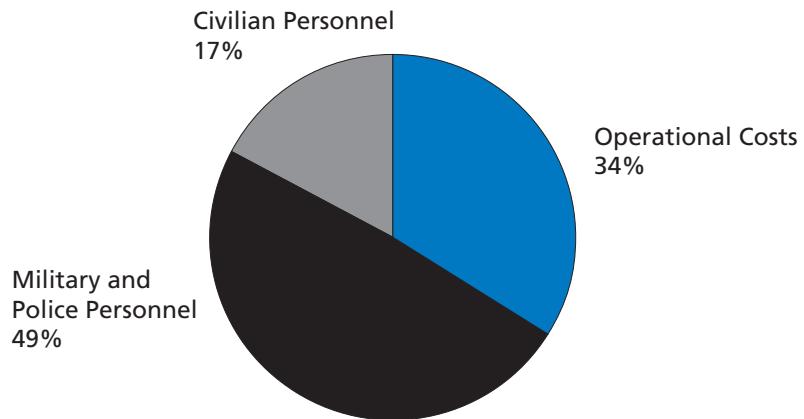
Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNAMSIL Expenditures on Contingent Owned Equipment: July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)

Major equipment	20,163.5
Self-sustainment	21,564.8

Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNAMSIL Voluntary Contributors

Contributor	Contributions in kind (budgeted)	Contributions in kind (non-budgeted)	Contributions in cash (budgeted)	Total
None	—	—	—	—

Source: Accounts Division, OPPBA.

7.11 UNMIK (UN Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo)

UNMIK Key Facts	
Latest mandates	10 June 1999 (date of issue and effect) UNSC Res. 1244 (twelve-month duration) (note: paragraph 19 of the Resolution states that international civil and security presences are established for an initial period of twelve months, to continue thereafter unless the Security Council decides otherwise)
First mandate	See above note
SRSG	Søren Jessen-Petersen (Denmark) SG letter of appointment: 16 June 2004, effective 1 August 2004
First SRSG	Bernard Kouchner (France)
Police commissioner	Kai Vittrup (Denmark) Entry on duty: 27 September 2004

UNMIK Personnel: First Year of Operation

Date	Military Observers		Police		International Staff		National Staff		UNVs	
	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized	Actual	Authorized
June 99	8	38	37	4,718	66	1,269	107	3,584	N/A	203
July 99	30	38	368	4,718	131	1,269	439	3,584	N/A	203
Aug. 99	34	38	897	4,718	241	1,269	639	3,584	N/A	203
Sept. 99	34	38	1,552	4,718	339	1,269	860	3,584	N/A	203
Oct. 99	34	38	1,728	4,718	429	1,269	1,434	3,584	N/A	203
Nov. 99	34	38	1,818	4,718	475	1,269	1,726	3,584	N/A	203
Dec. 99	35	38	1,972	4,718	478	1,269	1,831	3,584	N/A	203
Jan. 00	35	38	1,971	4,718	525	1,269	1,925	3,584	N/A	203
Feb. 00	37	38	2,360	4,718	553	1,269	2,134	3,584	N/A	203
Mar. 00	37	38	2,813	4,718	562	1,269	2,362	3,584	N/A	203
Apr. 00	37	38	3,154	4,718	576	1,269	2,501	3,584	N/A	203
May 00	37	38	3,633	4,718	627	1,269	2,597	3,584	N/A	203

Sources: UN Documents A/54/494, A/55/724; DPKO FGS; DPKO PMSS.
  Note: Actual UNV strength is not shown because monthly data are not available. For time period averages of UNV staff in the first year of the mission, see graph "Personnel: Since 1999."

UNMIK Mission Deployment Time

June
10: Council authorizes establishment of mandate
12: SG report lays out operational concept
13: Advance team begins arriving

July
2: SRSG appointed
7: SRSG EOD; PC EOD
28: GA approves budget

Sept.
16: SG mission report

Dec.
23: GA approves budget

Legend:
- Auth. Military Obs.
- Auth. UNVs
- Auth. Nat'l Staff
- Auth. Int'l Staff
- Auth. Police
- Military Obs.
- UNVs
- Nat'l Staff
- Int'l Staff
- Police
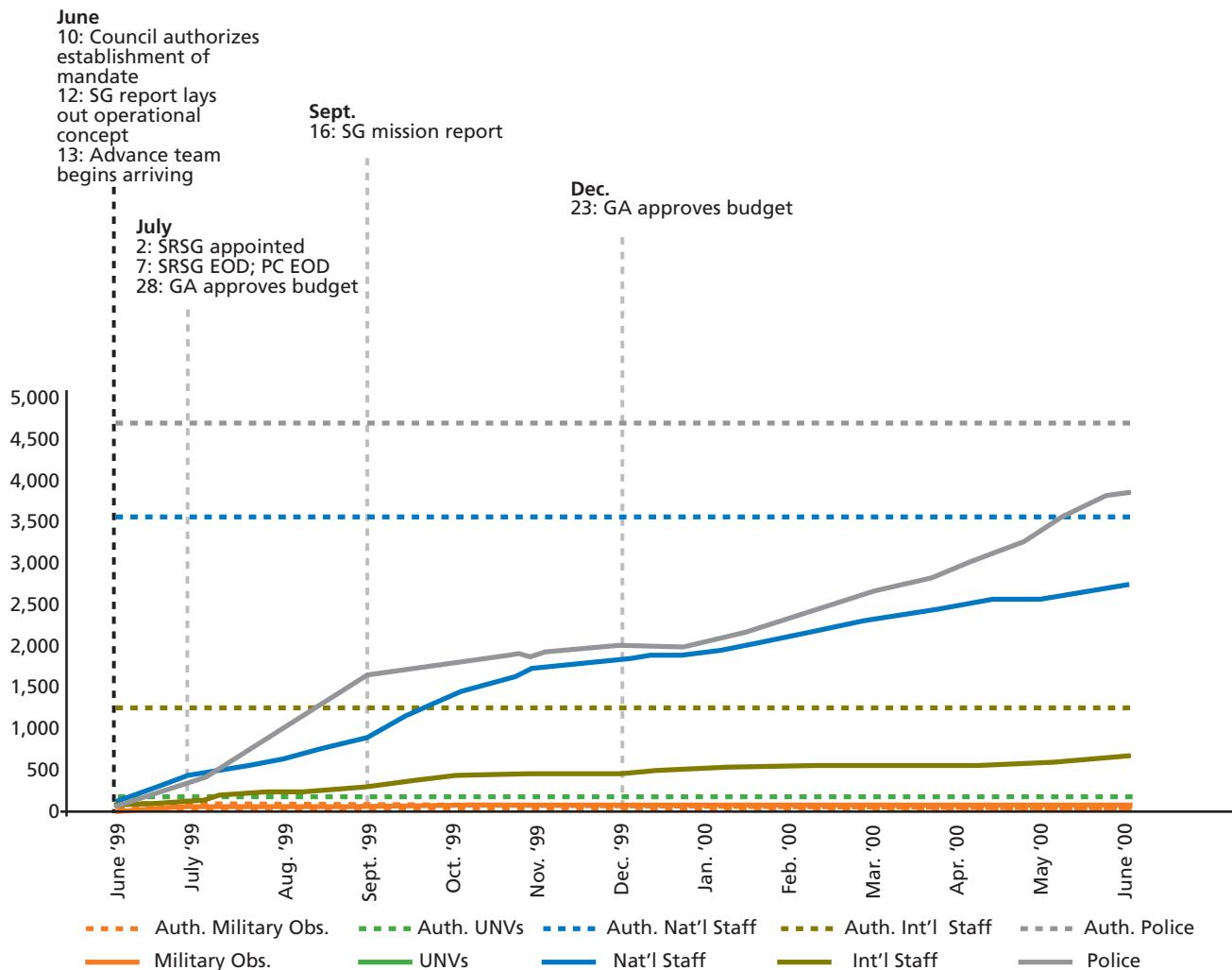
Sources: UN Documents S/RES/1244, S/1999/672, S/1999/748, S/1999/779, A/RES/53/241, A/RES/54/245A, A/54/494, A/55/724; DPKO FGS; DPKO PMSS.

Note: Actual UNV strength is not shown because monthly data are not available. For time period averages of UNV staff in the first year of the mission, see graph "Personnel: Since 1999."

UNMIK Personnel: Since 1999
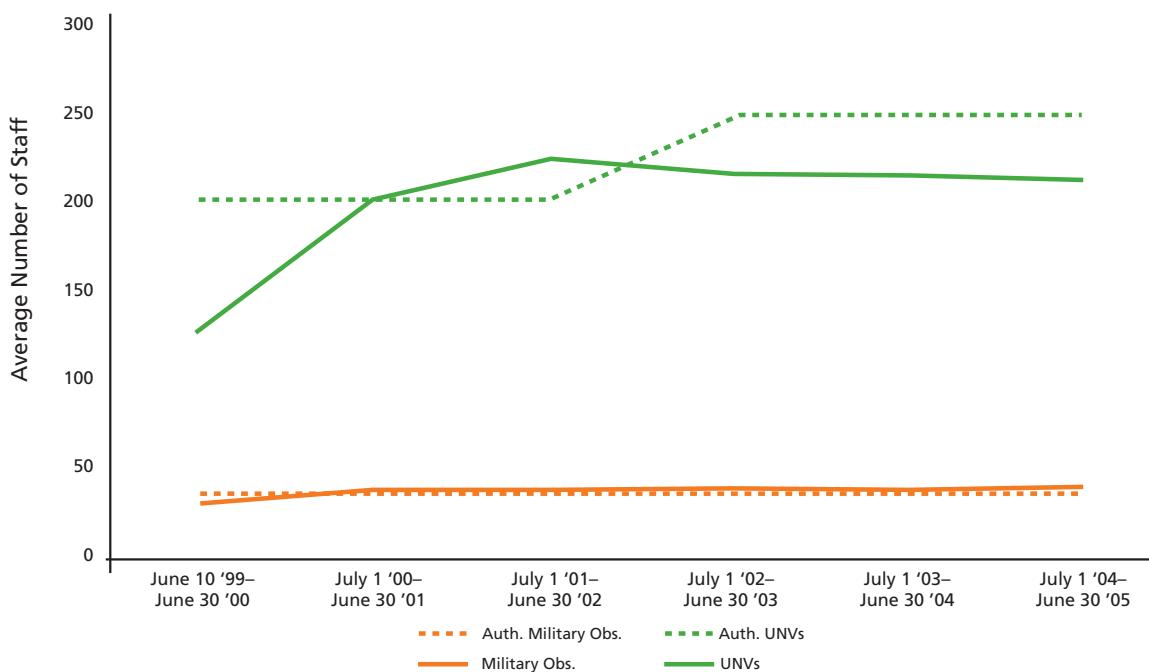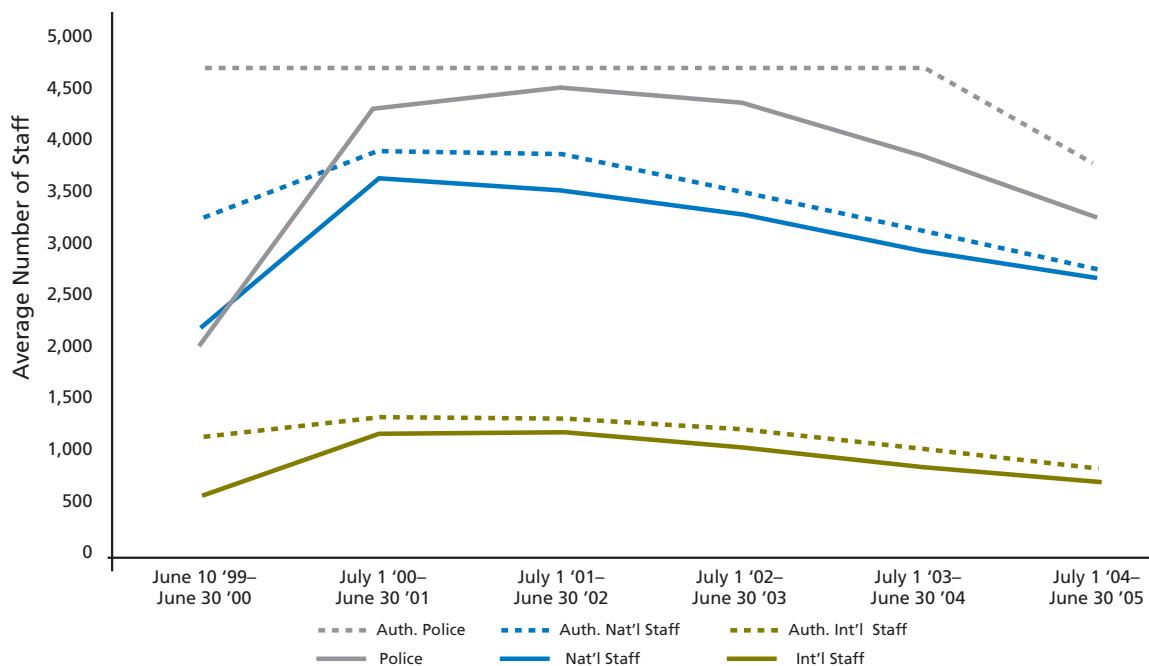
Sources: UN Documents A/55/724, A/56/763, A/57/678, A/58/634, A/59/623, A/58/638; DPKO FGS; PKD.

UNMIK Personnel: July 2004—September 2005
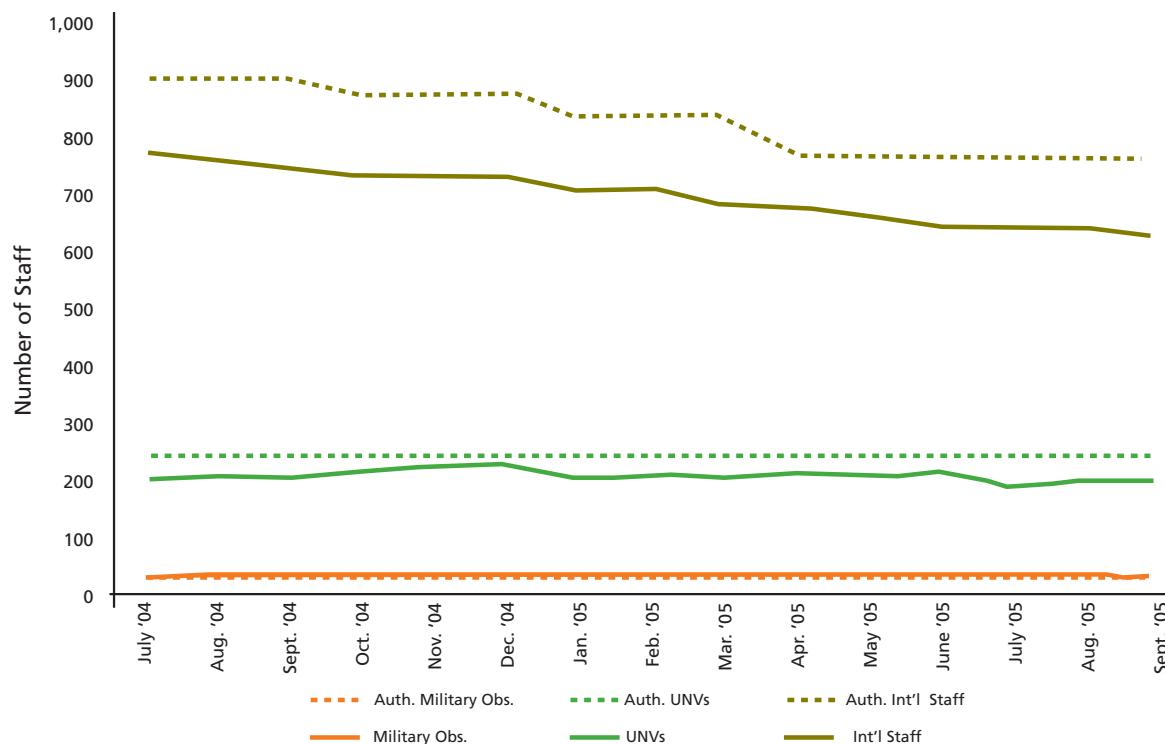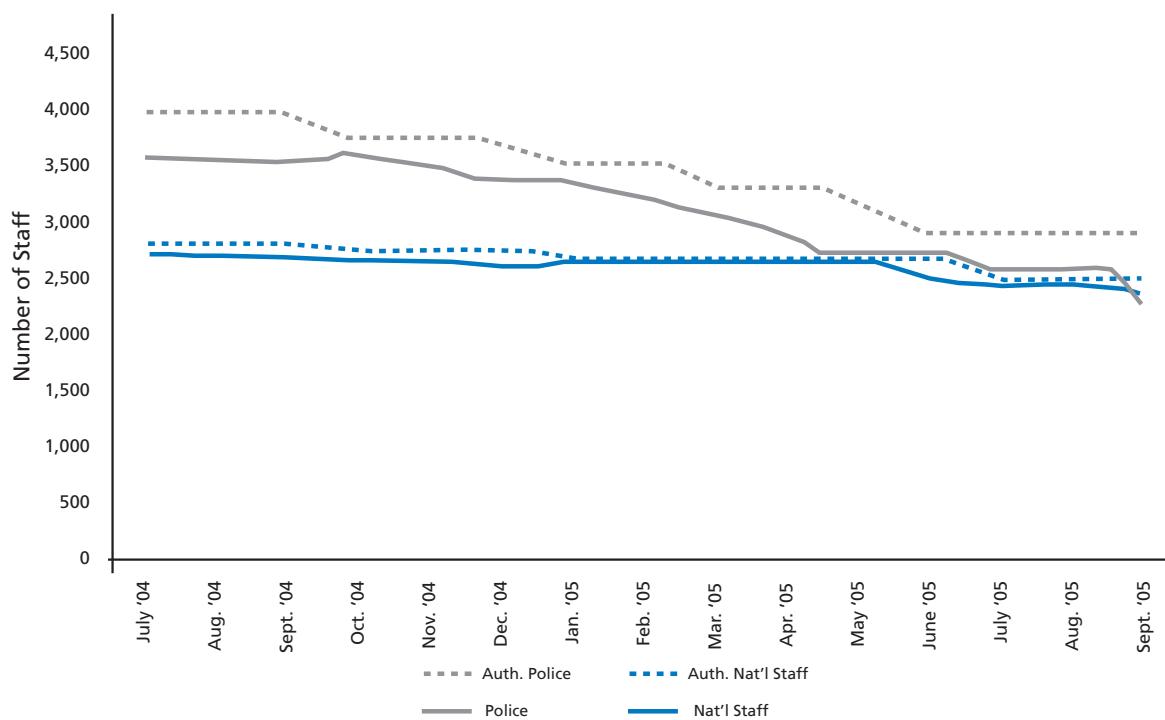
Sources: DPI (DPKO website); PKD; UNV Programme.
Note: Monthly authorized strengths are shown according to the PKD and planned drawdown of mission.

UNMIK Military and Police Contributors: 30 August 2005

Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total	Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total
United States	—	—	274	274	Denmark	—	1	21	22
Germany	—	—	240	240	Egypt	—	—	21	21
India	—	—	194	194	Norway	—	1	20	21
Romania	—	1	177	178	China	—	1	18	19
Ukraine	—	2	175	177	Fiji	—	—	19	19
Turkey	—	—	167	167	Spain	—	2	14	16
Pakistan	—	—	161	161	Greece	—	—	15	15
Argentina	—	1	130	131	Malaysia	—	1	12	13
Poland	—	1	124	125	Slovenia	—	—	13	13
Russia	—	2	86	88	Czech Republic	—	1	9	10
Jordan	—	2	83	85	Finland	—	2	7	9
United Kingdom	—	1	75	76	Hungary	—	1	8	9
Bangladesh	—	1	60	61	Malawi	—	1	8	9
Philippines	—	—	59	59	Lithuania	—	—	8	8
France	—	—	57	57	Portugal	—	2	6	8
Bulgaria	—	1	50	51	Switzerland	—	—	6	6
Italy	—	1	36	37	Tunisia	—	—	5	5
Ghana	—	—	35	35	Ireland	—	4	—	4
Zimbabwe	—	—	35	35	Kyrgyzstan	—	—	4	4
Nepal	—	2	32	34	Brazil	—	—	3	3
Nigeria	—	—	34	34	Croatia	—	—	2	2
Sweden	—	—	34	34	Bolivia	—	1	—	1
Kenya	—	1	28	29	Netherlands	—	—	1	1
Austria	—	—	24	24	New Zealand	—	1	—	1
Zambia	—	1	22	23	**TOTAL**	—	**36**	**2,612**	**2,648**

Source: DPI (DPKO website).
Note: Police figures include formed police provided by Pakistan (115), Poland (115), Romania (115), and Ukraine (140).

UNMIK Civilian Staff: 30 June 2005

Type	Percentage Staff
Political and Civil Affairs	7%
Humanitarian Affairs and Development	0%
Administration and Mission Support	92%

Source: DPKO PMSS.

UNMIK Fatalities: Inception–October 2005

		Appointment Type					
Time Period	Total	Troop	MilOb	Police	Intl Staff	Natl Staff	Other[a]
1999	6	—	—	4	1	—	1
2000	6	—	—	1	1	3	1
2001	1	—	—	—	1	—	—
2002	7	—	—	3	—	3	1
2003	6	—	—	3	1	2	—
2004	8						
January-March		—	—	1	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	4	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	1	2	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—	—
2005	6						
January-March		—	—	3	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	1	—
July-September		—	—	1	—	1	—
October		—	—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**40**	**—**	**—**	**20**	**5**	**12**	**3**

		Incident Type					
Time Period	Total	Hostile Act	Illness	Accident	Self-Inflicted	Crime[b]	Other[c]
1999	6	1	—	5	—	—	—
2000	6	—	3	1	1	—	1
2001	1	—	1	—	—	—	—
2002	7	—	3	—	1	—	3
2003	6	1	2	—	1	—	2
2004	8						
January-March		1	—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	1	3	—
July-September		—	2	1	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—	—
2005	6						
January-March		1	2	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	1	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—	2
October		—	—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**40**	**4**	**14**	**7**	**4**	**3**	**8**

Source: DPKO Situation Centre.
Notes: Discrepancies may exist between these data and those available at the DPI DPKO website, as the DPI DPKO website is still under review and may contain omissions or errors.
a. "Other" refers to consultants, UNVs, etc.
b. In 2004, the category "Crime" was added to the Fatalities Classification System, at the time of publication, UNMIK was the only mission with fatalities in this category.
c. Incident type is unknown, uncertain, or under investigation.

UNMIK Vehicles: 30 August 2005

Contingent Owned Vehicles		UN Owned Vehicles	
Vehicle Type	Quantity	Vehicle Type	Quantity
Combat Vehicles	16	4x4 Vehicles	1912
Support Vehicles (Commercial Pattern)	52	Airfield Support	2
		Ambulances	9
Support Vehicles (Military Pattern)	79	Automobiles	8
		Buses	211
		Engineering Vehicles	15
		Material Handling Equipment	25
		Oversnows	6
		Trucks	71
Total	**147**		**2259**

Sources: DPKO Surface Transport Section; DPKO Contingent Owned Equipment and Property Management Section.

UNMIK Aircraft: 30 August 2005

	Commerical	Gov't
Fixed Wing Aircraft	—	—
Helicopters	1	—
Total	**1**	—

Source: DPKO Air Transport Section.

UNMIK Mission Expenditures: **June 1999–June 2004 (in thousands of US dollars)**					
Category	Jul 99– Jun 00	Jul 00– Jun 01	Jul 01– Jun 02	Jul 02– Jun 03	Jul 03– Jun 04
Military and police personnel	3,934.1	5,918.4	125,532.0	115,208.7	106,598.1
Civilian personnel	167,731.2	302,888.5	184,775.0	170,595.0	163,458.9
Operational requirements	188,546.1	73,816.0	49,941.0	44,164.1	45,452.2
Other	1,578.4	839.1	—	—	—
Gross requirements	**361,789.8**	**383,462.0**	**360,248.0**	**329,967.8**	**315,509.2**
Staff assessment income	9,558.4	22,775.0	25,989.0	25,082.5	23,467.6
Net requirements	**352,231.4**	**360,687.0**	**334,259.0**	**304,885.3**	**292,041.6**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	585.5	—	—	—	—
Total requirements	**362,375.3**	**383,462.0**	**360,248.0**	**329,967.8**	**315,509.2**

Sources: UN Documents A/55/724, A/56/763, A/57/678, A/58/634, A/59/623.

UNMIK Financial Performance: **July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)**				
Category	Approved	Actual	Variance	Variance %
Military observers	1,453.3	1,282.5	170.8	11.8
Military contingents	—	—	—	—
Civilian police	85,158.8	87,033.0	(1,874.2)	(2.2)
Formed police units	17,481.2	17,937.8	(456.6)	(2.6)
International staff	95,458.1	96,830.0	(1,371.9)	(1.4)
National staff	48,200.4	51,673.9	(3,473.5)	(7.2)
United Nations Volunteers	8,666.6	7,658.3	1,008.3	11.6
General temporary assistance	105.6	234.2	(128.6)	(121.8)
Government-provided personnel	—	—	—	—
Civilian electoral observers	—	—	—	—
Consultants	—	211.8	(211.8)	—
Official travel	1,449.4	1,259.2	190.2	13.1
Facilities and infrastructure	16,109.3	14,601.5	1,507.8	9.4
Ground transportation	6,282.0	5,184.6	1,097.4	17.5
Air transportation	1,904.6	1,502.5	402.1	21.1
Naval transportation	—	—	—	—
Communications and IT	9,371.7	6,857.0	2,514.7	53.0
Supplies, services and equipment	2,984.2	2,230.6	753.6	5.5
Quick-impact projects	—	—	—	—
Gross requirements	**294,625.2**	**294,496.9**	**128.3**	**—**
Staff assessment income	22,636.4	22,720.5	(84.1)	(0.4)
Net requirements	**271,988.8**	**271,776.4**	**212.4**	**0.1**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	—	—	—	—
Total requirements	**294,625.2**	**294,496.9**	**128.2**	**—**

Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNMIK Expenditure Summary: July 2004–June 2005

Operational Costs
13%

Military and
Police Personnel
35%

Civilian Personnel
52%
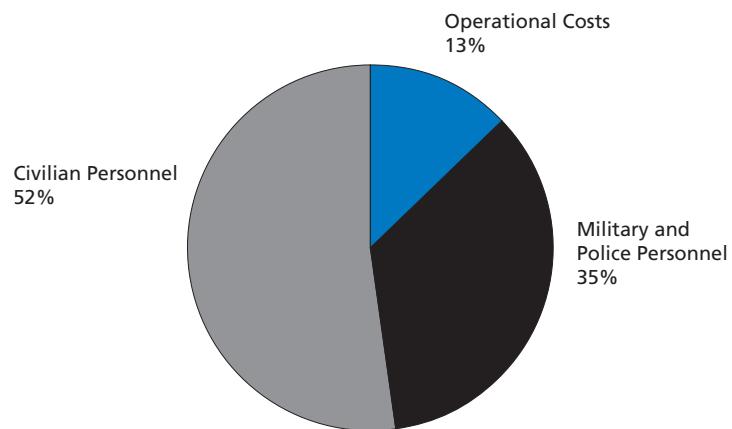
Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNMIK Expenditures on Contingent Owned Equipment: July 2004–June 2005a (in thousands of US dollars)

Major equipment	2,824.2
Self-sustainment	848.2

Source: DPKO FMSS.
Note: a. For formed police units.

UNMIK Voluntary Contributors

Contributor	Contributions in kind (budgeted)	Contributions in kind (non-budgeted)	Contributions in cash (budgeted)	Total
None	—	—	—	—

Source: Accounts Division, OPPBA.

UNOMIG Key Facts	

Latest mandates	29 July 2005 (date of issue and effect)
	  UNSC Res. 1615 (six-month duration)
	28 January 2005 (date of issue), 31 January 2005
	  (date of effect)
	  UNSC Res. 1582 (six-month duration)
	29 July 2004 (date of issue and effect)
	  UNSC Res. 1554 (six-month duration)

First mandate	24 August 1993 (date of issue and effect) UNSC Res. 858 (six-month duration)
SRSG	Heidi Tagliavini (Switzerland) SG letter of appointment: 23 May 2002; effective 1 July 2002
First special envoy	Edouard Brunner (Switzerland)
Chief military observer	Niaz Muhammad Khan Khattak (Pakistan) Entry on duty: 6 August 2005
First chief military observer	Brigadier-General John Hvidergaard (Denmark)
Senior police adviser	Colonel Jozsef Boda (Hungary) Entry on duty: 10 November 2004

UNOMIG Personnel: Since 1999
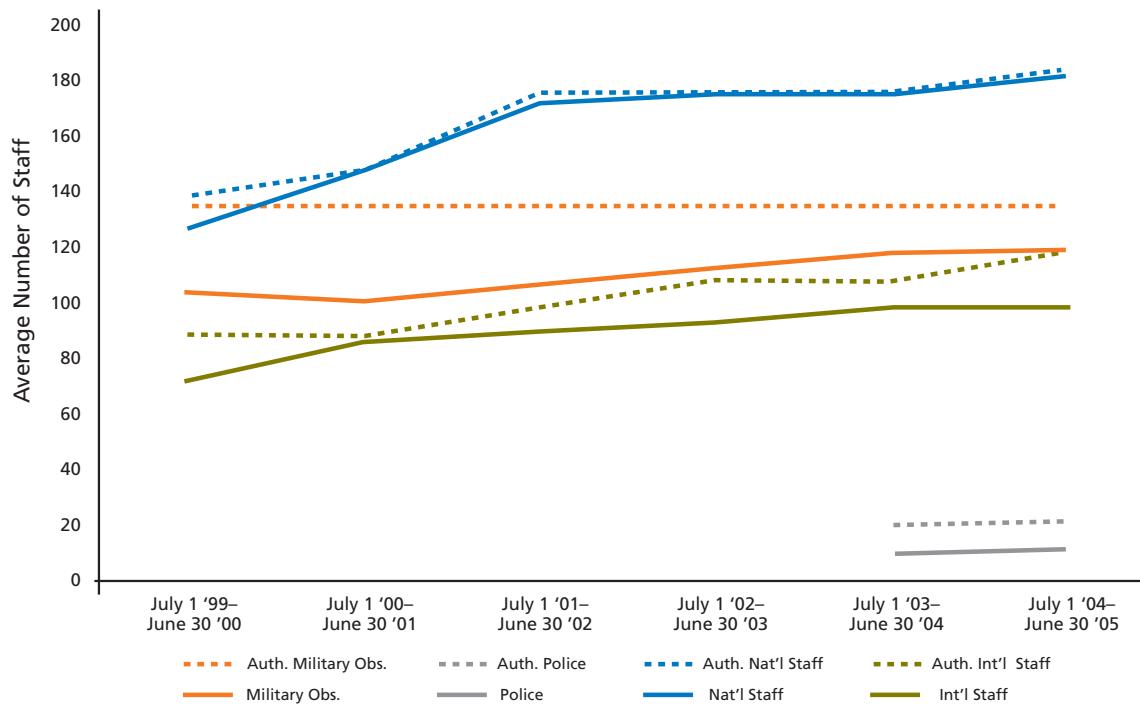
Sources: UN Documents A/55/682, A/56/721, A/57/676, A/58/639, A/59/622, S/RES/1494, S/RES/937; PKD; DPI (DPKO website).

UNOMIG Personnel: July 2004–September 2005
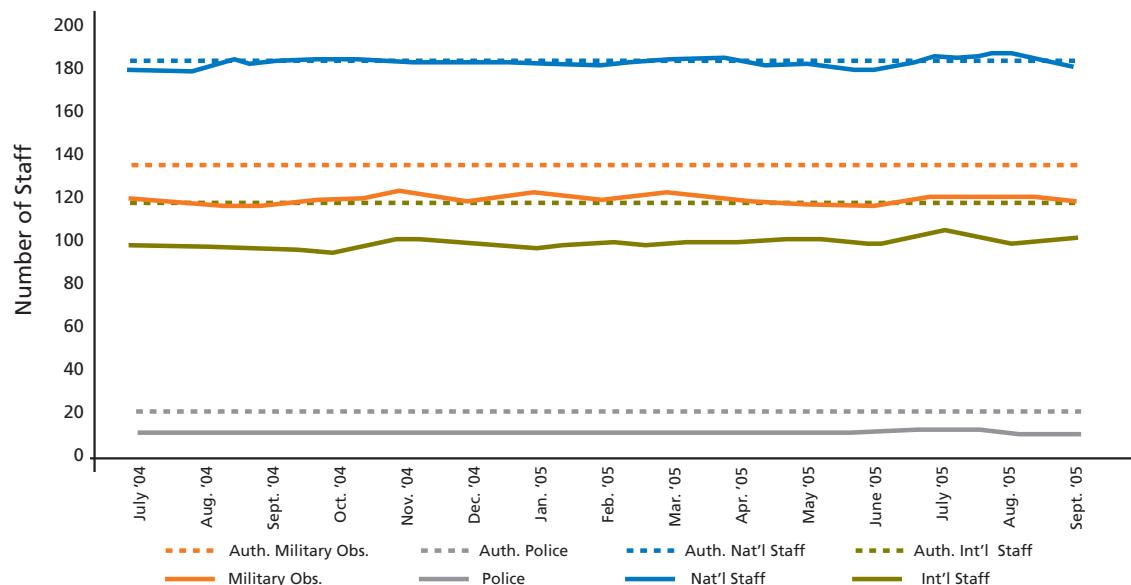
Sources: UN Documents S/RES/1494, S/RES/937; DPI (DPKO website); PKD; DPKO PMSS.

UNOMIG Military and Police Contributors: 30 August 2005

Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total	Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total
Germany	—	11	4	15	Ukraine	—	5	—	5
Jordan	—	9	—	9	Egypt	—	4	—	4
Pakistan	—	9	—	9	Indonesia	—	4	—	4
Hungary	—	7	1	8	Albania	—	3	—	3
Bangladesh	—	7	—	7	France	—	3	—	3
Republic of Korea	—	7	—	7	Sweden	—	3	—	3
Switzerland	—	4	3	7	Uruguay	—	3	—	3
United Kingdom	—	7	—	7	Austria	—	2	—	2
Poland	—	5	1	6	United States	—	2	—	2
Czech Republic	—	5	—	5	Croatia	—	1	—	1
Denmark	—	5	—	5	India	—	—	1	1
Greece	—	5	—	5	Romania	—	1	—	1
Russia	—	3	2	5	**TOTAL**	—	**120**	**12**	**132**
Turkey	—	5	—	5					

Source: DPI (DPKO website).

UNOMIG Civilian Staff: 30 June 2005	
Type	Percentage Staff
Political and Civil Affairs	8%
Humanitarian Affairs and Development	0%
Administration and Mission Support	92%

Source: DPKO PMSS.

UNOMIG Fatalities: Inception–October 2005							
			Appointment Type				
Time Period	Total	Troop	MilOb	Police	Intl Staff	Natl Staff	Other[a]
1995–1998	3	—	2	—	1	—	—
1999	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2000	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2001	4	4	—	—	—	—	—
2002	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2003	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2004	0						
January-March		—	—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—	—
2005	1	—	—	—	—	—	—
January-March		—	—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	1	—
October		—	—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**8**	**4**	**2**	**—**	**1**	**1**	**—**

continues

UNOMIG Fatalities: Inception–October 2005 continued

Time Period	Total	Incident Type				
		Hostile Act	Illness	Accident	Self-Inflicted	Other[b]
1995—1998	3	2	—	1	—	—
1999	0	—	—	—	—	—
2000	0	—	—	—	—	—
2001	4	4	—	—	—	—
2002	0	—	—	—	—	—
2003	0	—	—	—	—	—
2004	0					
January-March		—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—
2005	1					
January-March		—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	1
October		—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**8**	**6**	**—**	**1**	**—**	**1**

Source: DPKO Situation Centre.
Notes: Discrepancies may exist between these data and those available at the DPI DPKO website, as the DPI DPKO website is still under review and may contain omissions or errors.
a. "Other" refers to consultants, UNVs, etc.
b. Incident type is unknown, uncertain, or under investigation.

UNOMIG Vehicles: 30 August 2005

UN Owned Vehicles

Vehicle Type	Quantity
4x4 On-Off Road	140
Ambulances	3[a]
Automobiles	4
Buses	15
Engineering Vehicle	1
Material Handling Equipment	6
Trucks	15
Total	**184**

Source: DPKO Surface Transport Section.
Note: a. As of 30 August 2005, there were also two contingent-owned ambulances in UNOMIG.

UNOMIG Aircraft: 30 August 2005

	Commerical	Gov't
Fixed Wing Aircraft	1	—
Helicopters	1	—
Total	**2**	**—**

Source: DPKO Air Transport Section.

| **UNOMIG Mission Expenditures:** **July 1999–June 2004 (in thousands of US dollars)**					
Category	Jul 99– Jun 00	Jul 00– Jun 01	Jul 01– Jun 02	Jul 02– Jun 03	Jul 03– Jun 04
Military and police personnel	3,861.3	3,701.8	3,466.6	3,345.0	3,670.6
Civilian personnel	11,034.5	12,522.0	13,581.4	14,595.1	15,941.0
Operational requirements	8,233.9	8,285.7	8,236.6	10,881.6	10,866.3
Other	1,874.3	1,491.5	—	—	—
Gross requirements	**25,004.0**	**26,001.0**	**25,284.6**	**28,821.7**	**30,477.9**
Staff assessment income	1,274.2	1,752.0	1,749.1	1,920.3	2,139.8
Net requirements	**23,729.8**	**24,249.0**	**23,535.5**	**26,901.4**	**28,338.1**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	—	—	—	—	—
Total requirements	**25,004.0**	**26,001.0**	**25,284.6**	**28,821.7**	**30,477.9**

Sources: UN Documents A/55/682, A/56/721, A/57/676, A/58/639, A/59/622.

UNOMIG Financial Performance: **July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)**				
Category	Approved	Actual	Variance	Variance %
Military observers	3,378.7	3,555.6	(176.9)	(5.2)
Military contingents	64.3	64.3	—	—
Civilian police	488.0	267.8	220.2	45.1
Formed police units	—	—	—	—
International staff	14,090.7	14,085.3	5.4	0.0
National staff	2,232.2	2,567.8	(335.6)	(15.0)
United Nations Volunteers	—	—	—	—
General temporary assistance	157.4	38.1	119.3	75.8
Government-provided personnel	—	—	—	—
Civilian electoral observers	—	—	—	—
Consultants	—	—	—	—
Official travel	690.5	587.0	103.5	15.0
Facilities and infrastructure	2,209.8	2,138.6	71.2	3.2
Ground transportation	2,619.0	1,796.4	822.6	31.4
Air transportation	2,588.8	2,801.3	(212.5)	(8.2)
Naval transportation	—	—	—	—
Communications and IT	2,589.1	2,416.2	172.9	9.3
Supplies, services and equipment	818.2	683.0	135.2	10.6
Quick-impact projects	—	—	—	—
Gross requirements	**31,926.6**	**31,001.4**	**925.2**	**2.9**
Staff assessment income	2,124.1	2,161.6	(37.5)	(1.8)
Net requirements	**29,802.5**	**28,839.8**	**962.7**	**3.2**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	—	—	—	—
Total requirements	**31,926.6**	**31,001.4**	**925.2**	**2.9**

Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNOMIG Expenditure Summary: July 2004–June 2005

Operational Costs
37%

Civilian Personnel
51%

Military and
Police Personnel
12%
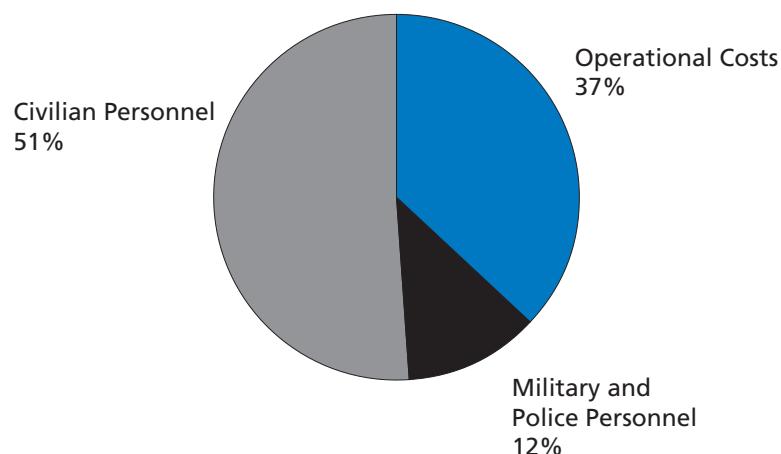
Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNOMIG Expenditures on Contingent Owned Equipment: July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)

Major equipment	64.3
Self-sustainment	27.5

Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNOMIG Voluntary Contributors (contributions in thousands of US dollars)

| Contributor	Contributions in kind (budgeted)	Contributions in kind (non-budgeted)	Contributions in cash (budgeted)	Total
Switzerland	—	13	—	13
Total	**—**	**13**	**—**	**13**

Source: Accounts Division, OPPBA.

7.13 MINURSO (UN Mission for the Referendum in Western Sahara)

MINURSO Key Facts	

Latest mandates	28 October 2005 (date of issue and effect)
	  UNSC Res. 1634 (six-month duration)
	28 April 2005 (date of issue), 30 April 2005 (date of effect)
	  UNSC Res. 1598 (six-month duration)
	28 October 2004 (date of issue), 30 October 2004
	  (date of effect)
	  UNSC Res. 1570 (six-month duration)

First mandate	29 April 1991 (date of issue and effect) UNSC Res. 690 (no determined duration)
SRSG	Francesco Bastagli (Italy) SG letter of appointment: 4 August 2005; effective 1 September 2005
First SRSG	Johannes Manz (Switzerland)
Force commander	Brigadier-General Kurt Mosgaard (Denmark); effective 12 September 2005
First force commander	Armand Roy (Canada)

MINURSO Personnel: Since 1999
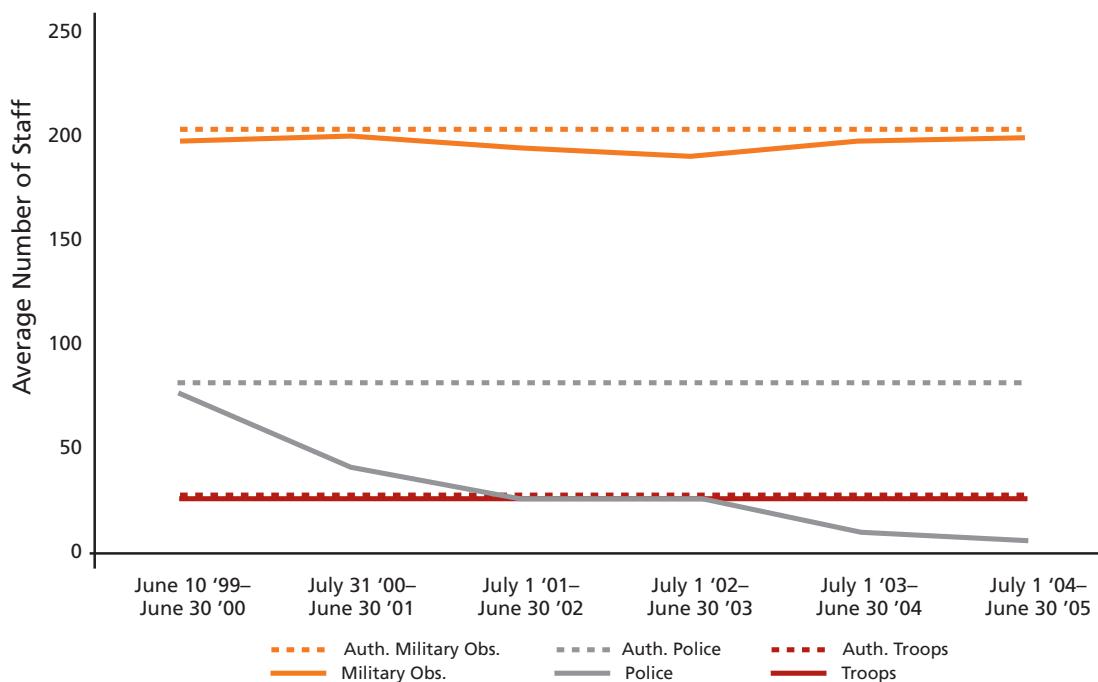
*MINURSO Personnel: Since 1999 continued*
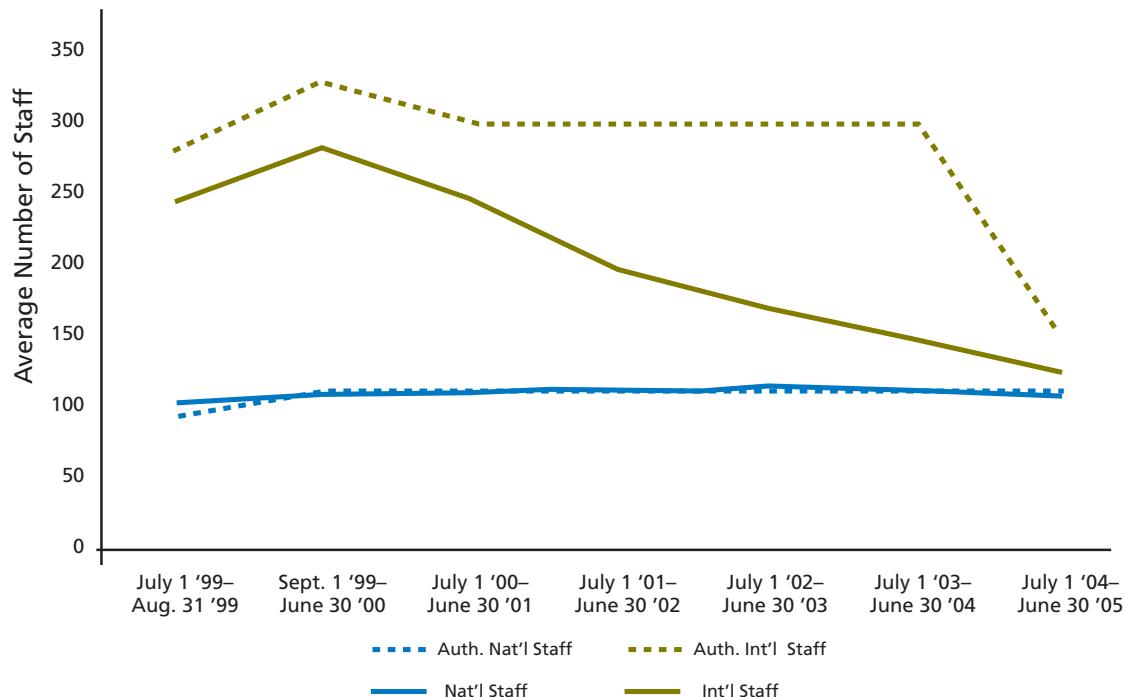
Sources: UN Documents A/55/764, A/56/818, A/58/642, A/59/619; PFD; DPI (DPKO website).

MINURSO Personnel: July 2004–September 2005
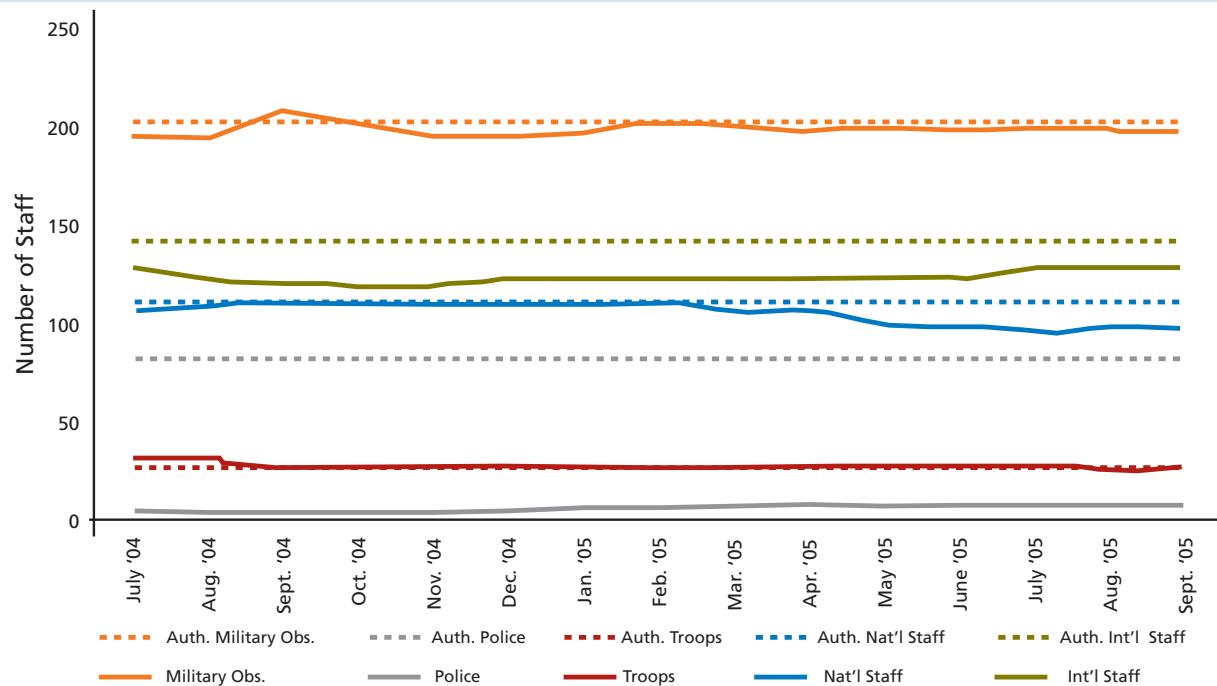
Sources: DPI (DPKO website); PFD; DPKO PMSS.
Notes: Figures do not include government provided personnel. Police deployment has been suspended.

MINURSO Military and Police Contributors: 30 August 2005

Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total	Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total
Egypt	—	21	4	25	Nigeria	—	6	—	6
France	—	25	—	25	Hungary	—	5	—	5
Russia	—	25	—	25	Italy	—	5	—	5
China	—	19	—	19	Ireland	—	4	—	4
Republic of Korea	18	—	—	18	Guinea	—	3	—	3
Ghana	7	10	—	17	Mongolia	—	3	—	3
Malaysia	—	14	—	14	Austria	—	2	—	2
Honduras	—	12	—	12	Croatia	—	2	—	2
Kenya	—	10	—	10	Sri Lanka	—	2	—	2
Uruguay	—	8	—	8	Argentina	—	1	—	1
Bangladesh	—	7	—	7	Greece	—	1	—	1
El Salvador	—	5	2	7	Poland	—	1	—	1
Pakistan	—	7	—	7	**TOTAL**	**25**	**198**	**6**	**229**

Source: DPI (DPKO website).

MINURSO Military Units: 30 August 2005

Number	Unit Type	Country
1	Medical Unit	Korea

Source: DPI (DPKO website).
Note: Military headquarter staff, staff officers, and military observers not included.

MINURSO Civilian Staff: 30 June 2005

Type	Percentage Staff
Political and Civil Affairs	4%
Humanitarian Affairs and Development	0%
Administration and Mission Support	96%

Source: DPKO PMSS.

MINURSO Fatalities: Inception–October 2005

Appointment Type

Time Period	Total	Troop	MilOb	Police	Intl Staff	Natl Staff	Other[a]
1992–1998	9	4	1	1	2	1	—
1999	1	1	—	—	—	—	—
2000	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2001	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2002	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2003	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2004	1						
January-March		—	—	—	—	1	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—	—
2005	1						
January-March		—	—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	1	—
October		—	—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**12**	**5**	**1**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**—**

Incident Type

Time Period	Total	Hostile Act	Illness	Accident	Self-Inflicted	Other[b]
1992–1998	9	—	1	8	—	—
1999	1	—	1	—	—	—
2000	0	—	—	—	—	—
2001	0	—	—	—	—	—
2002	0	—	—	—	—	—
2003	0	—	—	—	—	—
2004	1					
January-March		—	—	1	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—
2005	1					
January-March		—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	1	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**12**	**—**	**2**	**10**	**—**	**—**

Source: DPKO Situation Centre.
Notes: Discrepancies may exist between these data and those available on the DPI DPKO website, as the DPI DPKO website is still under review and may contain omissions or errors.
 a. "Other" refers to consultants, UNVs, etc.
 b. Incident type is unknown, uncertain, or under investigation.

MINURSO Vehicles: 30 August 2005

UN Owned Vehicles

Vehicle Type	Quantity
4x4 On-Off Road	254
Airfield Support	7
Ambulances	4
Automobiles	6
Buses	14
Engineering Vehicle	6
Material Handling Equipment	17
Trucks	23
Total	**331**

Source: DPKO Surface Transport Section.

MINURSO Aircraft: 30 August 2005

	Commerical	Gov't
Fixed Wing Aircraft	3	—
Helicopters	3	—
Total	**3**	**—**

Source: DPKO Air Transport Section.

MINURSO Mission Expenditures: July 1999–June 2004 (in thousands of US dollars)

Category	Jul 99–Jun 00	Jul 00–Jun 01	Jul 01–Jun 02	Jul 02–Jun 03	Jul 03–Jun 04
Military and police personnel	7,031.3	7,144.0	6,344.7	6,214.8	6,495.3
Civilian personnel	27,470.7	26,296.6	19,720.8	18,191.5	17,472.9
Operational requirements	11,607.6	10,239.6	13,025.0	14,002.7	14,882.6
Other	3,101.9	2,309.1	—	—	—
Gross requirements	**49,211.5**	**45,989.3**	**39,090.5**	**38,409.0**	**38,850.8**
Staff assessment income	3,351.0	3,773.4	2,751.3	2,636.2	2,442.8
Net requirements	**45,860.5**	**42,215.9**	**36,339.2**	**35,772.8**	**36,408.0**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	6,498.5	3,670.7	1,806.1	2,567.4	3,084.0
Total requirements	**55,710.0**	**49,660.0**	**40,896.6**	**40,976.4**	**41,934.8**

Sources: UN Documents A/55/764, A/56/818, A/58/642, A/59/619.

Category	Approved	Actual	Variance	Variance %
MINURSO Financial Performance: July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)				
Military observers	5,408.1	5,490.7	(82.6)	(1.5)
Military contingents	642.6	778.4	(135.8)	(21.1)
Civilian police	—	104.3	(104.3)	—
Formed police units	—	—	—	—
International staff	16,695.8	14,423.6	2,272.2	13.6
National staff	2,005.2	1,738.9	266.3	13.3
United Nations Volunteers	—	—	—	—
General temporary assistance	—	—	—	—
Government-provided personnel	119.7	32.1	87.6	73.2
Civilian electoral observers	—	—	—	—
Consultants	10.0	26.2	(16.2)	(162.0)
Official travel	416.0	443.5	(27.5)	(6.6)
Facilities and infrastructure	2,093.9	2,197.6	(103.7)	(5.0)
Ground transportation	2,900.0	2,649.6	250.4	8.6
Air transportation	7,253.5	9,666.1	(2,412.6)	(33.3)
Naval transportation	—	—	—	—
Communications and IT	3,276.1	2,882.3	393.8	10.3
Supplies, services and equipment	1,039.1	964.6	74.5	26.8
Quick-impact projects	—	—	—	—
Gross requirements	**41,860.0**	**41,398.0**	**462.0**	**1.1**
Staff assessment income	2,908.9	2,311.9	597.0	20.5
Net requirements	**38,951.1**	**39,086.1**	**(135.0)**	**(0.3)**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	2,144.7	3,885.2	(1,740.5)	(81.2)
Total requirements	**44,004.7**	**45,283.2**	**(1,278.5)**	**(2.9)**

Source: DPKO FMSS.

MINURSO Expenditure Summary: July 2004–June 2005

Civilian Personnel 45%

Operational Costs 41%

Military and Police Personnel 14%
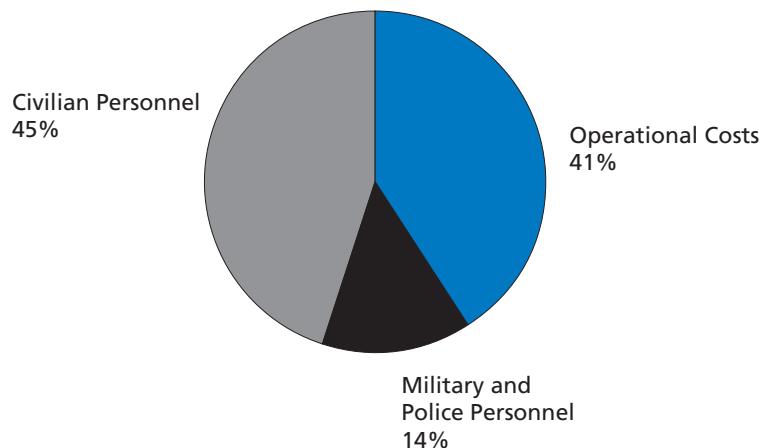
Source: DPKO FMSS.

MINURSO Expenditures on Contingent Owned Equipment: July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)

Major equipment	15.2
Self-sustainment	116.2

Source: DPKO FMSS.

MINURSO Voluntary Contributors (contributions in thousands of US dollars)

Contributor	Contributions in kind (budgeted)	Contributions in kind (non-budgeted)	Contributions in cash (budgeted)	Total
Morroco	3,277	—	—	3,277
Algeria	408	—	—	408
Frente Polisario	200	—	—	200
Total	**3,885**	**—**	**—**	**3,885**

Source: Accounts Division, OPPBA.

7.14 UNIFIL (UN Interim Force in Lebanon)

UNIFIL Key Facts	

Latest mandates	29 July 2005 (date of issue), 1 August 2005 (date of effect)
	    UNSC Res. 1614 (six-month duration)
	28 January 2005 (date of issue), 1 February 2005
	    (date of effect)
	    UNSC Res. 1583 (six-month duration)
	29 July 2004 (date of issue), 31 July 2004 (date of effect)
	    UNSC Res. 1553 (six-month duration)

First mandate	19 March 1978 (date of issue and effect) UNSC Res. 425/426 (six-month duration)
Force commander and chief of mission	Major-General Alain Pellegrini (France) Entry on duty: 18 February 2004
First force commander	Lieutenant-General Emmanuel A. Erskine (Ghana)

UNIFIL Personnel: Since 1999
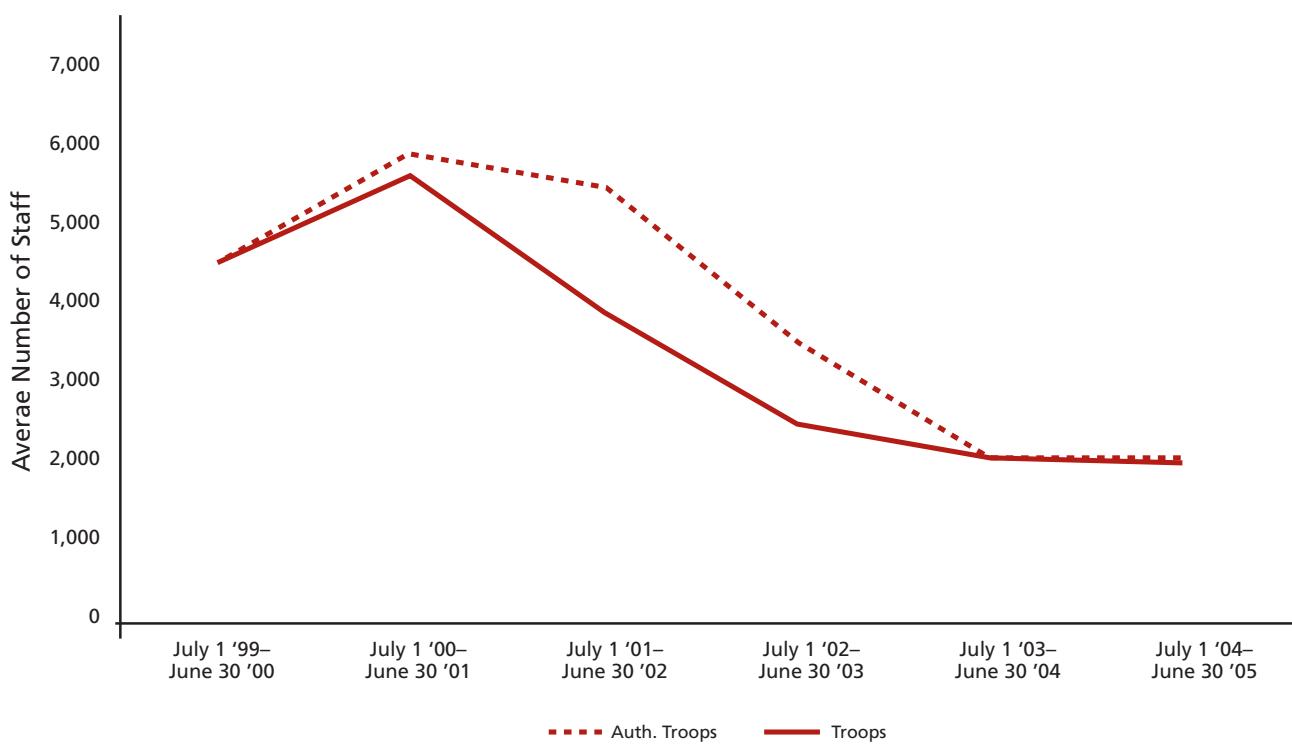
UNIFIL Personnel: Since 1999 continued
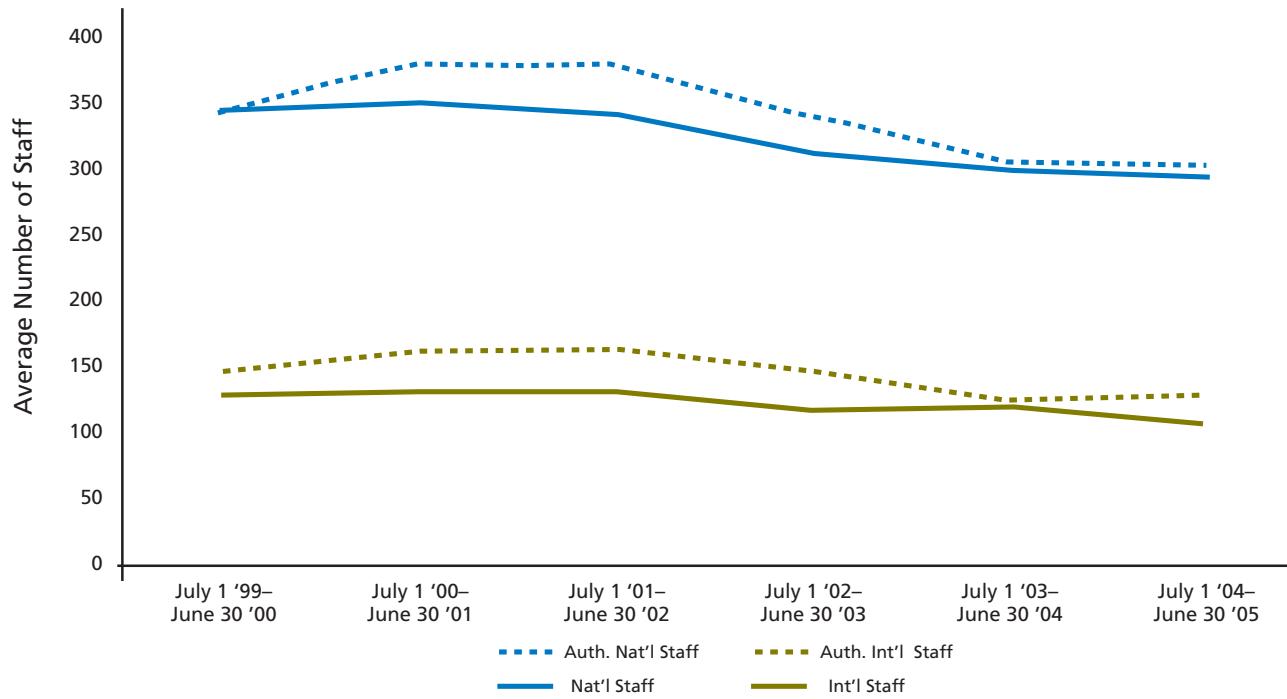
Sources: UN Documents A/55/757, A/56/822, A/57/662, A/58/637, A/59/626; PKD; DPI (DPKO website).

UNIFIL Personnel: July 2004–September 2005
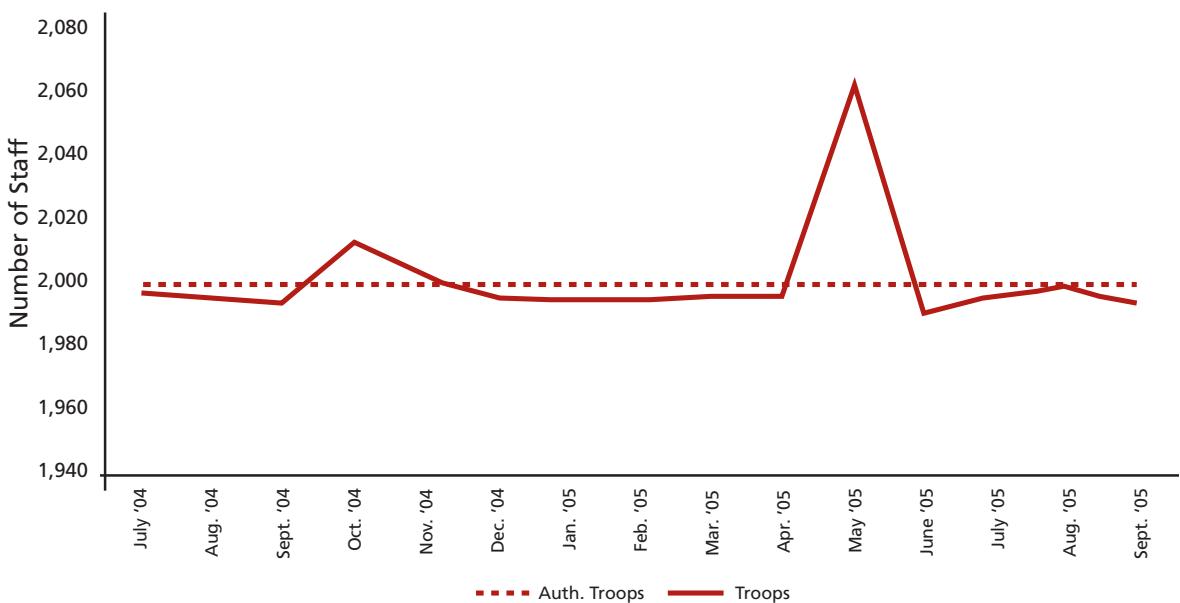
UNIFIL Personnel: July 2004–September 2005 continued

Sources: DPI (DPKO website); PKD; FGS.

Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total
Ghana	650	—	—	650
India	649	—	—	649
Poland	236	—	—	236
France	209	—	—	209
Ukraine	197	—	—	197
Italy	52	—	—	52
Ireland	5	—	—	5
TOTAL	**1,998**	**—**	**—**	**1,998**
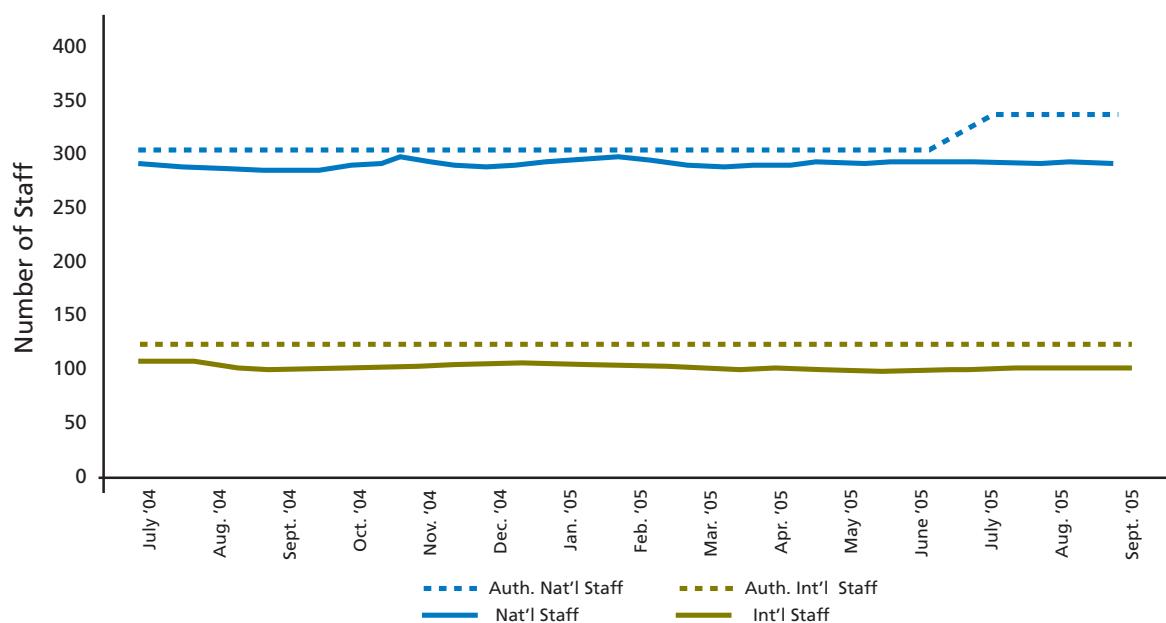
UNIFIL Military and Police Staff Contributors: 30 August 2005

Source: DPI (DPKO website).

UNIFIL Military Units: 30 August 2005

Number	Unit Type	Countries
1	Helicopter Unit	Italy
1	Headquarter Company	France
1	Engineering Battalion	Ukraine
1	Force Mobile Reserve	Ghana-India Composite
2	Infantry Battalions	Ghana, India
1	Logistics Battalion	Poland
1	Maintenance Company	Poland
1	Level I Hospital	Poland
1	Military Police Company	Ghana-India-Italy-Poland-Ukraine Composite

Source: DPI (DPKO website).
Note: Military headquarter staff and staff officers not included.

UNIFIL Civilian Staff: 30 June 2005

Type	Percentage Staff
Political and Civil Affairs	3%
Humanitarian Affairs and Development	1%
Administration and Mission Support	97%

Source: DPKO PMSS.

UNIFIL Fatalities: Inception–October 2005

Appointment Type

Time Period	Total	Troop	MilOb	Police	Intl Staff	Natl Staff	Other[a]
1978–1998	227	223	1	—	2	1	—
1999	6	6	—	—	—	—	—
2000	6	6	—	—	—	—	—
2001	4	3	1	—	—	—	—
2002	6	3	—	—	—	3	—
2003	1	1	—	—	—	—	—
2004	3						
January-March		2	—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		1	—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—	—
2005	0						
January-March		—	—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**253**	**245**	**2**	**—**	**2**	**4**	**—**

Incident Type

Time Period	Total	Hostile Act	Illness	Accident	Self-Inflicted	Other[b]
1978–1998	227	82	42	93	10	—
1999	6	1	2	2	—	1
2000	6	—	—	5	—	1
2001	4	—	2	2	—	—
2002	6	—	3	3	—	—
2003	1	—	1	—	—	—
2004	3					
January-March		—	—	2	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—
2005	0					
January-March		—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**253**	**83**	**50**	**108**	**10**	**2**

Source: DPKO Situation Centre.
Notes: Discrepancies may exist between these data and those available at the DPI DPKO website, as the DPI DPKO website is still under review and may contain omissions or errors.
a. "Other" refers to consultants, UNVs, etc.
b. Incident type is unknown, uncertain, or under investigation.

UNIFIL Vehicles: 30 August 2005

Contingent Owned Vehicles		UN Owned Vehicles	
Vehicle Type	Quantity	Vehicle Type	Quantity
Aircraft/Airfield Support Equipment	7	4x4 Vehicles	372
Combat Vehicles	5	Airfield Support	1
Engineering Vehicles	16	Ambulances	19
Support Vehicles (Commerical Pattern)	1	Armored Personnel Carriers	45
Support Vehicles (Military Pattern)	43	Automobiles	7
Trailers	18	Buses	56
		Engineering Vehicles	17
		Material Handling Equipment	32
		Oversnows	2
		Trucks	145
Total	**90**		**696**

Source: DPI (DPKO website).
Note: Military headquarter staff and staff officers not included.

UNIFIL Aircraft: 30 August 2005

	Commerical	Gov't
Fixed Wing Aircraft	—	—
Helicopters	—	4 (Italy)
Total	**—**	**4**

Source: DPKO Air Transport Section.

UNIFIL Mission Expenditures: July 1999–June 2004 (in thousands of US dollars)					
Category	Jul 99– Jun 00	Jul 00– Jun 01	Jul 01– Jun 02	Jul 02– Jun 03	Jul 03– Jun 04
Military and police personnel	79,878.3	112,944.0	69,170.0	51,098.7	40,465.1
Civilian personnel	24,845.2	30,073.2	29,674.0	34,835.0	30,673.5
Operational requirements	35,876.2	33,855.3	32,067.0	21,663.0	18,757.4
Other	8,876.0	6,938.5	—	—	—
Gross requirements	**149,475.7**	**183,811.0**	**130,911.0**	**107,596.7**	**89,896.0**
Staff assessment income	3,329.6	4,752.1	4,231.8	4,520.2	4,340.3
Net requirements	**146,146.1**	**179,058.9**	**126,679.2**	**103,076.5**	**85,555.7**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	135.0	180.0	201.2	—	—
Total requirements	**149,610.7**	**183,991.0**	**131,112.2**	**107,596.7**	**89,896.0**

Sources: UN Documents A/55/757, A/56/822, A/57/662, A/58/637, A/59/626.

UNIFIL Financial Performance: July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)				
Category	Approved	Actual	Variance	Variance %
Military observers	—	—	—	—
Military contingents	40,637.0	40,509.1	127.9	0.3
Civilian police	—	—	—	—
Formed police units	—	—	—	—
International staff	18,099.5	17,069.4	1,030.1	5.7
National staff	13,847.1	13,382.6	464.5	3.4
United Nations Volunteers	—	—	—	—
General temporary assistance	48.0	30.7	17.3	36.1
Government-provided personnel	—	—	—	—
Civilian electoral observers	—	—	—	—√
Consultants	—	—	—	—
Official travel	376.1	312.1	64.0	17.0
Facilities and infrastructure	7,264.5	7,224.4	40.1	0.6
Ground transportation	5,485.0	4,028.7	1,456.3	26.6
Air transportation	1,521.6	1,635.6	(114.0)	(7.5)
Naval transportation	—	—	—	—
Communications and IT	2,587.4	2,551.1	36.3	0.3
Supplies, services and equipment	3,094.1	2,510.7	583.4	47.6
Quick-impact projects	—	—	—	—
Gross requirements	**92,960.3**	**89,254.4**	**3,705.9**	**4.0**
Staff assessment income	4,685.4	4,162.7	522.7	11.2
Net requirements	**88,274.9**	**85,091.6**	**3,183.3**	**3.6**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	—	—	—	—
Total requirements	**92,960.3**	**89,254.4**	**3,705.9**	**4.0**

Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNIFIL Expenditure Summary: July 2004–June 2005

Civilian Personnel
34%

Operational Costs
22%

Military and
Police Personnel
44%
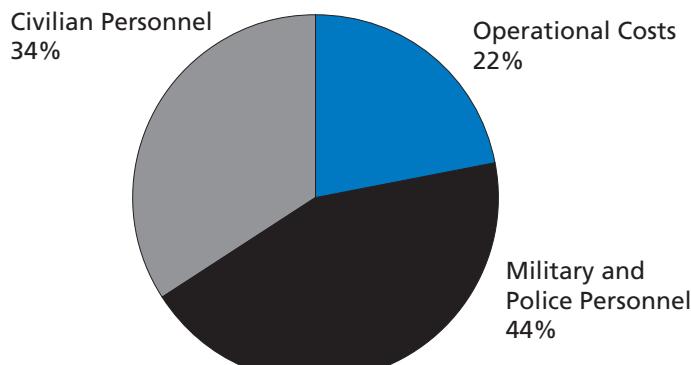
Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNIFIL Expenditures on Contingent Owned Equipment: July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)

Major equipment	2,603.0
Self-sustainment	1,576.6

Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNIFIL Voluntary Contributors

Contributor	Contributions in kind (budgeted)	Contributions in kind (non-budgeted)	Contributions in cash (budgeted)	Total
None	—	—	—	—

Source: Accounts Division, OPPBA.

UNFICYP Key Facts	
Latest mandates	14 December 2005 (date of issue and effect)
	UNSC Res. 1642 (six-month duration)
	15 June 2005 (date of issue), 17 June 2005 (date of effect)
	UNSC Res. 1604 (six-month duration)
	22 October 2004 (date of issue), 15 December 2004
	(date of effect)
	UNSC Res. 1568 (six-month duration)
First mandate	4 March 1964 (date of issue and effect)
	UNSC Res. 186 (three-month duration)
SRSG	Michael Møller (Denmark)
	SG letter of appointment: 10 September 2005;
	effective 1 January 2006
First SRSG	Carlos Alfredo Bernardes (Brazil)
Force commander	Major-General Herbert Joaquin Figoli Almandos (Uruguay)
	Entry on duty: 16 December 2003
First force commander	Lieutenant-General P. S. Gyani (India)

UNFICYP Personnel: Since 1999
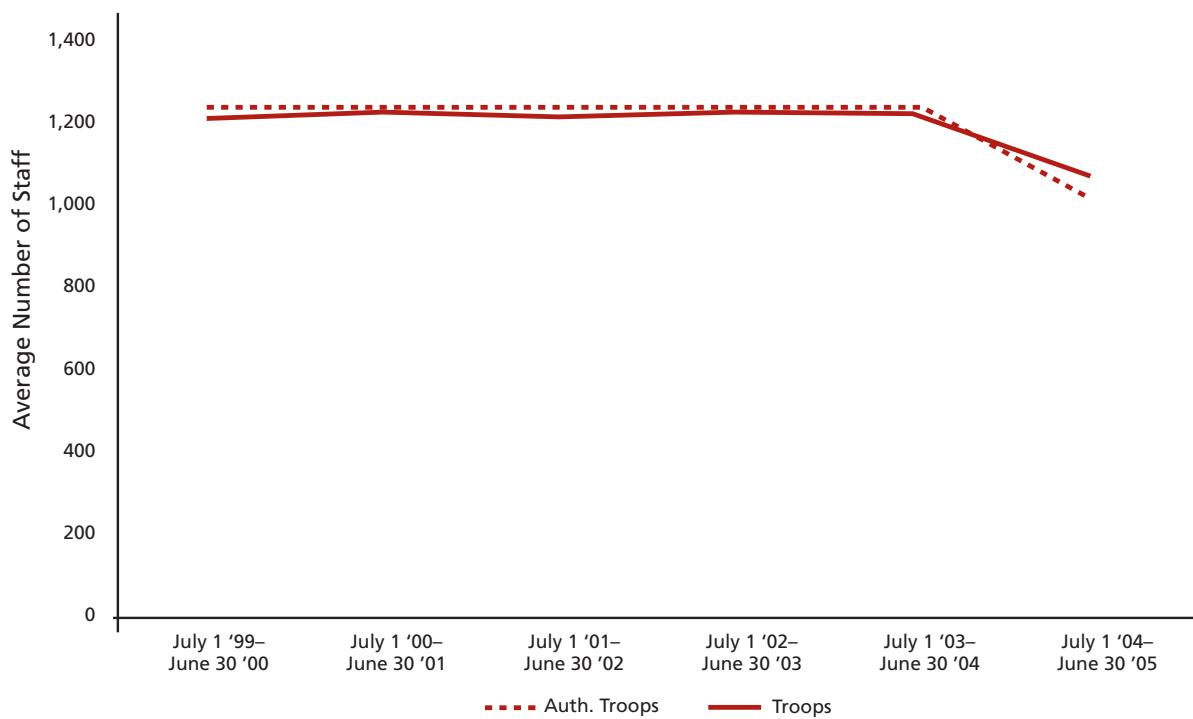
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UNFICYP Personnel: Since 1999 continued
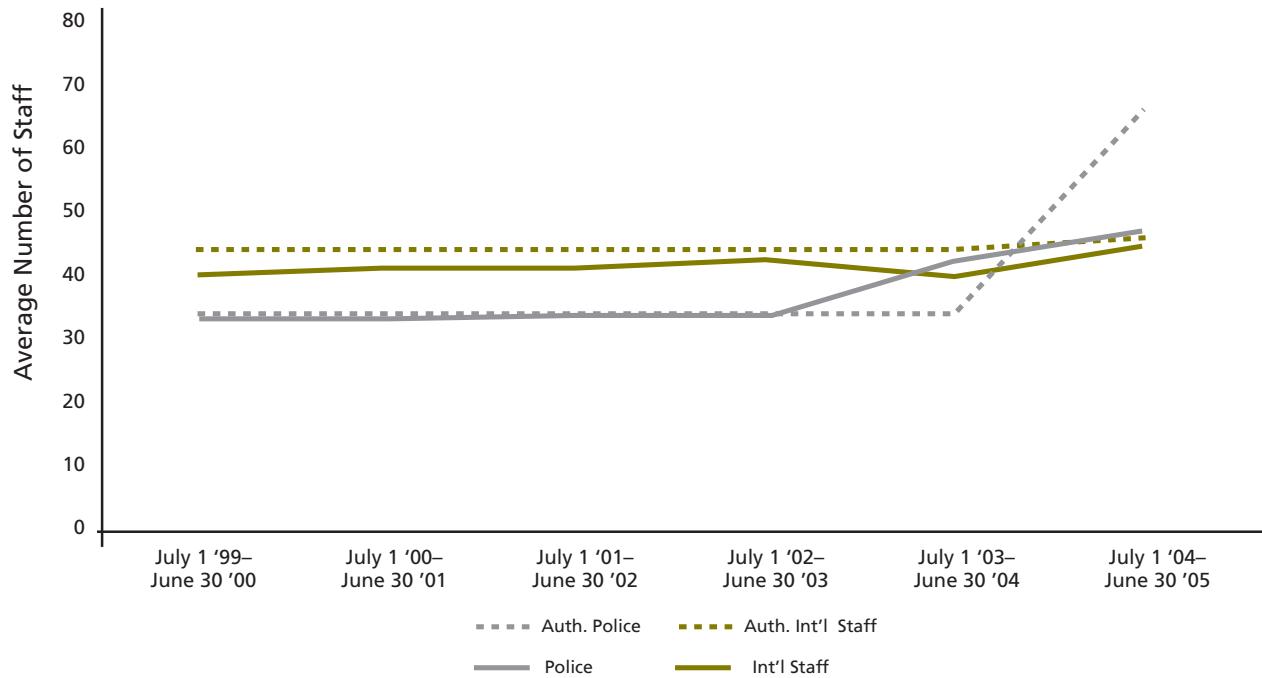
Sources: UN Documents A/55/739, A/56/782, A/57/667, A/58/631, A/59/620; PKD; DPI (DPKO website).

UNFICYP Personnel: July 2004–September 2005

UNFICYP Personnel: July 2004–September 2005 continued
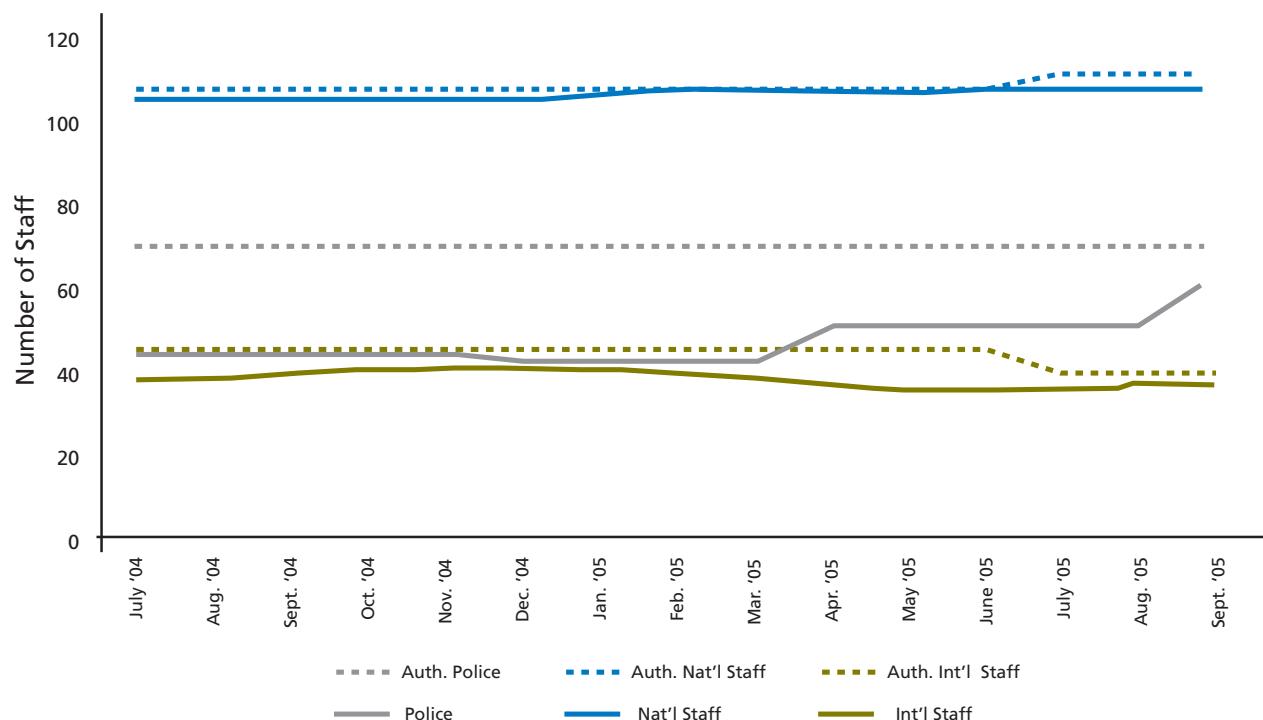
Sources: DPI (DPKO website); PKD.

UNFICYP Military and Police Contributors: 30 August 2005

Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total
Argentina	297	—	4	301
United Kingdom	272	—	—	272
Slovakia	204	—	—	204
Hungary	83	—	—	83
Ireland	—	—	18	18
Australia	—	—	15	15
India	—	—	7	7
Austria	5	—	—	5
Netherlands	—	—	5	5
Croatia	—	—	2	2
Canada	1	—	—	1
Uruguay	1	—	—	1
TOTAL	**863**	**—**	**51**	**914**

Source: DPI (DPKO website).

UNFICYP Military Units: 30 August 2005

Number	Unit Type	Countries
1	Aviation Unit	Argentina
1	Force Engineers Unit	Slovakia
1	Force Military Police Unit	Argentina-Hungary-Slovakia-United Kingdom Composite
3	Infantry Units	Argentina, Hungary-Slovakia Composite, United Kingdom
1	Mobile Force Reserve Unit	Argentina-Hungary-Slovakia-United Kingdom Composite

Source: DPI (DPKO website).
Note: Military headquarter staff and staff officers not included.

UNFICYP Civilian Staff: 30 June 2005

Type	Percentage Staff
Political and Civil Affairs	7%
Humanitarian Affairs and Development	0%
Administration and Mission Support	93%

Source: DPKO PMSS.

UNFICYP Fatalities: Inception–October 2005							

			Appointment Type				
Time Period	Total	Troop	MilOb	Police	Intl Staff	Natl Staff	Other[a]
1964–1998	168	162	—	3	3	—	—
1999	1	1	—	—	—	—	—
2000	1	1	—	—	—	—	—
2001	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2002	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2003	2	2	—	—	—	—	—
2004	2						
January-March		—	—	—	—	—	—
April-June		1	—	—	—	1	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—	—
2005	1						
January-March		—	—	—	1	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**175**	**167**	**—**	**3**	**4**	**1**	**—**

			Incident Type			
Time Period	Total	Hostile Act	Illness	Accident	Self-Inflicted	Other[b]
1964–1998	168	15	40	91	20	2
1999	1	—	1	—	—	—
2000	1	—	—	—	—	1
2001	0	—	—	—	—	—
2002	0	—	—	—	—	—
2003	2	—	—	2	—	—
2004	2					
January-March		—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	2	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—
2005	1					
January-March		—	1	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**175**	**15**	**42**	**95**	**20**	**3**

Source: DPKO Situation Centre.
Notes: Discrepancies may exist between these data and those available at the DPI DPKO website, as the DPI DPKO website is still under review and may contain omissions or errors.
  a. "Other" refers to consultants, UNVs, etc.
  b. Incident type is unknown, uncertain, or under investigation.

UNFICYP Vehicles: 30 August 2005

Contingent Owned Vehicles		UN Owned Vehicles	
Vehicle Type	Quantity	Vehicle Type	Quantity
Combat Vehicles	9	4x4 Vehicles	9
Engineering Vehicles	4	Airfield Support	1
Material Handling Equipment	1	Ambulances	2
Support Vehicles (Commercial Pattern)	4	Engineering Vehicles	13
Support Vehicles (Military Pattern)	22	Material Handling Equipment	6
Trailers	6	Trucks	27
Total	**46**		**58**

Sources: DPKO Surface Transport Section; DPKO Contingent Owned Equipment and Property Management Section.

UNFICYP Aircraft: 30 August 2005

	Commerical	Gov't
Fixed Wing Aircraft	—	—
Helicopters	—	2 (Argentina)
Total	**—**	**2**

Source: DPKO Air Transport Section.

UNFICYP Mission Expenditures: **July 1999–June 2004 (in thousands of US dollars)**					
Category	Jul 99– Jun 00	Jul 00– Jun 01	Jul 01– Jun 02	Jul 02– Jun 03	Jul 03– Jun 04
Military and police personnel	22,453.7	22,150.2	20,169.2	22,583.1	22,980.3
Civilian personnel	11,533.2	10,233.1	8,678.4	10,016.0	11,410.4
Operational requirements	8,360.6	7,887.2	11,440.8	11,045.0	11,073.5
Other	2,760.0	2,090.0	—	—	—
Gross requirements	**45,107.5**	**42,360.5**	**40,288.4**	**43,644.1**	**45,464.2**
Staff assessment income	1,719.1	1,914.7	1,489.0	1,721.7	1,865.3
Net requirements	**43,388.4**	**40,445.8**	**38,799.4**	**41,922.4**	**43,598.9**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	—	—	1,356.1	1,271.2	1,707.1
Total requirements	**45,107.5**	**42,360.5**	**41,644.5**	**44,915.3**	**47,171.3**

Sources: UN Documents A/55/739, A/56/782, A/57/667, A/58/631, A/59/620.

UNFICYP Financial Performance: **July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)**				
Category	Approved	Actual	Variance	Variance %
Military observers	—	—	—	—
Military contingents	23,034.7	21,016.3	2,018.4	8.8
Civilian police	444.7	669.2	(224.5)	(50.5)
Formed police units	—	—	—	—
International staff	6,505.3	6,133.9	371.4	5.7
National staff	5,343.1	6,028.7	(685.6)	(12.8)
United Nations Volunteers	—	—	—	—
General temporary assistance	50.0	124.6	(74.6)	(149.1)
Government-provided personnel	—	—	—	—
Civilian electoral observers	—	—	—	—
Consultants	—	—	—	—
Official travel	233.9	197.5	36.4	15.6
Facilities and infrastructure	7,897.7	8,289.2	(391.5)	(5.0)
Ground transportation	2,003.0	2,300.7	(297.7)	(14.9)
Air transportation	1,497.9	1,457.6	40.3	2.7
Naval transportation	—	—	—	—
Communications and IT	1,699.8	1,662.2	37.6	3.8
Supplies, services and equipment	707.2	745.3	(38.1)	36.6
Quick-impact projects	—	—	—	—
Gross requirements	**49,417.3**	**48,625.0**	**792.3**	**1.6**
Staff assessment income	2,323.8	1,984.8	339.0	14.6
Net requirements	**47,093.5**	**46,640.2**	**453.3**	**1.0**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	1,274.4	1,355.8	(81.4)	(6.4)
Total requirements	**50,691.7**	**50,205.9**	**485.7**	**1.0**

Source: DPKO FMSS.
Note: A total of $23.45 million in voluntary contributions in cash were received for UNFICYP for the July 2004–June 2005 financial year. Source PFD.

UNFICYP Expenditure Summary: July 2004–June 2005

Civilian Personnel
24%

Operational Costs
29%

Military and
Police Personnel
47%
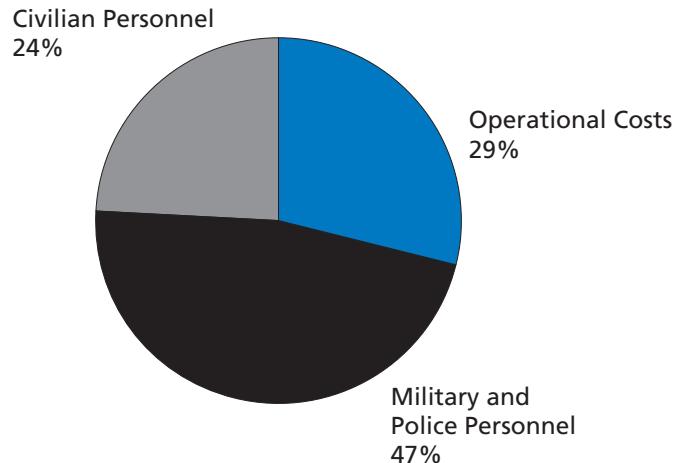
Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNFICYP Expenditures on Contingent Owned Equipment: July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)

Major equipment	1,462.9
Self-sustainment	290.7

Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNFICYP Voluntary Contributors (contributions in thousands of US dollars)

Contributor	Contributions in kind (budgeted)	Contributions in kind (non-budgeted)	Contributions in cash (budgeted)	Total
Cyprus	1,343	—	16,946	18,289
Greece	—	—	6,500	6,500
United Kingdom	13	—	—	13
Total	**1,356**	**—**	**23,446**	**24,802**

Source: Accounts Division, OPPBA.

7.16 UNDOF (UN Disengagement Observer Force)

UNDOF Key Facts	
Latest mandates	21 December 2005 (date of issue); 1 January 2006 (date of effect) UNSC Res. 1648 (six-month duration) 17 June 2005 (date of issue); 1 July 2005 (date of effect) UNSC Res. 1605 (six-month duration) 15 December 2004 (date of issue); 1 July 2005 (date of effect) UNSC Res. 1578 (six-month duration)
First mandate	31 May 1974 (date of issue and effect) UNSC Res. 350 (six-month duration)
Force commander	Major-General Bala Nanda Sharma (Nepal) SG letter of appointment: 18 January 2004
First force commander	Brigadier-General Gonzalo Briceno Zevallos (Peru)

UNDOF Personnel: Since 1999

Average Number of Staff

- - - - Auth. Troops ——— Troops

UNDOF Personnel: Since 1999 continued

Sources: UN Documents A/55/747, A/56/813, A/57/668, A/58/641, A/59/625; PKD; DPI (DPKO website).

UNDOF Personnel: July 2004–September 2005
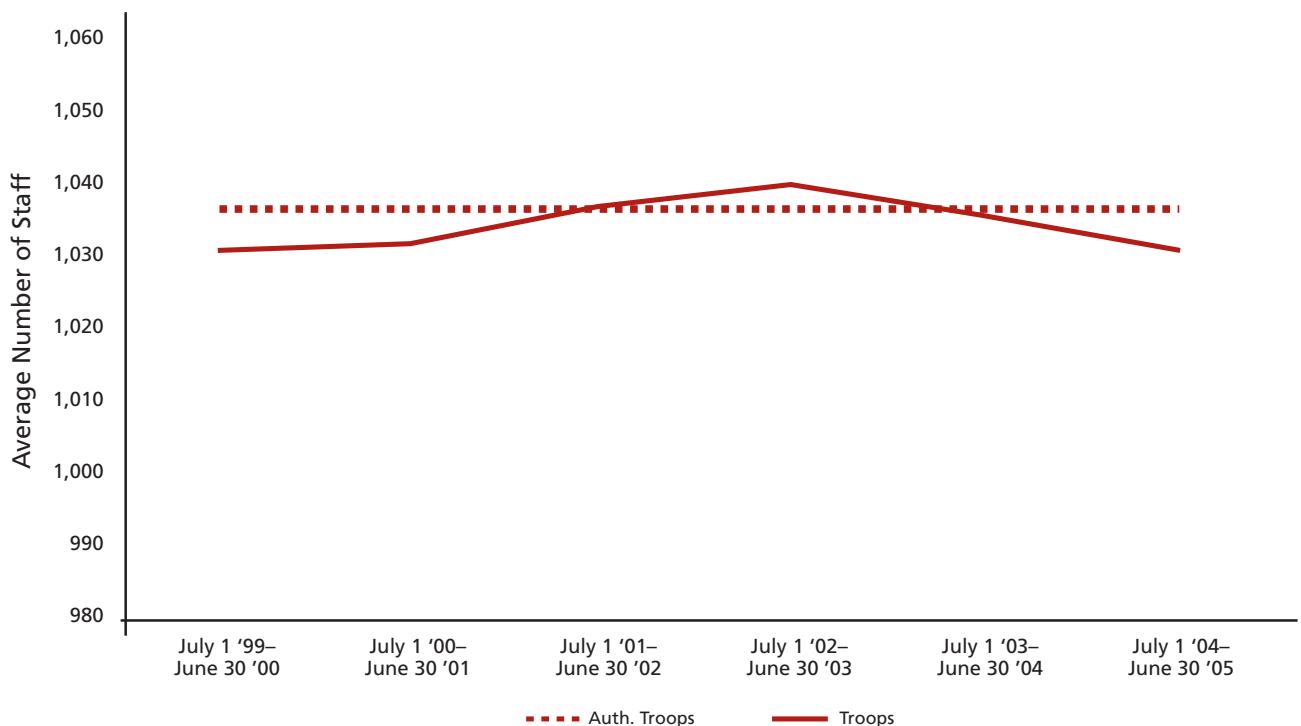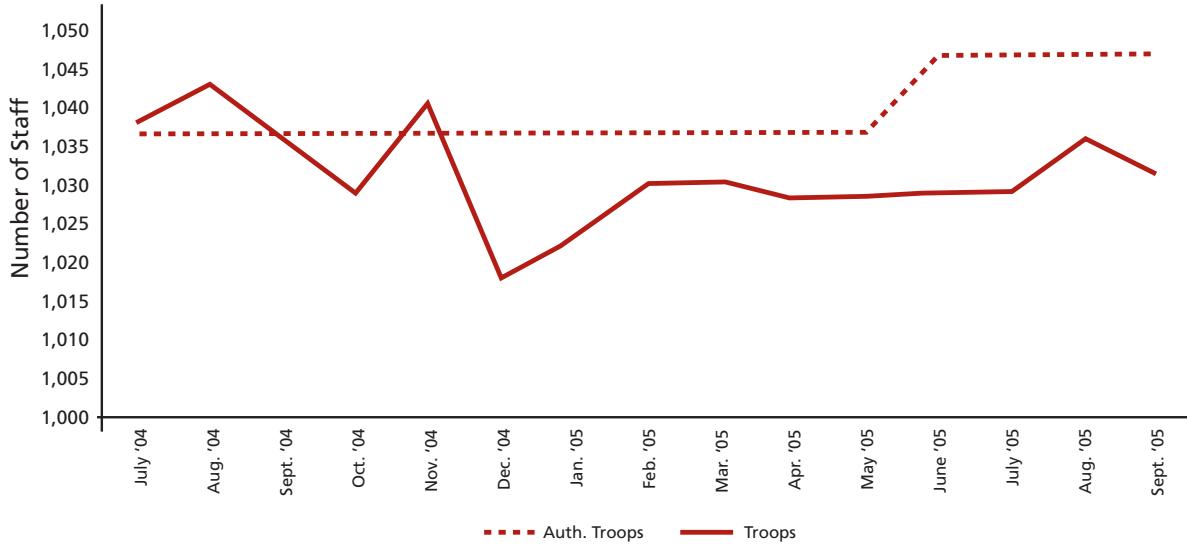
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UNDOF Personnel: July 2004–September 2005 continued
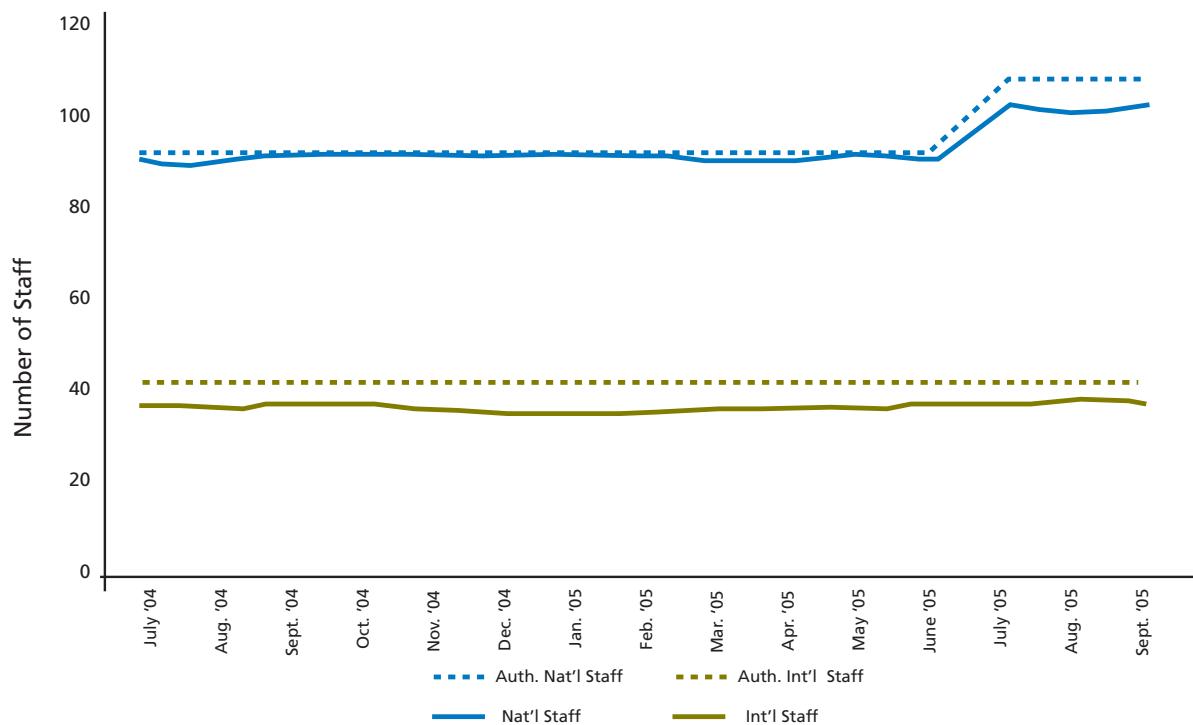
Sources: DPI (DPKO website); PKD; DPKO PMSS.

UNDOF Military and Police Contributors: 30 August 2005

Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total
Austria	375	—	—	375
Poland	342	—	—	342
Canada	191	—	—	191
Slovakia	95	—	—	95
Japan	30	—	—	30
Nepal	3	—	—	3
TOTAL	**1,036**	—	—	**1,036**

Source: DPI (DPKO website).

UNDOF Military Units: 30 August 2005

Number	Unit Type	Country
2	Infantry Battalions	Australia-Slovakia Composite, Poland
1	Logistics Battalion	Canada-Japan Composite

Source: DPI (DPKO website).
Note: Military headquarter staff not included.

UNDOF Civilian Staff: 30 June 2005

Type	Percentage Staff
Political and Civil Affairs	1%
Humanitarian Affairs and Development	0%
Administration and Mission Support	99%

Source: DPKO PMSS.

UNDOF Fatalities: Inception–October 2005						
	Appointment Type					
Time Period	Total	Troop	MilOb	Police	Intl Staff	Natl Staff	Other[a]
1974–1998	40	38	—	—	—	2	—
1999	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2000	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2001	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2002	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2003	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2004	0						
January-March		—	—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—	—
2005	1						
January-March		—	—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		1	—	—	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**41**	**39**	**—**	**—**	**—**	**2**	**—**

	Incident Type					
Time Period	Total	Hostile Act	Illness	Accident	Self-Inflicted	Other[b]
1974–1998	40	7	6	20	7	—
1999	0	—	—	—	—	—
2000	0	—	—	—	—	—
2001	0	—	—	—	—	—
2002	0	—	—	—	—	—
2003	0	—	—	—	—	—
2004	0					
January-March		—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—
2005	1					
January-March		—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	1	—
October		—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**41**	**7**	**6**	**20**	**8**	**—**

Source: DPKO Situation Centre.
Notes: Discrepancies may exist between these data and those available at the DPI DPKO website, as the DPI DPKO website is still under review and may contain omissions or errors.
    a. "Other" refers to consultants, UNVs, etc.
    b. Incident type is unknown, uncertain, or under investigation.

UNDOF Vehicles: 30 August 2005			
Contingent Owned Vehicles		**UN Owned Vehicles**	
Vehicle Type	Quantity	Vehicle Type	Quantity
Engineering Vehicle	1	4x4 Vehicles	226
Excavator	1	Ambulances	9
Material Handling Equipment	1	Armored Personnel Carriers	18
Support Vehicles (Commercial Pattern)	10	Automobiles	1
Support Vehicles (Military Pattern)	1	Buses	51
Trailers	1	Engineering Vehicles	6
		Material Handling Equipment	9
		Oversnows	3
		Trucks	59
Total	**15**		**382**

Sources: DPKO Surface Transport Section; DPKO Contingent Owned Equipment and Property Management Section.

UNDOF Mission Expenditures: July 1999–June 2004 (in thousands of US dollars)					
Category	Jul 99– Jun 00[a]	Jul 00– Jun 01	Jul 01– Jun 02	Jul 02– Jun 03	Jul 03– Jun 04
Military and police personnel	19,410.2	19,335.2	16,959.4	19,309.3	18,745.6
Civilian personnel	5,635.2	6,219.6	6,348.7	6,892.7	7,597.2
Operational requirements	7,877.2	9,046.8	11,114.8	12,773.7	13,401.0
Other	2,103.8	1,798.7	—	—	—
Gross requirements	**35,026.4**	**36,400.3**	**34,422.9**	**38,975.7**	**39,743.8**
Staff assessment income	705.7	1,131.6	958.2	1,006.4	1,087.2
Net requirements	**34,320.7**	**35,268.7**	**33,464.7**	**37,969.3**	**38,656.6**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	—	—	—	—	—
Total requirements	**35,026.4**	**36,400.3**	**34,422.9**	**38,975.7**	**39,743.8**

Sources: UN Documents A/55/747, A/56/813, A/57/668, A/58/641, A/59/625.

Note: a. 1999–2000 UNDOF total expenditures differ from official financial performance report A/55/747. The above figures calculate total expenditures by summing gross requirements and budgeted voluntary contributions in kind, as per future UNDOF performance reports as well as 1999–2005 financial reports for all other missions funded by the peacekeeping budget. In A/55/747, total expenditures were calculated by summing net requirements and voluntary contributions.

2000–2001 total requirement figures above differ from official financial performance report A/56/813 due to the exclusion of non-budgeted voluntary contributions in kind of $400,000, which were included in summary financial statements in 1999–2000 and 2000–2001. For the sake of consistency with later years, non-budgeted contributions in kind are excluded from the historical expenditure tables.

				Variance
Category	Approved	Actual	Variance	%
Military observers	—	—	—	—
Military contingents	19,326.8	19,397.8	(71.0)	(0.4)
Civilian police	—	—	—	—
Formed police units	—	—	—	—
International staff	6,825.1	5,287.6	1,537.5	22.5
National staff	1,853.0	1,878.5	(25.5)	(1.4)
United Nations Volunteers	—	—	—	—
General temporary assistance	193.9	224.3	(30.4)	(15.7)
Government-provided personnel	—	—	—	—
Civilian electoral observers	—	—	—	—
Consultants	—	—	—	—
Official travel	300.7	217.8	82.9	27.6
Facilities and infrastructure	5,573.9	6,564.4	(990.5)	(17.8)
Ground transportation	2,986.5	3,507.4	(520.9)	(17.4)
Air transportation	—	—	—	—
Naval transportation	—	—	—	—
Communications and IT	2,728.4	2,768.8	(40.4)	(7.2)
Supplies, services and equipment	1,113.8	973.3	140.5	61.8
Quick-impact projects	—	—	—	—
Gross requirements	**40,902.1**	**40,819.9**	**82.2**	**0.2**
Staff assessment income	1,175.4	1,073.9	101.5	8.6
Net requirements	**39,726.7**	**39,746.0**	**(19.3)**	**(0.0)**
Voluntary contributions in kind (budgeted)	—	—	—	—
Total requirements	**40,902.1**	**40,819.9**	**82.2**	**0.2**

**UNDOF Financial Performance:
July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)**

Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNDOF Expenditure Summary: July 2004–June 2005

Civilian Personnel
21%

Operational Costs
32%

Military and
Police Personnel
47%
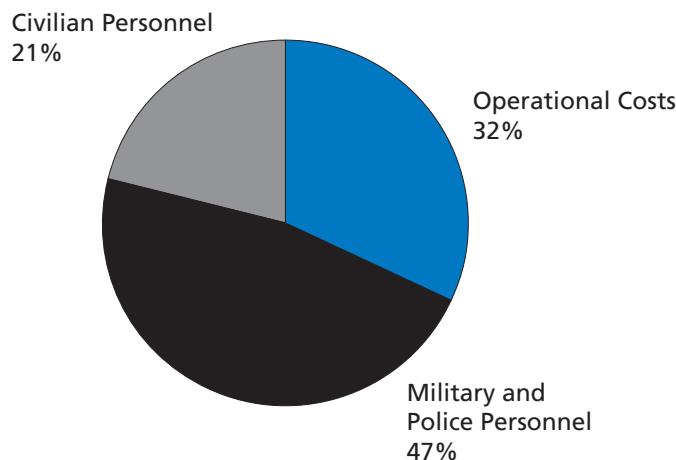
Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNDOF Expenditures on Contingent Owned Equipment: July 2004–June 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)

Major equipment	289.2
Self-sustainment	466.8

Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNDOF Voluntary Contributors

Contributor	Contributions in kind (budgeted)	Contributions in kind (non-budgeted)	Contributions in cash (budgeted)	Total
None	—	—	—	—

Source: Accounts Division, OPPBA.

7.17 UNMOGIP (UN Military Observer Group in India and Pakistan)

UNMOGIP Key Facts	
Latest mandates	21 December 1971 (date of issue and effect)
	UNSC Res. 307
First mandate	1 January 1949
Chief military observer	Major-General Dragutin Repinc
	SG letter of appointment: 2 December 2005
First chief military observer	Brigadier H. H. Angle (Canada)

UNMOGIP Personnel: Since 1999
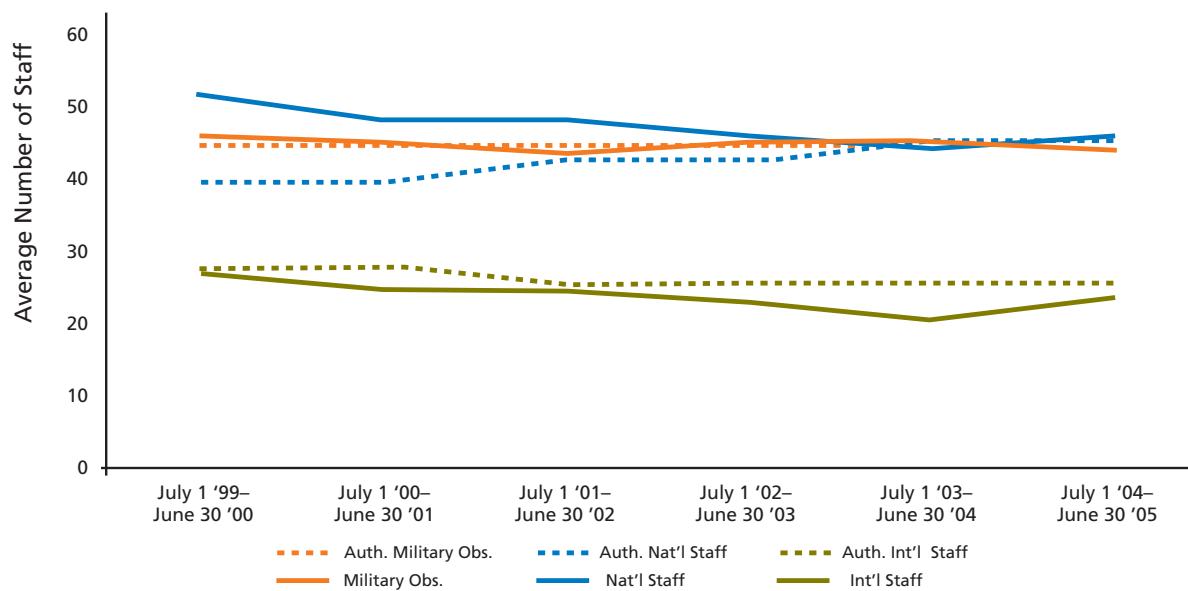
Sources: UN Documents A/54/6 (Sect.5), A/56/6 (Sect.5), A/58/6 (Sect.5), A/60/6 (Sect.5); DPKO FGS; DPI (DPKO website).

UNMOGIP Personnel: July 2004–September 2005
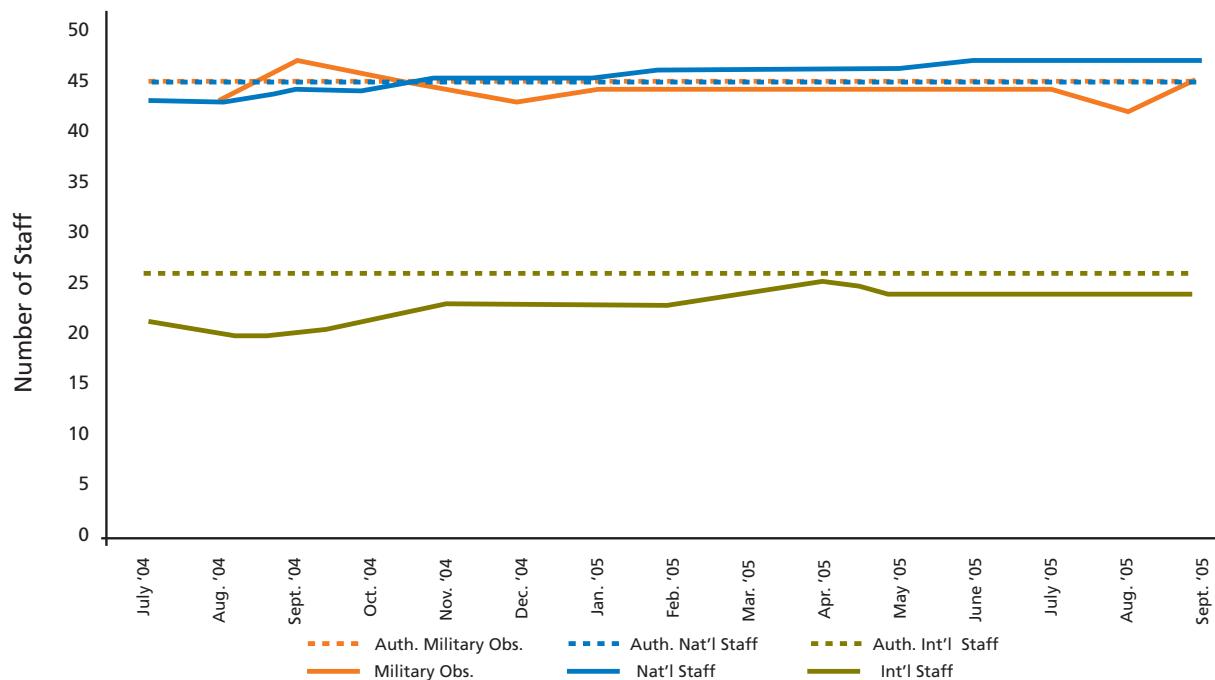
Sources: UN Document A/60/6 (Sect.5); DPKO FGS; DPKO PMSS, DPI (DPKO website).

UNMOGIP Military and Police Contributors: 30 August 2005

Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total
Republic of Korea	—	9	—	9
Italy	—	7	—	7
Croatia	—	6	—	6
Sweden	—	6	—	6
Denmark	—	5	—	5
Finland	—	5	—	5
Chile	—	2	—	2
Belgium	—	1	—	1
Uruguay	—	1	—	1
TOTAL	**—**	**42**	**—**	**42**

Source: DPKO FGS.

UNMOGIP Civilian Staff: 30 August 2005

Type	Percentage Staff
Political and Civil Affairs	3%
Humanitarian Affairs and Development	0%
Administration and Mission Support	97%

Source: DPKO PMSS.

UNMOGIP Fatalities: Inception–October 2005

		Appointment Type					
Time Period	Total	Troop	MilOb	Police	Intl Staff	Natl Staff	Other[a]
1949–1998	9	5	1	—	1	2	—
1999	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2000	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2001	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2002	1	—	—	—	—	1	—
2003	0						
2004	0						
January-March		—	—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—	—
2005	1						
January-March		—	—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	1	—	—
Total Fatalities	**11**	**5**	**1**	**—**	**2**	**3**	**—**

UNMOGIP Fatalities: Inception–October 2005 continued

Time Period	Total	Hostile Act	Illness	Accident	Self-Inflicted	Other[b]
			Incident Type			
1949–1998	9	—	1	8	—	—
1999	0	—	—	—	—	—
2000	0	—	—	—	—	—
2001	0	—	—	—	—	—
2002	1	—	1	—	—	—
2003	0					
2004	0					
January-March		—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	—	—
2005	1					
January-March		—	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	1
Total Fatalities	**11**	**—**	**2**	**8**	**—**	**1**

Source: DPKO Situation Centre.

Notes: Discrepancies may exist between these data and those available at the DPI DPKO website, as the DPI DPKO website is still under review and may contain omissions or errors.

a. "Other" refers to consultants, UNVs, etc.

b. Incident type is unknown, uncertain, or under investigation.

UNMOGIP Vehicles: 30 August 2005

UN Owned Vehicles

Vehicle Type	Quantity
4x4 On-Off Road	35
Ambulance	1
Automobiles	3
Buses	12
Material Handling Equipment	1
Trucks	2
Total	**54**

Source: DPKO Surface Transport Section.

**UNMOGIP Mission Expenditures:
January 2000–December 2003 (in thousands of US dollars)**

Category	Jan 00–Dec 01	Jan 02–Dec 03
Posts	5,574.1	6,370.9
Other staff costs	1,593.5	1,983.8
Travel of staff	865.9	1,247.5
Contractual services	—	38.9
General operating expenses	1,772.6	1,174.3
Hospitality	2.3	2.5
Supplies & materials	1,022.4	800.1
Furniture & equipment	1,332.0	1,107.6
Total requirements	**12,162.8**	**12,725.6**

Source: DPKO FMSS.

**UNMOGIP Appropriations:
January 2004–December 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)**

Category	2004–2005 Appropriation
Posts	7,107.3
Other staff costs	2,696.1
Travel of staff	1,028.6
Contractual services	—
General operating expenses	2,838.9
Hospitality	2.3
Supplies & materials	884.0
Furniture & equipment	2,204.5
Grants & contributions	—
Total	**16,761.7**

Source: DPKO FMSS.

UNTSO (UN Truce Supervision Organization)

UNTSO Key Facts	
Latest mandates	23 October 1973 (date of issue and effect) UNSC Res. 339 (to continue thereafter, until the Security Council decides otherwise)
First mandate	29 May 1948 (date of issue and effect) UNSC Res. 50 (no duration determined)
Chief of staff	Brigadier-General Clive Lilley (New Zealand) SG letter of appointment: 5 October 2004; effective 5 November 2004
First chief of staff	Lieutenant-General Count Thord Bonde (Sweden)

UNTSO Personnel: Since 1999
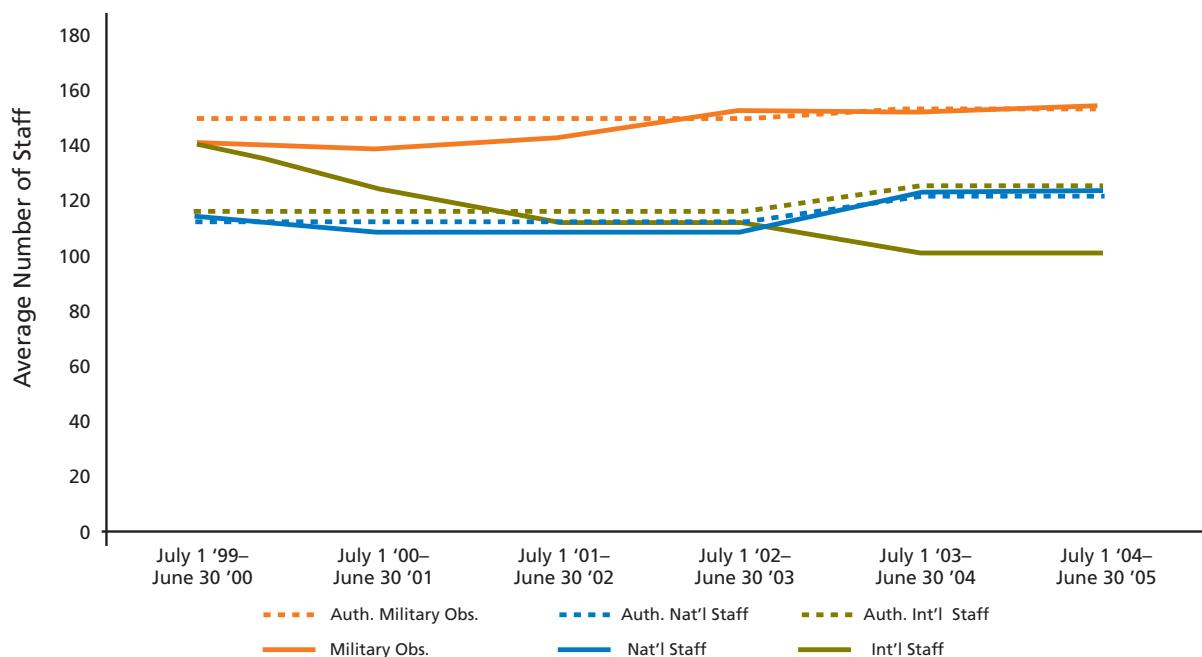
Sources: UN Documents A/54/6 (Sect.5), A/56/6 (Sect.5), A/58/6 (Sect.5), A/60/6 (Sect.5); DPKO FGS; DPI (DPKO website).

UNTSO Personnel: July 2004–September 2005

Number of Staff

180

160

140

120

100

80

60

40

20

0

July '04 · Aug. '04 · Sept. '04 · Oct. '04 · Nov. '04 · Dec. '04 · Jan. '05 · Feb. '05 · Mar. '05 · Apr. '05 · May '05 · June '05 · July '05 · Aug. '05 · Sept. '05

- - - - Auth. Military Obs.   - - - - Auth. Nat'l Staff   - - - - Auth. Int'l Staff

——— Military Obs.   ——— Nat'l Staff   ——— Int'l Staff
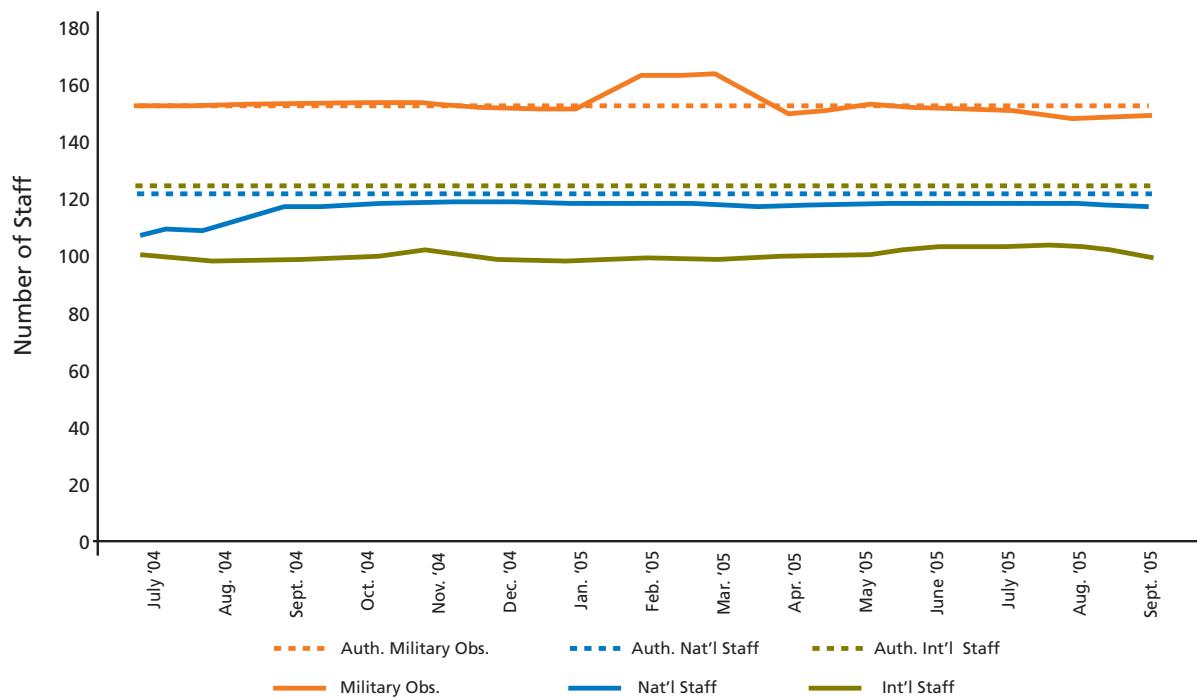
Sources: UN Document: A/60/6 (Sect.5); DPKO FGS; DPKO PMSS, DPI (DPKO website).

UNTSO Military and Police Contributors: 30 August 2005

Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total	Contributing Country	Troops	Military Observers	Police	Total
Finland	—	13	—	13	Belgium	—	4	—	4
Ireland	—	13	—	13	China	—	4	—	4
Australia	—	12	—	12	Russia	—	4	—	4
Norway	—	12	—	12	Argentina	—	3	—	3
Denmark	—	11	—	11	Chile	—	3	—	3
Netherlands	—	11	—	11	France	—	3	—	3
Switzerland	—	10	—	10	United States	—	3	—	3
Canada	—	8	—	8	Estonia	—	2	—	2
New Zealand	—	8	—	8	Nepal	—	2	—	2
Italy	—	7	—	7	Slovakia	—	2	—	2
Sweden	—	6	—	6	Slovenia	—	2	—	2
Austria	—	5	—	5	**TOTAL**	—	**148**	—	**148**

Source: DPI (DPKO website).

UNTSO Civilian Staff: 30 June 2005

Type	Percentage Staff
Political and Civil Affairs	1%
Humanitarian Affairs and Development	1%
Administration and Mission Support	98%

Source: DPKO PMSS.

UNTSO Fatalities: Inception–October 2005

		Appointment Type				
Time Period	Total	Troop	MilOb	Police	Intl Staff	Natl Staff	Other[a]
1948–1998	38	17	12	—	5	4	—
1999	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2000	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2001	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2002	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
2003	1	—	—	—	—	1	—
2004	2						
January-March		—	1	—	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	—	—	1	—	—
2005	2						
January-March		—	1	—	1	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**43**	**17**	**14**	**—**	**7**	**5**	**—**

		Incident Type				
Time Period	Total	Hostile Act	Illness	Accident	Self-Inflicted	Other[b]
1948–1998	38	24	5	8	1	—
1999	0	—	—	—	—	—
2000	0	—	—	—	—	—
2001	0	—	—	—	—	—
2002	0	—	—	—	—	—
2003	1	—	1	—	—	—
2004	2					
January-March		—	—	—	—	1
April-June		—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—
October-December		—	1	—	—	—
2005	2					
January-March		1	1	—	—	—
April-June		—	—	—	—	—
July-September		—	—	—	—	—
October		—	—	—	—	—
Total Fatalities	**43**	**25**	**8**	**8**	**1**	**1**

Source: DPKO Situation Centre.
Notes: Discrepancies may exist between these data and those available on the DPI DPKO website, as the DPI DPKO website is still under review and may contain omissions or errors.
a. "Other" refers to consultants, UNVs, etc.
b. Incident type is unknown, uncertain, or under investigation.

UNTSO Vehicles: 30 August 2005

UN Owned Vehicles

Vehicle Type	Quantity
4x4 On-Off Road	131
Automobiles	11
Buses	24
Material Handling Equipment	3
Trucks	15
Total	**184**

Source: DPKO Surface Transport Section.

**UNTSO Mission Expenditures:
January 2000–December 2003 (in thousands of US dollars)**

Category	Jan 00–Dec 01	Jan 02–Dec 03
Posts	30,532.2	31,679.1
Other staff costs	8,547.1	9,588.0
Travel of staff	1,793.3	2,658.2
Contractual services	—	49.5
General operating expenses	2,538.2	3,422.8
Hospitality	—	7.8
Supplies & materials	1,117.1	982.0
Furniture & equipment	1,614.5	1,498.4
Total requirements	**46,142.4**	**49,885.8**

Sources: A/58/6 (sect.5); DPKO FMSS.

UNTSO Appropriations: January 2004–December 2005 (in thousands of US dollars)	
Category	2004–2005 Appropriation
Posts	39,011.6
Other staff costs	9,774.1
Travel of staff	2,114.4
Contractual services	—
General operating expenses	4,226.9
Hospitality	9.7
Supplies & materials	1,030.7
Furniture & equipment	2,626.1
Grants & contributions	21.1
Total	**58,814.6**

Source: DPKO FMSS.

Index

About the Book

The world now spends close to $5 billion annually on United Nations peace operations staffed by more than 80,000 military and civilian personnel, and commitments to comparable operations outside the UN command structure are on an even greater scale. The *Annual Review of Global Peace Operations* is the first comprehensive source of information on this crucial topic, designed for students, scholars, and practitioners alike.

Unique in its breadth and depth of coverage, the *Review* presents the most detailed collection of data on peace operations, those launched by the UN, by regional organizations, by coalitions, and by individual nations, that is available. Features of the inaugural volume include:

- an introductory essay on peace operations doctrine
- incisive analyses of all peacekeeping missions on the ground in 2005 in-depth explorations of key missions and trends, focusing on those operations that have faced significant challenges or undergone major developments during the year
- extensive illustrative graphs, charts, tables, and photographs

The editorially independent *Review* has been launched by the Center on International Cooperation at New York University, with the support of the Peacekeeping Best Practices Section of the UN's Department of Peacekeeping Operations, and in cooperation with the International Peace Academy.