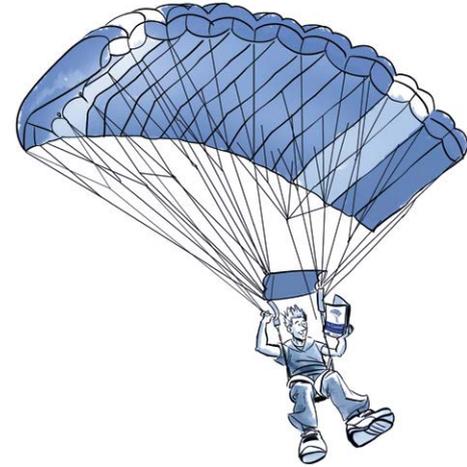


Embarking on a crisis management mission?

This handbook will accompany you the whole way into the mission and back home. It will serve you as an introduction to crisis management missions with hands-on information and practical advice for your everyday life and work in the field. This handbook offers a concise and handy overview and illustrates relevant concepts in clear and simple language - to help you stay 'in control' at all times.



A Practical Guide for Civilian Experts
Working in Crisis Management Missions



In Control

In Control

A Practical Guide for Civilian Experts
Working in Crisis Management Missions



This publication has been produced with the financial assistance of the European Union. The contents of this publication are the sole responsibility of the Center for International Peace Operations (ZIF) and its partners and can in no way be taken to reflect the views of the European Union.

www.entriforccm.eu





In Control

A Practical Guide for Civilian Experts Working in Crisis Management Missions



This publication was produced by the European capacity-building programme ENTRI (Europe's New Training Initiative for Civilian Crisis Management) and financed by the European Union through the Instrument for Stability.

Edited by Silva Lauffer, Sarah Degen-Heinemann,
Johannes Hamacher

Copyright © 2013 by the Center for International Peace
Operations (ZIF), Berlin – on behalf of ENTRI

Suggested citation:
ENTRI Handbook “In Control: A Practical Guide
for Civilian Experts Working in Crisis Manage-
ment Missions” (Berlin: Center for International
Peace Operations (ZIF), 2013)

Design gehret-design, Albert Gehret
www.gehret.com

Illustrations özi’s comix studio, Sebastian “Özi” Jenal
www.oezicomix.com

Photos p.26: UN Photo/Christopher Herwig •
p.27: Photo/J. Speidel • p.40: Photo/D. Peav-
oy, Irland • p.48: UN Photo/Marie Frechon •
p.56: UN Photo/Marco Dormino • p.59: UN
Photo/Igor Vasilev • p.70: Photo/J. Speidel •
p.77: UN Photo/Igor Vasilev • p.84: Photo/R.
Esmati • p.93: UN Photo/John Isaac

Print Königsdruck GmbH, Berlin

Contact Center for International Peace Operations (ZIF)
Ludwigkirchplatz 3-4
10719 Berlin
Germany

www.zif-berlin.org
www.entriforccm.eu

Foreword



Since the Treaty of Lisbon entered into force on 1 December 2009, the European Union's contribution to conflict prevention and crisis management has increased considerably. Europe is making an increasingly valuable contribution to peacebuilding worldwide.

To underline Europe's comprehensive approach to its crisis response operations around the world and EU support for the work of the UN and other key international players, I am delighted to introduce: *In Control – A Practical Guide for Civilian Experts Working in Crisis Management Missions*. This handbook has been produced under Europe's New Training Initiative for Civilian Crisis Management (ENTRi), a unique capacity-building programme that was created by the EU's Instrument for Stability.

The main focus of ENTRi lies on the preparation and training of civilians working in crisis management missions worldwide. Such missions include those of the European Union (EU), the United Nations (UN), the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) and the African Union (AU). ENTRi is an initiative funded by the European Commission and co-funded by its implementing partners from 13 different EU Member States.

So far, the EU has deployed 27 civilian and military missions and operations on three continents. The EU's ability to deploy external assistance, civilian, police and military instruments together is a particular strength, and one of the main features of its comprehensive approach to crisis response and management, as well as peacebuilding.

This Handbook, which is also available online, is intended to serve as an introduction to the nature of the work in peace operations and crisis management missions. It is not intended to provide strategic or policy guidance. Rather, it aims to provide field personnel

who are being deployed to a mission with practical information which we hope will prove useful for daily work in the field. The ENTRi team has tried to make this Handbook as concise and practical as possible, while also doing justice to the broad areas of work that many of our operations or those of our partners are engaged in.

Together with all my colleagues in the European External Action Service and the European Commission, I take this opportunity to wish the users of this Handbook all the very best as you embark on your new assignments.

Catherine Ashton

High Representative of the Union for
Foreign Affairs and Security Policy
Vice-President of the European Commission

Contents

Acknowledgements	16
-------------------------	----

Introduction	18
---------------------	----

Chapter 1 Situating yourself within the crisis management framework 22

A. What are the different types of missions?	23
1. Conflict prevention and mediation	24
2. Peace enforcement	24
3. Peacemaking	25
4. Peacekeeping	26
5. Monitoring	27
6. Peacebuilding	28
B. What are the major international organisations in the field?	29
1. The European Union (EU)	30
Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP)	32
Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP)	39
2. The United Nations (UN)	46
UN peace operations	48
Main structures of UN peace operations	52
3. Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE)	59
OSCE field operations	60
Main structures of OSCE field operations	62

4. The African Union (AU)	63
AU peace operations	64
AU structures for peace and security	65
5. The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)	68
Military instruments and missions	69
Non-military and inter-organisational initiatives	69

C. How are missions established?	70
1. Mission mandates	71
2. Mission setup: the European Union way	72
3. Mission setup: the United Nations way	77

D. Thematic issues and priority areas in missions	81
1. Security sector reform (SSR)	81
2. Disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration (DDR)	83
3. Rule of law	84
4. Police	86
5. Human rights and gender	89

E. Cooperation and coordination approaches	93
1. The European Union's comprehensive approach (CA)	95
2. Integrated Missions Planning Process at the UN	96
3. The UN's cluster approach	97

Chapter 2 Guiding principles 98

1. Conflict sensitivity/do no harm	98
2. Local ownership	100
3. Human security	102
4. Resolution 1325	105
5. Protection of civilians	107
6. Responsibility to protect (R2P)	111

Chapter 3

Preparing for deployment

114

A. Understanding the situation

114

1. Where are you going? 115
2. Why are you going there? 118

B. What should you do before departure?

119

1. Domestic arrangements 119
2. Medical arrangements 123
3. Professional arrangements 126

C. What should you pack before departure?

130

1. Documents and related items 131
2. Personal items 132
3. Medical preparations 134

Chapter 4

How to cope with everyday reality in the field

140

A. Procedures and code of conduct

142

1. Standard operating procedures (SOPs) 142
2. Respect your organisation's code of conduct 143

B. Cultural sensitivity and diversity

148

C. Crosscutting concepts and themes

151

1. Mentoring and advising 151
2. Gender 157
3. Human rights 163
4. Child protection 165
5. Refugee rights 167

D. Managing personal communication and media relations

170

1. Personal communication 170
2. Internal communication 171
3. Crisis communication 172
4. Media monitoring and rebuttals 173

E. Dress codes and uniforms

176

F. Addressing the language barrier

180

1. Learning the local language 180
2. Working with an interpreter 181

G. Go green. Be green.

185

1. Reduce waste 186
2. Reduce emissions 189
3. Use resources sparingly 190
4. Take action, raise awareness! 194

Chapter 5

Dealing with health and security challenges

196

A. Staying healthy

197

1. General health advice 197
2. Hygiene 199
3. Common illnesses – diarrhoea, fever and malaria 202
4. Treating infections, parasites and bites 205
5. Dealing with climatic extremes 208
6. Mental health and stress management 211
7. Substance abuse 223
8. First aid 227

B. Staying safe	227
1. On the road	228
2. At home, at work and during recreational time	236
3. Dress to protect	238
4. Mine hazards	242

Chapter 6 Technical considerations 254

A. Communication equipment	254
1. Radio	255
2. Mobile phones	261
3. Satellite communications (SATCOM)	263
4. Internet/computers	265
B. Map reading and navigation	266
1. Navigation aids	267
2. Map coordinates	274
3. Compass	279
4. Global Positioning System (GPS)	283
5. Planning	289
C. Four-wheel driving	296
1. General principles of four-wheel driving	298
2. Vehicle checklist	299
3. Armoured vehicles	300

Chapter 7 Handover and departure 304

A. Final in-country steps	304
1. Handover	304
2. Closing a programme	306
3. Final report	309
4. Mission debrief	310
B. Returning home	311
1. Medical checkup	311
2. Re-integration: work and family	312
Abbreviations	318
Bibliography	324
Annex	332

Acknowledgements

This book is based on existing knowledge and generally appreciated handbooks. We would therefore like to acknowledge our main sources and express our deep gratitude for all valuable contributions to the present manual.

In particular, we would like to thank the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) for the kind permission to include parts of Daniel Lloyd Roberts' *Staying Alive*, the Australian Government Attorney-General's Department for permission to use content from the *Australian Emergency Management and Handbook series* and the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UN-OCHA) for the kind permission to include parts of the *UNDAC Handbook*.

In addition, we are grateful to the European External Action Service (EEAS) for providing us with their *Handbook for Spokespersons in EU Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP) missions and operations* and we would like to thank the European Commission and EEAS for assisting with a general accuracy check on EU aspects.

Last but not least, we are thankful for contributions made by Michelle Kasdano and Claire Goudsmit as well as the input provided by colleagues at the Center for International Peace Operations (ZIF).

Introduction

Bury it in your backpack, squeeze it into your pocket or just put it under your pillow: Thanks to its handy format and robust shell, this book is made to survive rough treatment on the ground and to accompany you the whole way into the mission and back!

No matter what background and experience you have or which mission you are going to, the ENTRi handbook is a practical guide for newcomers as well as for experienced civilian personnel working in the field. It will illustrate relevant concepts in clear and simple language, ease your way into the mission, guide you through daily life and work in mission and assist your reintegration back home.

Chapter 1 of this handbook is intended to help you situate yourself within the crisis management framework by offering an overview of the major international organisations in the field and the way missions are established and conducted. As most missions nowadays

either entail civilian, police and military components or interact with military on the ground, this book also covers some relevant issues, actors and procedures from this area. Chapter 2 introduces you to the principles that should guide your actions in the field, such as conflict sensitivity and local ownership. Afterwards, get ready for your deployment with recommendations on items to take and arrangements to make in Chapter 3. Find information on current key issues in the field in Chapter 4 and advice on how to stay healthy and safe in Chapter 5. Learn more about communication equipment, navigation and four-wheel driving in Chapter 6. Finally, prepare yourself for bringing your deployment to an end and returning home in Chapter 7.

This handbook is based on existing good practices. It does not reinvent the wheel, but instead draws on long-standing experience and generally appreciated handbooks, such as the *UNDAC Handbook*, Daniel Lloyd Roberts' *Staying Alive* and the Australian Emergency Management Handbook series. The book offers a concise and handy overview, covering the main topics concerning everyday reality in the field. It does not cover every possible situation, nor does it offer tailor-made solutions. Instead, it gives an idea of possible challenges and how to deal with them while flexibility

and common sense are required to adapt to the various situations you will face on mission.

This handbook was published by Europe's New Training Initiative for Civilian Crisis Management (ENTRi), a capacity-building programme funded by the European Commission and co-funded by thirteen implementing partners, each from a different Member State of the European Union. The Commission's Service for Foreign Policy Instruments (FPI), which is responsible for ENTRi, has set up a steering group to provide advice and guidance on the implementation of ENTRi, which was created to prepare and train civilian personnel working in crisis management missions.

This handbook, designed to inform and guide nationally and internationally recruited civilian staff working in crisis management missions worldwide, contributes to that aim.

Chapter 1

Situating yourself within the crisis management framework

The work of the international community in post-conflict situations can be complex and confusing and you may find yourself wondering who is doing what, how, why and where. It is therefore important to know what your role is and how to situate yourself within the bigger picture. For this purpose, you will need to understand that very picture and be able to identify the various players within it. Although most organisations work toward achieving one common final goal, namely that of peace and stability, you will discover that the majority of them will nevertheless have their own mandates, tasks and structures.

This chapter will be your preliminary guide to understanding the types and shapes of international missions and their implementing organisations. It will provide an overview of the players, their bodies and procedures, as well as some of the focus areas of today's missions.

A. What are the different types of missions?

In 2012 there were up to 60 missions¹ worldwide, all differing in their mandates, shapes and implementing organisations. Since the first United Nations (UN) peacekeeping mission was established in 1948, crisis response has taken on many different forms. Therefore, you will encounter many different terms and names in this field of work: from peacekeeping to crisis management, from civilian crisis management mission to peace operation. Names and types of missions have established themselves not only in relation to their mandates and functions but also depending on the implementing actor, which might just use a different term for the same type of mission that another organisation deploys.

Missions of the European Union are often referred to as crisis management missions, Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP) missions or EU operations (civilian missions and/or military operations), while the UN mostly uses the terms UN peacekeeping, peace operations or peace support operations (PSOs).

¹ Depending on the definition, this can include UN peace operations and political missions, EU operations, NATO missions and OSCE missions and field offices.

This handbook uses peace operations or crisis management missions as general terms, while being as specific as possible when describing certain types of missions such as monitoring or peace enforcement.

1. Conflict prevention and mediation

Conflict prevention involves diplomatic measures to keep intra-state or inter-state tensions and disputes from escalating into violent conflict. It includes early warning, information gathering and a careful analysis of the factors driving the conflict. Conflict prevention activities of the UN may include the use of the Secretary-General's 'good offices,' preventive deployment of UN missions or conflict mediation led by the UN Department of Political Affairs.

2. Peace enforcement

Peace enforcement involves the application of a range of coercive measures and sanctions up to the point of military force when a breach of peace is detected. It requires the explicit authorisation of the Security Council. Its use, however, is politically controversial and remains a means of last resort. The

enforcement of peace is regulated by Chapter VII of the UN Charter. For its authorisation, the UN Security Council must first determine a threat to international security according to Article 39 of the UN Charter. Subsequently, the Security Council can pass a resolution that is legally binding for all Member States. This resolution requires the affirmative votes of nine out of fifteen members including the affirmative votes of the five permanent members, i.e. they must not veto the resolution. Abstentions or absences are not considered a veto. Missions with a Chapter VII mandate (a so-called "robust" mandate) have included the CSDP mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) and various UN missions since the 1990s (UNMIL, UNTAET and MINUSTAH, among others).

3. Peacemaking

Peacemaking generally includes measures to address conflicts in progress and usually involves diplomatic action to bring hostile parties to a negotiated agreement. Peacemakers may also be envoys, governments, groups of states, regional organisations or the United Nations. Efforts may also be undertaken by unofficial and non-governmental groups or by prominent personalities.



4. Peacekeeping

Peacekeeping has mostly been a task attributed to UN peace operations. Its beginnings were marked by the establishment of the United Nations Truce Supervision Organization (UNTSO) in the Middle East in 1948. During the Cold War, traditional peacekeeping missions prevailed: light-armed UN peacekeeping troops monitored the compliance with peace agreements and ceasefires.

5. Monitoring

The main roles of monitoring missions are to observe, collect information and assess and report on the performance of relevant home country institutions (e.g. police, justice, military, administration) and their personnel, usually on the basis of an agreement. In such cases, the parties may also call upon the EU, the UN or the OSCE to participate in conflict settlement mechanisms as regards the interpretation of the obligations. Examples of monitoring missions are the completed EU Aceh Monitoring Mission (AMM), the EU Monitoring Mission in Georgia (EUMM) as well as the completed UN Supervision Mission in Syria (UNSMIS).



6. Peacebuilding

Peacebuilding, a concept coined by UN Secretary-General Boutros Boutros-Ghali in his 1992 Agenda for Peace, covers a wide range of civilian measures aimed at establishing the foundations for durable peace in post-conflict countries. Peacebuilding has become an essential part of almost all crisis management missions, combining both security and development policy approaches by working to remove the structural causes of wars and by developing tools for conflict transformation. Because peacebuilding must begin as quickly as possible after the end of an armed conflict, modern peace operations combine peacekeeping measures with peacebuilding elements. This exceptionally complex and time-consuming process requires coordinated action by international actors as well as the early participation of local partners. In 2005 the UN founded the Peacebuilding Commission (PBC) to improve coordination and put financing on solid footing. The EU supports peacebuilding inter alia through its Instrument for Stability and various CSDP missions.

B. What are the major international organisations in the field?

International organisations involved in crisis management vary significantly in nature, structure and organisational culture. They are living organisms that were created during a historic event and have evolved ever since. The degree of organisational learning, the capacity for managing change, types of personalities in senior management and the flexibility of structures are all factors that influence the extent to which an organisation is able to adapt to changing environments. Similarly, these traits as well as the nature of the organisation all play an important role in shaping the set-up and functioning of peace operations or crisis management missions.

This section will introduce the international organisations (IOs) that you are most likely to encounter in the field and highlight the sub-divisions and bodies in charge of planning and the implementation of peace operations.

1. The European Union (EU)

Ever since it was founded in the 1950s, the European Community and its successor, the European Union (EU), have been engaged in conflict management, development cooperation and humanitarian aid. In the process of integrating states that are interested in admission into the union, the EU employs instruments for stability and promotes measures for conflict settlement, reconciliation and democratisation. Since the establishment of the Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP) in 1992 and the European Security and Defence Policy (ESDP) in 1999 (renamed the Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP) with the Lisbon Treaty in 2009), the EU can also apply military measures. It has furthermore acquired a considerable civilian portfolio and has access to subject matter and active service personnel from Member States in the framework of the CSDP.

This blend of civilian and military measures is a unique EU strategy. With a wide range of political, diplomatic, military, civilian, trade, development and humanitarian aid instruments at its disposal, the EU is increasingly making its voice heard in the world. The Common Security and Defence Policy is thus one of the many tools in the EU's external relations toolbox. CSDP – sometimes also referred to as 'crisis manage-

ment' – allows the EU to deploy civilian, police and military personnel in missions and operations outside the union, including for joint disarmament operations, humanitarian aid and rescue operations, security sector reform and rule of law capacity building, military advice and assistance tasks, conflict prevention and peacekeeping, and tasks for combat forces in crisis management, including peacemaking and post-conflict stabilisation.

Through a comprehensive approach, CSDP strives to employ these measures in the most preventive way possible. The EU's civilian and military instruments are clearly defined in the Treaty on European Union (TEU). The EU is not autonomous in the use of these instruments, but rather depends on the decision-making processes of its Member States. The instruments are assigned to the European External Action Service (EEAS) under the direction of the High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy and the Vice President of the European Commission (HR/VP). The EEAS has organisational structures for the planning, conduct, supervision and evaluation of the civilian (e.g. police, rule of law, civilian administration) and the military (e.g. military operations and EU battle groups) CSDP instruments. The EU Member States decide about the use of all assets and resources owned by them in this field.

So-called Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP) missions or operations have become a key instrument of the EU's Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP). EU operations within the CSDP framework combine both civilian and military components. Since the first deployment in 2003, CSDP missions have varied in scope (police, justice, security sector reform), nature (such as capacity building through monitoring, mentoring and advising, and training), geographic location and size. At the time of writing, the EU has engaged in 28 operations, using civilian (police and justice) and military instruments in several countries on three continents (Europe, Africa and Asia). Fifteen of these missions and operations are currently ongoing and 12 are completed. CSDP missions are always also political tools and are conceived and controlled by EU Member States through the Political and Security Committee, which exercises political control and strategic direction over CSDP missions (see description below).

Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP)

The Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP) of the European Union, established by the Maastricht Treaty in 1993, aims to preserve peace and strengthen

international security in accordance with the principles of the United Nations Charter, to promote international cooperation, and to develop and consolidate democracy and the rule of law as well as the respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms.

Member States of the EU define the principles and general guidelines for the CFSP. On this basis, the European Council adopts decisions or common approaches.

A major component of CFSP is the Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP), which includes to date 27 civilian and military missions and operations on three continents.

In order to make this handbook user-friendly and to enable the reader to quickly look up terms and actors, the following description of structures and actors does not reflect the actual hierarchy within the organisation, but puts important instruments such as the Instrument for Stability (IfS) next to a structure/actor like the Civilian Planning and Conduct Capability (CPCC). For a closer look at the planning processes please consult Section C on the establishment of different missions.

Structures and actors involved in CFSP include:

European Council

The heads of state or government of the 27 European Union Member States meet four times a year in the European Council, which has become an institution in its own right with the implementation of the Lisbon Treaty. The High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy and the President of the Commission also attend these summits. The European Council plays an important role in defining the EU's political priorities and direction. At these summits, the heads of state or government agree on the general orientation of European policy and make decisions about problems that have not been resolved at a lower level. The European Council's decisions have great political weight because they indicate the wishes of the Member States at the highest level.

Council of the European Union

The Council of the European Union is the EU's decision-making body, jointly or by co-decision with the European Parliament. It meets at ministerial level in nine different configurations depending on the subjects being discussed. It has legislative, executive and budgetary powers. The Foreign Affairs Council,

which discusses the CFSP and the CSDP, meets once a month, bringing together the foreign affairs ministers. Since the entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty, it has been chaired by the High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy (see below), who is also Vice-President of the European Commission. Twice a year, the defence ministers are also invited. All the Council's work is prepared or coordinated by the Permanent Representatives Committee (COREPER).

High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy

A major innovation of the Lisbon Treaty, the High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy (HR), who is also Vice President of the European Commission (VP), conducts the EU's Common Foreign and Security Policy. The role of the HR/VP is to provide greater coherence in the EU's Common Foreign and Security Policy as well as greater coordination between the various institutional players, particularly the Council and the Commission. Furthermore, the HR/VP chairs the Council in its Foreign Affairs configuration and exercises authority over the European External Action Service (EEAS).

The European External Action Service (EEAS)

The European External Action Service (EEAS) was established to ensure the consistency and coordination of the EU's external action. This service, at the disposal of the High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy/Vice President of the European Commission, is one of the major innovations of the Lisbon Treaty. Composed of officials from the services of the Council's General Secretariat and of the Commission, as well as personnel seconded from national governments and diplomatic services, its task is to enable greater coherence in EU external action, including CSDP missions, by providing the HR/VP with a whole range of instruments. The former delegations and offices of the European Commission became integral parts of the EEAS and represent the EU in 140 countries around the world.

European Commission

The European Commission (EC) is the EU's executive body and represents the interests of the European Union as such. It is fully involved in the work of the Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP). It sits as an observer on the Political and Security Committee (PSC) as well as on various working groups and it can issue proposals in this capacity, though it is not entitled

to vote. It plays an important role in budgetary affairs since it implements the CFSP budget, allocated in part to civilian crisis management missions and to the Special Representatives of the European Union. Within the European Commission, the Service for Foreign Policy Instruments (FPI) is responsible for the operational and financial management of the budgets for Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP), Instrument for Stability (IfS) as well as for the implementation of foreign policy regulatory instruments such as sanctions. Moreover, the European Commission also supports crisis prevention and management through its enlargement policy, development aid, humanitarian aid and neighbourhood policy.

Instrument for Stability (IfS)

The IfS is a financial and political instrument at the disposal of the European Union. It was launched in 2007 to support the European Commission in the area of conflict prevention, crisis management and peacebuilding. Crisis response projects under the IfS focus on a range of issues such as support for mediation, confidence building, interim administrations, strengthening the rule of law, transitional justice or the role of natural resources in conflict. These activities can be supported through the IfS when timely financial help cannot be provided by other EU sources. The Peace-

building Partnership is part of the IfS and was established to strengthen civilian expertise for peacebuilding activities. It was created to deepen the dialogue between civil society and EU institutions.

European Union Special Representatives

The European Union Special Representatives (EUSRs) support the work of the High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy in troubled countries and regions. They play an important role in:

- ★ Providing the EU with an active political presence in key countries and regions, acting as a 'voice' and 'face' for the EU and its policies;
- ★ Developing a stronger and more effective EU Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP);
- ★ Supporting the EU's efforts to become a more effective and more coherent actor on the world stage;
- ★ Local political guidance.

The EUSRs are appointed by the Council based on recommendations by the High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy.

Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP)

With the Lisbon Treaty (2009), the European Security and Defence Policy (ESDP) was renamed and reformed into the Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP) to render it more coherent and efficient.

Operational Range

The so-called Petersberg tasks, agreed in 1992 by the Western European Union (WEU) and later transferred to the EU, describe the operational range of the CSDP. They include humanitarian aid and rescue operations, conflict prevention and peacekeeping, and tasks of combat forces in crisis management, including peacemaking, joint disarmament operations, military advice and assistance tasks, as well as post conflict stabilisation tasks.

Financing and Recruitment

There are two basic principles. Civilian CSDP missions are financed by the CFSP budget, which covers personnel costs (per diems and other allowances for seconded staff, but no salaries, as well as salaries for contracted staff), maintenance costs, assets, etc. Military CSDP operations' common costs are financed through the so-called Athena mechanism, to which

Member States contribute on an annual basis; otherwise, the “costs lie where they fall” principle is applied.

Regarding recruitment of personnel, the principle for both civilian and military CSDP missions and operations is that of secondment – staff are deployed by their national governments, which transfer their authority to the relevant missions and operations for the period of deployment. However, certain kinds of niche expertise (administration and finance, rule of law) are not readily available for secondment. Civilian CSDP missions therefore have the option of employing staff directly.

Structures

In order to enable the European Union to fully assume its responsibilities for crisis management, the



European Council decided to establish permanent political and military structures (Nice, December 2000).

The Political and Security Committee (PSC) meets two to three times a week at the ambassadorial level as a preparatory body for the Council of the EU. Its main functions are keeping track of the international situation and helping to define policies within the Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP), including the CSDP. It prepares coherent EU responses to crises and exercises its political control and strategic direction.

The European Union Military Committee (EUMC) is the highest military body within the Council. It is composed of the Chiefs of Defence of the Member States, who are regularly represented by their permanent military representatives. It has a permanent chair selected by the Member States. The EUMC, supported by the EU Military Staff, provides the PSC with advice and recommendations on all military matters within the EU.

For advice on civilian crisis management, the PSC relies on the work and advice of the Committee for Civilian Aspects of Crisis Management (CivCom). This Committee is the Council working group dealing with

civilian aspects of crisis management; it receives direction from and reports to the PSC. The PSC is also assisted by the **Politico-Military Working Group (PMG)** and is prepared by the Nicolaïdis Group. Since the Treaty of Lisbon, these groups have also been chaired by a representative of the High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy (HR) or the European External Action Service (EEAS). The **Foreign Relations Counsellors Working Group (RELEX)** or Foreign Relations Counsellors is a working group with horizontal responsibility for the Common Foreign and Security Policy. It is chaired by the rotating Presidency. RELEX Counsellors prepares all legal acts in the CFSP area and is, in particular, responsible for examining their legal, financial and institutional implications. It reports to the **Committee of Permanent Representatives (COREPER)**, which passes relevant documents for decision to the Council for approval.

The crisis management structures of the EEAS consist of the Crisis Management and Planning Directorate (CMPD), the Civilian Planning and Conduct Capability (CPCC) and the European Union Military Staff (EUMS).

The **Crisis Management and Planning Directorate (CMPD)** contributes to the objectives of the European External Action Service, the EU Common Security and Defence Policy and a more secure international envi-

ronment through political strategic planning of CSDP civilian missions and military operations, ensuring coherence and effectiveness of those actions as part of the EU comprehensive approach to crisis management and developing CSDP partnerships, policies, concepts and capabilities. CMPD core activities and products include strategic planning of CSDP missions and operations, which comprises above all the development of Crisis Management Concepts for CSDP missions and operations, strategic reviews of existing CSDP missions and operations, CSDP partnerships, coordination of the development of civilian and military capabilities, CSDP policy and concepts, and conduct of crisis management exercises and CSDP training.

The **Civilian Planning and Conduct Capability (CPCC)** has a mandate to plan and conduct CSDP civilian missions under the political control and strategic direction of the Political and Security Committee, to provide assistance and advice to the HR/VP, the Presidency and the relevant EU Council bodies and to direct, coordinate, advise, support, supervise and review civilian CSDP missions. CPCC works in close cooperation with other crisis management structures within the European External Action Service and the European Commission.

As the Civilian Operations Commander, the Director of the CPCC exercises command and control at the strategic level for the planning and conduct of all civilian crisis management missions under the political control and strategic direction of the Political and Security Committee (PSC) and the overall authority of the HR/VP.

There are currently 10 ongoing missions supported and supervised by the CPCC in Europe, the Middle East and Africa, covering a large spectrum of tasks including training, advising, mentoring and monitoring in the field of police, rule of law (RoL) and security sector reform (SSR). EU Member States contribute to these missions with seconded national experts drawn mainly from the law enforcement and justice sectors.

In its role as the permanent Operational Headquarters (OHQ), the CPCC plans and performs command and control for these 10 civilian CSDP missions, serves as a hub for information flowing from the field, coordinates between the missions and between the missions and other EU actors in Brussels, and collects lessons learned from the complicated mandates being implemented in very difficult environments.

A substantial part of the CPCC's work is also reporting to EU Member States on the outcome and impact of missions.

The **European Union Military Staff (EUMS)** is composed of both military and civilian experts seconded to the EEAS by Member States and officials of the EEAS. The EUMS is the source of military expertise within the EEAS and works under the direction of the Military Committee and Member States' Chiefs of Defence and under the direct authority of the HR/VP. As an integral element of the EEAS comprehensive approach, the EUMS coordinates military actions and focuses on operations and the creation of military capabilities. The EUMS ensures the availability of the military instrument with all its domains as one integrated organisation. If called upon, the EUMS will support their civilian colleagues with their broad range of expertise, including planning, intelligence, medical support, engineering, infrastructure, transport, communications, IT, education, exercises and lessons learned.

Whereas the CPCC serves as a standing headquarters for all civilian CSDP missions, an individual Member States-owned OHQ has to be activated for each single military CSDP mission.

2. The United Nations (UN)

The United Nations was established in 1945 by 51 countries. It is committed to the maintenance or restoration of peace through international cooperation and collective security. The UN provides means for international conflict resolution and sets norms that guide the behaviour of Member States. Today the UN has 193 Member States that have all agreed to accept the obligations of the UN Charter.

The UN system is made up of 30 affiliated organisations, which work on a range of issues, including among others: peacekeeping, peacebuilding, conflict prevention and humanitarian assistance. The UN has six principal organs:

- ★ The **General Assembly** as the plenary assembly of all Member States;
- ★ The **Economic and Social Council**, which is responsible for economic, social and development related questions;
- ★ The **International Court of Justice** as the judicial organ of the UN;
- ★ The **Trusteeship Council**, which originally accompanied decolonization processes, but is currently inactive;

- ★ The **Security Council (SC)**, the UN's most powerful council. According to the UN Charter, the 15-member panel has "primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security". In pursuit of this task, it can impose sanctions that are binding under international law. It also mandates peacekeeping operations, including the application of military force;
- ★ The **Secretariat**, the UN's most important administrative body under the leadership of the Secretary-General, which is responsible for planning SC-mandated missions.

These six principal organs, in addition to auxiliary organisations, subsidiary programmes and numerous other specialised agencies, make up the UN system. Its activities are funded through a variety of mechanisms, including assessed contributions of Member States to the regular UN budget, assessed contributions to peace operations and to international criminal courts, as well as by voluntary contributions to UN funds, programmes and individual measures. Resolutions are adopted on the basis of consensus and compromise; hence the often divergent interests of Member States could impair decision-making processes.



UN peace operations

Peacekeeping is not an instrument foreseen in the UN Charter, it was developed out of necessity. The first peace operation, the United Nations Truce Supervision Organization (UNTSO), was deployed in 1948. Since then, 69 UN peacekeeping operations have been deployed worldwide. In 2012 more than 110,000 persons (military, police and civilian) served in UN missions around the globe.

Over the 60 years of their existence, UN missions have evolved to meet the demands of different conflicts and a changing political landscape. Four types or

“generations” of peace missions can be distinguished: traditional peacekeeping, multidimensional peacekeeping, robust peacekeeping and missions with an executive mandate. During the Cold War, traditional peacekeeping missions were the norm: lightly armed UN troops monitored the compliance of the conflict parties with peace agreements or ceasefires, in most cases after conflicts between state actors. These missions were based on the three principles of consent of the parties, impartiality and non-use of force except in self-defence.

Nowadays, such missions are rare. With the end of the Cold War, conflicts and threats changed. Most conflicts now take place within states rather than between states. Peace missions have changed accordingly in order to address the domestic root causes of these conflicts. Multidimensional peacekeeping missions therefore encompass many non-military tasks, such as disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration (DDR), security sector reform (SSR), rule of law support and human rights monitoring. In addition to military personnel, multidimensional operations also include police and civilian staff.

Since the 1990s, the UN has had to acknowledge that consent-based deployment of lightly armed peacekeepers is insufficient when peace agreements

do not hold or were not signed by all conflict parties. In response, the Security Council began to provide missions with so-called robust mandates, empowering them to use force not only for self-defence, but also for the enforcement of the mandate. Most current missions fall into this category of robust peacekeeping.

The fourth generation of peacekeeping consists of a small number of missions with so-called executive mandates. In these cases, the UN performs state functions for a limited time, as it did in Kosovo and East Timor.

In the last decade, several key reform initiatives have shaped UN peace operations. These include:

The Brahimi report

In March 2000 the Secretary-General appointed the Panel on United Nations Peace Operations to assess the shortcomings of the then existing system and to make specific and realistic recommendations for change. The panel was composed of individuals experienced in conflict prevention, peacekeeping and peacebuilding. The panel noted that in order to be effective, UN peacekeeping operations must be properly

funded and equipped, and operate under clear, credible and achievable mandates. The Brahimi Report is seen as the key document of the reform of UN peace operations during the last decade.

A New Horizon for UN peacekeeping

In order to respond to the increasing demands, complexities and scale of peace operations, the UN called for a renewed peacekeeping partnership to meet current and future challenges. The UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) and the Department of Field Support (DFS) published a joint reform proposal in July 2009 entitled “A New Partnership Agenda – Charting a New Horizon for UN Peacekeeping”. This report promotes the establishment of a new global partnership between the UN Secretariat, the Security Council and Member States in order to overcome the growing gap between the requirements of successful peace operations and the resources available to conduct them.

Civilian capacity in the aftermath of conflict

In March 2010 the Secretary-General appointed a Senior Advisory Group to review the civilian capacities provided by the international community in the immediate aftermath of conflict. The review analysed how the United Nations and the international community can help broaden and deepen the pool of civilian experts to support the immediate capacity development needs of countries emerging from conflict, and made concrete recommendations for improvement. The final report, published in March 2011, proposes a framework called OPEN that is designed to enable national ownership, work in global partnership, deliver with expertise and be more nimble in the face of turbulent transitions. The report proposes practical, concrete measures to improve civilian support to conflict affected countries.

Main structures of UN peace operations

Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO)

The UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) assists UN Member States and the Secretary-General in efforts to maintain international peace and

security. DPKO provides political and executive direction to UN peacekeeping and ensures the successful implementation of Security Council mandates by maintaining contact with troop, police and financial contributors, as well as parties to the conflict. Not only does DPKO work on integrating the efforts of the UN, governmental and non-governmental entities within the context of peace operations, but it also provides guidance and support on military, police, mine action and other relevant issues to other UN political and peacebuilding missions.

DPKO has four main offices:

- ★ The Office of Operations provides political and strategic policy as well as operational guidance and support to missions;
- ★ The Office of Rule of Law and Security Institutions (OROLSI) coordinates activities in the areas of police, justice and corrections, mine action, disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration (DDR), and security sector reform (SSR);
- ★ The Office of Military Affairs (OMA) works on deploying military capability in support of UN objectives and on improving the effectiveness of military components in UN peacekeeping missions;

- ★ The Policy, Evaluation and Training Division (DPET) works on developing and disseminating policy and doctrine, developing, coordinating and delivering standardised training, evaluating mission progress and developing policies and operational frameworks for strategic cooperation with various UN and external partners. It is also part of the UN Department of Field Support.

Department of Field Support (DFS)

The UN Department of Field Support (DFS) provides support to peacekeeping field missions and political field missions. DFS provides support in the areas of finance, logistics, information and communication technology (ICT), human resources and general administration. The DFS has seven main offices:

- ★ Office of the Assistant Secretary-General;
- ★ Field Personnel Division;
- ★ Field Budget and Finance Division;
- ★ Logistics Support Division;
- ★ Information & Communications Technology Division;

- ★ Policy, Evaluation and Training Division (DPET);
- ★ UN Logistics Base (Brindisi, Italy) (UNLB).

Department of Political Affairs (DPA)

Established in 1992, the UN Department of Political Affairs (DPA) is the lead UN department for peacemaking and preventive diplomacy. Where the Secretary-General's diplomatic "good offices" are employed to help bring warring parties toward peace or to prevent political and armed conflicts from escalating, DPA is typically working behind the scenes to define and plan the mission and to provide guidance and backing to mediators. DPA is also in charge of a number of small "political" peace operations staffed with civilian personnel.

Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA)

The key responsibilities assigned to the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) and the Emergency Relief Coordinator (ERC) in an emergency are coordination, advocacy, information

management, policy development and humanitarian financing to mobilise and maximise resources for humanitarian assistance. OCHA may also mobilise and coordinate the deployment of Military Civil Defence Assets (MCDA) from a number of countries and multinational organisations. The Civil Military Coordination section (CMCS) is established within OCHA as a focal point for the use of military and civil defence (civil protection) resources in all types of humanitarian emergencies. It can establish an on-site coordination centre for multi-agency employment of such assistance.



UN OCHA is also responsible for devising the cluster approach, which will be covered in more detail in the 'cooperation and coordination' section of this chapter.

UN Development Programme (UNDP)

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) is the UN's global development network. It generally aims at fighting poverty, building democratic societies, empowering women and developing national capacity. However, UNDP is also active in the field of crisis prevention and recovery and aims at supporting countries to manage conflict and disaster risks, and to rebuild for resilience once crisis has passed. UNDP's crisis recovery work acts as a bridge between humanitarian and longer-term development efforts. UNDP focuses on skills and capacities in national institutions and communities.

Peacebuilding Commission (PBC)

The Peacebuilding Commission was established by the UN Security Council and the UN General Assembly as an intergovernmental advisory body to assist countries in the aftermath of conflict. Its function is to lay the foundations for integrated strategies for post-conflict peacebuilding and recovery. The PBC brings together important actors, namely international donors, national governments, international financial institutions and troop-contributing countries to marshal

resources. It furthermore provides recommendations and information on development, recovery and institution-building to ensure sustainable reconstruction in the post-conflict period.

Peacebuilding Support Office (PBSO)

The Peacebuilding Support Office was founded to support the Peacebuilding Commission (PBC) by providing policy guidance and strategic advice. The PBSO assists the Secretary-General in coordinating the peacebuilding efforts of the different UN agencies. Furthermore, the PBSO administers the Peacebuilding Fund.



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

The OSCE is one of the world's largest regional security organisations, encompassing 57 participating states from North America, Asia and Europe. It is a regional instrument for early warning, conflict prevention, crisis management and post-conflict rehabilitation, tackling issues that range from terrorism and arms control to energy security, human rights, economic reform and media freedom. It is dedicated to realizing a "free, democratic, common and indivisible Euro-Atlantic and Eurasian security community stretch-

ing from Vancouver to Vladivostok, rooted in agreed principles, shared commitments and common goals”.

The chairmanship of the OSCE rotates annually among the 57 participating states. Political resolutions are adopted at summit meetings and through the Council of Foreign Ministers. The responsibility for administrative and operational implementation lies with the Permanent Council of Ambassadors on the one hand and with the Secretariat in Vienna, led by the Secretary General, on the other.

OSCE field operations

Since the first OSCE mission entered the field in 1992, there have been a total of 31 field missions deployed, mostly in the former communist countries of Central and Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union. At present, 17 field missions, centres and offices are in place.

The function and focus of OSCE field operations have changed over time. The violence of the 1990s was largely stimulated by the breakup of the two multinational states that covered much of this region, the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia. These potential or actual

conflicts were the primary focus of most OSCE field missions between 1992 and 1999. OSCE interventions included conflict prevention, mediation of cease-fires in ongoing conflicts, and post-conflict security-building, combined with continuing efforts to prevent these conflicts from reigniting.

Between 2001 and 2007, overt violence in the region seemed to have subsided. This somewhat stable phase was disrupted by a violent confrontation between two OSCE participating states in August 2008, however, when an armed conflict emerged between Georgia on the one side, and Russia and the separatist regions of South Ossetia and Abkhazia on the other, also involving the entry of Russian troops into undisputed Georgian territory.

The primary problems OSCE missions have addressed in recent years, however, have focused less on conflict prevention and more often on implementing the human dimension of OSCE principles. The OSCE comprehensive approach to security emphasises the essential role of human dimension activities in the long-term prevention of violent conflict. The OSCE has operated on the assumption that good governance is not only a value in itself, but also a major contributing factor to peace between states and within states. Authoritarian rule, corrupt regimes, denial of freedom

of the press, denial of minorities rights or basic human rights can all contribute to the outbreak of violence. The outbreak of inter-ethnic rioting in Kyrgyzstan after the ouster of President Bakiyev in 2010, however, has again raised questions about mission priorities.

Main structures of OSCE field operations

The Conflict Prevention Centre

In 1999, on the basis of the European Security Charter of Istanbul, the OSCE established an operations centre within the Conflict Prevention Centre (CPC). The CPC in Vienna is responsible for the 17 current long-term missions and other field activities. At present, the OSCE is represented in Southeastern Europe, in the Southern Caucasus and in Central Asia.

Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODIHR)

The Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODIHR) is active throughout the OSCE area in the fields of election observation, democratic development, human rights, tolerance and non-discrimination, and rule of law. It assists the OSCE participating states in the implementation of their human dimension

commitments by providing expertise and practical support in strengthening democratic institutions. ODIHR also supports OSCE field missions in implementing their human dimension activities through training, exchange of experiences and regional coordination.

4. The African Union (AU)

The African Union is an organisation consisting of 54 African states with a secretariat (the Commission of the African Union) based in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The AU was established on 9 July 2002 in Durban, South Africa, as a successor to the Organisation of African Unity (OAU). The AU has been increasingly engaged in international peace operations. The organisation seeks to promote development, combat poverty and corruption, and end Africa's ongoing conflicts. For this purpose, the organisation was constitutionally structured to allow for collective intervention in AU Member States on humanitarian and human rights grounds.

Most of the AU guidelines were based on the 2001 "Responsibility to Protect Report" that was issued by the International Commission on Intervention and

State Sovereignty. Key decisions of the AU are made by the Assembly of the African Union.

AU peace operations

The African Union has been active in relation to crises in Darfur, Comoros, Somalia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Burundi, Côte d'Ivoire and other countries. It has adopted resolutions creating the AU peacekeeping operations in Somalia and Darfur and imposing sanctions against persons undermining peace and security (such as travel bans and asset freezes). The AU is in the process of establishing a standby force to serve as a permanent African peacekeeping force.

Current examples of contributions to peace operations are the UN-mandated African Union Mission in Somalia (AMISOM) and the hybrid mission of UN and AU forces in Darfur (UNAMID).

AU structures for peace and security

Peace and Security Council (PSC)

The Peace and Security Council (PSC) is made up of fifteen Member States. In order to fully assume its responsibilities for the deployment of peacekeeping and quick-intervention missions to assist in cases of genocide, war crimes and crimes against humanity, the Peace and Security Council could consult a Panel of the Wise comprising five African personalities so as to take action on the distribution of the military in the field.

Peace and Security Department (PSD)

The Peace and Security Department (PSD) of the Commission of the African Union (AU) provides support to the efforts aimed at promoting peace, security and stability on the continent. Currently, PSD activities focus on the following goals:

- ★ Implementation of the Common African Defence and Security Policy (CADSP);
- ★ Operationalisation of the Continental Peace and Security Architecture as articulated by the Protocol Relating to the Establishment of the Peace and Security Council (PSC) of the AU,

including the Continental Early Warning System (CEWS) and the African Standby Force (ASF);

- ★ Support of conflict prevention, management and resolution efforts;
- ★ Promotion of programmes for the structural prevention of conflicts, such as the implementation of the AU Border Programme (AUBP);
- ★ Implementation of the AU's Policy Framework on Post-Conflict Reconstruction and Development (PCRD);
- ★ Coordination, harmonisation and promotion of peace and security programmes in Africa, including bridges built with the Regional Economic Communities (RECs)/Regional Mechanisms for Conflict Prevention, Management and Resolution (RMs), the United Nations and other relevant international organisations and partners.

The PSD consists of the following four divisions:

Conflict Management Division (CMD)

The CMD focuses on operationalisation. It supports and coordinates activities related to conflict prevention and management as well as to the PCRD. The CMD

supervises and coordinates the work of the AU Liaison Offices on the ground.

Peace Support Operations Division (PSOD)

The PSOD works towards the operationalisation of the ASF and the MSC, including the elaboration of relevant policy documents and the coordination with relevant African structures and AU partners. The PSOD plans, mounts, manages and supports AU peace support operations.

Peace and Security Council Secretariat

The Secretariat provides the operational and administrative support required by the PSC to enable it and its subsidiary bodies to perform their functions effectively. The Secretariat acts as the builder and custodian of the institutional memory on the work of the PSC and facilitates its interaction with other organisations/institutions on issues of peace and security.

Defence and Security Division (DSD)

The DSD addresses long-term crosscutting security issues. The DSD is in charge of issues relating to arms control and disarmament, counter-terrorism and

other strategic security issues, including security sector reform.

5. The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)

Founded in 1949, NATO is a collective defence alliance of 28 states in Europe and North America with headquarters in Brussels, Belgium. According to its Strategic Concept (2010), the NATO relies on the military resources of its member countries to achieve its three main goals: collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security.

NATO was created during the Cold War to guarantee freedom and security to the allied states through the maintenance of the strategic balance of power in Europe. After the Cold War, NATO adapted the alliance to the altered security environment. Since the Balkan Wars in the 1990s, NATO also took over crisis management and peacekeeping tasks. Along with collective defence, these were anchored in its 1999 strategic concept. NATO recognises the primary responsibility of the UN Security Council for maintaining world peace and international security.

Military instruments and missions

NATO employs military instruments for solving crises. Among these is the NATO Response Force (NRF) for rapid military responses to crises. Currently, NATO is involved in six military missions, among them ISAF in Afghanistan (since 2001) and KFOR in Kosovo (since 1999). The mutual defence clause was invoked only once: after the attacks of 11 September 2001.

Non-military and inter-organisational initiatives

In its current strategic concept (2010), NATO announced the set up of a small civilian planning and conduct capability as well as the potential recruitment and training of civilian experts. This could change NATO's role in crisis management and its relationships with other actors (e.g. EU, UN, NGOs). NATO cooperates with the UN and the EU. Since 2003, the EU has access to NATO assets for its CSDP operations (Berlin Plus Agreement).



C. How are missions established?

Crisis management missions and peace operations often come into existence following complex multilateral deliberation. They are usually based on a wide array of motivations and can assume very sophisticated structures and forms, all depending on the nature of the crisis as well as underlying institutional and organisational mechanisms. However, some common principles and foundations can generally be used to describe the evolution of a mission. The following section will outline how two main actors in crisis management, the UN and the EU, establish their missions using different institutional mechanisms.

1. Mission mandates

A mission mandate is the legal basis on which each mission rests. It is normally agreed upon before deployment by countries or bodies that are interested in solving the dispute. The UN authorises its peace operations through Security Council resolutions. These resolutions are adopted on the basis of consensus and compromise and in some cases the divergent political interests of Member States impair decision-making processes. Not only UN missions, but also nearly all peace operations by regional organisations are implemented under a UN mandate.

So far, most mission mandates have been non-executive, with some exceptions of missions holding an executive remit that allowed them to undertake sovereign responsibilities in the country of deployment, including political and administrative duties or even establishing an interim or transitional administration with authority over the legislative, executive and judicial structures of the territory (so far only three missions of the UN were executive; in the case of the EU, EULEX Kosovo exercises some executive powers in certain areas of its mandate).

2. Mission setup: the European Union way

At the time of writing, current CSDP procedures differentiate between several phases, which cover the development of a Crisis Management Concept (CMC), the formal decision on the necessity to take action, the development of planning documents and their implementation. These procedures are currently under review. A new version should be ready by mid-2013.

Phase 1: Development of a Crisis Management Concept (CMC)

As a first step, the HR/VP, together with Member States, identifies a crisis, taking into account the political strategy of the EU developed by the EEAS geographical desks with regard to the respective crisis. The Member State delegates in the Political and Security Committee (PSC) must conclude that the EU action is appropriate and assign EEAS/CMPD to work out a Crisis Management Concept (CMC).

Subsequently, EEAS/CMPD develops a draft CMC in close cooperation with the CPCC, the EUMS and other EEAS and Commission services and forwards it to CivCom, which provides civilian advice, and/or

the EUMC, which provides military advice on it. Both documents, the CMC as well as the respective advice, are then discussed and agreed on in the PSC, usually following advice from both EUMC and CivCom. The draft CMC is then presented to the Committee of Permanent Representatives (COREPER) and the Foreign Affairs Council, pointing out specifics and different options. COREPER also discusses the CMC before the Foreign Affairs Council approves it.

Phase 2 (optional): Development of strategic options

If different possible options for civilian and/or military CSDP engagement exist, the PSC assigns the CPCC to develop civilian strategic options (CSOs) and/or the EUMC to develop military strategic options (MSOs) on the basis of the CMC.

The PSC evaluates all strategic options, taking into account the Commission's view, and then forwards them to COREPER and the Foreign Affairs Council. The Council decides on a Council Decision, which, inter alia, codifies the mandate, its objectives and the financial arrangements. This decision also entails whether the military component of the mission will use NATO

assets or rely exclusively on EU command structures and capabilities.

In practise, strategic options have usually been developed only for military CSDP operations. For civilian CSDP missions, options have usually been taken into account already prior to the development of the CMC. As a result, there has been no need to develop CSO after the approval of the CMC so far.

In the case of civilian missions, and in parallel to the operational planning process, FPI drafts a budget covering all mission needs (including personnel, duty travel, running and capital expenditure). This budget is discussed and approved by the RELEX Group together with the Council Decision that serves as the legal basis for the launch of the mission.

Phase 3: Concrete operational planning

After the Council Decision is approved, the Council tasks the PSC to initiate operational planning. For a military operation, the EUMC works out an Initiating Military Directive (IMD), while the PSC provides the political and strategic guidance needed. The IMD gives basic instructions to the appointed military Operation

Commander who – together with his military headquarters – develops a draft military Concept of Operations (CONOPS), adjusts it with the respective EEAS and Commission services and forwards it to the EUMC for advice. If the planned action is a civilian CSDP mission, the Civilian Planning and Conduct Capability (CPCC) works out a draft civilian CONOPS. The Committee for Civilian Aspects of Crisis Management (CivCom) provides advice to the PSC. The PSC agrees on the civilian and/or military CONOPS, takes note of the respective advice and submits them to the Council.

In parallel to the development of the civilian and/or military CONOPS, some other important documents are prepared, including the budget, an information strategy with public master messages, a Status of Mission/Status of Forces Agreement (SOMA/SOFA), and force generation/mission staff recruitment is processed.

After approving the draft CONOPS, the Council tasks the PSC to develop a final military and/or civilian and police Operation Plan (OPLAN). Since these OPLANs represent the way in which the responsible commander is to conduct the mandate on the ground, the civilian Head of Mission (HoM) and the military Force Commander are responsible for them.

The military operation and/or civilian mission is launched on the basis of the final OPLAN.

Once set up, CSDP missions and operations are subject to a tight chain of command that includes Brussels-based structures to which they have to report regularly and from which they continuously receive guidance, direction and support. There is also a wealth of conceptual documents and best practices to be adhered to.

In addition to its capacity to set up and deploy crisis management operations, the EU has Fact-Finding Missions, Technical Assessment Missions and various other programmes and instruments at its disposal which are also used in its foreign policy framework. These could range from development aid, humanitarian assistance and trade, to other CFSP instruments such as sanctions, political dialogue with third countries and international organisations, and approaches to foreign governments.

Together, all these CSDP and other measures implemented by the EU are intended to address crises in a coordinated manner through a comprehensive approach.



3. Mission setup: the United Nations way

Phase 1: Initial consultation

As a conflict develops, worsens, or approaches resolution, the UN is frequently involved in a number of consultations to determine the best response by the international community. These consultations would likely involve all relevant UN actors (mentioned in the previous section), potential host governments, parties on the ground, Member States (that might contribute

troops and police) as well as regional and other intergovernmental organisations.

Phase 2: Technical field assessment

As soon as security conditions permit, the Secretariat usually deploys a technical assessment mission to the country or territory where the deployment of a UN Peacekeeping operation is envisaged. The assessment mission analyses and assesses the overall security, political, military, humanitarian and human rights situation on the ground and its implications for a possible operation. Based on the findings and recommendations of the assessment mission, the UN Secretary-General will issue a report to the Security Council. This report will present options for the establishment of a peacekeeping operation as appropriate including its size and resources. The report will also include financial implications and statement of preliminary estimated costs.

Phase 3: Security Council resolution

When a dispute or situation is deemed a danger to international peace and security the UN Security Council may choose to pass a resolution authorising sanctions or the deployment of a peace operation. Informed by a range of technical assessments, the Security Council must settle on the specific mandate and size of the operation with at least nine out of fifteen votes in favour of each decision. Throughout the duration of the operation the UN Secretary-General regularly reports its progress to the Security Council, which reviews, renews and adjusts the mission's mandate as required until the mission is terminated.

Phase 4: Appointment of senior officials

The Secretary-General appoints a Head of Mission (called Special Representative of the Secretary-General - SRSG) to direct the peace operation. The SRSG reports to the Under-Secretary-General for Peacekeeping Operations at the UN Headquarters. The Secretary-General also appoints a peacekeeping operation Force Commander and Police Commissioner as well as senior civilian staff. The Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) and the Depart-

ment of Field Support (DFS) are then responsible for staffing the peace operation.

Phase 5: Planning

The SRSG and DPKO/DFS lead the planning for the political, military, operational and support (i.e. logistics and administration) aspects of the operation. The planning phase usually involves the establishment of a Headquarters-based joint working group or integrated mission task force, with the participation of relevant UN departments, funds and programmes.

D. Thematic issues and priority areas in missions

Crises differ in every possible way and thus need tailor-made responses. Crisis management missions and peace operations have a variety of tools and instruments at their disposal to cater to a specific dimension, stage or aspect of a post-conflict situation. The following section will highlight just a few of the diverse thematic areas that international missions cater to.

1. Security sector reform (SSR)

Since the late 1990s, security sector reform, based on the concept of human security, has formed part of the toolbox of international crisis management. SSR is both an operational as well as a normative concept based on the insight that states and their security apparatuses may become a security threat to the population, particularly when the military commits human rights violations or when people are detained without trial. The aim of SSR is to support the local authorities in creating an effective, efficient and democratically controlled security sector. This sector includes military, police and intelligence agencies, ministries, parliament, civil society organisations, judicial and criminal

prosecution bodies, as well as non-governmental security companies and paramilitary groups.

SSR encompasses, among other things, the establishment of civilian offices for the supervision of security forces, the reform of institutional structures and the improvement operational capabilities. All measures are interdependent, but only if they are coordinated can sustainable and effective SSR be accomplished. Many states and international organisations have adopted SSR as an integrated concept and field of action (e.g. European Security Strategy, 2003; UN report on SSR, 2008).

In 2004 the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development's (OECD) Development Assistance Committee (DAC) approved guidelines for the implementation of SSR and published a relevant manual in 2007. Main instruments of SSR are judicial and police reforms, DDR (disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration), small arms control, mine actions, human rights and the promotion of gender justice. SSR is carried out in weak and post-conflict countries both through bilateral programmes and through SSR components of international programmes and missions, such as in the context of EUJUST LEX Iraq, EULEX Kosovo, UNIPSIL Sierra Leone or UNMIT East Timor.

2. Disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration (DDR)

Following the end of an armed conflict, disarming and demobilising ex-combatants and reintegrating them into society are key preconditions for ensuring lasting security, preventing a relapse into violence and creating a secure environment for peacebuilding.

DDR is part of an extensive cluster of measures for the stabilisation of a country. Since the 1990s, various peace operations have implemented DDR programmes, above all in the West Balkans and in Africa. In 2010 alone, about 20 DDR processes in post-conflict countries were under way worldwide. While disarmament and demobilisation can be realised relatively quickly, reintegration measures may require a commitment over several years. With some exceptions, most DDR programmes have been implemented by UN peace operations. However, through some activities, EU operations, the World Bank and bilateral programmes have been able to work alongside UN missions on this issue. DDR is one of the few fields in peace operations in which the utilisation of practical experience has led to a large-scale coordinated learning process. At the end of this came the approval of the Integrated DDR Standards (IDDRS) by the UN's Interagency Working Group on DDR. Since

then, the IDDRS have been the key guidance for DDR programmes worldwide.

3. Rule of law

Rule of Law is the legal and political framework under which all persons and institutions, including the state itself, are accountable. Establishing respect for the rule of law is fundamental to achieving a durable peace in the aftermath of conflict.



Laws need to be publicly promulgated, equally enforced and independently adjudicated and to be

consistent with international human rights norms and standards. Peace operations and crisis management missions work to strengthen police, justice and correctional institutions, as well as the institutions that can hold them accountable.

Since 1999, all major UN peace operations have had provisions to work with the host country to strengthen the rule of law. Activities designed to promote the rule of law have also been central to most CSDP missions. Currently, EULEX Kosovo and EUJUST LEX Iraq are the two main examples for the EU's approach toward rule of law missions.

Both the United Nations and the European Union have increased their resources and personnel as well as adapted their structures to respond to the growing demand for rule of law activities within the framework of crisis management missions. Several training options for personnel with a rule of law background have arisen, such as rule of law specialisation courses conducted by ENTRi (www.entriforccm.eu).

EU Member States have committed up to 282 officials for deployment from the SSR pool and the Crisis Response Team – two structures managed under CSDP. A generic concept for missions in the field of rule of law was elaborated within the Council Secretariat. The

concept makes a distinction between strengthening the rule of law (i.e. educating, training, monitoring and advising with the aim of bringing the local legal system up to international standards) and substitution for the local judiciary/legal system (i.e. carrying out executive functions, notably where local structures are failing or inexistent in order to consolidate the rule of law in crisis situations and thereby restore public order and security).

4. Police

The first international police mission was organised by the UN in 1989 to support the election preparations in Namibia. The missions in Cambodia (1992-93) and West Sahara (1993-96) had similar tasks. In former Yugoslavia, the international police force was not only involved in assisting the election preparations, but also in the operational monitoring of the economic embargo. Additional tasks included training and consultation of local police forces, establishing a functioning police administration, support and consultation on infrastructural issues, as well as prosecution, border control and supra-regional protection from threats. Many of the new tasks are summarised under the generic term SSR.

Police missions, especially those mandated by the UN, progressively increased in size and number of personnel. In 2010, the UN (UNPOL) dispatched nearly 13,000 police officers worldwide. Since the late 1990s, the EU has also increased the policing capacity in its CSDP operations and civilian police have assumed a leading role in improving EU crisis response capabilities. In 2004 the EU set the target of 5,761 police officers for relevant operations, 1,400 of which should be ready for action within 30 days. The first sizable EU police missions were deployed in the Balkans at the end of the 1990s (EUPM Bosnia, PROXIMA Macedonia, etc.).

Currently, major tasks of an international police mission are: consulting and training measures, assistance with technical equipment, including the necessary briefing, and increasingly also the establishment of complete administrative structures along with responsible ministries, including the mentoring of personnel. In recent years, members of police missions have mainly been recruited from police forces and from criminal investigation departments as well as increasingly also from Gendarmerie forces. So-called Formed Police Units (FPUs) have gained importance, particularly in UN operations. Generally, FPUs are composed of about 120 officers of a personnel-dispatching state who are qualified through joint training sessions and

special equipment to react to violence-prone demonstrations and unrest. They are meant to close the gaps in the spectrum of competencies which are neither covered by military components nor by civilian police (CIVPOL). Particularly suited for this task are paramilitary police forces of some European states, such as the Gendarmerie (France), the Carabinieri (Italy) or the Guardia Civil (Spain). The UN FPU were first deployed in Kosovo and East Timor in 1999. Their main tasks are the protection of personnel and of the facilities of a mission, the support of local police forces in their attempts to maintain public security, as well as local FPU capacity building (training, consultation). In 2010 70 FPUs of the UN were in action, encompassing more than half of the police forces deployed by the UN. Since 2003, five EU Member States that already had specialised police forces at the national level (police with military status), also known as Gendarmerie-type corps, have made their specialised units available to the EU by creating a new European Gendarmerie Force (EGF or Eurogendfor).

5. Human rights and gender

Human rights and gender issues are at the heart of every peace operation. Both are meant to be mainstreamed into all activities on the ground, but can also be tackled through the implementation of specific projects or tasks (see sections C2 and C3 for additional information).

Most peace operations have human rights teams and gender advisers. Their goals are contributing to the protection of human rights and the promotion of gender equality through both immediate and long-term action, empowering the population, and enabling state and other national institutions to implement their human rights and gender equality obligations and to uphold the rule of law.

The Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), UN Women and other UN agencies and programmes provide expertise, guidance and support to UN peace operations on gender and human rights issues. At the EU a Special Representative (EUSR) for Human Rights was appointed and the EU's Strategic Framework and Action Plan on Human Rights and Democracy was adopted. Relevant documents on mainstreaming human rights and gender in CSDP include: general (lessons doc. 17138/1/10;

training doc. 17209/10); gender (docs 7109/12; 15671/1/08; 16173/1/08); children and armed conflict (docs. 16031/07; 17488/10; 10019/08); international humanitarian law (doc. 16841/09); protection of civilians (doc. 15091/10); standards of behaviour (doc. 8373/1/05).

The core activities undertaken by the human rights section typically include:

- ★ Human rights monitoring, investigations and analysis;
- ★ Preventing human rights violations, including through mission-wide early warning mechanisms;
- ★ Responding to violations of human rights, including support for accountability;
- ★ Advocacy, intervention and reporting;
- ★ Human rights advice, support for institutional reform and capacity building in close cooperation with host governments, national institutions and civil society;
- ★ Advising and assisting other mission teams in integrating human rights in their mandated tasks;
- ★ Human rights teams work in close coopera-

tion and coordination with other civilian and uniformed components of peace operations, particularly in relation to:

- Addressing conflict-related sexual and gender-based violence and violations against children;
- Strengthening respect for human rights and the rule of law through legal and judicial reform, security sector reform and prison system reform.

The core activities undertaken by gender advisers typically include:

- ★ Liaising and cooperating with relevant local and international counterparts in the broader rule of law area (judiciary, police and customs) on monitoring existing institutional mechanisms and implementing existing national action plans on gender, peace and security, sexual and gender-based violence, anti-trafficking, protection, prevention and participation, and the humanitarian aspects set out in UN Security Council resolution 1325 and subsequent resolutions;
- ★ Liaising and cooperating with other actors (for instance, the Ombudsperson/Public Defender

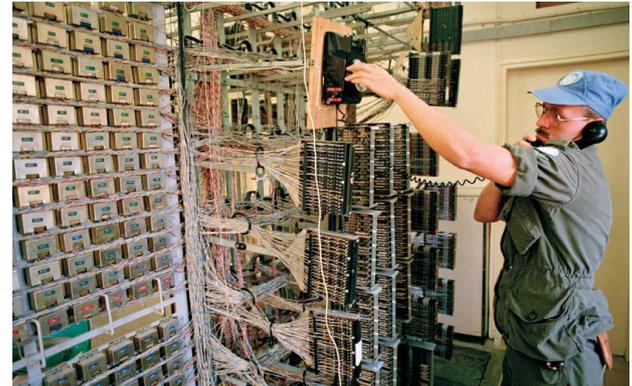
of Georgia, human resource units within ministries, women's organisations and civil society) and international counterparts (for instance, UN Women, UNHCR, UNICEF, UNDP, NATO, World Bank, ICRC, EU Delegations, European Union Special Representatives and the Council of Europe) working in the field of gender, peace and security, gender equality policy making, monitoring and evaluating existing institutional mechanisms and developing subsequent national action plans, monitoring issues related to Georgia's periodic report to CEDAW, gender mainstreaming and gender-sensitive monitoring;

- ★ Generally working in line with and in promotion of EU policy on human rights, gender, children and armed conflict, international humanitarian law, transitional justice, standards of behaviour, protection of civilians and civil society (included in the 2008 compilation of documents on mainstreaming human rights and gender into ESDP).

Several training institutions and programmes offer training courses for field officers working on human rights and gender. See, for example, the ENTRi course programme (www.entriforccm.eu).

E. Cooperation and coordination approaches

Crises with military, social and economic causes and symptoms require the coordinated use of political, diplomatic, military, humanitarian and development-related instruments. Examples such as Afghanistan show that the success of crisis management is endangered if a dimension is neglected or overvalued and an overarching strategy is missing. Comprehensive crisis management is a complex undertaking with manifold tasks, a great number of actors that are involved and commitments that take time. Additionally, diverse interests of the various actors (such as states and international organisations) often give rise to conflicting opinions on the objectives of an operation.



Coordinated cooperation and coherent measures are, however, essential preconditions for effective crisis management. Thus, an early definition of common objectives and coordination of all actors (e.g. national ministries, international organisations, NGOs and donors) and instruments (military, police and civilian instruments), both in the field as well as in political centres, is needed at different stages of the conflict. Appropriate and timely action is also important. The broad participation of actors ensures lasting results and contributes to shared burdens and increased legitimacy. Comprehensive or integrated approaches, as they are also called, should provide the necessary coordination capacity; they should offer a conceptual and organisational basis for cooperation, encourage the establishment of new structures (e.g. cross-departmental bodies), and regulate the distribution of resources.

Different approaches exist at the international level, such as the EU's comprehensive approach, UN integrated missions and the UN cluster approach, and NATO's comprehensive approach.

1. The European Union's comprehensive approach (CA)

The Council of the European Union decided that alongside civilian CSDP missions and military CSDP operations, the EU should use all its available tools as coherent parts of EU action to tackle crises in a coordinated and comprehensive manner. This includes the improvement of its ability to foster civilian-military cooperation as well as the coordinated use of diplomatic, legal, development, trade and economic tools of the EU Commission.

The Treaty of Lisbon offered an opportunity for reinforcing the comprehensive approach, calling for the use of the variety of policies and instruments at the EU's disposal in a more coherent manner in order to address the whole cycle, from preparedness and preventive action through crisis response and management, including stabilisation, peacemaking and peacekeeping, to peacebuilding, recovery, reconstruction and a return to longer-term development.

The main challenge to the comprehensive approach, however, is the translation of its concept into concrete action in the field. This is a challenge especially in regions where the European Union is not only represented with an EU Delegation as a single

hub for EU activities. Crisis areas are usually characterised by simultaneous action by different players. In Afghanistan, for example, an EU Special Representative (EUSR) and a civilian CSDP mission (EUPOL Afghanistan) are present in addition to the respective EU Delegation. Therefore, a main challenge for the comprehensive approach is its successful implementation in crisis areas where several EU instruments are employed, not to mention coordination with all the other international and local actors.

2. Integrated Missions Planning Process at the UN

Following the Brahimi Report and building on lessons learned in UNAMA, the UN Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) and others, DPKO made further efforts to improve and develop its operational planning capacity by creating new structures, plans and standard procedures. The Integrated Missions Planning Process (IMPP) was developed to ensure a transparent and inclusive approach in the planning of multidimensional operations. The IMPP includes consultations with key external partners and stakeholders, including national actors when appropriate. In 2007 the UN began full implementation of the IMPP as part of its wider 'Peace-

keeping 2010' reform strategy. The AU/UN Hybrid Operation in Darfur (UNAMID) was the first UN mission that was planned using the IMPP in 2007.

3. The UN's cluster approach

The cluster approach is a mechanism endorsed by the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) in 2005 with the aim of establishing more coordination within UN integrated missions to enable more efficient humanitarian aid and disaster response. Operating at the global and country level, the cluster approach aims to strengthen system-wide preparedness and technical capacity to respond to humanitarian emergencies and improve in-country coordination and response capacity by mobilising clusters of organisations to respond in particular areas of activity.

UN OCHA has the role of ensuring the establishment of the cluster approach in a sudden-onset disaster and providing inter-cluster coordination, overall guidance and monitoring of the process, and advocacy to support the work of the clusters. Examples of clusters can range from emergency shelter, education, inter-cluster coordination and early recovery to health, logistics, nutrition and protection.

Chapter 2

Guiding principles

1. Conflict sensitivity/do no harm

'Do no harm' (conflict sensitivity) is a principle for the planning, evaluation and adaptation of assistance measures in crisis management. It is based on the understanding that international aid has unavoidable side effects. With this guiding principle, crisis work should be shaped in a way sensitive to conflict. Its negative effects should thus be minimised.

The 'do no harm' approach was developed at the beginning of the 1990s by non-governmental organisations (NGOs). Developed for emergency aid, it has since been applied in all areas and phases of crisis management. The assumption at the basis of 'do no harm' is that in every conflict forces and structures are present that promote or maintain violence (potential for force). On the other hand, there are those that can be gained for peaceful solutions (peace potential).

External crisis management should strengthen those structures (such as dispute resolution procedures and civilian societal mergers) as well as actors (moder-

ate leaders) who can work positively toward a peaceful transformation of conflict. In reality, however, this management can promote the potential for force, even though mostly unintentional. Depending on who is helped first, who receives benefits and which signals (political, ethical) the international actors send out, external help can actually worsen conflicts and emergencies.

External actors can cause damage by omission and in other ways. Their participation can be too strong as they articulate their interests and priorities only from their own perspective. Or they can be perceived to be biased and to behave inappropriately.

For instance, after the end of the civil war in Guatemala, refugees returning at the end of the 1990s received international support in the form of land, houses and educational programmes. However, those who had remained in the country received no comparable benefits and felt neglected. The result was local conflicts as well as disputes among helping organisations. In East Timor, international UN workers avoided the integration of local actors and the time-consuming construction of capacities so as to keep to their tight timetable. In this way, they put the sustainability of the measures taken at risk.

International crisis management is continuously confronted by such dilemmas. A wholly positive result is nearly impossible. In line with the 'do no harm' principle, it is necessary to recognise such negative developments, to stop and to find or develop suitable methods for examining one's actions. Then the appropriate action can be taken. Knowledge of the conflict and local data are prerequisites for this. On this basis, international organisations, states and NGOs must balance out different imperatives of action, and they must consider the unintentional, long-term consequences of their actions ahead of time.

2. Local ownership

Local ownership designates the process as well as the objective of the gradual takeover of responsibility by local actors. As a prerequisite for the sustainability of peace consolidation, it is a key ingredient in the exit strategy of a peace operation or civilian crisis mission. Local ownership is a result-oriented principle and normative concept that requires the involvement of local actors early in the game.

For decades, local ownership has been an ingredient in development cooperation. This involves con-

cepts such as 'helping people to help themselves' or 'participatory development'. In the area of peace consolidation, with the increasing number of peace consolidation tasks, local ownership has become even more important since the 1990s. The concept of local ownership is appearing in more and more reports, position papers and guides for actors in peace missions. However, there is neither a coherent theory of local ownership nor a common view of what the implementation of the principle means in practice. How can local populations completely or proportionally 'possess' sovereignty over peacebuilding processes if they are still dominated by external actors? Often, local ownership does not mean local autonomy, the selection of programmes and the specification of priorities by local actors. Rather, it is the attempt to adjust already defined international politics to local realities. In contrast, many international actors on the working level often pursue community-based or bottom-up approaches that create a scope for development for local partners and support this freedom. Here, local ownership is made possible through the inclusion of local traditions.

Since personnel in peace operations largely work together with national governmental structures, neither the civil society nor the public in a country are typically involved in such missions. Beyond this, the

interaction between internal (local) and external (international) actors is, as a rule, asymmetric: International actors dominate and therefore impede local ownership. At the same time, however, in practice, methods and instruments of cooperation between national and international actors are applied that support local participation, acceptance and ownership. In this regard, co-location (spatial merging of international and national personnel) is a key factor for good cooperation and joint learning. Programmes for the recruitment and further education of national employees (National Professional Officers) also well received, even though they always entail the danger that qualified national experts will migrate to international organisations (brain drain). Moreover, a stronger recourse to regional advisors, moderators, and institutions seems promising. Also, proposals for regional solutions and the consideration of regional traditions (jurisdiction and administration) could be helpful.

3. Human security

In the UNDP report of 1994 human security is defined as protection from physical force (freedom from fear) and as protection from hardship and deprivation (freedom from want). With this definition, the focus

of security policy action is directed at the individual instead of the state and the concept of security is expanded by a development component.

In the face of complex geopolitical challenges extending beyond boundaries, states and international organisations have recognised the threat to human security – in contrast to threats to state security – as a new frame of reference for security policy. The concept of human security was first introduced in UNDP’s Human Development Report in 1994. Taking into consideration failing states and uncertain monopolies of force, there was a call for security policy concepts oriented toward the survival, the security and the development of individual human beings. Accordingly, ‘freedom from fear’ should apply not only to ongoing interstate acts of war, but also to the pre- and post-conflict phase, as well as further threats such as poverty and environmental disasters.

UNDP as well as many states, along with the EU, hoped that development issues would obtain a higher priority on the security policy agenda and that more resources would be directed toward development projects. Even though basic ideas of human security have entered security policy debates, however, the concept is still disputed. Critics doubt its practicability and fear the ‘securitisation’ of international politics – with refer-

ence to human security everything could be declared a threat. Currently, two schools of thought exist. One works with a narrower, pragmatic definition (freedom from fear) while the other represents a broad, holistic definition (freedom from fear and freedom from want).

Human security requires an integrated approach to action that covers multiple sectors. It must be aimed at the protection, the security and the empowerment of those affected. UNDP names seven political fields of application: physical, political, local or communal, health, ecological, economic, and nutritional security. Human security is complementary to other existing security concepts. An extensive paradigm shift has not taken place. The conceptual vagueness makes political adaptation difficult. Different governments (above all Canada, Norway and Japan) have included the agenda of human security in their foreign, security and development policies.

In 2004 an advisory group of the EU's High Representative for Common Foreign and Security Policy, Javier Solana, prepared the Barcelona Report (A Human Security Document for Europe). In this report, he called for civilian as well as military commitment. In the subsequent Madrid Report (2007), the relevance of human security for European missions was further

emphasized, and the following guidelines for the practice of this concept were formulated: the primacy of human rights, legitimate political authority, multilateralism, a bottom-up approach, an integrated regional focus as well as a transparent strategy. However, the implementation has turned out to be difficult.

4. Resolution 1325

Resolution 1325 was passed unanimously by the UN Security Council on 31 October 2000. In it, the Security Council requests that UN Member States promote the stronger participation of women in the institutional prevention, resolution and settlement of conflicts at all levels.

With the adoption of resolution 1325 on women, peace and security by the UN Security Council, the UN and its Member States did not just refer to the protection of women in conflicts and their involvement in peace negotiations for the first time. They also called for concrete measures, such as the appointment of more women as special representatives or the expansion of the role and contribution of women to civilian, police and military missions.

The slow and insufficient implementation of resolution 1325 has been criticized in the past. Frequently, this criticism has referred to the inadequate representation of women in leadership positions in the peacebuilding structure of the UN and in delegations in peace processes. Indeed, the record after ten years is still sobering. Although the total number of peace operations and the number of their personnel have increased by almost 400 per cent in the last 20 years, there are still only few women directing missions at the UN (Special Representatives of the Secretary General) and none directing CSDP missions or operations. Women are also underrepresented in police and military service with eight and two per cent respectively.

But apart from the statistics, the effects of resolution 1325 can best be seen in practical developments. Since 2000, almost all processes in the different peacebuilding institutions have been in a test phase as far as the integration of women is concerned. Resolution 1325 has been taken into account in almost every strategic paper of the UN, the EU or the OSCE. The establishment of gender focal points in all departments of the UN Secretariat and the appointment of Gender Advisors in the different missions in the field has steadily increased. The fact that women are no longer just seen as victims of wars, but are increasingly regarded as facilitators and promoters of peace

processes, is largely attributable to the debate that was initiated by resolution 1325.

At the UN level, the tenth anniversary of the resolution in 2010 led to two substantial initiatives. First, in March 2010 a group of experts was tasked with examining the effects of resolution 1325 in the last decade. Second, in July 2010 a new UN Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women was created by a resolution of the General Assembly. UN Women merges all previous institutions into a new strong player which will have a stronger voice within the UN system.

5. Protection of civilians

The protection of civilians in armed conflicts is a cross-sectional task in the mandate for participation in peace operations. Civilian, police and military mission components should guarantee this protection, which is to be supported by political measures and coordinated through the activities of humanitarian actors and development cooperation.

In troubled states, civilians are often victims of targeted violence, including killing, sexual abuse, expul-

sion or recruitment as child soldiers. The governments of affected states do not meet their responsibilities toward the population – because they are either weakened or involved in serious human rights violations themselves. The obligation to protect human rights and the responsibility to protect require that the international community becomes active in such cases. However, the international community has failed in the past, as with the massacres of Rwanda and Srebrenica in the 1990s. Nowadays, the protection of the civilian population is one of the priorities of UN-mandated peace missions. The security of the civilian population is a prerequisite for socio-political reconstruction in troubled countries.

Thus far, the UN has developed neither an exact definition nor operative guidelines for the protection of the civilian population. This makes implementation in the field difficult. It also allows for confusion with the related concepts of human security and responsibility to protect. In contrast to these two concepts, the protection of civilians is no abstract principle of international law. Rather, it is a cross-sectional task for civilian and military personnel of mandated peace missions (e.g. ISAF in Afghanistan or UNMISS in South Sudan). The UN Security Council first deliberated on the protection of the civilian population in 1999. The Secretary-General was charged with developing rec-

ommendations for the implementation. On this basis, the Security Council passed two resolutions (1265, 1296) in 1999 and in 2000. Moreover, in 1999, he explicitly allowed the use of force for the protection of threatened civilians in two missions (UNAMSIL in Sierra Leone and INTERFET in East Timor). Nowadays, the protection of the civilian population is part of nearly all UN mission mandates. The EU has welcomed the UN's operational concept on the protection of civilians in various policy documents and draws from its experience and lessons learned. The EU aims to develop the concept along a three-tiered approach:

- ★ Tier 1 – Protection through political process;
- ★ Tier 2 – Providing protection from physical violence;
- ★ Tier 3 – Establishing a protective environment.

However, there is a big gap between mandates and their implementation, as the high numbers of civilian casualties in conflicts, such as in the Congo or Darfur, demonstrate. Prerequisites for the implementation are suitable prevention, reaction, defence and deterrence capacities as well as sufficient civil, military and police personnel with corresponding qualifications. The prevention portfolio should also include political and

diplomatic measures of the UN and Member States, such as conflict resolution and early warning as well as analysis capacities. At the same time, the UN and its Member States must warn against excessive and unrealistic expectations. The protection of each and every individual is impossible. One frequent problem is also the coordination between peace missions and humanitarian actors (e.g. UNICEF, humanitarian aid), which also commit to the protection of civilians. A report initiated by DPKO and UN OCHA and co-financed by Germany demands complementary strategies when implementing protection measures.



6. Responsibility to protect (R2P)

The principle of the responsibility to protect (R2P) aims to prevent the most serious violations of human rights. According to R2P, every state is responsible for the protection of its population. If it is incapable or unwilling to do so, the international community should, where necessary, take measures to protect the civilian population.

R2P is anchored in the concluding document of the UN world summit held in 2005. The idea of the re-

sponsibility to protect evolved from the discussion on humanitarian intervention (e.g. in Kosovo) at the end of the 1990s. It attempts to provide an answer to the question of how a civilian population can be protected from the most serious violations of human rights without disregarding the sovereignty of a state. It solves this conflict by means of a two-step procedure. According to R2P, every sovereign state has the responsibility to protect its population. Only if it is not in the position or is unwilling to do so, is the responsibility to protect transferred to the international community.

The conceptual development of R2P took place in several commissions and reports in preparation for the UN world summit in 2005 in New York. After protracted negotiations, R2P was formally recognised by UN Member States at the world summit in 2005. Thus, states must protect their populations from genocide, war crimes, ethnic cleansing and crimes against humanity. The realm of application for R2P was explicitly limited to these four cases. This limitation underlines the alarming effect of the concept as well as its potential for mobilization; it limits legal uncertainties and political discrepancies in the implementation. In the final resolution, states affirmed their responsibility to employ, through the UN, the “appropriate diplomatic, humanitarian and other peaceful means, in accordance with Chapters VI and VIII of the Charter to

help protect populations.” In case national authorities should fail to do so and peaceful means prove not to be sufficient, they declare that they are “prepared to take collective action, in a timely and decisive manner, through the Security Council, in accordance with the Charter, including Chapter VII, on a case-by-case basis and in cooperation with relevant regional organisations as appropriate”.

Chapter 3

Preparing for deployment

Everything outlined below is subject to rules and regulations that have been set by receiving organisations with respect to policies and concepts guiding missions/operations in the field. In this sense, the following can only serve as a general overview of issues to be taken into account.

A. Understanding the situation

Before leaving on a crisis management mission, you need to make sure you are well equipped with the knowledge and tools needed to tackle any upcoming challenges. For this reason, you are responsible for preparing yourself both professionally and personally.

The challenges you might face while on mission range from dealing with unknown cultures, eating unusual food or living in difficult conditions to performing first aid on an injured colleague or negotiating your way out of an ambush. Personal preparation prior to a mission will boost your readiness to perform professionally and to deal with most of the challenges you encounter.

The most basic questions you need to ask yourself before deployment are the following: where are you going and why?

1. Where are you going?

As a crisis manager, you have probably been told to 'expect the unexpected' when leaving on a mission. You might have also been told to be flexible and open enough to face all kinds of surprises around you. However, the fact that you are bound to encounter 'unexpected' challenges along the way does not mean that you should refrain from reading about the country of deployment and preparing yourself for 'expected' challenges. Understanding the mission background and familiarising yourself with the country of your future (temporary) home is very important.

Therefore, before you leave, try to get a good grasp of the environment, history, culture and living conditions of the location you will be deployed to. Make sure you conduct the necessary research and find out more about the region's:

- ★ Climate and terrain;
- ★ Food;

- ★ People;
- ★ Living conditions;
- ★ Languages;
- ★ Cultural traditions & faux pas;
- ★ Political landscape;
- ★ Security infrastructure;
- ★ History;
- ★ Geography;
- ★ Internal influences (religion, militias, revolutionary movements, etc.);
- ★ External/geopolitical influences/disputes;
- ★ Economy, inflation rates, currency, exchange rates;
- ★ History of diseases, viruses, potential health concerns;
- ★ Disputes (history, developments, past involvement of peacekeepers, mandates, etc.).

The following is a sample list of possible sources you can draw on for general as well as insider information on the country of deployment:

- ★ Contacts you may already have in the country of deployment;
- ★ Your employer's induction pack (if available);
- ★ The internet (think tank publications, UN, EU, ReliefWeb, Reuters, etc);
- ★ Situation reports, conflict analysis and briefing papers;
- ★ University publications;
- ★ Weather forecasts;
- ★ WHO websites on vaccinations and potential diseases;
- ★ Mapping services (have an updated map at hand upon arrival).

2. Why are you going there?

Take time to become familiar with your future employer's mandate, purpose and background. It is your responsibility to understand your future mission duties and tasks before deployment. Study the employment contract and terms of reference (ToR) for your position. If anything is unclear in your contract, then ensure that clarity is gained from the entity that is hiring you. Look into the available documents that form the basis of the mission you will be deployed to: mandates, UN Security Council resolutions, or, in the case of a CSDP mission, look into the concept of operation (CONOPS) or the operation plan (OPLAN); you will receive these documents during your induction session.

B. What should you do before departure?

Now that you have fuelled yourself with the essential knowledge about the country of deployment as well as your mission's purpose and mandate, it is time to act and take care of the final domestic, medical and professional arrangements before packing and leaving. This section will guide you through the most important steps.

1. Domestic arrangements

Preparing the family

It can be daunting for family members to learn of your upcoming departure. Even though they might not have to face the exact direct challenges that you will be tackling while on mission, your family will nonetheless have to cope with various emotional – and sometimes even material – hardships while you are away. For instance, spouses often undergo the frustration of being physically separated from their partner, worrying about them constantly, while struggling to single-handedly take over most of the household responsibilities.

Good communication can be a crucial factor when preparing your loved ones for the news of your departure. Take the time needed to clearly explain where you will be going and why it is important for you to go there. For example, it might be a good idea to engage them while researching and reading about the history and culture of the country of deployment as well as your mission mandate.

Although 24-hour news reports can keep your loved ones up to date, be considerate of how such news reports might be perceived by family members and make sure they remain aware of the risks and drawbacks that accompany around-the-clock media coverage. In order to avoid certain misunderstandings and misplaced concerns, you should try to maintain regular contact with family members by using available means of communication.

Household chores

During deployment, your family members and spouse will most likely create new routines to manage household chores and responsibilities. Make necessary domestic arrangements before you leave.

These arrangements can range from paying bills in advance for rent or utilities to finding someone to water plants or look after pets. If deployment is for a long period of time you might need to arrange mail to be redelivered or for someone to pick it up.

Your will and other legal documents

Before deployment, you might want to prepare a power of attorney document, living will, and last will and testament. Writing a will might feel strange, but after all it is a formality in the first place. However, crisis management holds its own set of risks, therefore it is sensible to plan for every scenario, including the worst case.

Power of attorney: This is a written document that allows you to give a person of your choice the authority and right to act on your behalf if any legal or economic issues arise while you are on mission. Power of attorney can be general, limited or enduring. A general one allows the designated person to act on your behalf in almost all legal acts. If you only wish to have them represent you on certain issues, then you can resort to a limited power of attorney contract whereby you specify the powers and issues to be tackled by the

chosen person. Finally, an enduring power of attorney becomes valid if you lose your ability to handle your own affairs (if you're injured or incapacitated, for example). As long as you are mentally competent, and if any problems arise, you have the right to consult an attorney and revoke that power from the person you entrusted it with.

Living will: A living will is a written document in which you describe the medical treatment you do or do not wish to receive in case you are seriously injured or terminally ill, as well as designate a person to act and make medical decisions on your behalf. This becomes valid and takes effect only if you are not able to express your wish in any other way.

Last will and testament: This written declaration states how you wish your property to be handled after you die. Without one, the fate of your possessions, savings and custody of children could lie in the hands of the court.

In any case check the national legal requirements for any of these documents in your respective country.

2. Medical arrangements

Immunisation and vaccination

You may have to work in areas where poor public health conditions prevail. Therefore you should get all vaccinations required for predominant diseases in your area of deployment. Have your vaccinations up to date and registered in an international certificate of vaccination (WHO standard recommended). Take time to arrange for vaccinations before departure and bear in mind that some may require a few weeks before they become effective.

You may not always have time once the phone rings telling you to be at destination X in 48 hours. If you are on an emergency roster or there is a good chance you will be deployed, make sure you are up to date before that phone call. You must always be covered for hepatitis A and B, typhoid, diphtheria, tetanus and poliomyelitis. Depending on your area of deployment, you should also be covered for rabies.

Other diseases you are well advised to think about ahead of time are:

- ★ Malaria;
- ★ Meningitis; the "meningitis belt" spans much of

Central, East and West Africa, and some other regions;

- ★ Yellow fever, present in much of sub-Saharan Africa and Central and South America;
- ★ Japanese encephalitis, a risk in South and South-East Asia;
- ★ Cholera (a good oral cholera vaccine exists and is perhaps a wise precaution for natural disasters or chronic complex emergencies);
- ★ Meningococcal meningitis.

This list is by no means exhaustive. Get expert advice as early as possible on places where you could be posted.

General screening/checkups

Ensure that you have regular health screenings/checkups to remain in the best of health and to manage any medical problems on time.

Health screenings should include:

- ★ General medical examination, including blood and urine tests;
- ★ Chest X-ray and electrocardiogram (ECG/EKG);
- ★ Breast examination and PAP (cervical smear) for females;
- ★ Dental;
- ★ Visual acuity.

It is advisable to visit a physician experienced in travel medicine as early before deployment as possible.

Insurance

Make sure you have an insurance policy that covers incidents ranging from minor accidents and illnesses to life-threatening ones. Such insurance may be included in your work contract. However, make sure to always check the scope and details of coverage and ensure that all items you deem necessary are included in that policy. If not, you might want to take out private insurance in addition to what your employer offers you.

3. Professional arrangements

Before embarking on a crisis management mission, make sure you identify what your key areas of responsibility will be and how you can go about accomplishing your tasks. Handover is an essential step within that process. It can be advisable to get in touch with your predecessor(s) and/or single-handedly try to find information on the following:

- ★ The basic planning documents of the mission/operation like the CONOPS, the OPLAN, the Mission Implementation Plan (MIP) and any strategic mission reviews;
- ★ The history of the project and its goals;
- ★ Challenges, lessons learned and good practices;
- ★ Location of resources and support structures;
- ★ Key information on personnel, partners and stakeholders;
- ★ Current needs, priorities and issues;
- ★ Manuals and guidelines or other literature dealing with your job.

Make sure you understand and accept your job description, come to terms with your responsibilities and manage your expectations. On occasion, employees who have been used to being in positions of command or working at high-end jobs may suddenly find themselves disenchanted with the new kind of work they are supposed to be doing. For instance, when working in a new team, they may be required to perform tasks that were previously not part of their responsibilities (such as acting as the team driver in a monitoring team). Subsequent feelings of frustration can have a negative impact on their work as well as that of their colleagues. To avoid such feelings, make sure you manage your own expectations before accepting a job offer.

Equipment

Each organisation has its specific rules as to what equipment you may or may not use during deployment. For instance, if you are a police officer deployed to a civilian mission you need to check what the policy is on carrying firearms. Depending on the kind of mission you are embarking on, and the organisation you will be working for, the equipment that you need to prepare and take with you might differ from what you

are used to. Do check any equipment before departure and ensure that you acquire what you need.

Preparatory training/capacity building

As a crisis manager, you may already have relevant work experience. Still, your upcoming tasks may be different and new to you, depending on the nature and stage of the crisis, country of deployment, organisation and changing external factors.

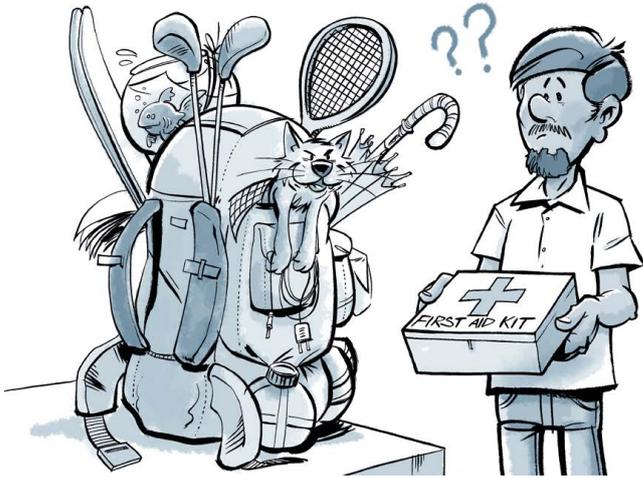
Therefore, even if you have previous experience with, for instance, the UN in Goma in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, you will find that your deployment to Kosovo with the EU will require a new kind of training and preparation.

Training could be offered by your nominating agent or employer. It could be offered as e-learning or as part of a course which can be physically attended. Very important in this respect is the participation in a mission specific pre-deployment training course if any such course is offered by your receiving organisation.

However, if and when time allows, you could also personally enrol in externally offered courses, such as those offered by the ENTRI consortium:

- ★ Europe's New Training Initiative for Civilian Crisis Management (ENTRI) aims at building capacity and preparing and training civilians who are either going to, or already working in, crisis management missions worldwide (www.entriforccm.eu). Such missions include those of the European Union (EU), the United Nations (UN), the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) and the African Union (AU).

Further capacity-building events are published on the EU's Schoolmaster database (<https://esdp.consilium.europa.eu>).



C. What should you pack before departure?

Clothing and equipment requirements for a mission vary according to the location, climate, culture, season and the state of the local economy. You can be expected to be fully independent and self-sufficient throughout the mission with regard to clothing and personal effects. During your periods of leave, you will have to consider restocking on personal items.

The following are recommended items to pack:

1. Documents and related items

- ★ International travel ticket;
- ★ Valid passport (it is important to check the length of validity);
- ★ Visa;
- ★ Spare passport photos (plenty of them);
- ★ Work contract and, if necessary, travel authorisation;
- ★ International certificate of vaccinations;
- ★ International driving licence;
- ★ Insurance information/documentation;
- ★ Contact Information for: head office and country offices; main contact person details in-country; Embassy contact details;
- ★ Small amount of cash in small denominations to a limit acceptable for security reasons and in a currency acceptable in the destination country (usually US dollars or other major international currencies);
- ★ Notebook, pens and pencils;
- ★ Deployment Handbook;

- ★ Copies of all essential documents;
- ★ A map of where you are going.

It is advisable to store important information in more than one location, i.e. emergency phone numbers should not only be saved on your mobile phone.

2. Personal items

The following is a checklist of the items that you need to consider packing before going on mission. Some of them might be climate-, country- or organisation-specific. It is important to pack essential items in your hand-luggage in case your main luggage does not arrive on time.

- ★ Holdall or rucksack;
- ★ Clothing and sturdy walking shoes appropriate for the location, elevation, time of year and expected duration of the mission (Remember that short sleeves and shorts may not be culturally acceptable in some countries);
- ★ Water-resistant boots;
- ★ Smart clothing for official meetings;
- ★ Culturally appropriate clothing, including long-sleeved garments and headscarves if local customs necessitate them;
- ★ Rain gear;
- ★ Sleeping bag with liner;
- ★ Extra pair of glasses and second pair of sunglasses;
- ★ Identification kit (i.e. vest and ID), if necessary;
- ★ Towel;
- ★ Dry wash in case there is a potential for water shortage;
- ★ Ear plugs;
- ★ Torch with spare bulb and batteries;
- ★ Pocket knife/multi-tool;
- ★ Sewing kit;
- ★ Washing powder;
- ★ Plastic bags;
- ★ Candles;
- ★ Universal adapters for electronic equipment;
- ★ Water bottle with purification filter or tablets;

- ★ Fishing line (multi-purpose, as it is very tough);
- ★ Compass, personal GPS;
- ★ Mosquito net and mosquito repellent (especially for warm climates);
- ★ Mobile phone (with a SIM card that will work in your area of deployment);
- ★ Camera;
- ★ Alarm clock;
- ★ Personal laptop and storage device for electronic data;
- ★ Spare batteries/solar charger (if suitable).

3. Medical preparations

Medical kit

Most organisations will ensure that you are equipped with adequate first aid kits. Some organisations advise you to purchase them yourself. If you are not issued with the necessary equipment, you should carry an individual medical kit to care for minor health illnesses or injuries. The contents of the medical kit should be

clearly marked, including the names of the medications and instructions for their use. It is recommended that a sturdy waterproof container be used to store the medical kit's contents. Suggested medical supplies include the following:

General kit:

- ★ Prescription medicine for expected length of stay;
- ★ Painkillers for fever, aches, etc.;
- ★ Anti-histamines for running noses and allergies;
- ★ Antacids for abdominal upsets;
- ★ Antibiotics (generic);
- ★ Alcohol wipes;
- ★ Bandages (triangular, elastic);
- ★ Protective gloves;
- ★ Scissors (not in hand luggage).

Malaria prevention kit:

- ★ Insecticide-treated mosquito net;

- ★ DEET-based insect repellent;
- ★ Malaria prevention tablets;
- ★ A standby treatment kit.

Diarrhoea treatment kit:

- ★ Packets of oral rehydration salts, loperamide (Imodium) tablets;
- ★ Ciprofloxacin tablets (250 mg or 500 mg);
- ★ Water purification tablets.

Blood-borne diseases prevention kit:

- ★ Syringes, sterile needles.

Skin protection kit:

- ★ Sun block/sun screen/moisturiser;
- ★ Powder (possibly with anti-fungal medication);
- ★ Hydrocortisone cream against skin allergies, insect bites;

- ★ Antiseptic cream for cuts, abrasions.

Others:

- ★ If you have a history of severe allergies (anaphylaxis), take with you two epinephrine (adrenalin) self-injection kits so as to ensure that one is always available;
- ★ If you suffer from asthma attacks, take two sets of inhalers, thus ensuring that one is always available. If you regularly take medication, take adequate supplies and a list of these medicines (with dosages and frequency) signed and stamped by your doctor.

For short-term treatment of oral rehydration, you may mix your own solution consisting of six level teaspoons of sugar and half a teaspoon of salt, dissolved into one litre of clean water.

Medical records

It is recommended that you maintain your own health records showing important health data. Important information should include:

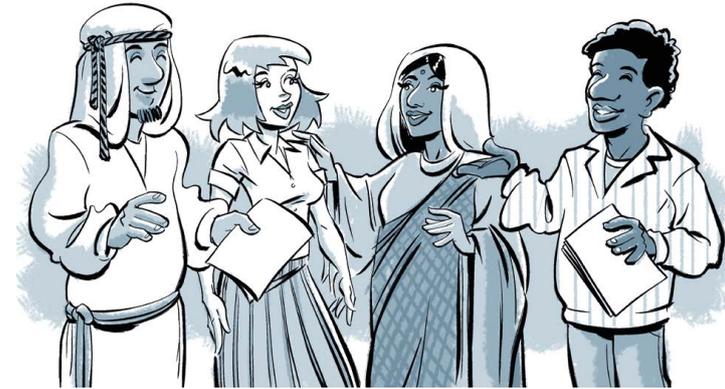
- ★ Dates and results of health checkups (including dental and visual);
- ★ Medical illnesses and medication being used;
- ★ Allergies, particularly to medication/drugs;
- ★ Vaccinations;
- ★ Personal information, such as blood group;
- ★ Health insurance details;
- ★ Name and contact details of your usual health care provider e.g. personal doctor or medical specialist.

Chapter 4

How to cope with everyday reality in the field

The moment you decide to go on a crisis management mission, you are automatically signing up for a number of responsibilities, ethical tasks and the challenge of working in an international team, all of which will guide your every action in the field and form the basis of your every decision. Therefore, when you sign your contract, you are not just committing to accomplishing the tasks in your ToR and abiding by the job description. The implications of that contract are many and most of them are often very subtle.

First and foremost, embarking on a mission means that you are agreeing to respect your organisation's code of conduct and to maintain its reputation at all times. By going on mission, you are agreeing to be environmentally friendly and to reduce your resource consumption habits and carbon footprint. But most importantly, being involved in civilian crisis management is a commitment to build local capacity every day and in your every decision until you can finally confidently hand over your work to the local population.



There are some basic differences between your regular work at home and working in a mission. You will find yourself in a foreign environment with social and cultural differences, working with colleagues from different countries as well as from the host nation. You might face challenges inherent to a post conflict setting, like a fragile security situation, a rapidly changing environment and heightened public/media attention. This chapter will focus on different aspects of your everyday work in the field and elaborate on the regulations you will have to follow in your mission.

A. Procedures and code of conduct

1. Standard operating procedures (SOPs)

The first thing that you need to familiarise yourself with is the document outlining the standard operating procedures of the organisation that you are working for. This document, which will be used to guide your everyday activities while on mission, usually consists of the following elements:

- ★ Statement of purpose – what the SOP is trying to achieve;
- ★ The tasks – what needs to be done and how;
- ★ Responsibilities – who does what;
- ★ Timing and sequence of actions;
- ★ Supporting documents and templates.

SOPs generally cover activities related to personnel management, financial management, vehicle management, assessments, curfews, checkpoints, communications, etc. Some of these aspects will be highlighted in the following sections. However, since

each mission and situation will determine the specific content and nature of an SOP, you should ensure that you are aware of and have a copy of the SOP related to your respective mission and organisation.

2. Respect your organisation's code of conduct

Representing your organisation, 24 hours a day

While on mission, you must remain aware that your conduct is subject to continuous scrutiny by both local and international observers. Since you will be representing your organisation and reflecting its image 24 hours a day, you will often feel overwhelmed by a multitude of expectations, most of which will be based on universally recognised international legal norms and disciplinary regulations that you might not have been familiar with before going on mission. Therefore, before you rush into action and end up tainting your reputation and that of your organisation, you should read, understand and abide by the staff code of conduct.

Your organisation's code of conduct is designed to guide you in upholding the highest standards of

professionalism and morality when making decisions and must be adhered to at all times. The following represents some of the elements that you are bound to encounter in a code of conduct.

- ★ You have a duty not to abuse the position of authority that you hold;
- ★ Misconduct of any kind is unacceptable and will result in the imposition of disciplinary measures;
- ★ Local laws and customs must be observed and respect shown for traditions, culture and religion;
- ★ You must be impartial and diplomatic and treat people with respect and civility;
- ★ Mission resources and money must be correctly accounted for in line with the organisation's policies and procedures;
- ★ Most importantly, the code of conduct includes a zero-tolerance policy on exploitation and abuse. Taking into consideration the gravity of this issue and its widespread occurrence in the field, it will be further dissected in the following section.

Channels for complaint/the ombudsman

Over time, several mechanisms have been developed and used to probe and ensure that organisations and individuals act in an accountable manner. One of these mechanisms has been the use of an ombudsman.

Organisational ombudsmen are most often neutral personnel whose job is to mediate and resolve disputes or other work-related complications while providing confidential and independent support as well as advice to employees or other stakeholders. Ombudsmen are generally referred to as the ultimate 'inside-outsiders' and are known for handling employees' complaints and grievances and guiding them in the right direction.

The European Ombudsman, for example, is an independent and impartial body that holds the EU administration to account. The EU Ombudsman investigates complaints about maladministration in EU institutions, bodies, offices and agencies. Only the Court of Justice of the European Union, acting in its judicial capacity, falls outside the EU Ombudsman's mandate. The ombudsman may find maladministration if an institution fails to respect fundamental rights, legal rules or principles, or the principles of good ad-

ministration. This covers administrative irregularities, unfairness, discrimination, abuse of power, failure to reply, refusal of information and unnecessary delay, for example.

Therefore, if you ever witness (or fall victim to) any organisational misconduct, you should not hesitate to contact the ombudsman for advice and seek his/her guidance on how to proceed with the violation at hand.

Sexual abuse

The 2002 'Sex for Food' scandal exposed UN peace-keeping personnel and NGO workers to the exploitation of women and children in refugee camps in West Africa through the exchange of food and money for sexual services. In response to this, the UN Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) adopted a Statement of Commitment on Eliminating Sexual Exploitation and Abuse in 2006, outlining six core principles through which UN agencies and NGOs committed to eliminating sexual exploitation and abuse by their staff.

No matter what organisation you are working with or what your role in the field is, you should always keep in mind the following six core principles:

Perpetrating sexual abuse will get you fired and make you subject to criminal prosecution! Sexual exploitation and abuse by personnel constitute acts of gross misconduct and are therefore grounds for the termination of employment.

Zero tolerance for paedophilia! Sexual activity with children (persons under the age of 18) is prohibited regardless of the age of majority or age of consent locally. Mistaken belief regarding the age of a child is not a defence!

Do not turn sex into a commodity! Exchange of money, employment, goods, or services for sex, including sexual favours or other forms of humiliating, degrading or exploitative behaviour is prohibited.

Avoid sexual relationships with local beneficiaries! These could often be based on inherently unequal power dynamics and might greatly undermine the credibility and integrity of a mission.

If you witness abuse, speak out! Where personnel develop concerns or suspicions regarding sexual

abuse or exploitation by a fellow worker, whether in the same organisation or not, he or she must report such concerns via established organisational reporting mechanisms.

Be part of an abuse-free environment! Personnel are obliged to create and maintain an environment that prevents sexual exploitation and abuse and promotes the implementation of their code of conduct. Managers at all levels have a special responsibility to support and develop systems that maintain this environment.

B. Cultural sensitivity and diversity

The environment of a crisis management mission or peace operation brings together diverse actors: military officers and enlisted personnel from different services, agents of NGOs of varying scope and size, international civil servants and individual diplomats, all of whom have different national, institutional and personal backgrounds.

In any encounter that includes such diversity, tensions and conflicts can be expected to arise and a clash of cultures is often inevitable. When the sources

of these conflicts arise from mismatches of, for example, expectations about what action is appropriate, the speed and directness with which responses should be made or the motivations which guide action, it is likely that some component of these conflicts may well be the result of cultural differences.

In a mission the situation is often complicated by the intersection of diverse organisational and national cultures. In the same way, missions with heterogeneous personnel bring the latter into contact with local populations. These local populations often draw upon cultural backgrounds different from those of the operation and its staff. The potential for culturally based misunderstandings and conflicts is increased.

For example, sometimes you might find oneself having to deal with people and cultures whose basic speech patterns might greatly differ from your own. In non-Western cultures, for instance, the use of indirect speech patterns when communicating with colleagues is prevalent. Others might also be used to adopting very collectivist approaches (as opposed to the individualist ones you might be accustomed to) when it comes to work ethics and decision-making processes. In addition, while you might be used to static and strict work rules, you will discover that some cultures em-

brace change and fluctuation as part of their everyday work and life.

In spite of all the frustrations that might result from dealing with foreign cultures, you should keep in mind that crisis management missions should be aimed at empowering people and should always draw on local capacity and culture instead of forcing foreign techniques and customs in peacebuilding and reform.

Unfortunately, missions often end up catering to the interests of the organisation and the operational culture of the crisis managers. This can significantly undermine the legitimacy of the deployed professionals and contribute to an image of them as ‘occupiers’ or ‘colonialists.’

To avoid such insensitivities, you should try to build bridges of trust between yourself and your organisation on one hand and the host community on the other. Reading anthropological and cultural guides about the different peoples you will be interacting with beforehand can also help avoid clashes and embarrassment. But most importantly, you must be aware of your very own cultural background and especially of its historical context. This is crucial because your nationality and country of origin might have a historical footprint of colonialism and occupation. And if this

is the case, they could still be perceived to be part of an ancient discourse of power involving patterns of domination and subordination of the local culture with which you will be interacting while on mission.

For this reason, you should keep in mind that cultural sensitivity is not only about learning another culture’s customs and history, but it is also about learning and acquiring a deeper understanding of your very own.

C. Crosscutting concepts and themes

1. Mentoring and advising

Mentoring and advising have become key skills not only in civilian crisis management, but in all kinds of international cooperation activities. In peace operations, these skills are very much related to the overall principle of local ownership, which enables national partners to build their capacities and to prepare local authorities to take over responsibilities or tasks from international actors. Almost every international civilian expert deployed to the field will be tasked with mentoring either an individual national counterpart or a national administrative body. Thus, the ability to interact in a culturally sensitive manner while estab-

lishing a respectful relationship or mutual learning site for national/international cooperation is crucial to implementing one's own tasks as well as the mandate of a mission as a whole.

For experts working in a peace operation, it is important to remember that with regard to mentoring you go from being a practitioner in your home country to being an agent of change in the field. It is not your responsibility to do your job in the field, but rather to empower your local counterpart to be able to do that job best in the local context.

Recently, a variety of different terms have been used interchangeably by missions to describe this interaction: monitoring, mentoring, advising, partnering or coaching are just a few examples. While partnering has been used mostly for bilateral military cooperation such as with ISAF and the Afghan military in Afghanistan, the term coaching is more often found in business-related activities. In your area of work you will mostly encounter monitoring, mentoring and advising, often abbreviated MMA. Be sure to check with your mission for the correct terminology. Be aware that in some missions, mentors do the same type of work as advisers in other missions. This can lead to confusion, so refer to your ToR and do not get too hung up on titles.

In general, in **monitoring**, one collects information, observes, assesses and reports on the performance of relevant home country institutions (e.g. police, military, justice and administration) and their personnel. Typical areas for monitoring include respect for human rights and peace or ceasefire agreements as well as elections. An important part of monitoring is also increasing international visibility on the ground.

Advisers provide expertise on operational issues in institutions or organisations to develop their performance or strengthen their capacity to fulfil specialised tasks. Advisers usually do not work in a one-to-one relationship with an individual. Advising takes place at different levels of the home country's institutions or organisations and can concentrate either on a solution to an individual problem (usually short-term) or on a long-term relationship with an organisation.

Mentors are experienced professionals who foster and support the personal skills and professional performance of another person (mentee). Mentoring takes place in a long-term one-to-one learning relationship that should be based on mutual trust and respect.

While advising usually targets organisational groups, mentoring takes place in a one-to-one relationship. It

constitutes long-term counselling for a single person with the goal of improving that person's personal and professional skills and performance.

How can you be a good mentor?

- ★ **Take your job seriously.** This means that you have to commit yourself to the personal and professional growth of the person you are mentoring by being easily available, fostering open communication and investing as much time, effort and patience as necessary. You need to create an atmosphere of mutual trust and respect, which can take some time at the beginning of your deployment. Be patient, take your time and get to know your mentee. It will bring you more success and satisfaction in the end;
- ★ **Follow up!** This means that you need to keep track of your mentee's progress and be prepared to follow up on and deal with any problems that might arise;
- ★ **Facilitate the mentee's learning.** You should allow the mentee to make his/her own learning discoveries, adapt your goals to his/her needs, and provide the space for the mentee to resolve his/her own problems first, before jointly working out additional solutions;

- ★ **Respect your mentee's agency.** You should allow your mentee to learn and discover by being inquisitive, critical and resourceful. You should by no means transfer all that you know to him/her, but rather facilitate the acquisition of that knowledge. You should also learn and benefit from the mentoring experience as well as reflect on your own practice and come up with a method that works for both of you;
- ★ **Be ready to 'learn' from your mentee.** Mentoring is never a one-direction issue. If you work together with your mentee and value his/her experience and skills, he/she will also take your experience and skills seriously.

Most peace operations have developed **mentoring and advising** schemes to execute their mandates. In the case of the EU, its very first endeavour, the European Police Mission to Bosnia and Herzegovina (EUPM), had a strong focus on mentoring and advising. Currently, almost all EU missions conduct their mandates at least partially through mentoring or advising activities and have set up schemes or instruments to implement these. EULEX Kosovo follows a MMA approach that differs slightly if applied in executive or non-executive functions of the mission. Also, EUPOL

COPPS in the Palestinian Territories uses a strong advising approach to work with Palestinian security bodies. As military peacekeeping slowly decreases, and since executive mandates are less foreseen, it is likely that future missions will even increase their MMA work and thus depend on that skill and its application even more.

Several international organisations involved in crisis management offer specialised courses to personnel foreseen for MMA tasks as part of their pre-deployment training and/or in-mission training.

If your position requires MMA skills, try to get training on that issue and check, for example, the ENTRi course programme (www.entriforccm.eu).



2. Gender

What is gender?

Gender replaces 'biological' and 'natural' explanations of masculinity and femininity with a social dimension. The social structures organising women and men into different roles and responsibilities are often perceived to be 'natural' and we often tend to take the different roles assigned to girls and boys or women and men for granted. However, while all societies have conceptions about femininity and masculinity

and all societies have some sort of division of roles between women and men, not all societies have the same conceptions of femininity and masculinity or the same division of roles. Also, the rigidity of the structures differs greatly.

Gender should be understood as describing not only the differences between men and women, but also the relationship between them, and gender roles should be viewed as flexible both within and across cultures and over time.

Nonetheless, it is crucial to remember that the concept of gender by no means impacts the 'realness' of these stereotypes, **identities** and roles or reduces their value. On the contrary, gender roles and **identities** are very real in that they affect what we do and how we act, feel, think and behave.

What is gender equality?

Gender equality refers to the equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women, men, boys and girls. It is a human rights issue and a precondition for and indicator of sustainable people-centred development.

Equality is not, however, sameness. The objective is not to deny and erase differences between men and women or between people in general, but to take advantage of those differences and put them to use constructively in a way that benefits the whole society. Equal opportunities should exist in visibility, empowerment, responsibility and participation of both sexes in all areas of public and private life.

What is gender mainstreaming?

Gender mainstreaming adopts the theory of gender equality and tries to put it into practice. It is a tool for achieving equality between men and women and therefore incorporates the basic principles of equality and cooperation in all processes and activities. It is important to note that gender mainstreaming does not focus solely on women, although women usually are the targets and beneficiaries of mainstreaming practices due to their disadvantaged position in many societies.

Gender perspectives in crisis management missions

Bringing a gender perspective INVOLVES:	Bringing a gender perspective DOES NOT INVOLVE:
Looking at inequalities and differences between and among women and men.	Focusing exclusively on women
Recognising that both women and men are actors.	Treating women only as a 'vulnerable group' / victimising women.
Designing interventions that take inequalities and differences between women and men into account.	Treating women and men the same.
Moving beyond counting the number of participants to looking at impacts of initiatives.	Striving for equal or 50/50 (men/women) participation.

Understanding the differences among different groups of women (and men).

Assuming that all women (or all men) will have the same interests.

Recognising that equal opportunities for women within organisations is only one aspect of a concern for gender equality.

Focusing only on employment equity issues within organisations.

Understanding the specific situation and documenting actual conditions and priorities.

Assuming who does what work and who has which responsibilities.

All CSDP missions and UN peace operations have adopted policies to mainstream gender throughout the operational work in the field. In addition, both the EU and the UN have set up structures to guarantee the implementation, including gender advisers and focal points in every mission. Such advisers are your

first point of contact in the mission on issues related to gender mainstreaming.

The United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)

The UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 1979. It provides the basis for realising equality between women and men by ensuring women's equal access to, and equal opportunities in, political and public life – including the right to vote and to stand for election – as well as education, health and employment. In ratifying the convention, governments agree to take all appropriate measures to ensure that women are able to fulfil their human rights and fundamental freedoms.

CEDAW is the only human rights treaty that affirms the reproductive rights of women and targets culture and tradition as influential forces shaping gender roles and family relations. It also affirms women's right to acquire, change or retain their nationality and the nationality of their children and makes it obligatory for

signatories to take appropriate measures in tackling trafficking and many other forms of exploitation.

3. Human rights

Human rights make up an internationally agreed upon legal framework that sets standards reflecting moral and political values. Adopted in 1948 by the United Nations General Assembly, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UNDHR) provides the basis for all international human rights treaties developed in the last decades and serves as a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations.

Human rights are commonly understood as fundamental rights to which a person is inherently entitled simply because she or he is a human being. Human rights are universal: they are the same for everyone everywhere, although the ways in which they are implemented varies between regions and countries. These rights may exist as natural rights or as legal rights, in both national and international law. The doctrine of human rights in international law and practice, global and regional institutions, in the policies of states and the activities of NGOs has become a cornerstone of global public policy.

Crisis management missions incorporate the UN-DHR with the aim of improving and stabilising the standard of protection of human rights in the host country. Projects in this field enhance the general awareness of and respect for human rights, ensuring an adaptation of national laws to international human rights standards as well as promoting respect for human rights within the local legal system. Human rights experts in missions contribute to strengthening local institutions and civil society organisations in this capacity.

Activities that are instrumental in the protection and promotion of human rights include monitoring, fact-finding and reporting, human rights education and measures designed to enhance protection within the legal system. International civilian personnel may work in areas such as ensuring the protection of minority rights or property rights, combating war crimes, crimes against humanity and human trafficking, and improving the criminal justice and penal system.

International organisations such as the EU have developed mission structures that include human rights advisers in every mission in order to mainstream human rights into the daily operational work of missions on the ground.



4. Child protection

All children have the right to be protected from violence, exploitation and abuse. Yet millions of children worldwide are at risk and many are particularly vulnerable as a result of their gender, race, ethnic origin or socio-economic status. Higher levels of vulnerability are often associated with children who suffer from disabilities, those who are orphaned or from ethnic minorities and marginalised groups. Other risks for children are associated with living and working on the streets, living in institutions and detention, and living

in communities where inequality, unemployment and poverty are highly concentrated.

Violence may occur in everyday contexts – including in the home, in schooling, care and justice systems, within communities and in workplaces. It is important to be aware that crisis situations such as natural disasters, armed conflict and displacement may expose children to additional risks. Child refugees, internally displaced children and unaccompanied migrant children are therefore populations of particular concern.

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC)

The UNCRC is a legally binding international convention that not only recognises the particular vulnerability of people under the age of eighteen, but also the fact that their human rights are equal to those of adults. The convention was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 1989, based on the four core principles of non-discrimination, devotion to the best interests of the child, the right to life, survival and development, and respect for the views of the child. The convention also recognises that children everywhere have the right to develop to the fullest, to

protection from harmful influences, abuse and exploitation, and the right to participate fully in family and cultural and social life. It aims to protect these rights by setting standards in health care, education and legal, civil and social services.

By agreeing to undertake the obligations of the convention (by ratifying or acceding to it), governments commit to protect and ensure children's rights and agree to hold themselves accountable for this before the international community.

5. Refugee rights

Both refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) are people who have been forced to flee their homes as individuals or groups. According to the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees (approved at a UN conference on 28 July 1951 and completed by a protocol adopted in 1967) a refugee is defined as a person who, as a result of well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable to, or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country.

States that have ratified the refugee convention are obliged to protect refugees that are on their territory. According to the general principle of international law, the treaties in force are binding upon the parties to them and must be performed in good faith. The convention declares that penalties shall not be imposed on refugees on account of their illegal entry or presence in a state, provided they present themselves without delay to the authorities and show good cause for their illegal entry or presence. Furthermore, the convention protects refugees against forced return, claiming that no contracting state shall expel or return a refugee in any manner to the frontiers of territories where his or her life or freedom would be threatened on account of his/her race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion. The signatories also agree to cooperate with the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) in the exercise of its functions and to help UNHCR supervise the implementation of the provisions in the convention.

IDPs, on the other hand, are described by the 1998 Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement as persons or groups of persons who have been forced to flee or leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of general-

ised violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognised state border.

When dealing with refugees and IDPs, you need to remember that a great number of these are people who might have at some point been successful and well-established, but were forced to leave their jobs, their education and most of their worldly possessions behind. Their search for a new refuge might have meant walking long distances, losing family members, leaving their sick and elderly behind and undergoing attacks and exploitation. The act of uprooting people from their home and forcing them to cope with and survive in a new world, language and culture can be severely traumatic. For this reason, as a crisis manager, you have the responsibility to protect the basic rights of these people and refrain from causing them even more harm than they have already suffered.

D. Managing personal communication and media relations

1. Personal communication

The mission you work in might make a policy decision on the personal use of blogs, Facebook, Twitter and the like in connection with mission activities. No mission member should make statements to the media on behalf of the mission unless receiving clearance to do so.

You should always be aware of identity thieves and fraudsters and think about your professional reputation and that of your mission. Some parts of the media might be looking out for a story about public officials that could be embarrassing.

It is important to remember that once you 'click,' the information you have provided is in the public domain – forever. You may not be able to control what people do with that information and whether third parties can access it. Applications of social networks such as Facebook can provide access to your personal information.

Some tips:

- ★ Keep official and private information separate;
- ★ Keep privacy settings high and consult them regularly. Be wary of posting personal information and disclosing financial details;
- ★ Do not hesitate to block or report someone who is making inappropriate comments or advances;
- ★ Pictures: keep them for your friends and think what could happen if some of them became public.

2. Internal communication

Internal communication within a mission includes information gathering, dissemination and interactivity. Possible internal communication tools are, for example, intranet, open days, internal billboarding and mission newsletters. Internal communication should ensure that the mission's mandate, its main elements, achievements and milestones are clearly understood by each and every mission member; this information should be available in a format and wording that makes it possible to share it with non-mission members. The mission personnel should be aware of the

current trends and activities performed by the mission and of political, social and other factors at play in the host country that may affect the mission's endeavours.

Keep in mind that with all these tools and with a large number of staff within the mission there is a huge likelihood that whatever is conveyed and intended as purely internal communication will get out to the public. Sensitive issues or messages for purely internal consumption are therefore better communicated in person.

3. Crisis communication

Coordinate effectively with the members of your press and communications team. Each one must know what his/her tasks are. A simple procedure for crisis situations might be established in advance.

Always double-check the facts before commenting. There is nothing more embarrassing than having to change or amend your comments later when more information becomes available – and it leads to the press losing confidence in you.

Never say 'no comment'. Give the basic information you have and say that you will provide more details as soon as you have them and do so. Focus on communicating facts, never speculate, avoid the communication vacuum that lets rumours take the lead. Clarify facts as you can: who, what, when, where, why and how?

Use short sentences and simple words, avoid using jargon, acronyms, humour or judgemental expressions. Speak clearly and calmly. Try to transmit one idea per sentence. Ensure your body language matches your messages. Be extremely careful with any off-the-record comments.

An example for a good lecture in this regard is the information strategy that is developed for every CSDP mission/operation. This information strategy includes some so-called 'Public Master Messages' that can be used as 'left and right borders' for communication with the public and the media.

4. Media monitoring and rebuttals

A successfully working media monitoring operation is of crucial importance to the work of the mission.

Fast and accurate reporting and summarising of what is currently running in the broadcast, print and online media is important for responding to public perceptions about the mission's work, as is developing a keen awareness of the topics that are dominating the environment 'out there'. It gives us the information we need and the methods to counter negative coverage or encourage positive coverage of our work.

Crisis management missions habitually operate in an environment where rumour and conspiracy theory are often the currencies of public debate. False information can soon become 'fact'. It is therefore important to respond quickly and energetically to inaccurate and sometimes malicious reporting about the work of the mission.

Principles of Rebuttal:

- ★ **Speed:** The mission especially needs to respond quickly when it is a wire service because wire services provide news for other media outlets and have an immediate and multiplying effect;
- ★ **Accuracy:** The mission must be absolutely 100% certain that it is right. The Press and Public Information Office (PPIO) should check and double-check its facts to make sure that the rebuttal is accurate and correct;

- ★ **Proportionate response:** Ask the following questions: Do we really need to respond? If we do, who should we contact? How should we contact (phone, email, meeting)? Should it be formal or informal? How strong should the language that we use be?



E. Dress codes and uniforms

Dress codes

Dress codes exist to help you ensure a level of decency and decorum and to present your image in a non-offensive way at all times. Your organisation might have its own specific dress codes, but what is appropriate depends on many factors, such as the country you are working in and the type of work you do (e.g. predominately office or predominately field work). Situations differ and what might be acceptable

and desirable in one setting can be unacceptable and undesirable in another. Staff members working in mission headquarters are often required to dress up while those working in the field will need more sturdy and plain clothes.

If you have to decide what clothes to take with you and wear in the field, there are some general guidelines that you need to follow:

- ★ **Dress down, not up.** This doesn't mean that you have to fake a scruffy and dirty look. But you also do not want to wear Ray-Ban sunglasses, Gucci scarves and cashmere sweaters among locals who might be struggling daily to make ends meet. Parading your wealth around will not make you more pleasant, nor will it win the locals' admiration. If anything it might make you a suitable target for theft;
- ★ **Keep it simple.** A plastic watch, a plain sweater or shirt, some slacks and strong shoes are all that you require. Leave the rest for your return to Geneva, London or wherever. They will be more appreciated there.

Recognising different uniforms in the field

There will be mission-specific policies on the usage of clothing and uniforms. In some missions, your national uniforms (in case you have one) may be accepted, or accepted in coordination with a mission uniform. This may also vary with the type of position you may hold. Some common mission uniforms/accessories that you can easily identify while in the field are the following:

- ★ **The UN sky blue beret/helmet:** UN peacekeepers usually retain the right to wear their own country's national uniforms but can be distinguished from other peacekeeping forces by the light blue berets, helmets and the UN insignia;
- ★ **The EU royal blue beret and gilet:** EU troops also wear their respective countries' military and police uniforms. They often complement their outfits with EU royal blue uniform clothing items (gilet and beret/cap) when on patrol. This is part of developing a common identity and contributes to the safety of staff;

- ★ **The AU light green beret:** Even though AU troops are generally known for wearing the light green beret and AU insignia while on peacekeeping missions, this might not always be the case. Keep in mind that they might sometimes choose to replace their green berets with the blue UN berets/helmets (or that of any other international organisation in the field) as they did in Darfur in 2008. So make sure you keep yourself updated on such changes and decisions.



F. Addressing the language barrier

1. Learning the local language

The ability to use the local language of the country or area you are deployed to can have a great impact on the operational outcomes of your mission. Of course you are not expected to write a novel in a new language, but learning some basics and useful phrases before deployment (when/if time allows) will not hurt. On the contrary, it will be seen as an expres-

sion of cultural sensitivity and will reflect your interest in that culture and your respect for its people.

2. Working with an interpreter

No matter how advanced you judge yourself to be in the local language, employing an interpreter can prove indispensable in certain situations.

- ★ During risky negotiations, highly complex meetings, or when detailed and sensitive information is being passed around it is recommended to resort to a professional and skilled interpreter who can convey the message with the needed level of accuracy and precision;
- ★ If you find yourself under stress, your ability to express yourself in the local language might be hindered. Employ an interpreter to help you out under such circumstances;
- ★ Interpreters can also be your local specialists in public relations. They can often suggest the best way to interact with persons from different cultural backgrounds and can notice nuances that you might have a tendency to overlook as a non-local.

Finding the right interpreter

When interviewing translators and interpreters, you should try to keep the selection standards as high as possible. Remember that the quality of interpretation can have a big effect on your mission's image, expertise, efficiency as well as security.

Before the selection process, make sure you look out for the following general prerequisites and criteria:

- ★ **Language proficiency:** Interpreters should be bilingual in both source and target languages. Make sure they undergo an oral test in order to assess their general command of both languages and their interpretation skills;
- ★ **Competency:** Candidates should be able to work accurately and quickly. They should be trained public speakers who are able to understand meaning and to tackle sophisticated linguistic problems quickly. Translators, on the other hand, should be able to conduct thorough research and produce precise, camera-ready documents within the confines of tight deadlines;
- ★ **Neutrality:** You should attempt to find candidates who are both locally engaged and unbiased in their judgements. This might be slightly

challenging, considering that most locals have been at some point victims of direct or indirect violence and abuse, so they are likely to have psychological scars and problems that could affect their neutrality.

Forms of interpretation

There is more to interpretation than simply translating words. It is a matter of understanding the thoughts expressed in the source language and then paraphrasing them in a way that preserves the initial message using words from the target language.

Interpretation can be performed in either one of the two following modes:

Consecutive interpretation: This form of interpretation is usually performed during formal negotiations. The interpreter listens to the speech being made, takes notes, and then reads out the main message to you after the person is done with a segment of the speech. Usually, the speaker stops every 1-5 minutes (at the end of a paragraph or a thought) to allow the interpreter to render what was said into the target language.

Simultaneous interpretation: This form of interpretation is even more challenging than the latter. In simultaneous interpretation, the interpreter has to convey the message at the end of every sentence (or at least as soon as he understands the message of the speaker) while actively listening to and comprehending the next sentence.

Protecting your interpreter

You should remember at all times that interpreters often place their safety and security at stake simply by choosing to work for foreign missions and operations.

Their notes might contain sensitive information that the authorities could be interested in. Hence, they often run the risk of debriefing, questioning or even arrest with the purpose of revealing confidential information.

It is therefore vital to watch out for the safety of your interpreter and remember that in most cases locally-engaged language assistants do not get a chance to leave the field when you do and could suffer the consequences of being employed by foreign crisis management missions long after the mission has ended.



G. Go green. Be green.

Climate change is now recognised as one of the most serious challenges to the global community, potentially affecting almost all aspects of life across the planet. With the world's increasing reliance on technology and diminishing resources it is vital that every individual understands his or her impact on the environment. You should be aware of the mission policy on environmental impact. The basic principles of

environmental awareness by which you are expected to abide are:

1. Reduction and safe disposal of waste;
2. Emission and pollution reduction;
3. Using resources sparingly (e.g. electricity, water, raw materials) and using renewable energy sources where possible;
4. Raise awareness!

1. Reduce waste

In peacekeeping missions, waste is generated that may be hazardous to public health and the environment. The improper disposal of hazardous waste leads to the contamination of the environment and dangerous goods may be diverted to the 'black' market for resale and/or misuse.

For this reason, adequate control measures should be in place to minimise these hazards. Employers must maintain awareness in protecting not only their own employees, but also the environment from biohazards. Employees, on the other hand, also have responsibilities with respect to control, adherence to safe pro-

cedures, and reporting of potentially biohazardous situations.

Colour-coding:

- ★ **Yellow:** Laboratory waste, including blood;
- ★ **Red:** Human tissue, contaminated material (e.g. bandages, tubing, drains, Porto-Vac, catheters, vaculiters, latex gloves, etc.);
- ★ **Black:** Normal household waste.

The 3 Rs of waste minimisation – an environmental ethos!

The notion of office procurement and subsequent waste minimisation should include observation of the three Rs: Reduce, Reuse, Recycle!

Some examples for the 3 Rs could be:

Reduce

- ★ Print double-sided documents and ask yourself if you really need a hard copy before printing a document;
- ★ Implement a paper-free electronic database for

information storage and communication within your office.

Reuse

- ★ Reuse single-sided paper as draft copies or notepaper;
- ★ Reuse folders, file clips and covers;
- ★ Encourage staff to use reusable cups, crockery and cutlery for lunch/tea breaks in order to avoid unnecessary waste.

Recycle

- ★ Construct a primary recycling station in a central location within the office;
- ★ Every desk should have a paper recycling box;
- ★ Used printer toner cartridges can be recycled. Toner cartridges contain harmful chemicals that should not be placed in our landfills.

2. Reduce emissions

Most organisations encourage staff to reduce the office's environmental footprint in different ways, for example by avoiding unnecessary travel in missions by conducting meetings through video-teleconferences or the internet. Solar panels for information and communications technology (ICT) equipment can be deployed in missions' remote bases.

- ★ Travel: Reduced travel and more efficient travel supported by a proper travel policy;
- ★ Buildings: Active measures (reducing the need for energy consumption, e.g. artificial lighting) and passive measures (focused on improving the efficiency of whatever functions energy is used for);
- ★ Processes: Procurement, administration, budgeting and meetings;
- ★ Organisational culture: Policies, environmental management systems, formal checkpoints and innovative incentives.

3. Use resources sparingly

Energy

What to consider with regard to office supplies:

Lighting

- ★ Use natural light wherever possible;
- ★ Replace traditional incandescent bulbs with fluorescent bulbs to reduce running costs by up to 75 per cent and energy consumption by 20-30 per cent. Replace any existing 50W halogen lights with 20W lights;
- ★ Use separate light switches for different areas in your office;
- ★ Install movement sensors or timer switches in areas such as store rooms, meeting rooms and photocopy rooms to reduce light usage. Attach eye-catching energy saving reminder signs/stickers.

Information technology

- ★ Switch all equipment off when not in use (e.g. at night) and programme equipment to hibernate

when not in use during office hours;

- ★ Make sure your computer settings are capable of the following energy-saving functions after the respective period of inactivity: 15 minutes – monitor hibernation mode (switches off); 30 minutes – system standby (hard drive switches off); 2 hours – system hibernation (entire system switches off);
- ★ Deactivate your screensaver! Monitors should be set to hibernation, screensavers frequently waste energy rather than save it;
- ★ Minimise the number of photocopiers and printers in the office. Turn the photocopier off at the power point during periods of inactivity. The majority of electricity used by photocopiers is in the initial ‘warm up’ stage. Save your copying tasks up and do them in one batch.

Did you know?

A computer left on overnight all year generates the same amount of greenhouse gas as a car driving from Madrid to Moscow – that’s more than 4,000 km!

Air conditioning

Climate control accounts for about 40 per cent of an office's total energy use. The opportunity for big savings in energy efficiency can be found in your heating, cooling and ventilation (HVAC) systems.

- ★ Use natural ventilation and fans where possible;
- ★ Set air-conditioner systems to a minimum of 24° C. If air-conditioning is used, close all windows and doors to reduce the escape of cool air. If the machine has adjustable louvers, adjust them towards the ceiling when cooling, and towards the floor when heating (as cool air falls and hot air rises). Switch off heating and cooling after hours.

Green purchasing

Inspect potential office equipment for energy saving/ environmentally sustainable 'tags' or 'eco-labelling'. Energy-efficient products on the market today can reduce energy costs by 25 to 50 per cent or even more without compromising quality or performance.

Think of longevity, reusability, refillability and recyclability when buying office equipment such as printers, scanners and photocopiers.

Water

- ★ If boiling the kettle, only use as much water as you personally need;
- ★ If you use a washing machine for your clothes and linen, try to wait until you can fill the machine well;
- ★ Make use of low-flow showerheads and taps (less than 10 litres per minute), additionally an aerator per tap reduces the use of hot water;
- ★ Use press taps and adjust toilet cisterns to control water consumption; use recycled water instead of drinking water for flushing the toilets;
- ★ Collect rainwater and store it in tanks (to prevent mosquitoes breeding there, put mosquito nets over the top) – this can be used for washing hands, showers, washing dishes and even for drinking and cooking.

The UN has set up a Community of Practice on Environmental Management for all UN missions to share best practices and experience; a website with green tips has also been created (<http://www.greeningtheblue.org/>). Some missions have created green committees to give a local response to environmental issues. It is simple to conserve energy through switching off appliances, sufficiently insulating houses/offices, and avoiding excessive use of personal transport, while it takes a little more understanding to avoid purchasing unsustainable products that are at risk of becoming exhausted or supporting unscrupulous companies that employ techniques that adversely affect the environment.

4. Take action, raise awareness!

- ★ Raise awareness on this issue through regular meetings for all staff, broadcast emails reminding them of particular environmentally benign measures to be adopted, etc.;
- ★ Regularly provide comprehensive information on the ecological footprint in the course of the mission in order to raise awareness of the impact of the modes of practice;

- ★ Elaborate guidelines (on the use of water, electricity, paper, production of waste, etc.) supporting the environmentally sustainable performance of staff and monitor and report the implementing results. Finally, make the achievements visible. Adapt these green guidelines during meetings and conferences as well.

Try to initiate a climate action plan by getting into contact with one of the elected representatives at local, state or federal level. Climate change is now recognised as one of the most serious challenges to the global community, potentially affecting almost all aspects of life across the planet. Climate change is no longer seen only as an environmental problem, but the effects on health, food production, economic development, infrastructure, and even peace and security are now commonly recognised.

Chapter 5

Dealing with health and security challenges

Working in a crisis situation makes it necessary to adapt to an environment that can be different to what you might have been used to at home. Telephone networks may work inefficiently (that is if and when they work), transportation infrastructure may be rudimentary and the working culture and team structure may be different as well. For such reasons it is vital to develop and maintain a flexible attitude coupled with basic survival skills, to stay healthy, safe and sane when on mission.

An individual's attitude and degree of preparedness can greatly influence team motivation as well as the effectiveness, image and reputation of an entire mission in a host community. Hence, every civilian expert on mission should be individually responsible for learning certain basic skills in order to successfully cope with the challenging reality of everyday life in the field.

This chapter will equip you with some fundamental knowledge required for staying healthy and safe while dealing with stress.

A. Staying healthy

This section highlights some simple precautions to minimise the chances that you will fall ill. Some suggestions may seem obvious. Unfortunately, many civilian experts on mission forget to pay attention, often because they are deployed at short notice, have other priorities, or adopt an overly-tough attitude and assume they are immune to microbes and mosquitoes.

1. General health advice

Food safety

If you consider and abide by the following rules before eating, you could eliminate the main reasons why crisis managers fall ill when on mission. The following recommendations apply to food vendors on the street as well as to expensive hotel restaurants:

- ★ Cooked food that has been kept at room temperature or under the sun for several hours constitutes one of the greatest risks of food-borne illness. Make sure your food has been thoroughly and recently cooked and is still hot when served;

- ★ Avoid any uncooked food apart from fruit and vegetables that can be peeled or shelled. Avoid fruit with damaged skin. Remember the dictum 'Cook it, peel it or leave it';
- ★ Ice cubes and ice cream from unreliable sources are frequently contaminated and may cause illness. Avoid them;
- ★ Certain species of fish and shellfish may contain poisonous biotoxins even if they are well cooked. If you are not sure, avoid them.

Water safety

Contaminated water is the second main reason for people to fall ill during their stay in foreign countries. Follow some simple rules to prevent disease caused by unclean water:

- ★ When the safety of drinking water is doubtful, have it boiled (several times) or disinfected with reliable disinfectant tablets/liquid;
- ★ Avoid ice;
- ★ Beverages, such as hot tea or coffee, wine, beer, and carbonated soft drinks or fruit juices which are either bottled or otherwise packaged

are usually safe to drink. Check that the lid is properly shut before purchasing;

- ★ Unpasteurised milk should be boiled before consumption;
- ★ It is recommended that bottled water be purchased and used whenever possible – even for brushing teeth.

2. Hygiene

The following notes on hygiene should go without saying, but there is no harm in reminding yourself of some of the most important basics. In some surroundings and situations it might not be possible to keep the standard of hygiene you might be used to at home. However, some of the following points are important for the prevention of infection and contribute to your general health and well-being.

Care of the body:

- ★ A daily warm bath or shower is essential for personal health and hygiene, as is the wearing of clean underwear.

Care of hands and nails:

- ★ Hands and nails should be washed and cleaned thoroughly after visiting the toilet and every time before handling any food;
- ★ No person who has sores, cuts or broken skin on their hands should handle food. Disease-causing microorganisms can be transferred in this manner.

Procedures for the washing of hands:

- ★ Use soap;
- ★ Use water as hot as the skin can tolerate (if available);
- ★ Moisten hands, wrists and forearms, apply soap to the palm of one hand and rub over the hands, wrists, forearm and between fingers;
- ★ Rinse hands thoroughly under clean (and possibly hot) running water;
- ★ Dry hands and arms with a disposable paper towel, start with the hands and end at the elbows.

Hair care:

- ★ Hair should be kept clean;
- ★ Hair should be worn away from the face and not hang over the collar of protective clothing;

Dental care:

- ★ Keep your teeth clean, healthy and brushed at least twice a day;
- ★ Visit a dentist at least every six months.

Foot care:

- ★ Wear clean, comfortable, closed shoes with closed heels with sufficient room for the toes and good arch support;
- ★ Wear clean socks or stockings.

Protective clothing:

- ★ Wear clean, well-fitting, adequate protective clothing and change it every day (if possible);
- ★ Store clean clothing separately from dirty clothing.

3. Common illnesses – diarrhoea, fever and malaria

Diarrhoea

Diarrhoea is a common problem when travelling. To avoid getting diarrhoea, ensure that hand washing and hygiene is given attention and the source of water consumed is safe. Most diarrhoea attacks are viral in origin, self-limiting and clear up in a few days. It is important to avoid becoming dehydrated. As soon as diarrhoea starts, drink more fluids, such as bottled, boiled or treated water or weak tea. Dairy products should be avoided as they can aggravate diarrhoea.

The body loses water, salts (especially sodium and potassium), water-soluble vitamins and other important trace minerals in diarrhoea. In order to replenish some of these losses, it is recommended that at least 3 litres are taken within the first 3 hours and fluids continuously consumed thereafter, especially including oral rehydration solution in the correct dilution.

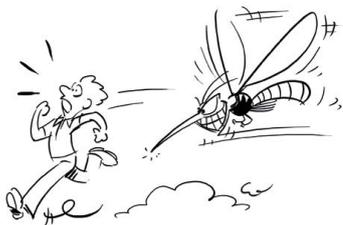
Be careful!

You should seek medical help if there is any blood in the stools or accompanying fever and vomiting.

Diarrhoea that lasts for more than 3 days also requires medical attention.

Fever

A high body temperature (e.g. 39° C or more) should always be taken seriously, especially if you are in a malaria-prone area or have come from one in the past. You should always see a doctor if a fever persists or is worsening. It helps to be aware of some important causes of fever. These include: meningitis (severe headache, stiff neck, often a rash that does not fade when you touch it), acute bilharzia or katayama fever (fever often accompanied by wheezing and itching 20 or more days after swimming in an area where bilharzia is common, such as Lake Victoria), kidney infection or pyelonephritis (aching in the loin, often with nausea and shivering, usually with frequent urination that creates a burning sensation), typhoid (progressive fever and feeling increasingly ill – with no response to malaria treatment – usually accompanied by diarrhoea, sometimes by coughing and sometimes by a faint rash), blood poisoning (alternate shivering and sweating, often in the presence of an infected bite or other skin infection like a boil, or warm infected feet or legs). Heat stroke also gives a high temperature.



Malaria

If you are in a malarial zone, this is an essential list of precautions:

- ★ Take your malaria prevention tablets;
- ★ Use a DEET-based insect repellent;
- ★ Sleep under an insecticide-treated mosquito net;
- ★ Keep skin covered as much as possible beginning before dusk or dawn, and keep in mind that some mosquitoes also bite during the whole day;
- ★ Take a standby treatment kit.

Even if you take all these precautions, you may still get malaria. Whenever you travel, take your malaria standby treatment kit with you. Consult your doctor on the type of treatment kit and prevention tablets since different ones are needed in different parts of the world. If you develop a fever, sweats and chills, a bad headache or other symptoms that could be attributed to malaria, have a test done as soon as possible by a reliable doctor or laboratory. If this is not possible, if you do not trust the result or if the correct treatment is not available, self-treat within 8-12 hours of the time your symptoms first started. In all cases you should put yourself under the care of a trusted doctor or other health worker as soon as possible. Malaria kills more people than wars do.

4. Treating infections, parasites and bites

Infections, parasites and bites can turn nasty, so proper treatment is important. This section will offer you advice about what to do in case of an infection or bite and what medication to take. However, you should refrain from self-treatment unless it is absolutely impossible to reach a doctor and get medical advice.

Dengue fever

This is another mosquito-borne illness that can knock you unconscious with amazing speed. The *Aedes* mosquito, which spreads this severe flu-like illness, tends to bite during the day. Typical symptoms are high fever, severe headache, muscle and back pain, and feeling seriously ill. See a doctor, get a blood test (including a blood slide to rule out malaria), then rest, drink plenty of fluids and be patient. There is no cure, but expert health care can be life-saving if (rare) complications set in.

Viral haemorrhagic fevers

Lassa fever, ebola and marburg are the best known of these rare afflictions. There are regularly cases of lassa in rural areas of West Africa. Most viral haemorrhagic fevers are spread by close contact with infectious cases, some by mosquitoes or ticks. If you are deployed in areas where known outbreaks are occurring, get specialist advice. Symptoms start with fever, headaches, muscle pain and conjunctival suffusion (redness of the eye/conjunctiva). Lassa may be treated by a slow intravenous infusion of ribavirin, however up until now, no effective cures have been found for ebola and marburg. Prevention consists of avoiding contact with infectious cases.

Pneumonia and respiratory infection

These are especially common at times of stress, tiredness and overcrowding. Symptoms are coughing, shortness of breath, fever and sometimes pain when breathing deep. These symptoms mean you should seek good medical advice as soon as possible. Timely treatment with effective antibiotics usually shortens these illnesses. If you are deployed in a country where flu, including avian flu or SARS, is a known risk, follow any official guidelines carefully.

Skin and wound infections

In hot climates, even small cuts, grazes, bites and other wounds can quickly get infected. Use an antiseptic cream or powder. Cellulitis – hot, red skin spreading outwards from an infection or upwards from the feet and toes – can come on extremely rapidly. Start a high-dose antibiotic at once under medical supervision.

Bites from dogs and other animals

Clean bites scrupulously with soap and water. Get them looked at by a doctor or other trusted health workers. Bites often become infected and in principle you should start a course of antibiotics even if no in-

fection is obvious. Usually, the wound should not be stitched, but allowed to heal naturally. Make sure you have been immunised against tetanus. (That means a primary course of three injections in the past and a booster every 10 years.) If this is not the case, you will need a tetanus booster without delay. In addition, it is advisable to have been vaccinated against rabies.

5. Dealing with climatic extremes

Altitude sickness, hypothermia and heat stroke can be dangerous. This section will instruct you on how to cope with extreme climate and altitudes.

Too high

Beware of altitude sickness, which can set in at any height above 2,500-3,000 metres. If climbing or travelling to heights above this, try to take one or two days to get acclimatised. Above 3,000 metres, each night try to sleep no more than 300 metres higher than the night before. Maintain your fluid levels. If you become short of breath while at rest, develop a persistent cough, experience an unrelieved pounding headache or feel drowsy, get down to a lower altitude as quickly as possible.

Too cold

Hypothermia can quickly set in with any combination of cold weather, high elevation, strong wind and being wet. To prevent this, wear several layers of loose-fitting clothing, with a waterproof outer layer, and cover head, neck and hands. Set up a 'buddy system' so that individuals can look after one another. Signs of danger include feeling intense cold, shivering, drowsiness or confusion. If this happens to you or your companion, warm up without delay by having warm sweet drinks, sharing warmth in a sleeping bag, or having a bath with water up to 40° C. Check for signs of frostbite (an aching or numbness, often in the hands or feet with the skin feeling rock-hard and looking very pale or purplish). Do not drink alcohol.

Too hot

Working in high temperatures brings with it the risk of heat strokes or sunstrokes. This is when your body's cooling mechanism (including your ability to perspire) breaks down. In these situations, your body temperature escalates to 39° C or above, you feel hot and dry, your pulse rate goes up and you may feel sick and confused. Get into a cool place at once, drink cold drinks if you are able to, get sponged down, fanned or have cold water poured onto your body to evaporate

away the heat. Get medical help, as this can be an emergency.²



6. Mental health and stress management

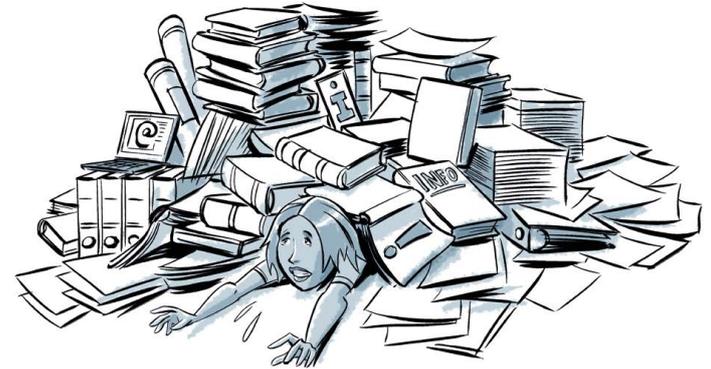
Working in crisis management environments can expose you to a number of stressful situations and conditions. You might be shocked to realise that a situation your colleague judges to be extremely stressful is one that you can handle like a walk in the park. It is only natural that different people react differently to stress cues and that coping strategies vary from one person to another.

² Useful websites:
www.who.int
www.interhealth.org.uk
www.safetravel.ch

Experiencing stress in a crisis management environment can be helpful. It can focus your attention, increase your concentration, and mobilise the necessary energy you need to achieve your everyday goals.

However, failure to cope effectively with stress may cause a decrease in productivity, and can prove detrimental to your functioning. Early prevention can stop the stress reaction from escalating into a real problem in the short and long-term future.

This section will focus on two types of stress, namely cumulative and acute traumatic stress. It will provide you with tips on how to deal with both and channel all resources at hand to speed up your healing process. Further, you will find a section on post-deployment stress in Chapter 7.



Cumulative stress

Stress that builds up over time and which is not well managed can gradually lead you to perform less effectively. Some form of stress in missions is inevitable, but failure to address cumulative stress may lead to burnout.

What creates cumulative stress?

Every individual has different reasons for feeling stressed. Some can cope with stress better than others by consciously controlling their state of mind. This is a list of possible causes of cumulative stress:

- ★ Problems with basic needs, e.g. housing discomforts/lack of privacy, food (lack of variety/poor quality) and clean water shortages;
- ★ Travel delays;
- ★ Lack of safety and security/health hazards;
- ★ Immobility, inactivity, lack of exercise;
- ★ Problems at home/missing family and friends;
- ★ Witnessing violence/tragedy/trauma;
- ★ Inability to make a difference/no progress/apathy amongst responders or survivors;
- ★ Noisy/chaotic environment;
- ★ Malfunctioning equipment;
- ★ No rest/relaxation periods;
- ★ Unclear/constantly shifting tasks, unrealistic expectations (self or others);
- ★ Media attention/coverage of security incidents close to your location;

- ★ Non-recognition of work/hostility to efforts;
- ★ Pressure to achieve;
- ★ Unsupportive or difficult colleagues, superiors;
- ★ Anxiety about mission, accomplishments, responsibilities, skills;
- ★ Lack of resources, limited control of situation;
- ★ Cultural/language difference.

How to recognise it

It is important to recognise indicators of cumulative stress. It may be a good idea for individual team members to share clues with their colleagues that will indicate when they are not handling their stress satisfactorily.

Possible indicators:

- ★ Narrowing of attention, impaired judgement, loss of perspective;
- ★ Disorientation, forgetfulness;
- ★ Impatience or verbal aggression/being overly critical;
- ★ Inappropriate, purposeless, or even destructive

behaviour;

- ★ Anger;
- ★ Sleep disorders;
- ★ Susceptibility to viruses/psychosomatic complaints;
- ★ Hyper-emotions, e.g. grief, elation, wide mood swings;
- ★ Physical tension, headaches;
- ★ Increased substance abuse;
- ★ Eating disorders, e.g. lack of appetite, eating too much;
- ★ Lack of energy, interest, enthusiasm;
- ★ Withdrawal/depression/loss of sense of humour;
- ★ Inability to perform;
- ★ Questioning basic beliefs/values/cynicism.

How to cope

Experience has shown that knowledge, especially through training prior to deployment, about cumulative stress, how to build up resilience, awareness of

early onset indicators and prompt action to establish coping mechanisms has had a positive effect on reducing cumulative stress and avoiding burnout. It is normal to experience cumulative stress during a disaster operation and most reactions to stress are considered normal behaviour. Cumulative stress may be identified and managed.

How to minimise cumulative stress

Some of the below may alleviate stress:

- ★ Know your limitations, manage your expectations, accept the situation;
- ★ Get rest, relaxation, sleep, and exercise;
- ★ Eat regularly, drink enough water;
- ★ Change tasks and roles;
- ★ Identify and act on the source of stress;
- ★ Take time off regularly;
- ★ Create personal space;
- ★ Control substance abuse;
- ★ Talk/laugh/cry with your colleagues;
- ★ Practice prayer, meditation, progressive relaxation – depending on your preferences;

- ★ Pamper yourself – shop, read, sing, dance, write, listen or play music, work on a hobby, take a sauna, cook a meal;
- ★ Participate in non-work related social situations.

Acute traumatic stress

This powerful, acute type of stress is brought on by sudden exposure to a traumatic event or a series of such experiences. It is classically described as a set of normal reactions to an abnormal event. For example, these events might include:

- ★ Witnessing casualties and destruction;
- ★ Serious injury to self or injury/death to relative, co-worker, friend;
- ★ Events that are life threatening;
- ★ Events that cause extreme physical or emotional loss.

There is no right or wrong way to react to these kinds of experiences and it is important to remember that strong emotional and psychological reactions can

often occur in the immediate aftermath of a traumatic experience.

What are common reactions?

Emotional/psychological reactions may include:

- ★ Shock and disbelief;
- ★ Fear/anxiety;
- ★ Sadness/hopelessness/grief;
- ★ Guilt/shame;
- ★ Helplessness;
- ★ Anger;
- ★ Relief;
- ★ Lack of perception/numbness;
- ★ Decision-making difficulty.

Physical traumatic stress symptoms may include:

- ★ Trembling or shaking;
- ★ Rapid breathing, hyperventilation;
- ★ Decreased attention;

- ★ Stomach problems;
- ★ Fatigue;
- ★ Sleeping problems;
- ★ Substance abuse;
- ★ Nausea, sweating/chills;
- ★ Jumpiness;
- ★ Irrational activities.

Take steps towards recovery

Going through a potentially traumatic experience can often fundamentally challenge our sense of safety and meaning. We can often feel helpless and out of control. It is important that we take proactive steps to address these sensations as soon as we can.

- ★ If possible, Try to re-establish a routine;
- ★ When not working, try to distract yourself (books, films, etc.) as opposed to dwelling on the experience;
- ★ Importantly, try to connect with others and seek helpful support from your family, friends and other survivors of the same (or similar) event and your colleagues and management;

- ★ Participate in memorials and organised events;
- ★ Challenge your sense of helplessness by re-claiming some control. Taking positive action can do this, in particular by helping others and seeking creative solutions.

Dealing with strong emotions

Allow yourself time and make yourself aware that you may well experience strong emotional reactions:

- ★ Don't rush the healing process;
- ★ Try not to be judgemental about the feelings you have;
- ★ Connect with people! Talk to someone you trust or who is trained or experienced in traumatic reactions;
- ★ Practice relaxation techniques;
- ★ Pamper yourself and try to ensure the essential sleep you need for recovery.

When to seek help for traumatic stress

Try to seek support from your natural networks (friends, family, colleagues) as much as possible during the aftermath of trauma. If this support is not immediately available because for one reason or another you do not have access to these networks, then try to find a specialist who can listen and who can understand. As stated above, quite extreme emotional reactions to traumatic experiences are perfectly normal and will fade given time.

However, should you find that your functioning is profoundly affected and your reactions are taking a long time to subside or perhaps even worsening over time then you should seek professional assistance. This is especially true if:

- ★ More than about six weeks have passed since the incident;
- ★ You are not feeling that things are getting better;
- ★ You are finding it difficult to communicate socially;
- ★ You are having frightening flashbacks or nightmares;
- ★ You are having difficulties at work or at home;

- ★ You are having thoughts of suicide or harm.

If these criteria are present you should make contact with a professional through your insurance provider or other medical networks. You may be in danger of developing post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), a severe and disabling condition that can be alleviated with specialist professional help.

7. Substance abuse

The high levels of stress that can form part of the daily work of civilian experts on mission can sometimes become a breeding ground for substance abuse. By substance abuse, we are not only talking about cases of drug overdoses or drunkenness, but rather about a long and complex problem of intoxication and addiction.

While addiction can cause serious health problems for civilian experts on mission, intoxication can pose safety risks as well as low levels of productivity in the workplace and increased absenteeism. While each type of drug affects a person's mind and body in different ways, there are general signs and symptoms to watch out for in your colleagues' behaviour and

performance (or even yours if you find yourself going down that road too):

Physical evidence

- ★ Smelling of alcohol in the morning;
- ★ Intoxication (slurred speech, unsteady on feet, confusion);
- ★ Bleary-eyed;
- ★ Injection marks on arms (drugs used intravenously);
- ★ Tremor and sweating of hands (alcohol or sedative withdrawal);
- ★ Multiple bruises, especially if some are more recent than others;
- ★ Loss of weight and gaunt appearance.

Habits and moods

- ★ Multiple mood swings within a single day (alternation between drug-induced euphoria and delayed depression);
- ★ Increased irritability, nervousness, and argumentativeness;

- ★ Poor relations with fellow workers and management;
- ★ Avoidance of supervisor;
- ★ Tendency to blame others.

Absence from work

- ★ Frequent absenteeism, especially after the weekend or pay days;
- ★ Frequent times off sick;
- ★ Bad timekeeping;
- ★ Unexplained absences.

Accident record

- ★ Accidents at work, at home or on the road.

Work performance

- ★ Reduced quality and quantity of work. Increasing number of mistakes and errors of judgement;

- ★ Loss of interest in work;
- ★ Failure to meet deadlines.

How to deal with substance abuse

If you recognise the aforementioned symptoms in your colleagues, then it is likely that they might be struggling with alcohol/substance abuse. The best solutions you can offer them or seek out (in case you are going through these problems yourself) are guidance, support and treatment. Some options include:

- ★ Talking to staff members about the situation and collectively agreeing on a realistic plan of action;
- ★ If you find that the situation has escalated to a more serious level and is starting to affect work performance, it might make sense to discuss it with a supervisor or contact whoever is in charge of offering confidential counselling;
- ★ Make sure the person concerned seeks medical advice.

8. First aid

Knowing and applying simple first aid principles can save lives even when you only have basic equipment at your disposal. It is important to realise that first aid is a practical skill. In order to be effective it requires regular practical training and at least some equipment.

B. Staying safe

This section gives advice how to deal with situations that threaten your security.

Please remember that these guidelines are merely advisories and do not supersede instructions/SOPs/contingency plans/etc. issued by the security office of your particular mission.

The following topics should be part of Hostile Environment Awareness Training (HEAT) or field security training that you should try to participate in before deployment.

1. On the road

Road accidents

Road accidents are more likely to harm you than any other injury on mission. For this reason, it is important that you keep the following in mind at all times:

- ★ Never drive during/after drinking and/or taking drugs;
- ★ Never drive beyond your capabilities or road conditions;
- ★ Get a good night's rest before any long journey and take regular breaks – every two hours if possible;
- ★ Drive with a companion and share the driving when covering long distances;
- ★ Avoid driving at night if possible;
- ★ Maintain a sensible speed, even if you have an urgent appointment;
- ★ Always wear safety belts;
- ★ Ensure any vehicle you use is well maintained and regularly serviced;
- ★ Select and train any drivers you use with care and thoroughness;

- ★ Keep a first aid kit, gloves and a torch with spare batteries in the vehicle;
- ★ Wear a crash helmet if riding on a motorbike.

Ambush

An ambush is an attack by persons in a concealed position. It is an extremely dangerous, life-threatening situation. Avoid travelling in areas where a threat of ambush exists. In most cases, ambushes are deliberate operations, carefully planned and coordinated. Take the following precautions to reduce the risk of ambush:

- ★ Avoid travelling close to vehicles that might be targets;
- ★ Avoid travelling by night;
- ★ Avoid routines and patterns of operation where possible;
- ★ If travelling is absolutely necessary, try to travel in a convoy;
- ★ Consider the use of an armoured vehicle where necessary and wear a flak jacket and helmet or have them available for use;

- ★ If you encounter a deliberate obstacle or a road block and you have time to stop, do so and assess the situation. Withdraw if necessary or if you are in doubt. Often, a professional ambush will be sited in such a way as to preclude this option, at a sharp bend in the road or just over the brow of a hill, so that you have no warning. Keep your base (watchkeepers) informed;
- ★ Be aware of the 'ground,' especially in high risk areas. Always strive to note possible escape routes by vehicle or on foot. Ask yourself what would be likely terrain for an ambush.

How to react if you are caught up in an ambush?

If you are caught in a deliberate ambush, it goes without saying that you are in an extremely dangerous situation. Your options might be limited to the following:

- ★ If you are the vehicle directly targeted, in most cases the best option is to drive through the ambush site, if at all possible, as fast as your vehicle will go, with passengers taking cover by lying flat. It might be possible to drive off the road to the right or left, but this will be unlikely if the ambush has been skilfully sited;

- ★ If the driver has been seriously injured or the vehicle immobilized, passengers should get out and attempt to scatter out of the vehicle in as many directions as possible and keep going until they are well away from the danger area;
- ★ If your vehicle is not yet in the ambush site or not directly targeted, remove yourself from the danger area either by reversing, turning left or right or simply stopping;
- ★ Vehicles should not stop within the ambush site to offer assistance to immobilized vehicles.

Use your common sense to determine the best response option at any given time.

Checkpoints and road blocks

Checkpoints and road blocks are the same thing: a manned position on the road designed to monitor and control movement in a particular area. Sometimes they are more akin to tollbooths set up by local gangs to extort money from passing civilians. When you move into a new area you can expect to be stopped at these control points. As you develop your work and gain credibility with the group manning the barrier, you might be allowed to pass unchecked. Never rely

on this, however, and always be prepared to stop if asked to.

Some checkpoints are well constructed and established for long-term use with sandbagged bunkers, a tent or rest areas, and a clearly visible and raisable barrier across the road. They might well have mines placed across the road for added security. In other cases you might simply encounter a tree or even a branch drawn across the road, with one or two men plying their new-found, lucrative trade as toll collectors.

So how do we deal with checkpoints and road blocks?

- ★ Do not approach a check-point that appears to be out of place or hostile. Consider asking your local staff/drivers for their opinion;
- ★ At night, dip your headlights well in advance of the checkpoint. Nothing annoys a soldier more than being blinded by headlights and losing his night vision. On arrival, change to side lights. Switch on your inside light so he can easily see who is in the vehicle and that you pose no threat. Ensure that any light mounted on top or at the back of your vehicle to illuminate your flag or logo is turned on;
- ★ As you approach a checkpoint, contact your base (watchkeepers), slow down, lower the volume of your radio speaker and make no transmissions. Using your radio could raise suspicion and you can do without it for a few minutes. MP3 players, etc., should also be turned off. Take your sun glasses off. Keep your hands visible;
- ★ Obey any signs or instructions to pull in or stop;
- ★ Be polite, friendly and confident. Wind down the window and say hello in the local language. You should not exaggerate or start 'flapping', talking too much, offering cigarettes, etc. This might suggest that you are afraid and could be exploited by the soldiers. Do not open door/windows until you are satisfied that it's safe to do so;
- ★ Show your ID card if requested. Explain in a friendly way, if asked, where you are going. Prepare a short summary of your organisation's work. If you are new to the area, try a little promotion. But keep it short! Be relaxed if they insist on checking your vehicle. They have the right to do this and you should have nothing to hide;
- ★ Do not be in a rush to continue your journey. Be aware that the soldiers might be keen to

talk/offer advice to you. You might also request useful information on the route ahead or your eventual destination;

- ★ Try to imagine yourself in the soldier's position. He is probably extremely bored. You might be one of the few passers-by he has seen all day. You will certainly be of great interest to him. We are not referring to your looks and charm, but the fact that you come from a different country and culture;
- ★ Avoid temptation by ensuring that there are no attractive items such as sweets, chewing gum and cigarettes on your dashboard. If they are in evidence, you should not be surprised if you are asked for one. One will then become many as the other soldiers appear out of nowhere and for the rest of your day you will be able to contemplate the virtues of being a non-smoker! Temptation might also come in the form of clothing or other items that you are conveying in your vehicle. Here you must be firm and refuse to give anything. Explain that they are for your own use or the use of the victims. Avoid wearing expensive watches and take off your sunglasses. Ray-Bans are much-sought-after prizes;
- ★ If asked to dismount, stay close to the vehicle and keep the engine running;

- ★ Generally pass through check-points one vehicle at a time, maintaining visibility of other vehicles in your convoy;
- ★ Ask your field officer or driver to help you with any detailed conversation;
- ★ When you leave the check-point, contact your base (watchkeepers);
- ★ At new or improvised road blocks run by free agents rather than clearly identifiable military personnel, it might be worthwhile stopping well short of the block itself if you possibly can. Just wait for a while and see what is going on. Is other traffic passing through the road block? How are the occupants of the vehicles being treated as they pass through? Wait for an oncoming vehicle (i.e. one that has passed through the road block) and ask the occupants' advice on whether it is safe to proceed yourself. Always ask your local staff/drivers for their opinion. In this way you will get a much better idea of whether it is safe to proceed. If not, then at least you are sufficiently out of harm's way to turn back.

2. At home, at work and during recreational time

When you first move into a house or start working in a new environment, use your initiative and common sense to identify hazards. For example, look out for exposed electrical wiring, areas where it is easy to slip or fall, hazards from unlabelled bottles or substances, or containers handy for water storage which may have contained pesticides or may be breeding-grounds for mosquitoes. Be aware of fire hazards such as open stoves, open fires or cooking pans, and the use of charcoal fires without adequate ventilation.

Residential security: There are some important matters to take into consideration when choosing a residence. First, choose a safe neighbourhood to move to. Make sure the access routes to and from your residence provide alternatives and avoid dead-end or narrow one-way streets. Inform yourself about the parking possibilities, e.g. carports and driveways within fenced or guarded areas. Contrary to a house, an apartment, especially one above the second floor, presents a more difficult target for criminal intrusion and further provides the tenant some degree of anonymity and the benefit of close neighbours. Perimeter security (e.g. a fence or security guards) can improve the safety of your residence, as can solid doors, grilles

on the windows, secure locks, an alarm system, adequate fire safety, emergency exits and safe rooms (if needed). In general, the security section of your mission should be consulted in the process of selecting your residence.

Recreational time: These rules are obvious, but all too easy to brush aside when other things seem more important. Having survived the tarmac, mud and pot-holes on mission, take care during times of leisure. At the seaside, be aware of dangerous currents and undertow, and areas known to have poisonous sea creatures, crocodiles or sharks. Stay within your depth unless you are a strong swimmer. Use life jackets for offshore water sports or when using inflatable craft. Never run along the side of a slippery pool; never dive into cloudy water or into a part of the pool the depth of which you have not checked out. Do not drink alcohol prior to swimming or diving.

During your rest and recreation, do not lean against any balcony that could be unsafe, especially after drinking! Some may be less well built than your body. Binge drinking is a multiple-risk factor, with dangers ranging from killing yourself – or your friends – in a road accident to contracting HIV because you forgot to take the necessary precautions.

3. Dress to protect

The flak jacket

If you receive a flak jacket for your participation in a peace operation, familiarise yourself with the jacket before you have to use it. It provides a low level of protection for the chest, back and neck, being designed to protect these parts of the body against the effects of blast, shrapnel and splinters of glass, wood, etc. It is not designed to stop a bullet. It is comfortable and light to wear and should be used in conjunction with a helmet.

The ballistic jacket

Ballistic (bullet-proof) jackets offer varying levels of protection. The best can give protection against all known rifle and pistol rounds up to 7.62 mm. They are expensive. They too are designed only to protect certain parts of the body. Additional neck and groin protection options are available. The resistance offered by the basic jacket, which in itself can provide blast protection, is enhanced by ballistic plates front and back, and by side plates. They can come with a large front pocket for your ID cards and first-aid pressure bandages. With the high level of protection comes weight: some 12 kg. At first you will find them

very difficult to wear but you will soon become accustomed to them. Some can be bought with so-called 'trauma' plates. These give further protection against the effects of shock from a bullet strike and reduce bruising to the body. There are men's and women's versions. Make sure that you order the correct level of protection and sizing. Ensure correct fitting prior to arrival in the mission area.

When and how to wear the ballistic jacket:

- ★ The ballistic jacket is used only to reduce the risks to mission staff and convoy drivers working in areas of high risk: snipers, operations close to front lines, cross-line missions, etc.;
- ★ The back and front collar options, which can be opened and closed, give added protection to your neck and throat;
- ★ Always wear the jacket with a helmet for head protection;
- ★ Always check to make sure that the ballistic plates are in place. They can be easily removed. One plate is normally curved and should be placed in the front compartment of the jacket. The jacket and indeed all these safety items are very expensive. You will need to take care of them as best you can. They are extremely at-

tractive items for thieves and soldiers, who can sell or use them to their own advantage.

The helmet

Helmets are designed to protect the most vulnerable part of the body from blast and shrapnel. They are not normally designed to stop a direct hit from a bullet. When and how to wear the helmet:

- ★ The helmet is worn in high-risk areas where flak and ballistic jackets are used;
- ★ Always ensure that the neck strap is securely fastened. A jolt will otherwise send the helmet flying off your head just when you need it most;
- ★ The helmet takes time to put on and fasten, so don't wait until it is too late;
- ★ Open the windows of your vehicle a little when wearing the helmet. It restricts your hearing and, with the windows shut as well, you might not hear the warning sounds of danger;
- ★ The helmet provides excellent protection against unexpected jolts or accidents in vehicles. Sudden swerves or stops might send you or your passengers flying inside a vehicle, causing head

injuries for those who are not protected.

Be aware!

It should be obvious, but cases from the past show that it is still necessary to mention: **Unauthorised possession or carrying of weapons of any kind is a no-go for civilian personnel – everywhere and at all times. Just keep your hands off!**

Despite civilians handling weapons being an unnecessary danger, they contribute to the irretrievable loss of image for the mission. This concerns not only the possession or use of weapons, but also posing with them.

Positions occupied by personnel with police or military background can require carrying arms. If that is the case, carefully check the details with the mission you are deployed to.



4. Mine hazards

There are two types of mines that you need to watch out for:

Anti-personnel mines

Anti-personnel mines (AP mines) are designed to cause injury to people rather than to equipment. They might be laid in conjunction with anti-tank mines or by themselves.

- ★ **The pressure mine:** A Mine that explodes upon pressure (individual, vehicle etc.). It is generally round in shape, 60-100 mm in diameter and 40-60 mm in height. Older types are made of metal, but most modern ones are made of plastic, making them very difficult to detect. They are made to blend into their surroundings, being green, brown, grey, etc. in colour and – when properly laid – are almost impossible to detect visually.

Some exceptions to the classic pressure mine are:

- ★ **The wooden or plastic rectangular AP mine** (shaped like a pencil box 140 mm long and 30 mm high);
- ★ **The air-delivered AP mine or ‘butterfly mine’** (shaped much like the ‘winged’ seed of an ash tree). You may have seen such seeds spiralling down from a tree in the autumn; they catch the wind and spread out over a wide area. The butterfly mine is shaped in a very similar way and with the same intent. It is dropped from the air and gently spirals down to earth. Thousands may be dropped at a time over large areas. Normally blue/green, but sometimes in camouflage colours, many are still found in places such as Afghanistan. These mines look unusual

and are attractive to children in particular. Keep well clear of such mines and never attempt to touch, squeeze or pick one up. If you do, it will explode;

- ★ **The bounding or jumping mine:** This can be attached to a trip wire made of very fine metal or nylon. You walk into the wire and it is pulled taut, thus triggering the mine. Or you touch the mine itself and the pressure triggers it. Once triggered, the mine springs up to about waist height and then explodes, spreading fragments in all directions. These mines have the same dark colours as other AP mines. They are normally partially covered, with just the top sticking out of the ground. On the top they have a small spike or a number of spikes, which set the mine off if touched;
- ★ **The fragmentation mine:** Normally linked to a trip wire, this mine is attached to a wooden or metal spigot and placed in the ground so that the mine remains stationary about 20 cm above the surface. The metal casing of the mine has perpendicular grooves in it, dividing it into neat squares. The surface thus looks very much like a bar of chocolate divided into squares. When it explodes, the casing breaks at the weakest point – along the criss-cross of grooves – and razor-sharp squares of metal fly

in all directions;

- ★ **The claymore AP mine:** Though a fragmentation mine, this is shaped somewhat differently. It is convex because it is designed to spread its fragments in a limited direction, or arc, of around 60 degrees. Instead of a casing with chocolate-bar grooves, small metal balls are packed into explosive and encased in plastic. The mine (the same colour as the others) sits just above the ground on its own set of legs. It can be set off by a trip wire or by an electrical detonation command wire, which can run for a considerable distance away from the AP mine. The person setting off the mine waits in safety for his target to appear, touches the wire to a battery or presses a switch, and off it goes, showering its target with high-speed metal balls.

Anti-tank mines

Anti-tank mines are designed to disable heavy vehicles. They are normally laid in fairly large numbers to achieve their aim. In an active conflict zone you can be fairly sure that mines of this type will be kept under observation. They are valuable weapons and they are protecting valuable routes or objectives. The

people who planted them will not let the location of such mines out of their sight; otherwise, someone might come along and remove them!

Do not go too close to such mines. And, obviously, never, for any reason, touch them. In areas where fighting has ceased the mines may remain in place though their guardians are long gone. Nevertheless, you should not yield to the temptation to interfere with or even touch them.

Some important features of anti-tank mines:

- ★ Much larger than anti-personnel mines, with a diameter/length of up to 300 mm (the size of a dinner plate) and a height of up to 110 mm;
- ★ Square or round in shape;
- ★ Made of plastic or metal;
- ★ Coloured the same as AP mines, i.e. dark, camouflaged;
- ★ Detonated by the pressure of a heavy vehicle passing over them (just remember, your vehicle is heavy!);
- ★ Occasionally detonated by a tilt rod sticking out from the top of the mine and sometimes attached to trip wires. Just as these mines are

normally watched, they are also further protected by surrounding the area with anti-personnel mines – another good reason to keep away from them.

IEDs/UXOs

IEDs – Improvised explosive devices are essentially ‘home-made’. The term covers a range of devices similar to small grenades and anti-personnel mines, which are made up of metal fragments and explosives. However, such self-made explosives do not necessarily have the same shape or size as mines. IEDs are often made of and look like an article of daily use – a small box, a bag or a parcel – and can be triggered either through contact or by remote detonation.

UXOs – Unexploded ordnance refers to all types of explosive military ordnance/ammunition that did not explode when it was used and that still poses a risk of detonation. This can include all types of explosive weapons, such as bombs, bullets, shells, grenades, etc. All UXOs should be treated with extreme caution: Even if ammunition has been fired, it can be in a very unstable state and still pose a risk of detonation!

Dealing with mine/IED/UXO threats

Now that you have some idea of what mines are and what they look like, how should you deal with them?

- ★ Do not touch any mine/IED/UXO – stay well clear of it. If you didn't put it down – never pick it up;
- ★ Do not use your radio, mobile phone or SAT-COM in close proximity (within 100 metres) to a mine unless absolutely necessary. The radio frequency you are using might cause the mine to detonate. This applies to all such devices: booby traps, mines, IEDs and UXOs;
- ★ If you come across mines/IEDs/UXOs, try to leave some indication to others of their presence. Make sure such a warning is placed at a safe distance from the mined area. Inform other organisations and the local people of the mines' locations;
- ★ Always seek local advice if moving into a new area or one that has been the scene of recent fighting;
- ★ You should not use a route that is new to you unless you are certain others have used it recently. Try not to be the first to use a road in the morning;
- ★ Remember, mines can be attached to trip wires. Do not even attempt a closer look;
- ★ If you are in the lead vehicle and you spot mines, stop immediately and inform the following vehicle;
- ★ Do not try to turn your vehicle around. Do not get out of your vehicle. Try to drive backwards slowly along the same track you came on;
- ★ Do not be tempted to move onto the verge of the road to bypass obvious mines, to get past some other obstacle or even to allow another vehicle through. A natural reaction at home might well be to pull over on a difficult or narrow road to let a fellow traveller get by. In mined areas, forget it! You should not be polite and pull onto the verge. The verges may contain mines. If necessary, reverse back to a wider area and let the other vehicle pass;
- ★ If a road is obviously blocked by something (for example, a tree or a vehicle) in a likely mined area, do not be tempted to drive onto the verge or hard shoulder to get by. It could contain mines. Turn back;
- ★ Avoid dangerous areas such as old front-line positions, barricades, deserted houses in battle zones, attractive areas in deserted villages or towns, country tracks, gardens and cultivated

areas (placed in tempting orchards, vineyards or vegetable plots);

- ★ Make yourself aware of local mine-awareness signage and be alert to the presence of uncollected dead livestock or uncultivated lands which may indicate presence of mines;
- ★ Be on your guard against 'cleared areas'. The military may declare an area clear of mines, but they cannot be 100% certain.

Remember, if you identify a mined area or are informed of one, spread the information to all interested parties, including other humanitarian organisations in your area. Record the information and mark it on your maps.

Actions in a minefield (**MINED**)

- ★ **M**ovement stops immediately;
- ★ **I**nform & warn people around you. If you can, contact your base for help, indicating where you are located;
- ★ **N**ote the area. Examine the ground to ensure you are safe where you are, look for tripwires/ mines/fuses;
- ★ **E**valuate the situation. Be prepared to take control;
- ★ **D**o not move from your location.

Avoid booby traps!

A booby trap is an apparently harmless object designed or adapted to kill or injure by functioning unexpectedly when a person disturbs or approaches it or performs an apparently safe act with it (for example, opening a letter or a door, or picking up an attractive article lying on the ground). The device is deliberately hidden inside or disguised as a harmless object.

Withdrawing troops might place booby traps in all sorts of places so as to inflict damage on their advancing adversaries. Booby traps might be left on paths, by wells, in houses or just lying in the open and attached to an appealing object.

Do not explore deserted houses, towns or villages. Sadly, in many parts of the world today you will see absolute ghost towns. You should not be tempted to snoop around or use the houses to 'answer the call of nature'. Most importantly, do not touch apparently interesting objects lying innocently on the ground. Just leave them alone.

Chapter 6

Technical considerations

This chapter will teach you the basics of map reading, navigation and communications, and will offer you advice on how to drive a team vehicle and avoid dangers on the road.

A. Communication equipment

Even though familiar communications equipment (such as the Internet and cellular phones) is often available in the field, you will still be faced with slightly uncommon devices at times, ones that range from the rustic and old-fashioned to the high-tech and sophisticated. You may not be challenged into communicating by pigeon post, but some old-fashioned devices such as radios might be tricky for first-time users and therefore require basic technical know-how. The same applies to the more advanced SATCOM.

For this reason, this section will highlight the main types of communication equipment that you might encounter while on mission and take you through the basic steps needed to familiarise yourself with these devices.

We will first introduce you to VHF (very high frequency) and HF (high frequency) radios, before moving on to SATCOM (or the satellite phone). Finally, we will look at mobile phones and the Internet from a security point of view.



1. Radio

VHF radio

Very high frequency (VHF) radio waves travel in straight lines. Just imagine for a moment you are

looking from your vehicle to your office in the distance through a set of binoculars. The radio wave from your set is following very much the same line of sight. If you can see your office, you will be able to communicate with it. If there is a forest or mountain in the way, you cannot see your office; likewise, the radio waves travelling in 'line of sight' cannot get through. Obstacles such as trees, forests, houses and pylons impose a difficult path for VHF radio waves. Obstacles either absorb the waves completely or deflect them. If you want to improve communication, find your way to high ground and send your message from a point where there are no such obstacles in the way. Distance is naturally an important factor. As your VHF wave is broadcast outward from the antenna, it spreads out like ripples of water on a pond after you drop a stone into it. The further away from you the signal travels, the weaker it becomes. Some sets are more powerful than others. You can experiment as you get to know your area and thus the distance over which you can communicate.

HF radio

High frequency (HF) radio is designed for longer-range communication and works by sending its signal skyward until it bounces off the electrically charged ionosphere and back to earth.

Unlike the VHF sets from which you can obtain better results through correct use, the HF transmission and the clarity of your signal very much depend on a number of factors, most of which are usually out of your control.

For example, natural phenomena such as sunspots can have a marked effect on HF radio signals. The frequency assigned to you might work well at one time of the day and then be virtually useless at another. It might be better by day than by night, but again this is largely out of your control. Sometimes you will be told to use different frequencies at different times of the day to overcome these problems. If you have a mechanism on your HF set with which to tune your antenna, always do so. Ask how this should be done. When the antenna is not tuned, you cannot communicate, the reason being that the transmitter is virtually disabled and reception is virtually impossible.

How to use VHF and HF radio

The following is an overview of radio communication procedures, which, when followed, will minimise radio time, make radio time effective and reduce misinterpretation of radio messages.

Preparing your radio set for operation

- ★ Make sure that there is a power source, that it is sufficient and ensure correct connection to the radio set;
- ★ Check the antenna and all cable connections, ensuring tight and correct connection to all components;
- ★ Connect the audio accessories and check the proper operation of function switches.

Transmitting

- ★ In general, there are five parts to calling and communications that should always be followed:
 1. Give the tactical call of the station you are calling. This alerts the station that they are being called;

2. Say "This is...";
3. ...then give your tactical sign;
4. Give your message;
5. End your message with "over" or "out" (see also the procedure words in the Annex).

- ★ Decide on a message before transmitting, ensuring it will be clear and brief. Stay off the air unless you are sure you can be of assistance;
- ★ Make sure no one else is speaking before transmitting;
- ★ Remember to divide your message into sensible phrases, make pauses and maintain a natural rhythm to your speech;
- ★ Avoid excessive calling and unofficial transmissions;
- ★ Keep a distance of about 5 cm between the microphone and your lips and hold the face of the microphone almost at a right angle to your face. Shield your microphone from background noises;
- ★ When ready to transmit, push the transmission key and wait a second before speaking. When you have finished transmitting wait before releasing the key;

- ★ Use standard pronunciation, emphasise vowels, avoid extremes of high pitch, speak in a moderately strong voice and do not shout. Speak slowly, distinctly and clearly;
- ★ Acknowledge receipt (“copy”, “received” or “acknowledged”). If you do not understand, ask for repeat;
- ★ Remember: think, push and speak – not the other way around.

Even when you think that you speak English properly, your accent and choice of words, in combination with background noises, may make it very difficult for others to understand you. In order to facilitate understanding, a phonetic alphabet has been developed which helps the recipient of the message to quickly understand what you mean. Therefore, when asked to spell a word, use the phonetic alphabet, which can be found in the Annex along with a list of procedure words.

2. Mobile phones

Nowadays, with GSM (Global System for Mobile Communications), you can not only obtain broad international coverage for your mobile, but also access your email through your phone. Also, unlike communicating over a VHF radio network (where all your colleagues within range can hear what you are saying), using a mobile phone normally gives you the luxury of having a simple one-to-one conversation.

This might sound like the perfect communications deal, however things are not always so bright and shiny in the field. Despite all its positive points, the use of mobile phones can present certain disadvantages.

- ★ Costs in some regions can be high, especially for international calls;
- ★ Coverage might be good in some areas, particularly in cities, and poor or non-existent in the countryside;
- ★ You might have to purchase a new SIM card or phone for use in some countries if your system is not compatible with local ones.

In addition, there are a number of security-related aspects that you should take into account:

- ★ **Destroyed networks:** In a disaster-hit or war-torn area, the mobile phone network might have been destroyed or damaged. In this case, no mobile phone communication will be available or it will be unreliable at best;
- ★ **Jammed channels:** In times of crisis, a mobile phone system might become overloaded with too many users and it might be impossible to make calls;
- ★ **Political manoeuvring:** Seeing that the local authorities can control the mobile phone system, they just might decide to turn it off;
- ★ **Insecure conversations:** The local authorities can listen in to any conversation. (As with all other forms of communication you are likely to use, mobile phone conversations should always be regarded as insecure.);
- ★ **Theft:** The phones themselves are attractive items for a thief;
- ★ **Hi-tech phone or spying device?** The new and attractive selling points of mobile phones (the camera and video-recording capabilities) could get you into trouble. The mere presence of these built-in features could cause your inten-

tions to be misunderstood. Their presence could be deliberately used against you. Essentially, we are talking about potential spying gadgets.

3. Satellite communications (SATCOM)

SATCOM are simple to use. They work by bouncing their signals off a satellite and back down to a ground receiver or a relay station, which can then retransmit. The area on the ground where you can obtain good communications from your SATCOM is known as the 'footprint'. Remember, just because a particular brand of SATCOM operated wonderfully on your last mission does not mean it will be ideal in another part of the world. The 'footprint' might be completely different. Take the advice of your communications experts when they are issuing your equipment. They know what will work and what you require. The most important feature of the SATCOM is guaranteed long-range communication.

In spite of the positive aspects of using SATCOM, you should keep the following in mind:

- ★ **Not always the cheapest option:** For short-range work, the VHF sets are still the most economical and useful option;

★ **Channel overload:**

In addition, you need to be aware that with the increasing use of satellite phones in troubled regions, simultaneous communications can overload the capacity of the satellite channels. Therefore, satellite communication should not be considered as a complete security network unto itself, but rather as a supplement to the HF and VHF networks;

★ **Makes you traceable (when you least want it!):**

The modern SATCOM sometimes incorporates an automatically transmitted GPS (Global Positioning System) signal. In other words, anyone monitoring your transmission will be able to establish your exact geographical position. Be aware that this capability could pose a security risk for you. The parties you deal with may accuse you of revealing details of their location. In areas where such sensitivities exist, the SATCOM might better be left back at your base;

★ **One transmitter, one receiver:**

Remember, with the SATCOM, only point-to-point communication is possible – you cannot transmit to a number of receivers simultaneously.

4. Internet/computers

These days we all use the Internet and other computer networks to communicate with friends or with our organisations. We all know the advantages of the system already, but it is extremely important to highlight the following dangers:

- ★ **Watch out for your information!** Like all the systems mentioned above, the Internet is not secure. See also section D of Chapter 4 on personal communication;
- ★ **Watch out for your computer!** Your computer is vulnerable to unscrupulous thieves who might simply decide to steal it or could be even more sophisticated and download vast amounts of information when you are not around. So make sure you lock your room or lock your portable computer away when you are not using it. If you use a USB stick to back up your hard disk, give it the same security attention as the hard disk.



B. Map reading and navigation

Map reading and navigation are essential skills for mission personnel and have three specific purposes in the context of crisis management missions. These are to:

- ★ Enable staff to find their way around a given country and to recognise features on the ground and on a map;
- ★ Enable staff to understand the information

provided on a map so that they can picture the terrain and its possibilities and limitations;

- ★ Assist in the quick and accurate transmission of information about the locations of people or objects.

1. Navigation aids

Maps

Maps are the most important navigation aid and should be studied carefully as a preliminary to cross-country navigation. Doing so can provide the answer to many questions, such as the best route to be taken and areas to be avoided. It also enables the user to visualise the lie of the land, assists with sense of direction and increases confidence.

Topographic maps are detailed graphic representations of features that appear on the earth's surface. A map's legend (or key) lists the features shown on the map and their corresponding symbols. Topographic maps usually show a geographic graticule (latitude and longitude in degrees, minutes, and seconds) and a coordinate grid (eastings and northings in metres) so relative and absolute positions of mapped features can be determined.

the map to determine how many kilometres the measurement represents.

Direction and bearings

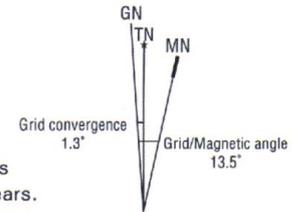
Maps usually include a north point diagram that shows the direction of true north, grid north and magnetic north at the centre of the map. This diagram also shows the actual grid-magnetic angle for the centre of the map face.

- ★ True north (TN) is the direction to the earth's geographic North Pole;
- ★ Grid north (GN) is the direction of the vertical grid lines (eastings) on a topographic map. The angular difference between GN and TN is known as grid convergence;
- ★ Magnetic north (MN) is the direction from any point on the surface of the earth towards the earth's north magnetic pole.

The angular difference between TN and MN is known as magnetic declination. As GN is used in preference to TN for map reading purposes, it is more useful to know the difference between GN and MN. This is known as the grid/magnetic angle or magnetic

variation. Because the position of the north magnetic pole moves slightly from year to year, the grid/magnetic angle and magnetic declination will vary by a small amount each year. In using a map for accurate navigation, magnetic variation can be important, particularly if the map is several years old.

True North (TN), Grid North (GN) and Magnetic North (MN) are shown diagrammatically for the centre of the map.



MN is correct for 1997 and moves easterly by less than 0.1° in 10 years.

Source: Australian Geological Survey Organisation

Directions can also be expressed as bearings. A bearing is the clockwise horizontal angle, measured from north to a chosen direction. Bearings are usually shown in degrees and range from 0° (north) to 360° (also north). South is 180° , east is 90° , and west is 270° .

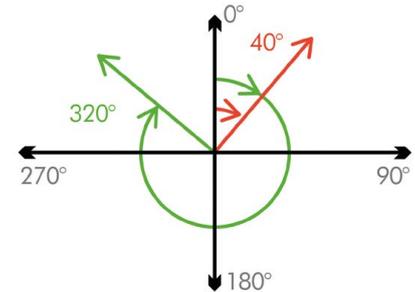


Illustration depicting bearings of 40° and 320°

Map symbols (the legend)

Maps use symbols to represent features on the ground. These features include roads, tracks, rivers, lakes, vegetation, fences, buildings, power lines, administrative boundaries, etc. Colour plays an important part in symbols and some international conventions apply to the use of colour. For example, blue for water features, black for culture and green for vegetation. While most symbols are easily recognised as the features they represent, they are all explained in the map's legend.

Contour lines

Topographic maps show contour lines, which join points of equal height and represent the relief in the terrain depicted. For example, if there are many contour lines close together, the terrain is steep. Contour lines that are far apart indicate land with gentle slopes.

Datums

Mapping and coordinate systems are based on a datum, which is a mathematical surface that best fits the shape of the Earth. A geocentric datum is a datum that has its origin at the earth's centre of mass. The advantage of the geocentric datum is that it is directly compatible with satellite-based navigation systems.

- ★ Adopting a geocentric datum allows for a single standard of collecting, storing and using geographic data, which ensures compatibility across various geographic systems at the local, regional, national and global level.

Anyone using a map or a GPS receiver will need to know which datum is being used for the grid and the latitude and longitude coordinates.

2. Map coordinates

Map coordinates are usually shown in one of two ways: Geographic coordinates or grid coordinates, given as easting and northing values in metres.

Geographic coordinates – latitude and longitude

You can find or express a location using the geographic coordinates of latitude (north or south – horizontal lines) and longitude (east or west – vertical lines). These are measured in degrees ($^{\circ}$), minutes ($'$) and seconds ($''$). For example, the geographic coordinates for a position could be stated as $33^{\circ}40'30''S$, $153^{\circ}10'40''E$. Each degree is divided into 60 minutes and each minute is divided into 60 seconds.

Latitude is the angular expression of the distance north or south from the equator (0° latitude). The South Pole is at $90^{\circ}S$; the North Pole at $90^{\circ}N$. Longitude is the angular expression of the distance east or west of the imaginary line known as the Prime Meridian (0° longitude on all maps).

Latitude and longitude coordinates are shown at each corner of a map's face. On some maps, short

black lines along the edges of the map face indicate the minutes of latitude and longitude. When expressing coordinates, latitude is given first.

Grid coordinates – eastings and northings

Grid lines can also be used to find or express a location. Grid lines are the equally spaced vertical and horizontal intersecting lines superimposed over the entire map face. Each line is numbered at the edge of the map face. On 1:100,000 scale maps, the distance between adjacent lines represents 1,000 metres or 1 kilometre.

Maps are normally printed so grid north points to the top of the sheet (when the print is the normal way up). One set of grid lines runs north-south while the other runs east-west. The position of a point on the map is described as its distance east from a north-south line and its distance north of an east-west line. For this reason, grid lines are also called:

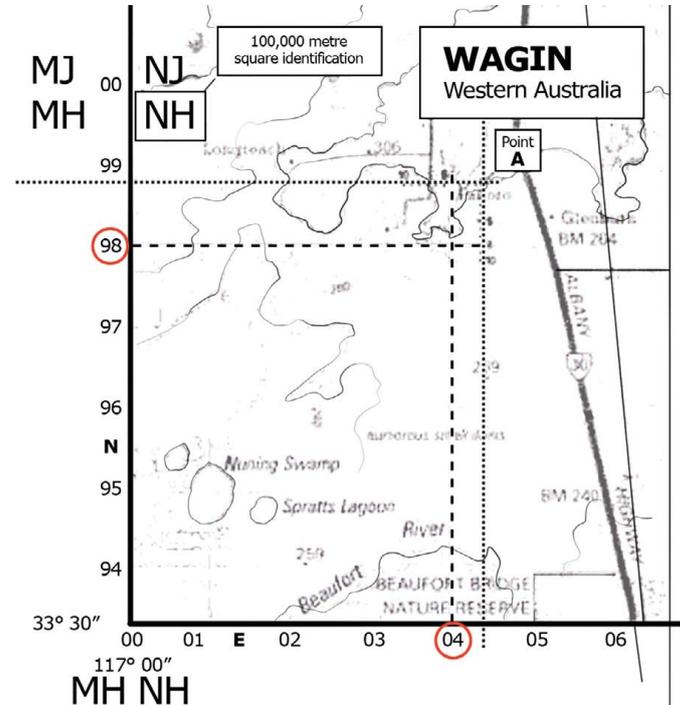
- ★ Eastings – these are the vertical lines running from top to bottom (north to south). They divide the map from west to east. Their values increase towards the east;

★ Northings – these are the horizontal lines running from left to right (west to east). They divide the map from north to south. Their values increase towards the north.

The squares formed by intersecting eastings and northings are called grid squares. On 1:100,000 scale maps, each square represents an area of 100 hectares or one square kilometre.

How to quote a grid reference for a particular point

A grid reference is used to describe a unique position on the face of the map. The degree of accuracy required will determine the method used to generate a grid reference. All methods follow a similar approach. A four-figure grid reference is used to identify which grid square contains a map feature. A six-figure grid reference will further specify the position to an accuracy of one tenth of the grid interval. In a map's margin there is usually a section devoted to how grid references are quoted. The information needed to complete a grid reference will be found in this section of the margin.



Example of determining a grid reference (not to scale)

To obtain a complete 1:100,000 scale grid reference for point A (Panoro) on the map above:

★ Note the map name. The grid zone number, a

unique identifier, can be used as an alternative. It is found in the map margin. Point A is located on the Wagin map sheet. The grid zone number is 50H;

- ★ Read the letters identifying the relevant 100,000 metre square containing the point. In this case they are NH;
- ★ Locate the vertical grid line to the left of the point of interest and read the two-figure easting value. Point A's easting value is 04;
- ★ Estimate the tenths from the vertical grid to the point. If using a Romer scale on the compass, place the matching scale over the point to be measured as shown in the diagram above. Using the same vertical grid line described above, count the tenths back from Point A to the grid line. In this case the value is 4;
- ★ Locate the horizontal grid line below the point of interest and read the two-figure northing value. Point A's northing value is 98;
- ★ Estimate the tenths from the horizontal grid line to the point. Using the same method described above, count the tenths down from Point A to the grid line. In this case the value is 8.

Note the datum of the map from the map margin. The Wagin Map is on GDA94. Therefore, the complete grid reference for Point A is either: Wagin, NH044988 or 50HNH044988.

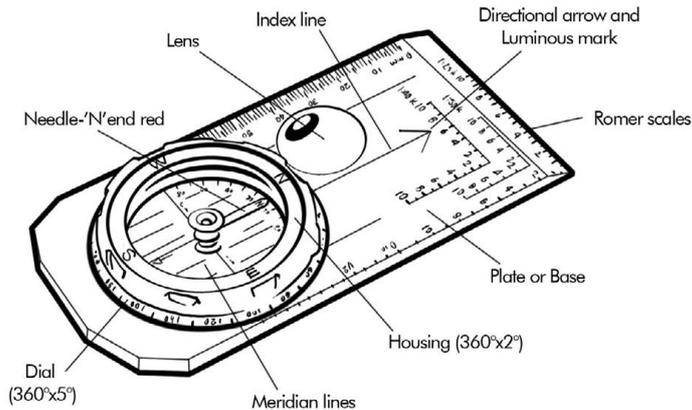
3. Compass

The compass is a valuable aid to navigation, particularly when travelling at night or through dense vegetation where it is difficult to identify landmarks.

A compass works on the principle that the pivoting magnetised needle (or the north point of the swinging dial) always points to the north magnetic pole. As a result, a compass with graduations (degrees) marked on it can be used to measure the bearing of a chosen direction from magnetic north. Metal objects such as cars, fence posts, steel power poles, and transmission lines can affect the accuracy of a compass reading. Stand clear of such objects when using a compass – at least one metre from metal fence posts and up to 20 metres from a car.

Features of a compass

There are numerous types of compasses. The pivoted needle compass with an adjustable dial is the most useful type. In addition to a north-pointing needle, such compasses often have a transparent base with a direction-of-travel arrow and orienting lines marked on the rotating dial so they can be used for measuring grid bearings on a map.



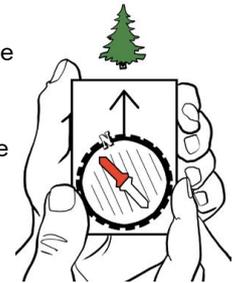
Using the compass to reach a destination

To follow compass bearings to a chosen destination, either determine magnetic bearings from visible

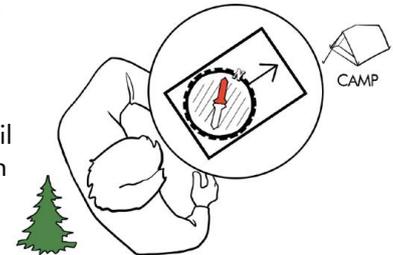
features along the route or obtain these bearings from another source prior to travelling.

To determine magnetic bearings:

- ★ Select a visible feature along the route to be travelled and, holding the compass level, point the direction of travel arrow at the visible feature;
- ★ Find the bearing of the visible feature by turning the compass dial until the 'N' aligns with the red end of the needle. Read the bearing in degrees at the index line;



- ★ Keeping the needle aligned with the 'N' proceed in the direction indicated by the bearing at the index line. The bearing will help in keeping on track when the feature is not visible. Repeat this procedure until the destination is reached.



When magnetic bearings are known:

- ★ If given a bearing in degrees, the bearing is set at the index line by turning the dial. Hold the compass level with the direction-of-travel arrow pointing straight ahead;



- ★ Turn body until the red end of the needle is aligned with the "N" on the dial. The direction of travel is now being faced;



- ★ Pick out a visible feature in line with the bearing and walk to it. Repeat the procedure until the destination is reached.

Conversion of bearings

Magnetic bearings measured with a compass must be converted to grid bearings for plotting on a map.

Similarly, grid bearings measured on a map must be converted to magnetic bearings for compass navigation on the ground. The grid/magnetic angle (or magnetic variation) is the difference between grid north and magnetic north. If magnetic north is east of grid north, it is a positive value. If magnetic north is west of grid north, it is a negative value.

To convert from a magnetic bearing to a grid bearing, add the grid/magnetic angle to the magnetic bearing. To convert a grid bearing to a magnetic bearing, subtract the grid/magnetic angle from the grid bearing.

4. Global Positioning System (GPS)

The Global Positioning System (GPS) is a worldwide radio-navigation system formed from a constellation of 24 satellites and their ground stations. GPS uses these satellites as reference points to calculate positions accurate to a matter of metres.

GPS receivers are generally hand held devices that assist with navigation on the ground, at sea and in the air. The GPS receiver is only an aid to navigation and cannot be solely relied upon to navigate. It relies

on the accuracy of the navigational data entered into the receiver.

How GPS works

The basis of GPS is triangulation from satellites. To triangulate, a GPS receiver measures distance using the time travel of radio signals. Using the signals from any three of these satellites, a two dimensional position is given, using any four satellites, a three dimensional, and therefore a very precise location of the GPS receiver is given.

What GPS can do

Some general functions of most GPS receivers are:

- ★ Determine ground speed, plot current position, store the current position as a waypoint, store other positions as waypoints, plot routes travelled, calculate a bearing between two positions, determine an error left or right of the intended track, determine a range or distance between two positions.

GPS navigation

Navigation with a GPS receiver is similar to navigation with a compass in that a map is used with both methods and a clear understanding of the principles of map reading and navigation is essential. Similar techniques to those used with map and compass navigation are used with GPS navigation. The principles of planning the intended route, studying the map, developing navigation data sheets, etc., still exist when using GPS receivers.

Using GPS with a map

GPS is based on the WGS84 datum (see explanation of datums above).

However, not all maps have a WGS84 datum. It is important to check which datum the map being used is based upon. Datum information will be shown in the map margin.

For the best match between coordinates of the map and GPS receiver, configure the GPS receiver to display coordinates (geographical or grid) on the same datum as the map being used. Most GPS receivers have the

ability to display either geographic or grid coordinates on a number of national and regional datums. It is important to know how to set the correct datum in the receiver. Please consult the GPS receiver's user guide for details. If the datum needed is not offered in the receiver, consult the GPS dealer for assistance.

It is recommended practice to check the GPS receiver against well-defined map features every time it is used. Visit a feature such as a road intersection, determine its position by GPS and compare this with coordinates calculated from a map. The larger the scale of this map, the better.

GPS performance and limitations

Most GPS receivers need to have a clear, uninterrupted view of the sky to enable communication with the satellite constellation (network). Some conditions that may interfere with GPS performance are:

- ★ Cloud cover, vegetation, operating inside a building, operating inside a motor vehicle without an external GPS antenna, operating in gorges, caves, mines and other underground or low ground areas. GPS receivers can also be affected by electrical storms.

Most commercial GPS receivers are accurate to an average of 50 metres horizontally and 70 metres vertically. Greater accuracy can be obtained by the use of differential GPS, which relies on the use of ground monitor stations (usually used for survey and military purposes).

As batteries power GPS receivers, it is important that the duration and the condition of the batteries are known, particularly before heading into rural or remote areas. Spare batteries should be carried, but as a backup to the GPS receiver, navigators should ensure that they have a magnetic compass and map with them at all times.

Types of data that can be collected using GPS

There are two basic types of data that can be collected and stored in the memory of the GPS unit. These are waypoints (or points) and track logs (or tracks).

Waypoints (WPs) are a record of a specific point on the ground that has been visited. Track logs are a record of a series of mini-points that are collected automatically by the GPS during a journey.

How to use GPS to collect data

Here are some suggestions for using GPS to collect data in various situations on missions:

- ★ Road assessments. WPs can be recorded at damaged sections and at villages and settlements. Track logging can record the route taken;
- ★ Village assessments. WPs can be recorded at road intersections and at prominent buildings (e.g. police stations, schools or hospitals);
- ★ Flood and damage surveys. GPS can be used to capture the extent of various types of damage, for example a flood or area of collapsed buildings;
- ★ Photographs. The locations of photographs taken can be recorded, for example when recording damage to specific structures or facilities;
- ★ Aerial assessments (GPS units are flight safe because they do not transmit; they only receive).

Remember that the GPS only records the WP numbers: a record of what these points represent must also be made (these are called the attributes). The attrib-

utes can be recorded in a notebook or on a purpose-designed form.

5. Planning

Prior to travelling, the chosen route should be divided into legs. Each leg should end at an easily recognisable landmark. Then produce a navigation data sheet for the entire route, which gives significant information for each leg of the route.

Orienting a map

Orient the map before reading it. To do this, hold the map horizontally and rotate it until its direction and features correspond to what is seen on the ground. If unable to identify the surrounding features, use the compass to orient the map. To do this:

- ★ Lay the map flat and place your compass so that the edge of the base lies along any grid north line and the direction-of-travel arrow is also pointing to grid north;
- ★ Rotate the map and compass until the north

point of the compass needle is east or west of the index line by the amount of the grid/magnetic angle shown in the map's margin.

Once the map is oriented, prominent features in the landscape can be identified.

Finding the present position

A GPS receiver can be used to determine the coordinates once it is set to a datum corresponding to the datum on the map. Alternatively, once surrounding features on the ground and on the map have been identified, the following procedure can be used to find the current position:

- ★ Choose two visible features and find these on the map. Now point the direction-of-travel arrow towards one feature and rotate the compass dial until the red end of the needle points to the 'N' on the dial;
- ★ Add the grid/magnetic angle to the bearing shown at the index line and turn the dial to the new bearing;
- ★ Place the compass on the map with the edge of the base touching the feature and pivot it until

the orienting arrow or lines align with the grid north lines. Draw a line from the feature along the side of the base across the map;

- ★ Repeat this process with the second feature. The present location is where the two lines intersect.

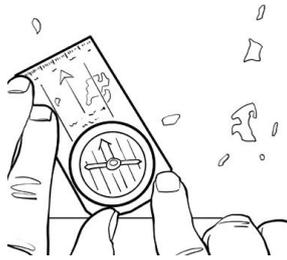
Setting a course

Once the map has been orientated and the present position identified a course can be set. Do this by sighting or by laying a straight line (using the edge of the map card or a piece of string) across the map. It is also good practice to identify a distant visible feature that is on the line, such as a rocky outcrop, and proceed to that point. Then identify another feature on the line, and so on, until the destination is reached.

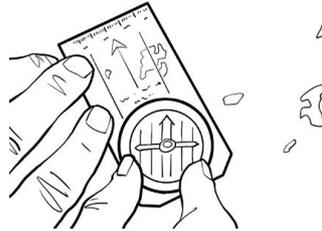
When features are sparse, a GPS receiver can be used. First, determine the coordinates of the destination point from the map and enter them into the receiver. Then walk in the approximate direction of the destination, letting the receiver indicate the right direction.

Alternatively the map and compass can be used as follows:

- ★ Before starting, place the compass on the map so that the edge of the base connects the present position (in this case, No. 5 Bore) to the destination (No. 11 Bore), and the direction-of-travel arrow is also pointing that way;



- ★ Turn the compass dial until the orienting lines are parallel with the grid north lines on the map and the orienting arrow is also pointing to grid north;



- ★ The dial's reading at the index line shows the grid bearing. Subtract the grid/magnetic angle from this bearing and turn the dial to show the new magnetic bearing at the index line;



- ★ Put the map aside. Hold the compass steady and level with the direction-of-travel arrow pointing straight ahead. Rotate until the red end of the needle is directly over the orienting arrow, pointing to the 'N' on the dial. The direction-of-travel arrow now points to the destination (No. 11 Bore). Look up, align the direction-of-travel arrow with a feature and walk to it. Repeat this procedure until the destination is reached.

Maintaining direction using a compass

When moving through dense vegetation it is important that continuous checks be made using the compass. The best method of maintaining a given magnetic bearing is to select a prominent object (such as a tree), which lies on the bearing, and move to it. Then select another object on the bearing and move to that. Continue with this method until the destination is reached. If it is impossible to find a prominent object on the bearing then send another person forward about 100 metres, correct them onto the bearing and then proceed to them. Again repeat this procedure until the destination is reached.

Once a course commences, checking must be continuous:

- ★ All features such as hills and rivers should be checked as they are reached and identified on the map. Note the direction of flow of all streams and rivers and check with the map;
- ★ Tracks need to be identified, but should always be regarded with suspicion. It is easy to place too much confidence in a track which may not be the one marked on the map.

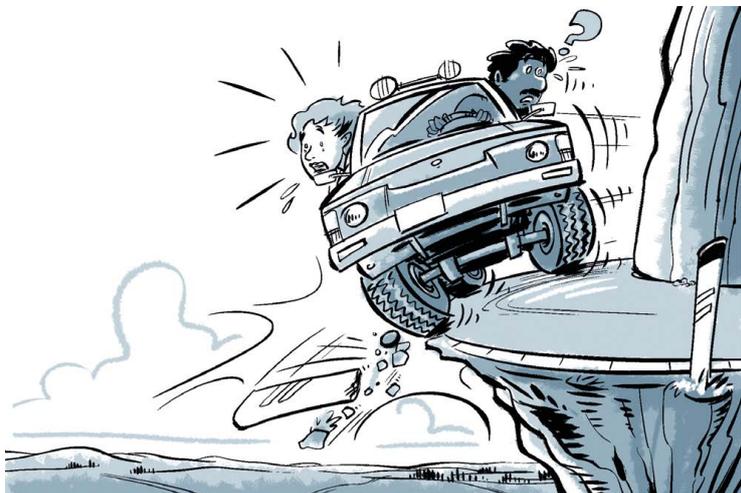
Distance travelled

It is very important, particularly when moving through vegetation, to know the distance that has been covered. There are two basic methods of achieving this:

- ★ **Pacing** – This is generally accepted as being the more reliable method. Distances can be counted in number of paces, which, for the individual, can be translated into kilometres depending on the type of terrain and the average length of the pace. Experience has shown that over long distances it is better to count right foot paces only rather than each pace. To make recording easier, use small pebbles or seeds and transfer

these from one pocket to another at each hundred paces. For a 76 cm (30 inch) pace, 657 right foot paces will equal one kilometre;

- ★ **Time** – Distance can also be calculated from the time in relation to speed of walking in kilometres per hour. For the average person walking over fairly flat country, a 76 cm (30 inch) pace will result in a speed of about 5 kilometres per hour.



C. Four-wheel driving

When you are on mission, you will often be required to drive around in a four-wheel drive (4WD) vehicle. Although you may already be used to driving one, it is important to know what makes a 4WD unique. In case you are out of practice or you do not have much experience in driving a 4WD vehicle, arrange a couple of 4W driving lessons before leaving to a mission.

4WD means that four road wheels provide traction for the vehicle. 4WD is often selectable, but in some

cases all wheels provide drive all the time (constant 4WD – Range Rover, for example). In most cars, only two wheels provide traction and the others ‘freewheel’. In the past, the driving wheels were usually the rear wheels, but now front-wheel drive is more common. Most 4WD vehicles have stayed with traditional rear-wheel drive in normal situations, with front-wheel drive being selectable by the driver as conditions require. To reduce wear, noise and fuel consumption, 4WDs are often fitted with freewheeling hubs on the front wheels.

Why does four-wheel driving need special handling?

There are a number of important differences between a normal car and a 4WD vehicle, which are predominately used on a mission. The 4WD is usually about the same weight as an ordinary vehicle, but has a higher centre of gravity, so it is less stable. It may have a shorter wheelbase and/or larger turning circle. The tyre size and tread pattern may be more suitable for off-road conditions than for sealed roads. The two driving axles and transfer case allow for the use of high or low ratio and four-wheel drive. All these differences go to make up a vehicle that requires special handling skills. The art of successful four-wheel-driving takes practice and skill and comes with experience.

1. General principles of four-wheel driving

The following general principles apply to four-wheel drive operation:

- ★ **Assess and plan.** Get out and physically check the obstacle before committing yourself to crossing it;
- ★ **The first attempt** at crossing an obstacle is usually the best, especially in muddy or slippery conditions;
- ★ **The right gear. The right timing.** Select a suitable gear before attempting the obstacle. Changing gear in the middle of an obstacle may cause wheel spin and thus loss of traction;
- ★ **When in doubt, trust throttle control.** In difficult conditions, allow the vehicle to inch along, finding its own way purely with throttle control (i.e., engine revs at idle speed or just above idle speed, no clutch or brakes);
- ★ **Do not over-rev the engine.** Use only the amount of engine torque needed for the job;
- ★ **Slow down.** To overcome wheel spin, decelerate;
- ★ **When braking, avoid locking up the wheels.** If

wheels do skid, ease off the brakes until traction is regained;

- ★ **“After you!”** When two or more vehicles are travelling in convoy, cross an obstacle one at a time.

2. Vehicle checklist

The following is a list of items that you need to make sure exist in your 4WD vehicle at all time:

- ★ Tyres (make sure they are in good condition and that they have sufficient air pressure!);
- ★ Oil, coolant, fuel;
- ★ Tools (make sure they are all in place, including the wheel jack);
- ★ Spare fan belt, extra fuel in cans, if needed, and spare properly inflated tyre;
- ★ Passive protection kit if required (helmet, flak jacket);
- ★ Drinking water;
- ★ Spare/emergency food;
- ★ First aid kit;

- ★ Sleeping bag/blankets (always worth taking in cold climates or for first aid);
- ★ Flashlight;
- ★ Map;
- ★ Vehicle logo/flag (if your organisation has one);
- ★ Lights (including lights to illuminate your logo/flag);
- ★ Documents required by local authorities, for example log, registration and insurance papers.

3. Armoured vehicles

Armoured vehicles are usually of the 4WD (four-wheel drive) variety. All vehicles (for example, the cabin of a convoy truck) can be protected with armour if required. Here again there are many different levels of protection available. The higher the degree of protection, the greater (normally) the weight of your vehicle. The added weight resulting from these higher levels of protection might even require special driving skills because of the handling peculiarities this creates. Practise driving the armoured vehicle or get a specialist driver for it. It takes time to get used to it. In fact, there is an increasing tendency that armoured vehicles used in the mission require a 'C' driving licence rather

than merely a standard 'B' driving licence. Carefully check if there is a 'C' driving licence needed for your position (which could, for example, be the case for border monitors).

Armour plating can provide good protection against rifle fire, blast from shells, anti-personnel mines and, to a more limited degree, the blast effect of other mines. Again, just because you have such a vehicle available, do not treat it as your personal go-anywhere tank. It can and will protect you against the less powerful threats, but you should not expect it to protect you against everything. In other words, be sensible. If the risks are high, turn back. An armoured vehicle is not normally designed to withstand the larger sniper bullets or a direct hit from an artillery round or mortar round. Do ask what level of protection your vehicle gives you. Procurers know what you want and, more importantly, they know what you are getting.

Armoured vehicles should be used for vital missions in high-risk areas and when entering an unknown but possibly high-risk area for the first time. They should normally be used in vehicle pairs for added security, especially in the event of a breakdown. If conditions warrant the use of armoured vehicles, they also require that you wear your helmet and flak or ballistic jacket for added protection.

Likewise, if the situation calls for the use of protective equipment, you should also ensure that a first aid kit is always carried in your vehicle and seek training in its use. Always carry two compression bandages with you. They are small, simple, easy-to-carry purpose-built pads that can be quickly applied to wounds to stop bleeding and thus save lives. Ask your medical department or field nurse for them (you can also make them yourself).

Other forms of vehicle protection

Ballistic-protective blankets, or 'mine blankets', are designed as an economical way of providing some minimal protection in vehicles not equipped with the armour described above. These blankets – made from the same type of material used for ballistic jackets – are laid on the floor of the vehicle. They are quite heavy (almost six kilos per square metre). The blankets augment the protection offered by the vehicle's floor against small fragments projected by grenades, unexploded ordnance or anti-personnel mines. However, you should not let these new passive protection aids give you a false sense of security. They will not protect you or your vehicle against anti-tank mines.

Sandbags can be laid on the floor of vehicles to provide added protection against the mine threat. They are effective against blast and fragments from anti-personnel mines, but should only be expected to reduce the blast effect of anti-tank mines. In other words, do not expect full protection. Sandbags naturally bring with them the penalty of added weight and decreased vehicle stability.

Chapter 7

Handover and departure

A. Final in-country steps

1. Handover

Crisis management missions are designed to be temporary. The goal is to stabilise the situation and lay the groundwork for a stable and sustainable peace.

The decision to end a mission's mandate is a political one. Assessments are made to determine when a mission can cease and remaining responsibilities can be handed over to local authorities.

Mission planning must, from the outset, include a transition/exit strategy with the understanding that the strategy will require constant adjustment. This may include coordinating, planning and preparing the political groundwork for a successor mission, a systematic handover of responsibilities to local authorities and other partners, or a joint international system to move from post-conflict priorities to a peacebuilding process.

In any case, transparency, clarity, attention to detail and good communication with partners are essential in the handover process. A good handover makes sure that your work and achievements do not get lost. It warns your successors of likely pitfalls and dangers and offers them all the knowledge and contacts they need. For a successful handover, put yourself in the position of your successor: What would you want or need to know?

Think about (or find out) the specific experience and knowledge of the person you are handing over to and tailor your handover accordingly. Use clear systems and records to store information and make sure you get important knowledge that exists only in your head down on paper. Handover notes should be finalised before you leave. A copy should be provided to your successor as well as your supervisor. Ideally, there should be a period of overlap with your successor.

A handover can include:

- ★ A written handover file/handover notes;
- ★ A handover meeting between outgoing and incoming staff;
- ★ Individual meetings;
- ★ Meetings with relevant contacts to introduce

your successor;

- ★ A social event for outgoing and incoming staff.

2. Closing a programme

A project or programme should be formally closed to ensure that:

- ★ Operational procedures are in place;
- ★ The handover to operational staff has been completed;
- ★ Documentation and reference material is in place;
- ★ Any further actions and recommendations are documented and disseminated;
- ★ The results are disseminated to relevant people;
- ★ There are no loose ends.

The closure of a programme, for whatever reason, should be carefully prepared. Staff are likely to be disappointed about losing their jobs. Local leaders, contractors, partners and beneficiaries may protest against losing the assistance that the programme

brought. Care is needed to ensure that the closure is well managed.

Ending staff contracts

The process of terminating contracts should be carefully planned and sensitively managed. Ties of loyalty may have been built up over time and some staff may feel that their loyalty is not being rewarded. Contracts should have been drawn up initially with the possibility of short notice being given in times of crisis, so that staff know what to expect. Local employment laws and customs should be followed scrupulously. A good local lawyer is likely to be needed: his fees may be many times less than the cost of legal action that might otherwise result.

Above all, the process should be fair and perceived to be fair. Managers should ensure that at all times there is clear communication about the process and consultation where possible.

Ending other contracts

Contracts with local companies, owners of buildings and others may need to be ended as well. In a known insecure environment where a crisis is likely to result in termination of contracts at short notice, clauses can be written into contracts at the outset to deal with such a situation. Transparency, fairness and attention to detail are important. Once again, a local lawyer may be useful.

Any outstanding claims or legal cases should be resolved before the departure of the manager. To leave without such resolution could increase risks to staff and former staff as well as to other organisations. It would damage the reputation of the organisation.

Disposing of property

Early decisions should be made on how to dispose of the organisation's property. Some may be sold or some may be given to local organisations. Some may be taken out of the area by the organisation for use in other programmes. These decisions will depend on the requirements of donors, on the rules of the or-

ganisation, and/or on the judgement of the manager concerned.

Evaluation and inspection

Evaluations or inspections of programmes may be required by the organisation before the programme closes. These should be taken into account when planning the closure. In particular, will key staff be available for interview if required?

All key documents and reports should be archived properly. This enables accountability should any future investigation be made. It can also protect the organisation against any false claims.

3. Final report

The main purpose of reports is to inform about the activities, the progress as well as problems in your field work in the reporting period. The final report (also referred to as end-of-assignment report) reflects your contribution toward reaching your mandate and tasks. It should identify lessons learned, come to conclusions and ideally inspire good decision-making.

The purpose of a final report is to provide an assessment of the implementation of the mission's mandate, particularly in regard to the specific area of your responsibility. It also offers recommendations for improving the effectiveness and efficiency in implementing the mission's mandate, with the aim of advising policies, procedures and practices. The report should focus on lessons learned and best practices, and highlight replicable factors that contributed to success or failure.

As the structures and standards requested differ significantly, approach your organisation for more information before writing a final report.

4. Mission debrief

A mission debrief will take place with specified staff to enable personnel to discuss their involvement during the deployment and to draw out any lessons learned for the organisation to enrich institutional memory. The following points may be covered:

- ★ Pre-departure;
- ★ Arrival in country/orientation;
- ★ On mission – Mission activities;

- ★ On mission – Relations with other organisations/entities;
- ★ On mission – Organisational/administrative issues;
- ★ On mission – Equipment;
- ★ Other issues/comments.

B. Returning home

1. Medical checkup

You should seek medical consultation and treatment promptly if you have signs of any illness or injury following deployment. Of particular concern is persistent fever, coughs or abdominal upsets with diarrhoea as these may be due to a disease contracted during deployment.

Many tropical illnesses do not exhibit symptoms for months after being contracted or may be confused with the exhaustion and stress of the move. In order to rule out tropical illnesses, it is advisable to talk to a doctor with experience in tropical medicine about having a basic medical checkup.

If you had any sexual contact during the deployment or if you lived in an area strongly affected by HIV/AIDS, you should consider being tested for HIV/AIDS and venereal disease. HIV tests may not be positive until about 3 weeks after the exposure to the virus.

If signs of stress persist after returning home from deployment, you should seek consultation with a professional mental health care provider.

Medication

You should continue to consume medication according to the regime established by the manufacturer of the medication even after departing from the deployment location. This information may be found in the packaging of the medication and applies especially to anti-malarial drugs.

2. Re-integration: work and family

Coming home from your deployment, you may want to talk about your experiences, while others seem not to want to listen. Or you may not want to talk about it when others keep asking. Understanding what sorts of reactions to expect from yourself and your next of

kin on your return home is important to making your re-integration less stressful.

Prepare yourself for a range of emotional reactions, such as excitement, disorganisation, resentment and frustration. Things may not be as easy-going as you had imagined. Some things may have changed while you were away and you yourself may have changed in your outlook and priorities of life. You may also miss the excitement of the deployment for a while.

Reverse culture shock

Classically experienced as a period of depression or apathy, this stage can be very challenging. Feelings of isolation and confusion are common. The lowest periods normally occur during the second and third month home, and balance out approximately six months after you return. Reverse culture shock is often not well understood, and is even less so by those who have not lived through it. The lack of tolerance and patience displayed at home may make you feel displaced or misunderstood, and may reinforce any feelings of depression that you may be experiencing.

There are many reasons why reverse culture shock occurs, but the major contributing factors are:

- ★ The reality of home differs from the home you remember. Over the course of your assignment you may have idealised or romanticised home. It is easy to forget or minimise the issues that were once sources of stress in your everyday life;
- ★ Things change. Change has occurred to everyone and everything. Learning about these changes and adjusting to them can be very stressful;
- ★ People may not react to you or your experiences in the way you expected. Many returnees find it difficult to connect with people and society in the ways they used to or may be frustrated by people's limited attention span for their experiences.

As with every aspect of the reverse culture shock process, the way in which you overcome the challenges you face will be highly personalised. Simply being aware that reverse culture shock exists will already ease the process to some extent. Some possible strategies are outlined here:

- ★ Start mentally preparing for the adjustment process before ending your assignment. Ongo-

ing reflection is useful in terms of clarifying your thoughts and feelings. The different reflection fields might be social relations, search for job/training, physical environment (housing, space) and ways to link your host culture to your home culture;

- ★ Take your time for coming home both physically and mentally. Avoid putting time pressure or deadlines on how you feel or on major life decisions;
- ★ Cultivate good listening practices. One of the best ways to ensure that you have an audience for your stories is to show that you care about their stories. Being a good listener will reinforce mutually respectful and beneficial relationships;
- ★ Learn about what has changed in regard to family members, friends, politics, job markets and so on;
- ★ At work and in your family, renegotiate your roles and responsibilities – the workload can be shared again, but perhaps in a new way;
- ★ Seek support networks. Many people find that the biggest challenge of returning home is finding people who are like-minded or with whom they can share their experiences. In order to overcome this, you may want to maintain contacts with colleagues or find other outlets that

attract people of a similar mind-set;

- ★ Find ways to incorporate your new interests and cross-cultural skills into your life at home – keep in touch with your experience!

Post-deployment stress

Be aware that it is possible that you will experience post-deployment stress after returning home. You may suffer repercussions or delayed after-effects, particularly if you coped successfully during the actual crisis. Typical reactions may be similar to those encountered during the mission. Some symptoms of post-mission stress are:

- ★ Sleep disturbances;
- ★ Restlessness, anxiety;
- ★ Re-experiencing events;
- ★ Feeling of emptiness/emotional emptiness;
- ★ Irritability;
- ★ Self-reproach, feelings of guilt;
- ★ Aggressiveness, hatred;

- ★ Problems concentrating;
- ★ Physical complaints.

Be patient and make time for recovery. It takes time to adjust both physically and mentally. Following stressful experiences, it is natural to require more than usual rest and sleep. This may be difficult because you have been away from family and loved ones who will also need attention. Recognise that you may need more time alone than usual to process your experiences and impressions as well as for adaptation to daily life at home.

Communicate your experience. Talk about your experience, but keep in mind that others may not share the same interest in your mission experience or may lose interest sooner than you expected.

Seek help if necessary. Although it is natural to experience post-deployment stress, you should seek help in the recovery process if necessary. If post-mission stress symptoms last longer than thirty days or become more intense, it is advisable to seek assistance from a trained professional.

Abbreviations

AMM	Aceh Monitoring Mission (European Union)
AMISOM	African Union Mission in Somalia
AOR	Area of Responsibility
ASF	African Standby Force
AU	African Union
AUBP	African Union Border Programme
CA	Comprehensive Approach (European Union)
CADSP	Common African Defence and Security Policy
CAO	Chief Administrative Officer
CEWS	Continental Early Warning System
CFSP	Common Foreign and Security Policy (European Union)
CIMIC	Civil-Military Cooperation
CIVCOM	Committee for Civilian Aspects of Crisis Management (European Union)
CIVPOL	Civilian Police
CMC	Crisis Management Concept (European Union)
CMCS	Civil-Military Coordination Section (United Nations)
CMD	Conflict Management Division (African Union)
CPMD	Crisis Management and Planning Directorate (European Union)
CMPs	Crisis Management Procedures
CMS	Chief of Mission Support
CONOPS	Concept of Operations

COREPER	Comité des Représentants Permanents (Permanent Representatives Committee) (European Union)
COS	Chief of Staff
CPC (OSCE)	Conflict Prevention Centre (Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe)
CPCC	Civilian Planning and Conduct Capability (European Union)
CRT	Civilian Response Team
CSDP	Common Security and Defence Policy
DDR	Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration
DG	Directorate-General
DSD	Defence and Security Division (African Union)
EASF	Eastern African Standby Force
EC	European Commission
EEAS	European External Action Service
EGF	European Gendarmerie Force
ENTRI	Europe's New Training Initiative for Civilian Crisis Management
EP	European Parliament
ERC	Emergency Relief Coordinator (United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs)
ESDC	European Security and Defence College
ESDP	European Security and Defence Policy
EU	European Union
EU SITCEN	Joint European Situation Centre
EU SSR	European Union Security Sector Reform (Mission)
EUBAM	European Union Border Assistance Mission
EUFOR	European Forces in Bosnia and Herzegovina

EUJUST LEX	European Union Integrated Rule of Law Mission for Iraq
EULEX	European Union Rule of Law Mission in Kosovo
EUMC	European Union Military Committee
EUMM	European Union Monitoring Mission in Georgia
EUMS	European Union Military Staff
EUPM EUPOL	European Union Police Mission
EUPOL Afghanistan	European Union Police Mission in Afghanistan
EUPOL COPPS	European Union Police Mission in the Palestinian Territories
EUPOL RD Congo	European Union Police Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo
EUSR	European Union Special Representative
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization (United Nations)
HOM	Head of Mission
HR	High Representative
HR/VP	High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy and Vice President of the EU Commission
IASC	Inter-Agency Standing Committee (United Nations)
ICC	International Criminal Court
ICO	International Civilian Office
ICRC	International Committee of the Red Cross
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IDDRS	Integrated Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration Standards
IDP	Internally Displaced Person

IFS	Instrument for Stability (European Union)
IMPP	Integrated Mission Planning Process (United Nations)
INTERFET	International Force for East Timor
ISAF	International Security Assistance Force in Afghanistan
KFOR	Kosovo Force (North Atlantic Treaty Organization)
MCDA	Military Civil Defence Assets
MINUSTAH	United Nations Stabilization Mission in Haiti
MSF	Médecins Sans Frontières Doctors Without Borders
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NRF	Response Force
OAU	Organization of African Unity
ODIHR	Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe)
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OHCHR	Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
OMA	Office of Military Affairs
OROLSI	Office of Rule of Law and Security Institutions (United Nations)
OSCE	Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe
PCRD	Post-Conflict Reconstruction and Development
PPIO	Press and Public Information Office
PSC	Political and Security Committee (European Union)

PSD	Peace and Security Department (African Union)
PSOD	Peace Support Operations Division (African Union)
R2P	Responsibility to Protect
RECs	Regional Economic Communities
RMs	Regional Mechanisms for Conflict Prevention, Management and Resolution
SRSg	Special Representative of the Secretary-General (United Nations)
SSR	Security Sector Reform
UN	United Nations
UNAMA	United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan
UNAMID	United Nations/African Union Hybrid Operation in Darfur
UNDAC	United Nations Disaster Assessment and Coordination
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UN DPA	United Nations Department of Political Affairs
UN DPKO	United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations
UN DFS	United Nations Department of Field Support
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIPSIL	United Nations Integrated Peacebuilding Office in Sierra Leone
UNMIL	United Nations Mission in Liberia
UNMIT	United Nations Integrated Mission in East Timor

UN OCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
UN PBC	United Nations Peacebuilding Commission
UN PBSO	United Nations Peacebuilding Support Office
UNPOL	United Nations Police
UNTAET	United Nations Transitional Administration in East Timor
UNTSO	United Nations Truce Supervision Organization
UTC	Coordinated Universal Time
WEU	Western European Union
WHO	World Health Organization

Bibliography

This handbook has made use of the following publications – either literally or indirectly. Where appropriate, the wording has been adjusted to suit the subject of this handbook.

Chapter 1 – Situating yourself within the crisis management framework

AFRICAN UNION

- (2012): *About AU Peace and Security Department*, <http://www.peaceau.org/en/page/2-who-we-are>, accessed on 17 September 2012.
- Conflict Management Division (CMD)*, <http://www.peaceau.org/en/page/5-conflict-management-division>, accessed on 17 September 2012.
- Peace and Security Council (PSC)*, <http://au.int/en/organs/psc>, accessed on 17 September 2012.
- (2012): *The Peace Support Operations Division (PSOD)*, <http://www.peaceau.org/en/page/7-peace-and-support-operations-division>, accessed on 17 September 2012.

AFRICAN UNION COMMISSION (2012): *Peace and Security Department at a Glance*, <http://www.peaceau.org/uploads/au-booklet.pdf>, accessed on 10 September 2012.

CENTER FOR INTERNATIONAL PEACE OPERATIONS (2010)

Glossary Peace Operations, Berlin, p. 31.

CENTER ON INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

- (2009): *Building on Brahimi. Peacekeeping in an Era of Strategic Uncertainty*, <http://www.peacekeepingbestpractices.unlb.org/PBPS/Pages/Public/Download.aspx?docid=944&cat=0&scat=0>, accessed on 24 October 2012.
- Civilian Capacity in the Aftermath of Conflict: Independent Report of the Senior Advisory Group*, http://archive-edu.com/page/649111/2012-11-13/http://www.cic.nyu.edu/peacebuilding/peace_2008archive.html, accessed on 24 October 2012.

COUNCIL OF THE EUROPEAN UNION (2003)

Progress Report on Civilian Aspects of Crisis Management, No. 15625/03, pp. 17 f.

CROSS, Mai'a K. Davis (2010): *Cooperation by Committee: The EU Military Committee and the Committee for Civilian Crisis Management*, in: European Union Institute for Security Studies, Occasional Paper No. 82, http://www.iss.europa.eu/uploads/media/op82_CooperationbyCommittee.pdf, accessed on 10 September 2012. © European Institute for Security Studies 2012.

EIDE, Espen Barth/KASPERSEN, Anja Therese/KENT, Randolph/VON HIPPEL, Karen (2005): *Report on Integrated Missions: Practical Perspectives and Recommendations*, http://ochanet.unocha.org/p/Documents/Report_on_Integrated_Missions_May_2005_Final.pdf, accessed on 17 September 2012.

EUROPEAN COUNCIL: *The European Council – an Official Institution of the EU. The Institution*, <http://www.european-council.europa.eu/the-institution?lang=en>, accessed on 17 September 2012.

EUROPEAN UNION: *Civilian Crisis Management*, <http://www.consilium.europa.eu/eeas/security-defence/civilian-crisis-management.aspx?lang=en>, accessed on 10 September 2012. © European Union, 1995-2012

EUROPEAN UNION COMMON SECURITY AND DEFENCE POLICY (2010): *Coup d'œil sur la Politique de sécurité et de défense commune de l'UE*, in: CSDP Newsletter, Issue 10, http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uodocs/cmsUpload/online_100818_CSDP_Newsletter_hw.pdf, accessed on 10 September 2012. © European Union, 1995-2012

EUROPEAN UNION EXTERNAL ACTION SERVICE

© European Union, 1995-2012

- Capabilities. EU Civilian and Military Capability Development*, <http://consilium.europa.eu/eeas/security-defence/capabilities/eu-civilian-and-military-capability-development.aspx?lang=en>, accessed on 10 September 2012.
- Civilian Crisis Management*, http://www.eeas.europa.eu/cfsp/crisis_management/index_en.htm, accessed on 10 September 2012.
- Civilian Planning and Conduct Capability (CPCC)*, <https://www.consilium.europa.eu/eeas/security-defence/csdp-structures-and-instruments/cpcc?lang=de>, accessed on 14 September 2012.
- Civilian Structures and Instruments*, <http://consilium.europa.eu/eeas/security-defence/csdp-structures-and-instruments?lang=en>, accessed on 14 September 2012.
- Instrument for Stability (IfS) – EU in Action*, http://www.eeas.europa.eu/ifs/index_en.htm, accessed on 10 September 2012.
- Structure and Organisation*, http://www.eeas.europa.eu/background/organisation/index_en.htm, accessed on 10 September 2012.

FONTAINE ORTIZ, Even (2009): *The Role of Special Representatives of the Secretary-General and Resident Coordinators. A Benchmarking Framework for Coherence and Integration within the United Nations System*, Geneva: United Nations, <http://www.unjui.org/en/reports-notes/archive/2012/09/20role%20of%20Special%20Representatives%20of%20the%20Secretary-General%20and%20Resident%20Coordinators.pdf>, accessed on 13 September 2012.

GOURLAY, Catriona et al. (2006): *Civilian Crisis Management: The EU Way*, in: Chaillot Paper, No. 90, European Union Institute for Security Studies, <http://www.iss.europa.eu/uploads/media/cp090.pdf>, accessed on 10 September 2012. © European Institute for Security Studies 2012

HANSEN, Wibke/VON GIENANTH, Tobias (2009): *Zukunft für das Peacekeeping. Das „New Horizon“ Papier der Vereinten Nationen (Policy Briefing)*, Berlin: Zentrum für Internationale Friedenseinsätze, http://www.zif-berlin.org/fileadmin/uploads/analyse/dokumente/veroeffentlichungen/Policy_Briefing_New_Horizon_12_09.pdf, accessed on 13 September 2012, p. 1.

HANSON, Stefanie (2009): *Backgrounder – The African Union*, New York: Council on Foreign Relations, <http://www.cfr.org/africa/african-union/p11616>, accessed on 10 September 2012.

MAJOR, Claudia/PIETZ, Tobias/SCHÖNDORF, Elisabeth/HUMMEL, Wanda (2012): *Toolbox Crisis Management. From Civilian Crisis Prevention to Peacebuilding: Principles, Actors, Instruments*, Berlin: Stiftung Wissenschaft und Politik / Center for International Peace Operations, http://www.zif-berlin.org/fileadmin/uploads/analyse/dokumente/veroeffentlichungen/ZIF_SWP_Toolbox_CrisisManagement.pdf, accessed on 10 September 2012, pp. 10-15, 18-21, 25, 30, 37-40, 45.

MINISTRY OF DEFENCE OF THE FRENCH REPUBLIC (2012): *How Does CSDP Work?*, <http://www.defense.gouv.fr/english/das/international-relations/european-defense/how-does-csdp-work/how-does-csdp-work>, accessed on 10 September 2012.

ORGANIZATION FOR SECURITY AND CO-OPERATION IN EUROPE ©OSCE1995-2012 *Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights. About ODIHR*, <http://www.osce.org/odihr/43595>, accessed on 10 September 2012.

What is the OSCE? <http://www.osce.org/secretariat/35775>, accessed on 10 September 2012.

RICHTER, Bastian (2010): *The Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP). Decision-Making, Planning and Organization of CSDP Field Missions - Updated Interactive Guide*, Berlin: Center for International Peace Operations, http://www.zif-berlin.org/fileadmin/uploads/analyse/dokumente/veroeffentlichungen/ZIF_Guide_CSDP_2010.pps, accessed on 17 September 2012.

UNITED NATIONS

Department of Field Support, <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/about/dfs/>, accessed on 10 September 2012.

Department of Peacekeeping Operations, <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/about/dpko/>, accessed on 10 September 2012.

Forming a New Operation. The Security Council Determines the Deployment of a New UN Peacekeeping Operation, <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/operations/newoperation.shtml>, accessed on 10 September 2012.

Mandates and the Legal Basis for Peacekeeping, <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/operations/pkmandates.shtml>, accessed on 10 September 2012.

Peace and Security, <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/operations/peace.shtml>, accessed on 13 September 2012.

The Peacebuilding Commission (PBC), <http://www.un.org/en/peacebuilding>, accessed on 10 September 2012.

The Peacebuilding Support Office, <http://www.un.org/en/peacebuilding/pbso/>, accessed on 10 September 2012.

Peacekeeping Operations. Issues, <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/>, accessed on 10 September 2012.

Reform of Peacekeeping, <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/operations/reform.shtml>, accessed on 10 September 2012.

Role of the Department of Political Affairs, <http://www.un.org/wcm/content/site/undpa/main/about/overview>, accessed on 17 September 2012.

UNITED NATIONS DEPARTMENT OF PEACEKEEPING OPERATIONS/DEPARTMENT OF FIELD SUPPORT (2012): *Civil Affairs Handbook*, <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/issues/civil>, accessed on 22 October 2012.

UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

<http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home.html>, accessed on 17 September 2012.

Frequently Asked Questions, http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/operations/about_us/frequently_askedquestions/#undp, accessed on 10 September 2012.

(2012): *What We Do – Our Goals*, <http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/ourwork/overview.html>, accessed on 10 September 2012.

UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME EVALUATION OFFICE (2013): *Evaluation of UNDP Contribution to Poverty Reduction*, in: *Multidimensional*, http://issuu.com/undp-evaluation/docs/evaluation_poverty_2013, accessed on 22 October 2012.

UNITED NATIONS DISASTER ASSESSMENT AND COORDINATION (2006): *UNDAC Handbook*, <http://ochanet.unocha.org/p/Documents/UNDAC%20Handbook-dec2006.pdf>, accessed on 13 September 2012, chap. B.5.3.

United States Institute of Peace (1995): *Online Training Course for OSCE, Module 2: OSCE Mission and other Field Activity Structures and Functions*, <http://react.usip.org/downloads/Module2.pdf>, accessed on 24 October 2012.

UNITED NATIONS OFFICE FOR THE COORDINATION OF HUMANITARIAN AFFAIRS *Humanitarian Civil-Military Coordination (UN-CMCoord)*, <http://www.unocha.org/what-we-do/coordination-tools/UN-CMCoord/overview>, accessed on 10 September 2012.

Who We Are, <http://www.unocha.org/about-us/who-we-are>, accessed on 10 September 2012.

(2005): *Report on Integrated Missions: Practical Perspectives and Recommendations*, http://ochanet.unocha.org/p/Documents/Report_on_Integrated_Missions_May_2005_Final.pdf, accessed on 10 September 2012.

UNITED NATIONS PEACEKEEPING

Issues - Human Rights, <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/issues/humanrights.shtml>, accessed on 17 September 2012.

Rule of Law, <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/issues/ruleoflaw.shtml>, accessed on 17 September 2012.

UNITED NATIONS RULE OF LAW: *About*, http://www.unrol.org/article.aspx?article_id=2, accessed on 13 September 2012.

UNITED NATIONS SECRETARY GENERAL (2011): *Independent Report on Civilian Capacities (Guehenno Report)*, No. SG/2171 PKO/263, <http://www.un.org/News/Press/docs/2011/sg2171.doc.htm>, accessed on 10 September 2012.

Chapter 2 – Guiding principles

COUNCIL OF THE EUROPEAN UNION (2010): *Draft Revised Guidelines on the Protection of Civilians in CSDP Missions and Operations*, No. 13047/10, <http://register.consilium.europa.eu/pdf/en/10/st13/st13047.en10.pdf>, 7 November 2012, p. 5.

MAJOR, Claudia/PIETZ, Tobias/SCHÖNDORF, Elisabeth/HUMMEL, Wanda (2012): *Toolbox Crisis Management. From Civilian Crisis Prevention to Peacebuilding: Principles, Actors, Instruments*, Berlin: Stiftung Wissenschaft und Politik / Zentrum für Internationale Friedenseinsätze, http://www.zif-berlin.org/fileadmin/uploads/analyse/dokumente/veroeffentlichungen/ZIF_SWP_Toolbox_CrisisManagement.pdf, accessed on 10 September 2012, pp. 10-15. © *Stiftung Wissenschaft und Politik / Center for International Peace Operations*

Chapter 3 – Preparing for deployment

ROBERTS, Daniel Lloyd (1999): *Staying Alive. Safety and Security Guidelines for Humanitarian Volunteers in Conflict Areas*, Geneva: International Committee of the Red Cross, pp. 161-63.

UNITED NATIONS DISASTER ASSESSMENT AND COORDINATION (2006): *UNDAC Handbook*, <http://ochanet.unocha.org/p/Documents/UNDAC%20Handbook-dec2006.pdf>, accessed on 13 September 2012, chap. D.2.2, O.1.1, O.1.5.

Chapter 4 – How to cope with everyday reality in the field

COUNCIL OF EUROPE (2012): *Human Rights. Gender Equality*, <http://www.coe.int/t/dghl/standardsetting/equality>, accessed on 13 September 2012.

EUROPEAN COMMISSION (2012): *Environment*, <http://ec.europa.eu/environment/>, accessed on 13 September 2012. © European Union, 1995-2012

EUROPEAN OMBUDSMAN (2011): *Who can help you?, Luxembourg: European Union*, http://www.ombudsman.europa.eu/showResource?resourceId=1321523123721_whoCanHelpYou2011_en.pdf&type=pdf&download=true&lang=en, accessed on 13 September 2012, p. 5. © European Union, 1995-2012

EUROPEAN UNION EXTERNAL ACTION SERVICE © European Union, 1995-2012
The EU and Human Rights, http://eeas.europa.eu/human_rights/index_en.htm, accessed on 13 September 2012.

(2011): *Handbook for Spokespersons in EU Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP) Missions and Operations*, Brussels: European External Action Service Press Unit, pp. 8 f., 24, 26-29.

FOREIGN AFFAIRS AND INTERNATIONAL TRADE CANADA

© Reproduced with the permission of Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Canada, represented by the Minister of Foreign Affairs, 2011

(2011): *Gender and Peace Support Operations. Why Gender Matters - Section 2 Workbook/Handouts/3 What a Gender Perspective*, Ottawa: Pearson Centre, pp. 5 f.
(2011): *Gender and Peace Support Operations. Questions to Ask About Gender and Peace Support Operations*, Ottawa: Pearson Centre.

INTER-AGENCY STANDING COMMITTEE TASK FORCE (2002): *Report on Protection from Sexual Exploitation and Abuse in Humanitarian Crises*, <http://www.humanitarianinfo.org/iasc/downloadaddoc.aspx?docID=4426&type=pdf>, accessed on 13 September 2012, Plan of Action I.A, p. 8.

INTER-PARLIAMENTARY UNION (2012): *Refugee Protection: A Guide to International Refugee Law*, http://www.ipu.org/pdf/publications/refugee_en.pdf, accessed on 15 October 2012, p. 11.

QUEENSLAND GOVERNMENT, HEALTH CARBON MANAGEMENT UNIT (2009): *Queensland Health Green Office Resource Guide for Climate Smart Buildings*, http://www.health.qld.gov.au/carbon_management/green_office_guide.pdf, accessed on 17 October 2012, chap. 4.2-3, 4.5, 5.2, 7.2, 8.1-2.

RUBINSTEIN, Robert A. (2003): *Cross-Cultural Considerations in Complex Peace Operations*, in: *Negotiation Journal*, Vol. 19, No. 1, pp. 29-49, here: 29 f.

SHEEHAN, Michael A. (2003): *Medical Guidelines for Peacekeeping Operations. Waste Management*, New York: United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations, Office of Mission Support, Medical Support Unit, pp. 5 f.

UNITED NATIONS CHILDREN'S FUND

(2009): *20 Years the Convention on the Rights of the Child – What is the CRC?*, http://www.unicef.org/rightsite/237_202.htm, accessed on 17 September 2012.

(2011): *Protecting Children from Violence, Exploitation and Abuse*, http://www.unicef.org/protection/57929_57972.html, accessed on 17 September 2012.

UNITED NATIONS COMMISSION ON HUMAN RIGHTS (1998): *Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement*, Annex to Report of the Representative of the Secretary General Francis M. Deng pursuant Commission Resolution 1997/39, <http://www.refworld.org/cgi-bin/texis/vtx/rwmain?docid=3d4f95e11>, accessed on 15 October 2012, pp. 5-14, here p. 5.

UNITED NATIONS CONDUCT AND DISCIPLINE UNIT

(2010): *UN Standards of Conduct. Code of Conduct*, <http://cdu.unlb.org/UNStandardsofConduct/CodeofConduct.aspx>, accessed on 13 September 2012.

(2010): *UN Standards of Conduct. We Are United Nations Peacekeeping Personnel*, <http://cdu.unlb.org/UNStandardsofConduct/WeAreUnitedNationsPeacekeepingPersonnel.aspx>, accessed on 13 September 2012.

UNITED NATIONS DIVISION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN (2003)

Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women, <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/cedaw.htm>, accessed on 13 September 2012.

UNITED NATIONS ENTITY FOR GENDER EQUALITY AND THE EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN (2011): *UN Women Brochure. Hopes are High*, http://www.unwomen.org/wp-content/uploads/2011/02/UNwomen_Brochure_en.pdf, accessed on 13 September 2012.

UNITED NATIONS ENVIRONMENT PROGRAMME

(2009): *A Guide to Greenhouse Gas Emission Reduction in UN Organizations*, Paris: Division of Technology, Industry and Economics, Sustainable Consumption & Production Branch, <http://greeningtheblue.org/sites/default/files/EmissionReductionGuide.pdf>, accessed on 13 September 2012, pp. 1, 16.

Greening the Blue, <http://www.greeningtheblue.org/>, accessed on 13 September 2012.

Greening the Blue. Our Approach – Reducing our Impacts: ICT, <http://www.greeningtheblue.org/our-approach/reducing-our-impacts/ict>, accessed on 13 September 2012.

Greening Tips, http://www.unep.org/sustainability/greening_tips.asp, accessed on 13 September 2012.

UNITED NATIONS HIGH COMMISSIONER FOR REFUGEES (2010 [1951/1967]):

Convention and Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees, <http://www.unhcr.org/3b66c2aa10.html>, accessed on 15 October 2012, Art. 1.A.2, 31.1, 33.1 and 35.1.

Chapter 5 – Dealing with health and security challenges

FORASTIERI, Valentina (ed., 2012): *SOLVE – Integrating Health Promotion into Work Place OSH Policies. Participant’s Workbook*, Geneva: International Labour Office, http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_protect/---protrav/---safework/documents/instructionalmaterial/wcms_178396.pdf, accessed on 15 September 2012, pp. 97-99.

OFFICE OF THE UNITED NATIONS SECURITY COORDINATOR (1995): *Residential Security Guidelines*, in: United Nations Security Operations Manual. Operational Instructions and Guidelines for Use by Officials Involved in Security Management, <http://europeandcis.undp.org/uploads/public1/files/OM%20Workshop%202008/Security%20Operations%20Manual%201995.pdf>, N.III.4, 9, 10, 13.

ROBERTS, Daniel Lloyd (1999): *Staying Alive. Safety and Security Guidelines for Humanitarian Volunteers in Conflict Areas*, Geneva: International Committee of the Red Cross, pp. 41-50, 61-64, 68, 97-100, 124 f., 155, 164-169.

UNITED NATIONS DISASTER ASSESSMENT AND COORDINATION (2006): *UNDAC Handbook*, <http://ochanet.unocha.org/p/Documents/UNDAC%20Handbook-dec2006.pdf>, accessed on 13 September 2012, chap. O.2.3, O.3.1, O.3.3, O.4.4.2.

Chapter 6 – Technical considerations

AUSTRALIAN GOVERNMENT, GEOSCIENCE AUSTRALIA (2005): *Map Reading Guide. How to use Topographic Maps*, Canberra: Geoscience Australia, http://www.ga.gov.au/image_cache/GA7194.pdf, accessed on 7 September 2012, pp. 1-7, 9-14, 16-19, 20-23. © Commonwealth of Australia (Geoscience Australia) 2011, released under the Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 Australia Licence

EMERGENCY MANAGEMENT AUSTRALIA (1997): *Four-Wheel-Drive Vehicle Operation, Australian Emergency Manuals Series Part IV: Skills for Emergency Services Personnel, Manual 8 within Manual 37*, Canberra: Paragon Printers, <http://www.em.gov.au/Documents/Manual37-4WDVehicleOperation.pdf>, accessed on 4 September 2012, chap. 1.04-06. © Commonwealth of Australia 2011, released under the Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 Australia Licence

EMERGENCY MANAGEMENT AUSTRALIA (2003): *Map Reading and Navigation. Australian Emergency Management Manual Series Part IV: Skills for Emergency Services Personnel, Manual 36*, Canberra: National Capital Printing, <http://www.em.gov.au/Publications/Australianemergencymanualseries/Pages/default.aspx>, accessed on 7 September 2012, chap. 9.10-13, 12.1-4, 12.6-11. © Commonwealth of Australia 2011, released under the Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 Australia Licence

MapAction (2011): *Field Guide to Humanitarian Mapping*, http://www.mapaction.org/index.php?option=com_mapcat&id=2426&view=download&fmt=pdf, accessed on 15 September 2012, pp. 56-58.

OFFICE OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY: *UCI Radio Use and Procedures*, University of California-Irvine, http://www.oit.uci.edu/network/Radio_Operator.pdf, accessed 26 September 2012.

ROBERTS, Daniel Lloyd (1999): *Staying Alive. Safety and Security Guidelines for Humanitarian Volunteers in Conflict Areas*, Geneva: International Committee of the Red Cross, pp. 125-27, 129-30, 172, 176-80.

UNITED NATIONS DISASTER ASSESSMENT AND COORDINATION (2006): *UNDAC Handbook*, <http://ochanet.unocha.org/p/Documents/UNDAC%20Handbook-dec2006.pdf>, accessed on 13 September 2012, chap. R.1, R.1.1, R.1.2.

Chapter 7 – Handover and departure

DIRECTORATE-GENERAL FOR HUMANITARIAN AID (2004): *Generic Security Guide for Humanitarian Organisations*, European Commission, http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/D722F5A20C9EB443C1256F510036AF53-generic_security_guide_echo_2004.pdf, accessed on 15 October 2012, pp. 45 f.

PEACEKEEPING BEST PRACTICES UNIT (2003): *Handbook on United Nations Multidimensional Peacekeeping Operations*, New York: United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations, <http://www.peacekeepingbestpractices.unlb.org/Pbbs/library/Handbook%20on%20UN%20PKOs.pdf>, accessed on 12 October 2012, p. 22.

UNITED NATIONS PEACEKEEPING: *End of Assignment Report. Guidance and Template*, <http://www.unrol.org/files/Annex11EndofAssignmentReport.doc>.

UNITED NATIONS DEPARTMENT OF PEACEKEEPING OPERATIONS

(2008): *Management of Prison Support Programmes in Peace Operations*, <http://unrol.org/files/DPKO%20Prisons%20Training%20Pack.pdf>, accessed on 9 October 2012, p. 245.

(1995): *United Nations Stress Management Booklet*, Turin: The International Training Centre of the International Labour Organization, http://www.the-centre.net/resources/e_library/doc/UN%20Stress%20Management%20Booklet.pdf, accessed on 13 September 2012, pp. 15-16.

UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (2009): *End-of-Assignment Handbook for UN Volunteers*, http://www.tz.undp.org/unv/docs/End%20of%20Assignment%20Hanbook_Final.pdf, accessed on 9 October 2012, pp. 15, 17 f.

UNITED NATIONS DISASTER ASSESSMENT AND COORDINATION (2006): *UNDAC Handbook*, <http://ochanet.unocha.org/p/Documents/UNDAC%20Handbook-dec2006.pdf>, accessed on 13 September 2012, chap. D.9.3, O.1.4.

UNITED NATIONS OFFICE OF HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT (2005): *Mission Readiness. Preparing for Field Work*, http://www.unv.org/fileadmin/docs/conditions_of_service/DPKO_book_for_the_field.pdf, accessed on 13 September 2012, p. 62.

UNITED NATIONS RULE OF LAW

(2008): *Prison Support Guidance Manual, Annex 11: End-of-Assignment Report*, <http://www.unrol.org/files/Annex11EndofAssignmentReport.doc>, accessed on 9 October 2012, p. 1.

(2008): *Prison Support Guidance Manual, Annex 12: Handover Notes*, <http://www.unrol.org/files/Annex12HandoverNotes.doc>, accessed on 9 October 2012, p. 1.

Annex

Metric System Conversion Table

Metric to English	English to Metric
<i>Length</i>	
1 cm = 0.394 inches	1 inch = 2.54 cm
1 m = 39.4 inches	1 foot = 30.5 cm
1 m = 3.28 feet	1 foot = 0.305 m
1 m = 1.09 yards	1 yard = 0.914 m
1 km = 0.621 miles	1 mile = 1.609 km
<i>Weight</i>	
1 g = 0.035 ounces	1 ounce = 28.3 g
1 kg = 2.2 pounds	1 pound = 454 g
1 ton = 2200 pounds	1 pound = 0.454 kg
1 ton = 0.984 tons	1 ton (US) = 1.02 tons

<i>Surface</i>	<i>Surface</i>
1 cm ² = 0.155 sq in	1 sq inch = 6.45 cm ²
1 m ² = 10.76 sq ft	1 sq foot = 929 cm ²
1 m ² = 1.2 sq yd	1 sq foot = 0.093 m ²
1 ha = 2.47 acres	1 sq yard = 0.836 m ²
1 km ² = 247 acres	1 acre = 0.405 ha
1 km ² = 0.386 sq miles	1 sq mile = 2.59 km ²

<i>Volume</i>	<i>Volume</i>
1 cm ³ = 0.061 cu in	1 cu inch = 16.4 cm ³
1 m ³ = 35.3 cu ft	1 cu foot = 0.028 m ³
1 m ³ = 1.31 cu yd	1 cu yard = 0.765 m ³
1 ml = 0.035 fl. Oz	1 fl ounce = 28.4 ml
1 l = 1.76 pints	1 pint = 0.568 l
1 l = 0.22 UK gallon	1 UK gall. = 4.55 l

1 US gall. = 0.833 UK gall.

1 UK gall. = 1.2 US gall.

<i>Temperature</i>	
(Celsius x 1.8) + 32	(Fahrenheit - 32) x 0.555
= Fahrenheit	= Celsius

Phonetic Alphabet Letters Pronunciation

A	ALFA	N	NOVEMBER
B	BRAVO	O	OSCAR
C	CHARLIE	P	PAPA
D	DELTA	Q	QUEBEC
E	ECHO	R	ROMEO
F	FOXTROT	S	SIERRA
G	GOLF	T	TANGO
H	HOTEL	U	UNIFORM
I	INDIA	V	VICTOR
J	JULIET	W	WHISKY
K	KILO	X	X-RAY
L	LIMA	Y	YANKEE
M	MIKE	Z	ZULU

Numbering Digit Pronunciation

0	ZERO	5	FI-YIV
1	WUN	6	SIX
2	TOO	7	SEVEN
3	THU-REE	8	ATE
4	FO-WER	9	NINER

For better understanding, numbers are transmitted digit by digit except that exact multiples of hundreds and thousands are spoken as such. Some examples of pronunciation of numbers may be seen below:

12	TWELVE
44	FO-WER FO-WER
90	NINER ZERO
136	WUN THU-REE SIX
500	FI-YIV HUNDRED
7,000	SEVEN THOUSAND
16,000	WUN SIX THOUSAND
1478	WUN FO-WER SEVEN ATE
19A	WUN NINER ALPHA

Signal quality is reported as strength/readability as follows:

Signal Strength	
LOUD	Your signal is strong
GOOD	Your signal is good
WEAK	I can hear you but with difficulty
VERY WEAK	I can hear you but with great difficulty
Readability	
CLEAR	Excellent quality
READABLE	Good quality, no difficulty in reading you
DISTORTED	I have problems reading you
WITH INTERFERENCE	I have problems reading you due to interference
NOT READABLE	I can hear that you are transmitting but cannot read you at all

Procedure words

PRO WORD	MEANING
ACKNOWLEDGE	Confirm that you have received my message
AFFIRMATIVE NEGATIVE	Yes/correct No/incorrect
ALL AFTER	Everything that you/I transmitted after
ALL BEFORE	Everything that you/I transmitted before
BREAK-BREAK-BREAK	All stations will immediately cease transmission on hearing that pro-word. The station BREAKING has an urgent life-saving message. Only to be used in extreme emergency.
CORRECT CORRECTION WRONG	You are correct The correct version is... Your last transmission was incorrect, the correct version is...
DISREGARD THIS TRANSMISSION	This transmission is an error, disregard it

DO NOT ANSWER – OUT	Station(s) called are not to answer this call, acknowledge this message, or to transmit in connection with this transmission
FIGURES	Numbers follow in message
MESSAGE	I have an informal message for you
MESSAGE FOLLOWS	I have a formal message which should be recorded
OVER	I have finished my turn, a response is expected, go ahead, transmit
OUT	I have finished my transmission, no reply is expected (OVER and OUT are never used together)
OUT TO YOU	I have nothing more for you, do not reply, I shall call another station on the net

READ BACK	Read back the following message to me exactly as received
I READ BACK	The following is my reply to your request to read back
RELAY TO	Transmit the following message to all addresses or to the address immediately following
RELAY THROUGH	Send this message by way of call sign...
ROGER	I have received your last transmission satisfactorily
ROGER SO FAR?	Have you received this part of my message satisfactorily?
SAY AGAIN	Repeat all of your last transmission
SAY AGAIN ALL AFTER/BEFORE	Repeat portion of message indicated
I SAY AGAIN	I am repeating my transmission or portion as indicated
SEND	Go ahead with your transmission
SEND YOUR MESSAGE	Go ahead I am ready to copy

SILENCE-SI- LENCE-SILENCE	Cease all transmission immediately. Silence will be maintained until lifted by network control operator
SILENCE LIFTED	Silence is lifted, net is free for traffic
SPEAK SLOWER/ FASTER	Adjust the speed of your transmission
I SPELL	I shall spell the next word phonetically
THROUGH ME	I am in contact with the station you are calling. I can act as a relay station
MESSAGE PASSED TO...	Your message has been passed to...
UNKNOWN STA- TION	The identity of the station calling or with whom I am attempting to establish communication is unknown

VERIFY	Verify entire message (or portion indicated) with the originator and send correct version
I VERIFY	That which follows has been verified at your request and is repeated, to be used only as a reply to VERIFY
WAIT-WAIT-WAIT WAIT OUT	I must pause for a few seconds I must pause longer than some seconds and will call you again when ready
WILCO	I have received and understood your message and will comply
WORDS AFTER/ BEFORE	The word of the message to which I refer is that which follows...
WORDS TWICE	Communication is difficult, transmit each phrase twice. This pro-word can be used as an order

