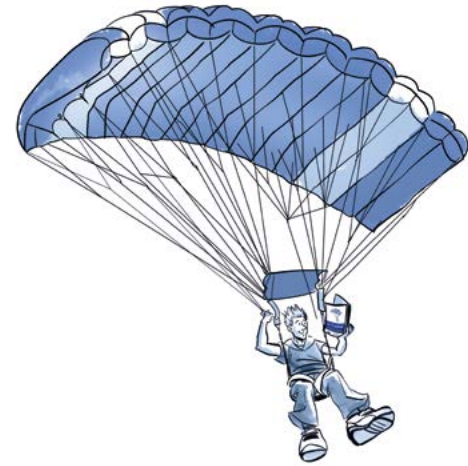**Embarking on a crisis management mission?**

This handbook will accompany you the whole way through 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
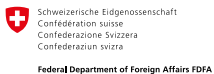
In Control

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A Practical Guide for Civilian Experts
Working in Crisis Management Missions

ENTRi
Europe's New Training Initiative for Civilian Crisis Management

In Control

A Practical Guide for Civilian Experts Working in Crisis Management Missions

Foreword

Our European Union is increasingly perceived as a global security provider. Our partners know they can rely on us. Our Union has deployed civilian and military missions on three continents. We can mobilise an impressive and unparalleled number of foreign policy tools, ranging from peacekeeping to development aid, from peace-building to State-building. Our aid workers and soldiers, electoral observers and trainers are currently engaged at all corners of the planet. Our personnel abroad is world-class, in terms of professionalism and expertise.

It is then crucial that we keep investing to guarantee the highest level of preparation among our staff. This handbook has been produced under Europe's New Training Initiative for Civilian Crisis Management (ENTRi), a capacity building program created by the EU's Instrument contributing to Stability and Peace. The previous editions of this handbook have proved particularly popular: such a success has brought us to

publish this new edition, but also to make its contents available on new platforms – through the ENTRi website and, more recently, with an app for mobile devices. You are serving Europe and all our citizens. We have a duty to provide you with the best and the most up-to-date tools for your everyday work.

All our men and women on the ground perfectly understand the need for continuous training: since ENTRi was launched, we have seen that a great number of those who ask for training already have a good amount of experience in the field. And yet each new assignment, each new environment represents a new challenge. This handbook can help civilian experts deal with cultural sensitivities, or better understand human rights issues in a new country. The ENTRi team has tried to make this handbook as concise and practical as possible, while also covering a broad range of real-life situations.

Our crisis management capacities are being tested on a daily basis. Our citizens' security calls for our Union to play an active role in stabilizing war-torn countries, or in protecting peace and fundamental rights in our region and beyond. This is a top priority for our foreign policy: disengagement is not an option.

So let me wish the very best to all readers, as you take up your new assignments. You might be heading to far-away places, but your activities are at the core of our foreign policy. You can truly show Europe's best face to the world.

Federica Mogherini

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

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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*. We would like to thank the EEAS and the European Commission's Service for Foreign Policy Instruments (FPI) for their overall support.

Last but not least, we are much obliged for excellent contributions made by more than 30 subject matter experts and 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 through the mission and back!

No matter what background or experience you have or which mission you are going on, the *ENTRi In Control* handbook is a practical guide for newcomers as well as for experienced personnel working in the field. It illustrates relevant concepts in clear and simple language, eases your way into the mission, guides you through daily life and work while on mission and assists your reintegration back home.

Chapter 1 of this handbook helps you situate yourself within the crisis management framework by providing an overview of the major international organisations in the field and the way missions are established and conducted. Chapter 2 introduces you to the principles that should guide your actions in the field as well as

cross-cutting concepts and themes. Get ready for your deployment with recommendations on items to take and arrangements to make in Chapter 3. Find information on professional conduct in the field in Chapter 4 and advice on how to stay healthy and safe in Chapter 5. Learn more about communications equipment, navigation and transport 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 well-established publications, such as Daniel Lloyd Roberts' *Staying Alive* and the *Australian Emergency Management Handbook* series. This handbook 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 presents a range of possible challenges and provides options on how to deal with them. You will need flexibility and common sense 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 project funded by the European Commission and co-funded by 14 implementing partners from different EU Member States and Switzerland. ENTRi was created with the aim of preparing and training civilian personnel working in crisis management missions, and operates under the guidance and advice of the Commission's Service for Foreign Policy Instruments (FPI).

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. You may find yourself wondering who is doing what, how, why and where. Therefore, it is important to know what the role of your organisation is in this context, so that you may better understand your own role and circle of influence. Equally, you will need to understand the context of your mission and be able to identify the various stakeholders with whom you will engage. Although most organisations may identify peace and stability as a common goal, they all have their own mandates, tasks, internal structures, organisational culture and sources of funding.

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

A. Defining EU crisis management and UN peace operations

During 2015 to 2016, there were over 70 missions worldwide, all different in their mandates, organisational structures and size. Since the first United Nations (UN) peacekeeping mission was established in 1948, crisis response has taken on many different forms. Therefore, you will encounter a variety of terminology in this field of work. Names and types of missions have established themselves not only in relation to their mandates and functions but also depending on the implementing organisation. All organisations have their own jargon and may use different terms to refer to the same type of mission. Similarly, the same word may have different meanings depending on the context and organisation using it. For example, 'protection' means something different to humanitarian actors than it does to military peacekeepers.

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

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

1. EU crisis management

The EU refers to crisis management as a general term, which includes various types of action. This may be mentoring, monitoring and advising (MMA) or capacity building in support of security and development, including training activities. EU crisis management is comprised mainly of crisis prevention measures and the deployment of crisis management missions.

Crisis prevention includes peacebuilding, conflict prevention, and mediation and dialogue. The EU is able to employ a wide array of external assistance instruments in support of conflict prevention and peacebuilding. Conflict prevention involves early warning, early identification of conflict risks, an enhanced understanding of conflict settings as well as the analysis of crisis response tools. Mediation and dialogue push forward a political solution on the ground. In this context, the EU has developed its own mediation support capacity, which

ranges from high-level political mediation to facilitation and confidence building.

EU crisis management missions are deployed at the request of host countries or within a UN framework and can help in specific fields, such as monitoring borders or fighting piracy. EU crisis management missions support the rule of law (RoL) with a particular emphasis on police, judiciary, customs reforms and capacity building. The EU's security sector reform (SSR) processes may support the implementation of agreements ending hostilities and sustaining peace.

2. UN peace operations

Conflict prevention

Conflict prevention involves mediation and 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 factors driving the conflict.

Conflict prevention by the UN may include the use of the Secretary-General's 'good offices', preventive deployment, confidence building or mediation led by

the UN Department of Political Affairs (DPA). It may also include support with peace negotiations, assistance in the development of legislation, monitoring of agreements or capacity building. This could include coaching and training for civil society to stimulate non-violent conflict resolution at local or sub-regional levels.

Peacemaking

Peacemaking generally includes measures to address conflicts in progress and usually involves diplomatic action to bring hostile parties to a negotiated agreement. Peacemaking efforts may be carried out by envoys, governments, groups of states, regional organisations or the UN, as well as by unofficial or non-governmental groups or prominent personalities.

Peacekeeping

Peacekeeping is designed to preserve peace, however fragile, and to ensure that the agreements that have been achieved by the peacemakers are being put into practice. Peacekeeping has mostly been assigned to UN peace operations and includes a variety of multidimensional tasks, which help to establish the foundations for sustainable peace and may include a robust peacekeeping mandate to protect civilians. Modern peacekeeping missions often involve police, military and civilian actors, who work in close collaboration with other UN institutions such as the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) and the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA). Such missions are usually referred to as 'integrated missions'.

UN peacekeeping measures follow three guiding principles: consent of the parties, impartiality and the non-use of force, except in self-defence and defence of the mandate. The office of the UN Secretary-General may exercise its good offices to facilitate a conflict resolution. Furthermore, today's multidimensional peacekeeping facilitates: political processes; the protection of civilians (PoC); disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration of former combatants (DDR); election support; protection and promotion of human rights; and assistance in restoring the rule of law.

Peace enforcement

Peace enforcement involves the use of a range of coercive measures and sanctions up to the point of military force when a breach of peace has occurred. It requires the explicit authorisation of the UN 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, the existence of a breach of peace or an act of aggression according to Article 39 of the UN Charter. A legally binding resolution for all Member States requires the affirmative votes of nine out of the 15 Security Council members, including the affirmative votes of all five

permanent members, the United States, the United Kingdom, France, China and Russia. When appropriate, the Security Council may authorise regional organisations and agencies to conduct enforcement action.

Peacebuilding

Peacebuilding covers a wide range of civilian measures aimed at establishing the conditions 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 to remove the structural causes of war. It includes the long-term development and application of conflict transformation tools to prevent a relapse into violent conflict. It addresses issues that affect the functionality of state and society and enhances the capacity of states to effectively and legitimately carry out their core functions.

Modern peace operations combine peacekeeping measures with peacebuilding elements, which is complex and time-consuming work. It requires coordinated action by international actors as well as the early participation of local parties. Peacebuilding activities are supported through programmes for security sector reform, stabilisation and recovery strategies, and

disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration. Many missions also provide support for the (re-)establishment of electoral processes.

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 specific time in history and have evolved ever since. The degree of organisational learning, capacity for managing change, types of personalities in senior management and 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, 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 the planning and 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 crisis management, development cooperation and humanitarian aid. As part of the process of integrating states that are interested in admission into the Union, the EU employs instruments for stability and promotes measures for conflict resolution, reconciliation and democratisation. Since the establishment of the Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP) in 1993 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 apply military measures. The key strategic document for CFSP and CSDP is the EU global Strategy (EUGS), which, 13 years after the release of the European Security Strategy, is meant to guide the European Unions' future activities in foreign affairs, defence, humanitarian aid as well as trade or development cooperation. The EUGS, adopted by the European Council on 28 June, will be followed by a framework for operationalization in late 2016. 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 (CSDP) is thus one of many tools in the EU's

external relations toolbox. The CSDP – also referred to as 'crisis management' – allows the EU to deploy civilian, police and military personnel in missions and operations outside the Union, including: 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, the 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 the European Union (TEU). The EU is not autonomous in the use of these instruments, but 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 CSDP instruments. The EU Member States decide about the use of all assets and resources owned by them in this field.

CSDP missions or operations have become a key instrument of the EU's Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP). Since the first deployment in 2003, civilian CSDP missions have varied in scope (e.g. police, justice, and 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 conducted or is conducting 30 missions and operations under CSDP. Nine are military operations/missions, the remaining are civilian missions. CSDP missions are always political tools and are conceived and controlled by EU Member States through the Political and Security Committee (PSC), which exercises political control and strategic direction over CSDP missions.

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 UN Charter, to promote international cooperation and to develop and consolidate democracy and the rule of law, as well as 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.

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 contributing to Stability and Peace (IcSP) next to an institutional actor such as 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 the CFSP include:

European Council

The heads of state or government of the 28 EU 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, in conjunction 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 Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP) and the Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP), meets once a month, bringing together the ministers of foreign affairs. 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, who is also Vice-President of the European Commission. Twice a year, the ministers of defence 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 (HR/VP)

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 (CFSP). The role of the HR/VP is to provide greater coherence in the CFSP as well as greater coordination between the various institutional players, particularly the Council and the Commission. Furthermore, the HR/VP chairs the Foreign Affairs Council 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 and Vice-President of the European Commission (HR/VP), 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 Common Security and Defence Policy (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 about 140 countries around the world.

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).

European Commission (EC)

The European Commission is the EU's executive body and represents the interests of the European Union. 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 European Union Special Representatives. Within the European Commission, the Service for Foreign Policy Instruments (FPI) is responsible for the operational and financial management of the budgets for the CFSP and the Instrument contributing to Stability and Peace (IcSP) as well as for the implementation of foreign policy regulatory instruments such as sanctions. Moreover, the European Commission supports crisis prevention and crisis management through its enlargement policy, development aid, humanitarian aid and neighbourhood policy.

Instrument contributing to Stability and Peace (IcSP)

The IcSP is a financial and political instrument at the disposal of the European Union, formerly known as the Instrument for Stability (2007-2013). It is one of the main instruments of the European Commission to provide support in the areas of conflict prevention, crisis management and peacebuilding. Crisis response projects under the IcSP 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 IcSP when timely financial help cannot be provided by other EU sources. The Peacebuilding Partnership is part of the IcSP 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 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 Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP). The original tasks were expanded and enshrined in the 2009 Treaty of Lisbon (TEU Art. 42) and include:

- ★ humanitarian aid and rescue operations;

- ★ conflict prevention and peacekeeping;

- ★ military crisis management tasks (e.g. peacemaking, joint disarmament operations, military advice and assistance, post-conflict stabilisation).

Financing and Recruitment

There are two basic principles that guide financing and recruitment. Civilian missions under the Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP) are financed by the Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP) budget, which covers personnel costs (e.g. per diems, other allowances for seconded staff, salaries for contracted staff), maintenance costs and assets. The costs of military CSDP operations 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 the 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 (e.g. administration and finance, rule of law) are not readily available for secondment. Civilian CSDP missions therefore have the option of employing contracted staff.

Whereas the Civilian Planning and Conduct Capability (CPCC) serves as a standing headquarters for all civilian CSDP missions, an individual Member State-owned Operational Headquarters (OHQ) has to be activated for each separate military CSDP mission or operation.

CSDP military operations are initiated and subsequently planned on the assumption that EU Member States will contribute resources (including human resources) to meet the requirements formally expressed in a document called the Statement of Requirements (SOR). The forces required for a CSDP military operation need to be 'generated'. Once the military force

is in place, it is commanded and controlled by an Operational Headquarters (OHQ). The EU does not have permanent military headquarter structures to command and control military operations under CSDP auspices. To cope with this serious operational limitation, there are different options available to each level of command. At the strategic level, for example, one option is to use a national OHQ offered by a Member State (e.g. Germany, Greece, France, Italy or the United Kingdom). These OHQs are designated and activated in three stages: routine, pre-activation and activation.

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), outlined below.

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 (EUMS), provides the PSC with advice and recommendations on all military matters within the EU. Its chair is the military adviser to the High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy on all military matters and is the primary point of contact for operation and mission commanders of the EU's military operations.

For advice on civilian crisis management, the PSC relies on the Committee for Civilian Aspects of Crisis Management (CIVCOM). This committee is the Council's working group dealing with civilian aspects of crisis management; it receives direction from and reports to the PSC.

The PSC is assisted by the **Politico-Military Working Group (PMG)** and its meetings are prepared by the Nicolaidis Group. The **Nicolaidis Group** meets twice a week, always on the day before a PSC meeting and Member States are represented by close associates of the PSC ambassadors. Since the Treaty of Lisbon, these groups have been chaired by a representative of the High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy 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 (CFSP). It is chaired by the 'rotating presidency'. The presidency of the Council of the European Union is taken in turn by each Member State according to a rotation system for a period of six months. The order of rotation is determined unanimously by the Council of the EU based on the principle of alternating between 'major' and 'minor' Member States. The presidency 'rotates' on 1 January and 1 July of each year. RELEX 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 European External Action Service (EEAS) consist of the Crisis Management and Planning Directorate (CMPD), the Civilian Planning and Conduct Capability (CPCC) and the European Union Military Staff (EUMS), outlined below.

The **Crisis Management and Planning Directorate (CMPD)** contributes to the objectives of the EEAS, the Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP) and a more secure international environment through political-strategic planning of CSDP civilian missions and military operations. The CMPD ensures the coherence and effectiveness of those actions as part of the EU's comprehensive approach to crisis management and develops CSDP partnerships, policies, concepts and capabilities.

The CMPD's core activities include:

- ★ strategic planning of CSDP missions and operations;

- ★ developing Crisis Management Concepts for new CSDP missions;

- ★ strategic reviews of existing CSDP missions;

- ★ creating CSDP partnerships;

- ★ developing civilian and military capabilities;

- ★ developing CSDP policy and concepts;
- ★ crisis management exercises and CSDP training.

The **Civilian Planning and Conduct Capability (CPCC)** has a mandate to carry out the following activities:

- ★ plan and conduct CSDP civilian missions under the direction of the Political and Security Committee (PSC);
- ★ provide assistance and advice to the High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy (HR/VP), the Presidency and the relevant EU Council bodies;
- ★ direct, coordinate, advise, support, supervise and review civilian CSDP missions.

The CPCC works in close cooperation with other crisis management structures within the EEAS and the European Commission.

The director of the CPCC, as the civilian operations commander, 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 PSC and the overall authority of the HR/VP.

In its role as the permanent Operational Headquarters (OHQ), the CPCC commands and controls these civilian CSDP missions, serves as a hub for information flowing from the field, coordinates between the missions as well as between the missions and other EU actors in Brussels, and processes lessons from the complex 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)** comprises military experts seconded to the EEAS by Member States and officials of the EEAS. The EUMS is the source of military expertise within the EEAS. The EUMS works under the direction of the European Union Military Committee (EUMC) and Member States' Chiefs of Defence, as well as under the direct authority of the HR/VP. The role of the EUMS is to provide early warning, situation assessment, strategic planning, communications and information systems, concept development, training and education, and support for partnerships. In concert with the EU Military Committee and EEAS partners, the EUMS creates the circumstances in which the military can conduct their operations and missions together with their civilian partners in the field.

CSDP missions and operations

In February 2016, there were 10 civilian and six CSDP military missions and operations ongoing in the field. Civilian missions are 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 fields 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.

Military operations are commanded and controlled from activated EU Operational Headquarters. Their spectrum of tasks includes operations at sea to counter piracy (e.g. off the coast of Somalia) or disrupt human smuggling and trafficking networks (e.g. the Mediterranean); providing capacity-building, training support or military assistance to armed forces (e.g. in Mali, Somalia, Central African Republic); and, if needed, creating a safe and secure environment (e.g. in Bosnia-Herzegovina).

2. The United Nations (UN)

The United Nations (UN) 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 that work on a range of issues, including peacekeeping, peacebuilding, conflict prevention and humanitarian assistance. The UN has six principal organs:

★ The **General Assembly**, which is 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**, which is the judicial organ of the UN.

★ The **Trusteeship Council**, which originally accompanied decolonisation 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; otherwise the often divergent interests of Member States could impair decision-making processes.

UN peace operations

UN peace operations comprise a variety of missions and interventions. Perhaps the most well-known of those are peacekeeping 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, 71 UN peacekeeping operations have been deployed worldwide. In 2016, more than 121,000 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 peace-keeping, 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 have 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.

Special political missions (SPMs)

A significant part of the UN´s peace and security work in the field today is carried out by civilian missions called special political missions (SPMs). SPMs include offices of special envoys and advisers engaged in mediation and dialogue processes, groups of experts monitoring the implementation of Security Council sanctions regimes, regional offices conducting preventive diplomacy, and field missions accompanying complex political transitions and peace consolidation processes in countries such as Iraq, Somalia, Libya and Afghanistan.

Political missions have carried out good offices, conflict prevention, peacemaking and peacebuild-

UNITED NATIONS PEACEKEEPING GROUP:
CAPACITIES TO ENSURE INTEGRATION

DEPARTMENT OF PEACEKEEPING OPERATIONS

Office of the Under-Secretary-General (DPKO/OUSG)

DEPARTMENT OF FIELD SUPPORT

Office of the Under-Secretary-General (DFS/OUSG)

SHARED CAPACITIES

Office of Operations

Office of the Assistant Secretary-General

- Africa I Division
- Africa II Division
- Asia, Middle East, Europe and Latin America Division

Office of Rule of Law and Security Institutions

Office of the Assistant Secretary-General

- Police Division
- Mine Action Service
- Criminal Law & Judicial Advisory Service
- Disarmament Demobilisation and Reintegration Section
- Security Sector Reform Unit

Office of Military Affairs

Office of the Military Adviser

- Current Military Operations Service
- Force Generation Service
- Military Planning Service

Office of the Chief of Staff

- Executive Office
- Situation Centre
- Public Affairs Section
- Peacekeeping Information Management Unit
- Focal Point for Security

Policy, Evaluation and Training Division

- Partnerships Team
- Evaluation Team
- Policy and Best Practice Service
- Integrated Training Service

Office for the Peacekeeping Strategic Partnership

- Senior Leadership Appointments Section
- Audit Response and Boards of Inquiry Section
- Conduct and Discipline Unit

Office of the Assistant Secretary-General

Field Personnel Division

- Field Personnel Specialist Support Service
- Quality Assurance and Information Management Section
- Field Personnel Operations Service

Field Budget and Finance Division

- Budget & Performance Reporting Service
- MOU & Claims Management Section
- Reimbursement Policy and Liaison Section

Logistics Support Division

- Air Transport Service
- Strategic Support Service
- Strategic Transport Service
- Aviation Safety Section
- Logistics Operations Section

Information & Communications Technology Division

- Field Communications & IT Operations Service
- Field Technology and Security Operations Section

Global Service Centre

- UN Logistics Base (Brindisi, Italy)
- UN Support Base (Valencia, Spain)

Regional Service Centre Entebbe

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As of 28 August 2015

ing functions since the early days of the organisation even though these deployments have only been called 'special political missions' since the 1990s.

In its early days, the organisation deployed a series of high-level mediators or other envoys, either upon request of the General Assembly or the Security Council, or in the context of the Secretary-General's good offices mandate. The United Nations also designed a number of field missions in the first 15 years of its existence, including small political offices carrying out facilitation and monitoring and reporting tasks, but also larger civilian presences to support political transitions, especially in the context of decolonisation and self-determination.

From the late 1960s until the end of the Cold War, the number of new missions mandated by either the General Assembly or the Security Council decreased. While Secretaries-General during this time continued to rely on special envoys and good offices missions, larger field-based civilian missions were rarely deployed.

Post-Cold War political transitions created increased demands for United Nations civilian support, particularly in areas such as electoral assistance, constitution-making and the rule of law. From Central America to

Africa, new missions were established to help Member States meet those demands.

Contemporary special political missions are deployed in a wide array of contexts, and the diversity of their structures and functions continues to increase. At the time of writing, there were 11 special political missions authorized by the Security Council or the General Assembly, assisting in preventing and resolving conflict as well as helping Member States and parties to a conflict to build sustainable peace.

In the last decade, several key reform initiatives have shaped UN peace operations, as outlined below.

The Brahimi Report

In March 2000, the Secretary-General appointed the Panel on United Nations Peace Operations to assess the shortcomings of the existing system and to make specific and realistic recommendations for change. The panel was led by Lakhdar Brahimi, a senior Algerian United Nations diplomat, and 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 must operate under clear, credible and

achievable mandates. The Brahimi Report is seen as a key document of the reform of UN peace operations.

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 UN 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 promoted 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 could help broaden and deepen the pool of civilian

experts to support the immediate capacity-development needs of countries emerging from conflict. The report proposed practical, concrete measures to improve civilian support to conflict-affected countries.

High-level Independent Panel on Peace Operations

In October 2014, the Secretary-General appointed a High-Level Independent Panel on Peace Operations (HIPPO) to make a comprehensive assessment of the state of UN peace operations at present, and the emerging needs of the future. This was the first such panel to examine both peacekeeping operations and special political missions. The panel's report was presented to the Secretary-General on 16 June 2015. Based on its analysis of weak spots in peace operations, the HIPPO report suggested four major shifts:

★ Primacy of politics. Peace operations must be incorporated into a comprehensive political strategy, including solutions to achieve a lasting peace.

★ Spectrum of peace operations. The UN must be able to deploy its full spectrum of peace operations more flexibly and adapt more quickly if conditions change.

★ Global and regional partnerships for peace and security. Stronger and more inclusive partnerships with regional and sub-regional organizations are needed.

★ More field-focused UN Secretariat and more people-centred UN peace operations. In order to ensure faster, more efficient and more effective peace operations, the UN Secretariat must focus on UN personnel in field missions and enable them to better serve the people they have been mandated to assist.

In response, the Secretary-General presented his implementation report The Future of United Nations Peace Operations which endorsed an action plan of the HIPPO report, focusing mainly on crisis prevention and mediation, UN cooperation with regional organizations and the planning and implementing of peace operations.

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 military, 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.

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

Department of Political Affairs (DPA)

Established in 1992, the UN Department of Political Affairs (DPA) is the lead department in the United Nations for conflict prevention, preventive diplomacy, peacemaking and peacebuilding.

DPA monitors and assesses global political developments with an eye to detecting potential crises before

they erupt, devising effective responses and supporting longer-term peacebuilding processes. DPA supports the Secretary-General in the conduct of his or her good offices, as well as assisting envoys and UN political missions around the world in their work to defuse crises or promote lasting solutions to conflict. In this capacity, DPA manages more than 30 special political missions.

The head of DPA, the Under-Secretary-General for Political Affairs, is the UN system's focal point for electoral assistance, and the system-wide lead on women's participation in post-conflict governance, conflict prevention and conflict resolution. Through the Counter-Terrorism Implementation Task Force, the Department also strengthens coordination and coherence of counter-terrorism efforts of the United Nations system. Furthermore, the Department's Mediation Support Unit is a global service provider for mediation support to the UN system, as well as to Member States and regional and sub-regional organisations.

Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA)

OCHA is the part of the United Nations Secretariat responsible for bringing together humanitarian actors to ensure a coherent response to emergencies. OCHA also ensures there is a framework within which each

actor can contribute to the overall response effect. OCHA's mission is to:

★ mobilise and coordinate effective and principled humanitarian action in partnership with national and international actors in order to alleviate human suffering in disasters and emergencies;

★ advocate the rights of people in need;

★ promote preparedness and prevention;

★ facilitate sustainable solutions.

OCHA may also coordinate the deployment of Military and Civil Defence Assets (MCDA) from a number of countries and multinational organisations.

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

UN Development Programme (UNDP)

As the specialized agency of the United Nations focusing on Development, UNDP has a mandate supporting countries in their development path, and coordinating the UN System at the country level. UNDP is also active in the field of crisis prevention and recovery and aims to support countries in managing conflict and disaster risks, and to rebuild for resilience once a crisis has passed. UNDP's crisis recovery work acts as a bridge between humanitarian and longer-term development efforts. UNDP focuses on building 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 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)

Encompassing 57 participating states from Europe, Central Asia and North America, the OSCE is the world's largest regional security organization. The organisation that came into being in the mid-1990s out of the Conference on Security and Co-operation in Europe (CSCE) is characterised by its cooperative and comprehensive concept of security, which also includes the goal of improving living conditions in its participating states.

In 1990, following the fall of the Iron Curtain, participating states drew up the Charter of Paris for a New

Europe and formulated their vision for "a new era of democracy, peace and unity".

The OSCE´s comprehensive security concept

Since 1990, the OSCE's participating states have repeatedly affirmed their commitment to the organisation's unique concept of comprehensive security. It comprises three dimensions:

★ The politico-military dimension relates to matters such as military security, arms control, combating terrorism and human trafficking, and defence and police reforms.

★ The economic and environmental dimension promotes economic development and the sustainable use of natural resources.

★ The human dimension covers aspects such as: respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms; establishment of democratic institutions; promotion of the rule of law; free, fair and transparent elections; protection of national minorities; improvement of the living conditions and social participation of Roma and Sinti; and promotion of tolerance and non-discrimination.

How does the OSCE function and take decisions?

The OSCE is a regional organisation for the maintenance of international peace and security, in the sense envisaged in Chapter VIII of the United Nations Charter. However, the OSCE does not have a recognised international legal status.

All participating states have equal rights and take decisions by consensus. The OSCE's special status means that these decisions are politically but not legally binding.

Chairmanship, Secretary General, Secretariat and Institutions

The chairmanship rotates annually between OSCE participating states. The Chairperson-in-Office may appoint Personal or Special Representatives for particular issues and is supported by the Secretary General, who heads the secretariat in Vienna.

In addition, three independent institutions help monitor the implementation of commitments of participating states and provide early warning mechanisms: the Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights in Warsaw (ODIHR), the High Commissioner on National

Minorities in The Hague and the Representative on Freedom of the Media in Vienna.

OSCE field operations

In early 2016, the OSCE had 16 field and monitoring operations deployed in participating states and Kosovo. The deployment of a mission requires a decision by the Permanent Council and an invitation by the host country. The mandates generally aim to support the host country in fulfilling its OSCE obligations in all three dimensions and improving cooperation with the OSCE. The first mission was deployed to Skopje in 1992 and is still active on the ground. The largest OSCE operation, with more than 600 international observers, is the Special Monitoring Missions to Ukraine, established in 2014.

Important OSCE instruments

★ Annual Security Review Conference

★ Forum for Security Co-operation

★ Economic and Environmental Forum

★ Human Dimension Implementation Meeting

★ Election observation

4. The African Union (AU)

The African Union (AU) 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 peace operations throughout Africa. The organisation seeks to promote development, combat poverty and maintain peace and security in Africa. For the purposes of the maintenance of peace and security, the African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA) was developed, which provides the AU's Assembly of Heads of State and Government and its Peace and Security Council with mechanisms through which to prevent, manage and resolve conflict situations on the African continent. Notably, the Constitutive Act of the African Union allows for the intervention of the Union in the affairs of its Member States under grave circumstances.

AU peace operations

The African Union has worked since 2003 to develop the African Standby Force (ASF), a peace operations capability operated by the AU, the Regional Economic Communities and Regional Mechanisms (RECs/RMs) and Member States. Between 2004 and 2015, the AU deployed peace support operations in Burundi (AMIB), Darfur (AMIS), the Comoros (AMISEC), Somalia (AMISOM), the Central African region (LRA-RTF), Mali (AFISMA), the Central African Republic (MISCA) and the Boko Haram affected areas (MNJTF). The AU has also operated a peace support operation jointly with the UN in Darfur since 2008 (UNAMID). The AU regularly undertakes conflict prevention missions (e.g. early warning, good offices, ad hoc committees), mediation missions (e.g. Panel of the Wise, good offices, mediation teams, high-level committees), and post-conflict reconstruction and development missions (e.g. African Solidarity Initiative and liaison offices in post-conflict countries). The AU has in recent years also undertaken regional security initiatives, such as in the Sahel and in Eastern Africa.

AU structures for peace and security

Peace and Security Council (PSC)

The Peace and Security Council (PSC) is comprised of 15 rotating members. The PSC is charged with the maintenance of peace and security in Africa, making use of the African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA) to engage in conflict prevention, management and resolution initiatives.

Peace and Security Department (PSD)

The Peace and Security Department (PSD) of the Commission of the 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 for conflict prevention, conflict management and conflict 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 UN and other relevant international organisations and partners.

The PSD consists of the following four divisions:

The Conflict Management Division (CMD) focuses on operationalisation. It supports and coordinates activities related to conflict prevention and management as well as to the Post-Conflict Reconstruction and Development policy framework (PCRD). The CMD supervises and coordinates the work of the AU Liaison Offices on the ground.

The Peace Support Operations Division (PSOD) works towards the operationalisation of the African Standby Force (ASF) and the Military Staff Committee (MSC), including the elaboration of policy documents and coordination with African structures and AU partners. The PSOD plans, mounts, manages and supports AU peace support operations.

The Peace and Security Council 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 institutional memory of the work of the PSC and facilitates its interaction with other institutions on issues of peace and security.

The Defence and Security Division (DSD) addresses long-term crosscutting security issues, such as arms control and disarmament, counter-terrorism and other strategic security issues, including security sector reform.

5. The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)

NATO is a political and military alliance that brings together 28 member countries from Europe and North America, with its headquarters in Brussels, Belgium. Its essential purpose is to safeguard the freedom and security of its members through political and military means.

It is committed to the principle that an attack against one or several members is considered as an attack against all. This is the principle of collective defence, which is enshrined in Article 5 of the Washington Treaty. So far, Article 5 has been invoked once, in response to the 9/11 terrorist attacks in the United States.

NATO was founded in 1949 with three purposes: deterring Soviet expansionism, forbidding the revival of nationalist militarism in Europe through a strong North American presence on the continent, and encouraging European political integration. With the end of the Cold War, the fall of the Berlin Wall and the break-up of the Soviet Union, NATO started to develop partnerships with former adversaries and engaged in major crisis management operations.

NATO cooperates with countries from different regions, as well as with other international organisations, such as the United Nations, the European Union and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE). Consultation and cooperation within and beyond the frontiers of its member countries contribute to conflict prevention; however, when diplomatic efforts fail, NATO has the necessary assets to take military action.

The alliance led its first major crisis-management operation in Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1995. Current operations include Afghanistan (since 2003) and Kosovo (since 1999). NATO also deploys military capabilities in support of member countries (e.g. air-policing in the Baltic States, Albania and Slovenia).

According to NATO's Strategic Concept (2010), the alliance has three main goals: collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security. NATO also develops capabilities to tackle today's security challenges in order to protect and defend NATO territory and populations.

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, 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 nearly all peace operations by regional organisations, are implemented under a UN mandate.

While most mission mandates have been non-executive, some missions have held 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 have been 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

Phase 1: Framing options for engagement

Once a crisis has been identified, the Political and Security Committee (PSC) and/or the High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy (HR/VP) will initiate the EU's response. Platforms for coordination and information sharing – including the Conflict Prevention Group, Crisis Platform and Crisis Management Board (CMB) – will get involved at this stage. The CMB provides internal guidance for further action and planning, and initiates the development of a Political Framework for Crisis Approach (PFCA), in coordination with the Commission.

The PFCA sets the political context, clearly articulating what the crisis is, why the EU should act and which instruments are available and best suited for the EU's response. Suitable instruments include: economic sanctions, diplomatic actions, mediation, humanitarian aid, development aid or an engagement under the ambit of the Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP). In line with the 'comprehensive approach', the PFCA offers a wide range of options available to the EU.

If there is merit and scope for a CSDP engagement, the PSC or the Council may task the Crisis Management and Planning Directorate (CMPD) to further develop possible CSDP options or frame a Crisis Management Concept (CMC).

Phase 2: Defining the mission's goals and scope

The Crisis Management and Planning Directorate (CMPD) will prepare the Crisis Management Concept (CMC) in consultation with all the relevant services of the European External Action Service (EEAS), in particular the Civilian Planning and Conduct Capability (CPCC), European Union Military Staff (EUMS) and other relevant Directorates, EU Delegations and Commission services. For military operations, the Athena financial mechanism will be activated. International organisations, third states, international NGOs and representatives of civil society will be consulted as appropriate.

The CMPD will send a Fact Finding Mission (FFM) into the crisis zone to verify the will of the local authorities and to research and develop the CMC. The purpose of the CMC is to analyse and propose CSDP options, describe their aims and objectives, and frame the possible goals and scope of an EU mission. Based on advice from the EUMS and the Committee for Civilian

Aspects of Crisis Management (CIVCOM), the CMC is endorsed by the PSC and then approved by the Council.

Depending on the complexity of the crisis, the EUMS or the CMPD may be tasked to develop Military or Civilian Strategic Options (MSOs/CSOs). The European Union Military Committee (EUMC) and CIVCOM will evaluate respectively the MSOs and CSOs and advise the PSC accordingly.

The PSC then agrees to the MSOs/CSOs and tasks the director of CPCC, as the Civilian Operations Commander (CivOpsCdr), to initiate operational planning and the recruitment of the Head of Mission (HoM) and the core team. The PSC also identifies the future military Operational Headquarters (OHQ) and future military Operation Commander (mil OpCdr), taking the recommendation of the EUMC into consideration.

The Council then adopts a Decision establishing the mission/operation. This is the moment where the objectives and mandate of a mission/operation are set out, the mil OpCdr becomes active, an OHQ is designated (for a military operation), third states may be invited to participate and to offer contributions, a Status of Forces Agreement/Status of Mission Agreement (SOFA/SOMA) is commissioned, and a Budget

Impact Statement (BIS) for a civilian CSDP operation or a draft reference amount for a budget for a military CSDP operation is adopted as an integral part of the Council decision.

Both the mil OpCdr and CivOpsCdr start the Force Generation Process involving Member States and invited third states where applicable. In case contributions of staff from invited third states are accepted by the PSC, a Committee of Contributors (CoC) will be established.

Phase 3: Detailed planning

For a military operation, the EUMS develops an Initiating Military Directive (IMD) (to be approved by the EUMC) to ensure that the CMC is well translated into military direction and guidance with the appropriate level of detail. Based on the CMC, the Council decision and the IMD, the mil OpCdr drafts a Concept of Operations (CONOPS) and a Statement of Requirements (SOR).

For a civilian mission, the CivOpsCdr drafts the CONOPS, based on the CMC. The planning team directly involves the HoM and the core team as well as relevant EEAS services. To inform the development of the CONOPS, the CPCC/CivOpsCdr planning

team will normally undertake a Technical Assessment Mission (TAM).

Based on advice from the EUMC and CIVCOM, the PSC endorses the draft CONOPS and the Council approves it. The CivOpsCdr and mil OpCdr then prepare their respective Operational Plans (OPLAN) and draft Rules for the Use of Force (RUoF) and Rules of Engagement (ROE) where applicable. The HoM and the core team will be fully involved in the civilian planning process.

If more rapid decision-making is required, a 'fast track' process can be followed, in which the CONOPS is skipped. The minimum requirement for civilian planning is the OPLAN, while the military still has to develop an IMD in addition to the OPLAN.

On the basis of advice from CIVCOM and/or the EUMC, the PSC endorses the OPLAN and forwards it to the Council for approval. The Council then adopts a decision to launch the CSDP mission or operation, as soon as initial operational capability (IOC) is achieved (i.e. minimum requirements to start operations).

Phase 4: Implementation

The fourth phase is implementation of the mission, including the further deployment of mission staff to attain full operational capability (FOC).

In a civilian mission, the CivOpsCdr exercises command and control at the strategic level, while the HoM takes command at the operational level. In a military operation, the mil OpCdr exercises command and control at the strategic level and the military Force Commander takes command at the operational level.

When the strategic context of the CSDP mission or operation changes, at mid-term of the mandate, and/or when the mandate approaches the end date, a strategic review will be conducted by the CMPD, supported by the CPCC, EUMS and other relevant Directorates. The strategic review may result in an extension of the existing mandate, a refocusing of the CSDP engagement or termination of the mission. The last option requires the input of relevant EEAS and Commission services to suggest possible ways to ensure the sustainability of achievements by non-CSDP means.

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 inter-governmental organisations.

Phase 2: Strategic assessment and pre-mandate planning

If, after the initial consultations, a peacekeeping operation or a special political mission is being considered, a headquarters-based Integrated Task Force (ITF) is established with the participation of relevant UN departments, funds and programmes. A Secretary-General's planning directive may be issued if high-level strategic guidance on the expectations of the planning process, parameters, responsibilities, coordination and reporting is required. Next, a strategic assessment will be conducted. This will include a conflict analysis, determining the country's priorities for peace consolidation and identification of the options for UN engagement (e.g. a specific type of mission). One or more technical assessments may follow to gain clarity on programmatic or operational aspects, such as staffing or budgets. If security conditions permit, both the strategic and technical assessments will include a field visit. Based on the findings and recommendations of the assessments, the UN Secretary-General will issue a report to the Security Council. This report will present several options for UN engagement, such as the establishment of different types of UN missions, including the required financial and human resources.

Phase 3: Security Council resolution

When a dispute or situation is deemed to be 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 strategic and technical assessments, the Security Council must settle on the specific mandate and size of the operation with at least nine out of 15 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 and Special Representative of the Secretary-General (SRSG) to direct the peace operation (peacekeeping mission or field-based special political mission). The SRSG reports to the Under-Secretary-General for the Department of Political Affairs (DPA) or the Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) at UN headquarters. If appropriate, the Secretary-General also appoints a Force Commander, a Police Commissioner as well as senior civilian staff. Based on the reporting line, DPA or DPKO and the Department of

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

Phase 5: Post-mandate planning

After the issuance of the mandate, the Under-Secretary-General for DPA or DPKO issues a directive to the Special Representative of the Secretary-General (SRSG). The purpose of the directive is to provide system-wide strategic direction, establish priorities for peace consolidation, define the configuration of the integrated presence and roles and responsibilities, and provide an outline of coordination arrangements as well as basic planning parameters.

With the issuance of the directive to the SRSG, responsibility for planning will transfer to the field. From then on, the SRSG, with DPA/DPKO/DFS support, leads the planning for the political, military, operational and support (i.e. logistics and administration) aspects of the operation. This includes finalisation of the mission concept, which in turn covers the context, guiding principles for mandate implementation, overall mission objectives, priorities, key assumptions and risks, mission phases, core deliverables, guidance to components and coordination principles, and resource implications. In integrated settings, it will also include the development of an Integrated Strategic Framework (ISF), which reflects the common peace consolidation priorities agreed by the mission and the country team (e.g. UN agencies, funds and programmes).
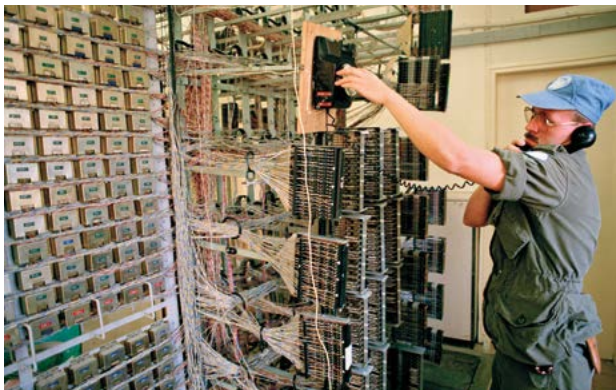
D. Cooperation and coordination approaches

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 involved and commitments that take time. Additionally, the diverse interests of the various actors, including states and international organisations, often give rise to conflicting opinions on the objectives of an operation.

Cooperation and coordination are essential pre-conditions for effective crisis management. An agreed definition of common objectives and coordination of key actors (e.g. national ministries, international organisations, NGOs and donors) and instruments (military, police and civilian), both in the field as well as in political centres, is vital at every stage of the conflict. Appropriate and timely action is also important. A 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 necessary coordination; they should offer a conceptual and organisational basis for cooperation, encourage the establishment of new cooperative instruments and structures (e.g. cross-departmental bodies) where feasible and sensible, and regulate the coordination of resources.

Different international organisations have defined their specific comprehensive approaches in different ways, depending on their own set of capabilities and responsibilities. The EU can draw on a wide range of civilian and military expertise and therefore defines its comprehensive approach differently from NATO, which musters mainly military capabilities. The UN has focused on defining its integrated approach, aiming at internal coherence of the institutions belonging to the organisation.

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

The Council of the European Union decided that, alongside civilian Common Security and Defence Policy (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 European Commission.

The Treaty of Lisbon offered an opportunity for reinforcing the comprehensive approach, calling for the use of the policies and instruments at the EU's disposal in a more coherent manner 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. In December 2013, the High Representative of the European Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy and the European Commission released a joint communication on the EU's comprehensive approach to external conflicts and crises, which outlines the concept and offers proposals for the way forward.

A key challenge for the EU's comprehensive approach is its successful implementation in crisis areas where several EU instruments are deployed, not to mention coordination with all the other international and local actors. In Afghanistan, for example, an EU Special

Representative (EUSR) and a civilian CSDP mission (EUPOL Afghanistan) are present in addition to the EU Delegation.

2. UN Policy on Integrated Assessment and Planning

Following the Brahimi Report and building on lessons learned from several UN missions, the Department of Peacekeeping Operations (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 to planning multidimensional operations. The African Union-United Nations Mission in Darfur (UNAMID) was the first UN mission to be planned using the IMPP, in 2007.

This process was then developed further and became the UN Policy on Integrated Assessment and Planning (IAP). The IAP moves away from the mission-centric nature of previous guidelines and focuses on designing a UN-wide response in conflict and post-conflict situations, where multidimensional peacekeeping or special political missions are deployed to operate alongside

UN agencies, funds and programmes. The IAP policy applies in all cases where a multidimensional peace-keeping operation or a field-based special political mission is deployed alongside a UN country team, or where such a presence is being considered. The IAP policy sets out four minimum requirements:

★ the joint conduct of strategic assessments;

★ the articulation of a common UN vision, priorities and respective responsibilities;

★ the establishment of integrated mechanisms at both field and HQ levels;

★ the conduct of integrated monitoring and reporting on the implementation of Integrated Strategic Frameworks (ISFs).

3. The UN's cluster approach

Coordination is vital in emergencies. Good coordination means less gaps and overlaps in humanitarian organisations' work. It strives for a needs-based, rather than capacity-driven, response. It aims to ensure a coherent and complementary approach, identifying ways to work together for better collective results.

The basis of the current international humanitarian coordination system was set by General Assembly resolution 46/182 in December 1991. The Humanitarian Reform of 2005 introduced new elements to improve capacity, predictability, accountability, leadership and partnership.

The most visible aspect of the 2005 reform is the creation of the 'cluster approach'. Clusters are groups of humanitarian organisations (UN and non-UN) working in the main sectors of humanitarian action, e.g. shelter and health. They are created when clear humanitarian needs exist within a sector, when there are numerous actors within sectors and when national authorities need coordination support.

Clusters provide a clear point of contact and are accountable for adequate and appropriate humanitarian assistance. Clusters create partnerships between international humanitarian actors, national and local authorities, and civil society.

The United Nations' Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) works closely with global cluster lead agencies and NGOs to develop policies, coordinate inter-cluster issues, disseminate operational guidance and organise field support.

Health
WHO

Food Security
WFP & FAO

Logistics
WFP

Emergency
Telecom-
munications
WFP

Nutrition
UNICEF

Education
UNICEF &
Save the
Children

Protection
UNHCR

Early
Recovery
UNDP

HUMANITARIAN &
EMERGENCY RELIEF
COORDINATOR

Shelter
IFRC[1]/
UNHCR[2]

Camp
Coordination and
Camp Management
IOM[1]/UNHCR[2]

Water,
Sanitation
and Hygiene
UNICEF

Prevention

Mitigation

Reconstruction

Recovery

Preparedness

Disaster

Response

1. Disaster situations 2. IDPs (from conflict)

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Chapter 2
Thematic issues and guiding principles

Crises differ in every possible way and need tailor-made responses. Crisis management missions and peace operations have a variety of tools and instruments at their disposal to cater to each 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 address.

1. Mediation and diplomacy

Mediation as a tool of diplomacy seeks to prevent, mitigate and resolve conflicts by opening up communication channels between adversaries. Mediation processes are adaptive and enable or facilitate dialogue between the main conflict protagonists or with a broader range of actors, including civil society, national and community leaders, and others.

While diplomacy and mediation as conflict management tools have traditionally belonged to the realm of states, the decline of inter-state conflicts since the end of the Cold War and the subsequent increase of civil wars

and intra-state conflicts have opened niches for the intervention of independent and non-state third-party diplomacy actors. Actors involved in mediation now range from the United Nations, regional organisations and governments, to private organisations and prominent peacemakers. While state actors, the UN and regional organisations constitute so-called traditional power-based mediators that benefit from their inherent leverage, independent private actors enjoy greater flexibility and are able to react quickly to unfolding situations and deal with parties which are beyond the reach of official actors.

The emergence of specialised mediation actors, such as mediation-support capacities in the United Nations (UN), the European Union (EU) and the African Union (AU), as well as the establishment of professional networks, such as the Mediation Support Network, have contributed to the further professionalization and institutionalisation of the mediation field.

Diplomacy, whether by states or private actors, is often described as taking place on three levels or 'tracks':

★ Track 1: dialogue between official representatives of conflict parties;

★ Track 2: dialogue among unofficial actors, often including civil society;

★ Track 1.5: dialogues in which official representatives or those close to the leadership of conflict parties participate jointly with non-governmental actors through the facilitation of private mediators.

On the ground, several dialogue tracks might take place in parallel or in sequence, as successful mediation often requires not only cooperation with peace-building organisations but also engagement with a range of actors.

Most peace processes involve not only multiple mediation actors but also a variety of different tasks and strategies, from process design to technical assistance. Besides facilitating talks between parties, mediation actors can also advise the conflict parties on negotiation processes or technical issues and support other local or international mediation initiatives.

Furthermore, mediators increasingly take into consideration the relevance of human rights and justice issues for sustainable peace, thereby often promoting the inclusion of women and civil society in peace processes.

2. Human security

The UN Development Programme's Human Development Report of 1994 defined seven essential dimensions of human security:

1. Physical
2. Political
3. Local/communal
4. Health
5. Ecological
6. Economic
7. Nutritional

Since 1994, partly through the work of the UN's Commission on Human Security, this definition has been expanded and nowadays includes freedom from fear, freedom from want and freedom from indignities. With this definition, the focus of security policy is the individual rather than 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 that the threat to human

security – in contrast to threats to state security – is a new frame of reference for security policy. In the framework of the human security approach and against the backdrop of fragile or failing states with weakened monopolies on force, security policy concepts need to be orientated towards the survival, security and development of individual human beings. Human security equally applies to threats such as poverty and environmental disasters.

UNDP, the EU and many states have tried to promote a higher profile for development issues on the global security policy agenda as well as to direct more resources towards development projects. Even though basic ideas on human security have entered security policy debates, the concept remains disputed. Critics doubt its practicality and fear the 'securitisation' of international politics, as everything could be declared a threat with reference to human security. Currently, two schools of thought exist: one works with a narrower, pragmatic definition (freedom from fear) while the other represents a broader, holistic definition (freedom from fear, freedom from want and freedom from indignities).

If applied in international cooperation, human security requires an integrated approach to action that covers multiple sectors. It must be aimed at the

protection, security and empowerment of those affected by crisis or conflict. As human security is complementary to other existing security concepts, an outright paradigm shift has not taken place. The conceptual vagueness makes political adaptation difficult. Various governments (particularly 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 Foreign Affairs and Security Policy prepared the Barcelona Report (A Human Security Doctrine for Europe). In this report, he called for commitment to both civilian and military means to address human security. In the subsequent Madrid Report (2007), the relevance of human security for European missions was further emphasised, and the following principles were formulated:

- ★ the primacy of human rights,
- ★ the legitimacy of political authority,
- ★ multilateralism,
- ★ a bottom-up approach,
- ★ an integrated regional focus,
- ★ a transparent strategy of international actors.

However, the implementation of these principles has turned out to be difficult.

In October 2012, the UN General Assembly adopted a resolution on human security that squarely positioned human security at the intersection of peace, development and human rights. This resolution laid down a common understanding of human security as an "approach to assist Member States in identifying and addressing widespread and cross-cutting challenges to the survival, livelihood and dignity of their people". This common understanding is constituted by the broad definition of human security as freedom from fear, freedom from want and freedom from indignity.

3. Human rights

Adopted in 1948 by the UN General Assembly, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) provides the basis for all international human rights treaties developed in recent decades and serves as a common standard of achievement for all peoples and nations in this area. The treaties and other instruments adopted since then constitute the backbone of the system developed by the UN to enhance the protection of human rights.

Human rights are commonly understood as fundamental rights to which a person is inherently entitled simply by virtue of being human. Human rights are:

★ Universal: they are the same for everyone, everywhere, although the ways in which they are promoted, implemented and understood varies between regions and countries. These rights may exist as natural rights or as legal rights, in both national and international law.

★ Inalienable: no one can renounce them or lose them, and states cannot deprive any individual of his or her human rights.

★ Indivisible, interdependent and interrelated: each human right depends on the others, and the violation of one of them affects the exercise of others.

★ They must be guaranteed to every individual in every part of the world without discrimination.

Being a core part of peace operations, human rights issues are mainstreamed into activities as well as promoted through specific projects and structures on the ground. The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) and other UN agencies and programmes provide expertise, guidance and support to UN peace operations on human

rights issues. In 2012, an EU Special Representative (EUSR) for Human Rights was appointed and the EU's Strategic Framework and Action Plan on Human Rights and Democracy was adopted.

Even if your mission deployment does not work specifically on human rights, it is extremely helpful to know which international human rights treaties have been ratified by your host country government and what level of compliance exists with these treaties (see www.ohchr.org). Information on a host country's compliance with treaties provides valuable insights on issues such as governance and security, and evaluates the performance of national actors that might be your counterparts, such as national security forces and relevant ministries.

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 on protecting minority or property rights; combating war crimes, crimes against humanity and human trafficking; or improving the criminal justice and penal system.

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

4. Context sensitivity: Do No Harm

'Do No Harm' (context sensitivity) is a principle for the planning, evaluation and adaptation of assistance measures in crisis management. It is based on the understanding that any international involvement has unavoidable side effects. With this guiding principle, crisis management should be shaped in a way sensitive to the context in which it operates, so that its negative effects can be minimised.

The Do No Harm approach was developed at the beginning of the 1990s by non-governmental organisations (NGOs). Created originally for emergency aid, it has since been applied in all areas and phases of crisis management. One of the core assumptions of Do No Harm is that in every conflict, there are forces and structures present that promote or maintain violence, as well as forces and structures that promote peace. Crisis management should strengthen those structures (e.g. dispute resolution procedures) and actors (e.g.

moderate leaders) that can work positively towards a peaceful transformation of conflict.

International actors can cause damage by failing to act; equally they can cause damage by articulating or promoting their interests and priorities too vigorously. Such interventions can be perceived as biased or inappropriate. Depending on who is helped first, who receives benefits and which signals international actors send out, external aid can actually worsen conflicts and emergencies, even if unintentionally.

After the end of the civil war in Guatemala in the late 1990s, returning refugees 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. This resulted in local conflicts as well as disputes among aid organisations. In Afghanistan, international efforts to empower women and promote their engagement in the political sphere increased tensions within some families and villages.

International crisis management is continually confronted with dilemmas. Achieving a wholly positive outcome is often not possible. From the start, the Do No Harm approach must be applied to the very analysis that provides the basis for an informed understanding

of a conflict. During the implementation phase, it is necessary to continue examining interventions against the Do No Harm principle, so as to identify pitfalls and address them. By embracing this principle in all stages of their work, states, international organisations and NGOs have a chance to balance out imperatives of action while mitigating possible unintended and long-term consequences of their actions.

5. Corruption

Corruption has been a significant issue in nearly every major crisis and intervention by the international community in the last 20 years. Conflicts and revolutions may be prompted by corruption and the excesses of a regime; equally, conflict may be perpetuated when corruption is deeply entrenched. Warring parties often benefit from the spoils of continued fighting. Fragile and conflict-affected states as well as countries emerging from conflict are often characterised by endemic corruption, low levels of state legitimacy and capacity, weak rule of law, wavering levels of political will and high levels of insecurity.

As you are likely to be working in a context where governmental institutions are weak and their capacity

to absorb funds is low, yet donors are pressuring you to disburse massive amounts of foreign aid, you will probably be confronted with corruption and informal justice systems during your mission.

Corruption is a complex issue that often manifests itself in subtle ways. The effects can be seen in bribery, the corrupt management of state assets and through technical issues such as biased contracting and illicit money flows. However, corruption should not only be understood in terms of bribery or misbehaviour for personal enrichment; it often underlies complex power relationships and deeply entrenched patronage systems.

Corruption has many consequences; it can:

★ perpetuate conflict and instability,

★ waste significant amounts of international funds,

★ damage the effectiveness and credibility of your mission,

★ foster a culture of impunity rather than lawfulness.

Success in fighting corruption can often improve the security and well-being of the civilian population. While

a determined effort to address corruption may increase the complexity of the early stages of a mission, it will pay back high dividends in terms of institution building, stability and the overall success of the mission. A 'clean' environment allows better outcomes to be delivered at lower cost both to the host nation and to the international community.

There is a growing movement away from adopting an orthodox, unitary, state-centric approach, towards viewing the rule of law from the perspective of legal pluralism. While UN institutions such as the Office of Internal Oversight Services (OIOS) have developed mechanisms for spotting corruption risks and investigating cases of wrong doing, anti-corruption should be further mainstreamed as a priority within national and international policy arenas. Robust guidance and internal systems are needed to address corruption risks, while specific training could assist crisis managers in tackling corruption within their daily work.

However, corruption, informal justice or mismanagement have to be considered and tackled within their own cultural and situational circumstances. Curbing corruption in a specific context or case you come across may not be effective or may even have unintended consequences. This especially applies to cases of informal justice and mob violence, as the many cases of

street justice show. A constant balance between legal pluralism and local circumstances on one hand and compliance with international norms, human rights and legal standards on the other is extremely complicated, but indispensable in practice.

The UN has developed three guiding principles to which international missions should adhere, when dealing with informal justice: giving due regard to applicable informal justice systems, maintaining oversight of the application of informal justice norms and practices, and avoiding corrupt informal justice systems. They include the following advice:

★ understand that corruption is both a cause and a consequence of conflict;

★ take corruption risk into account when conducting assessments and planning programmes and projects;

★ try to gain or maintain an overview of existing informal structures and practices;

★ do not contribute to corrupt practices yourself (e.g. refuse to pay bribes or give personal favours to counterparts);

- ★ cultivate a culture of personal accountability and ensure transparency in your own working environment and programmes (particularly where money flows);

- ★ build integrity and counter-corruption measures into key programmes;

- ★ promote or enhance internal and external checks and institutional control mechanisms.

Make sure you inform yourself about your mission's and organisation's channels and conduct, so that you can ensure transparency and prevent corruption from happening on your watch.

6. Gender

What is gender?

Gender is the social and cultural understanding of what it means to be a boy, girl, man or woman in a specific context at a specific point in time. While the social structures organising women and men into different roles and responsibilities tend to be perceived as 'biological' and 'natural', the concept of gender helps us see that all societies have different conceptions of femininity and masculinity. The rigidity of gender structures differs greatly. So what it means to be a boy,

girl, man or woman (from a gender perspective), and how they relate to each other, differs both within and across societies and may change over time.

Nonetheless, it is crucial to remember that gender roles, identities and stereotypes are very real. They affect what we do and how we act, feel, think, behave and analyse information.

Due to gender norms, all societies are more or less organised along principles that divide women and men into different roles and responsibilities. Women are traditionally assigned responsibility for the private domain, while men are traditionally assigned responsibilities in the public domain. This division leads to differences in status, access to and control of valuable resources, the ability to participate and influence important decisions, or the ability to seek protection. As a result, women, men, boys and girls have different perspectives, needs and interests. A gender perspective implies that we understand these differences, in relation to each other and how they affect our work.

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. Equal opportunities should exist in the visibility, empowerment, responsibility and participation of both sexes in all areas of public and private life.

What is gender mainstreaming?

Gender mainstreaming is the strategy to integrate a gender perspective at all stages (planning, implementation and follow-up) and at all levels of an organisation, mission or operation – everyone is responsible. The immediate purpose is to ensure that girls, boys, men and women will benefit equally from policies and actions, as well as to prevent external actors from exacerbating and perpetuating gender discrimination and inequalities. In the long-term, the purpose is to promote gender equality. It is important to note that gender mainstreaming does not focus solely on women, although women are usually the targets and beneficiaries of mainstreaming practices, due to their disadvantaged position in many societies.

Gender perspectives
in crisis management missions

Adopting a gender perspective INVOLVES:	Adopting 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'.
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 the impacts of initiatives.	Striving for equal or 50/50 (men/women) participation.
Understanding the differences between 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 equality issues within organisations.
Understanding the specific situation and documenting actual conditions and priorities.	Assuming who does what work and who has which responsibilities.

Both the EU and the UN have appointed gender advisers and gender focal points to provide expertise and guidance on gender issues. Furthermore, these issues are tackled through the implementation of specific projects or tasks on the ground. The purpose of these structures is to help mission staff work on all issues from a gender perspective, in order to promote gender equality through immediate and long-term action, empowering the population, and enabling state and other national institutions to implement gender equality obligations.

Gender-specific policy frameworks in peacebuilding

The following is a list of the most important international and regional peacebuilding frameworks and legal instruments, which focus on or include gender-specific provisions.

The Geneva Convention on the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War: Commonly referred to as the Fourth Geneva Convention (1949) and the Additional Protocols (1977), these legal instruments stress the need for the special protection of women in warfare, including protection against rape and forced prostitution.

Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court (1998): This is the treaty that established the International Criminal Court (ICC). It is the first document to declare rape and other forms of gender-based violence to be war crimes. If these acts are part of systematic and widespread attacks on civilians, they constitute 'crimes against humanity'. Rape is condemned as a serious breach of international humanitarian law.

Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) (1979): Often considered as a 'women's charter of human rights', CEDAW holds states responsible for adopting legislation and political measures to protect women and their rights, and to fight discrimination.

Windhoek Declaration and the Namibia Plan of Action on Mainstreaming a Gender Perspective in Multidimensional Peace Support Operations (S/2000/693) (2000): Both the declaration and the plan of action call for gender mainstreaming and stronger participation of women in all phases of peace operations and peacebuilding, with a special emphasis on training and curricula for peace operations.

UN Security Council Resolutions (UNSCR)

UNSCR 1325 'Women, Peace and Security' (2000) was the first UN Security Council Resolution to link women´s experiences of conflict to the maintenance of international peace and security. It addresses the impact of war on women and their contribution to conflict resolution and sustainable peace, as well as calling for gender mainstreaming of all peace operations and peacebuilding programmes.

UNSCRs 1820 (2008), 1888 (2009), 1960 (2010) and 2106 (2013) address sexual violence in conflict (SVC) and highlight the need to address and end SVC, calling for the protection of survivors as well as an end to impunity for SVC crimes. UNSCR 1820 explicitly recognises SVC as a tactic of war and a matter of international peace and security, and categorically prohibits the granting of amnesties for such crimes. It also stresses equal participation in conflict prevention and resolution efforts, and links the prevention of sexual violence with women's participation in peace processes and leadership positions. UNSCRs 1888, 1960 and 2106 reinforce UNSCR 1820, through a call for leadership on the issue in the form of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General on Sexual Violence in Conflict and Women's Protection Advisers to UN peace operations. The role of these leaders is to build expertise in judicial response, to

strengthen service provision for survivors, and to establish monitoring and reporting mechanisms, including an accountability architecture for listing and delisting perpetrators of SVC crimes.

UNSCR 1889 (2009) calls for concrete steps to improve the implementation of UNSCR 1325 and to increase women's participation in post-conflict processes. These steps include calls for a set of global indicators and proposals for monitoring mechanisms for the implementation of UNSCR 1325.

UNSCR 2122 (2013) seeks to fill gaps in existing Women, Peace and Security (WPS) frameworks. It aims to lay out a systematic approach ensuring full participation and leadership of women and civil society organisations in conflict resolution; and it addresses obstacles in women's access to justice both during conflict and in post-conflict situations.

UNSCR 2242 (2015) focuses on women's involvement in efforts to prevent and resolve conflict. It calls for gender-sensitive strategies to counter and prevent violent extremism and sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA).

UN General Assembly

Besides relevant General Assembly resolutions on women and mediation (A/RES/65/283, A/RES/68/303), as well as on disarmament, non-proliferation and arms control (A/RES/65/69, A/RES/67/48, A/RES/68/33, A/RES/69/61), in 2005 the UN General Assembly released A comprehensive strategy to eliminate future sexual exploitation and abuse in UN peacekeeping operations.

7. Child protection

Children are among those most vulnerable to conflict. Conflict affects children in multiple ways: boys and girls get injured and even killed, they are recruited by armed forces or groups, and they are separated from their families or forcibly displaced. Much of this happens with impunity. In places where political, social and economic instability lead to conflict, those institutions and services which provide for children, such as schools and hospitals, are weakened or disrupted. Violence against children may occur in everyday contexts, such

as at home, in school, in care and justice systems, within communities and at workplaces. Meanwhile, crises such as natural disasters, armed conflict and forced displacement can expose children to exponential risks.

Six grave violations against children during armed conflict have been identified:

- ★ recruitment and use of children,
- ★ killing or maiming of children,
- ★ sexual violence against children,
- ★ attacks against schools or hospitals,
- ★ abduction of children,
- ★ denial of humanitarian access.

The international community recognises the reduction of the impact of armed conflict on children as an important aspect of any comprehensive strategy to resolve conflict and calls on all parties to conflict to afford special protection to boys and girls.

During conflicts, children are legally protected by international humanitarian law and human rights law. In the **Fourth Geneva Convention (1949)** and the **Additional Protocols of 1977**, more than twenty provi-

sions have been developed to give special protection to children affected by armed conflict.

The **UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC)** is a legally-binding international human rights convention that postulates that children everywhere have the right to develop to their fullest potential, the right to protection from harmful influences, abuse and exploitation, and the right to participate fully in family, cultural and social life. It protects these rights by setting standards in health care, education, and legal, civil and social services.

The monitoring and reporting mechanism (MRM) set up by the UN feeds into this framework to gather evidence of grave violations against children, and reports them to the UN Security Council. Depending on your position within the mission, you might be directly or indirectly involved in gathering information for the MRM.

While working in a crisis management mission, you might come across violations of children's rights or child abuse. Examples include the six grave violations, but also any form of violence, the employment of children as household or office cleaners, child prostitution, early marriage and any kind of exploitation of children. Child soldiers are particularly vulnerable in a context

of disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration, and require the attention of specialised mission staff.

If you come across violations of children's rights, you should refer to the mission's code of conduct for guidance and immediately report your observations to competent staff within your mission, such as specialised child protection staff. Child protection is a shared responsibility of all mission personnel and each mission component has a role to play in it.

8. Sexual abuse and exploitation

Sexual exploitation is abuse through the exchange of sex or any other sexual acts for drugs, food, shelter, protection, other basics of life, or money. Sexual exploitation and abuse can happen to men or women of any age, but women and children, especially girls, are particularly vulnerable.

The 2002 'Sex for Food' scandal exposed the exploitation of women and children in refugee camps in West Africa by UN peacekeeping personnel and NGO workers, who exchanged food and money in return 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 for or what your role is, you should always keep in mind the following six core principles:

1. **Perpetrating sexual abuse will terminate your deployment 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.

2. **Zero tolerance for paedophilia**. Sexual activity with children (girls and boys 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 or the girl is not a defence.

3. **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.

4. **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.

5. **If you witness abuse, speak out.** If you develop concerns or suspicions regarding sexual abuse or exploitation by a fellow worker, whether in the same organisation or not, you must report those concerns via established organisational reporting mechanisms.

6. **Be part of an abuse-free environment.** You are obliged to create and maintain an envi-

ronment that prevents sexual exploitation and abuse and you should promote the implementation of your code of conduct.

Managers at all levels have a special responsibility to support and develop systems that maintain an abuse-free environment and ensure that victims and survivors of sexual exploitation have access to a confidential mechanism that is appropriately staffed. For example, women, especially national staff, who are victims of sexual abuse tend to prefer to report their experience to another woman rather than a man).

9. The Geneva Conventions

International humanitarian law (IHL) includes both humanitarian principles and international treaties to minimise suffering and damage during armed conflicts. IHL has been developed through the four **Geneva Conventions of 1949** and the two **Additional Protocols of 1977 relating to the protection of victims of armed conflicts**. They represent the world's efforts to protect people in times of armed conflict and are based on the principles of humanity, impartiality and neutrality. The International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) serves as the guardian of IHL.

The four Geneva Conventions and the First Additional Protocol apply to all cases of international conflicts. These include declared war, armed conflicts or cases of partial or total occupation where two or more states are involved. The common Article 3 and the Second Additional Protocol, in contrast, apply to situations of internal, non-international armed conflict, such as civil wars.

The First Geneva Convention protects soldiers who are out of battle (hors de combat). This convention ensures the protection and adequate (medical) treatment of wounded or sick people during conflict. The convention encompasses the protection of medical personnel, equipment and facilities as well as the right of ICRC to assist people who are not or no longer participating in hostilities. It protects civilian support teams and prohibits violence and discrimination on the basis of sex, race, nationality, religion or political beliefs.

The Second Geneva Convention transfers the protection enshrined in the First Geneva Convention to wounded, sick and shipwrecked members of armed forces at sea.

The Third Geneva Convention sets out specific rules for the treatment of prisoners of war (POWs) and

requires them to be treated humanely. POWs are to be housed adequately and should receive sufficient food, clothing and medical care. The convention also contains guidelines on labour, discipline, recreation and criminal trial.

The Fourth Geneva Convention regulates the protection of civilians in areas of armed conflict and occupied territories. Civilians must be protected from murder, torture, brutality, discrimination, collective punishment or deportation.

All four Geneva Conventions include an identical Article 3, which lays down the law during conflicts not of an international character. Under this article, those who have put down their weapons or are 'out of conflict' must be treated humanely and without any form of discrimination based on race, colour, sex, religion, social status or wealth.

The First Additional Protocol expands the protection of non-combatants such as civilians, military and civilian medical workers in international armed conflict. It forbids the recruitment of children into armed forces and determines that armed forces need to be recognised as combatants while preparing for or during an attack. It prohibits the misuse of protective emblems and forbids the use of weapons that cause superfluous

injury, unnecessary suffering, or widespread, long-term or severe damage to the natural environment.

The Second Additional Protocol, dealing with non-international conflicts, expands the common Article 3 of the four Geneva Conventions and extends the essential rules of the law of armed conflicts to internal wars. It protects victims, such as civilians, medical and religious personnel, shipwrecked and wounded people in internal, high intensity conflicts.

10. Protection of civilians (PoC)

In troubled or fragile states, civilians are often victims of targeted violence, including killing, sexual abuse, looting or forced recruitment as (child) soldiers. Governments of affected states are not always willing or able to meet their responsibilities towards the population. Institutions such as the police force, the judiciary or a human rights commission may lack the capacity and means to provide fundamental protection, due to a protracted conflict situation. In addition, in some cases there is little political will to provide protection or to build up such institutions, especially in areas with illegal economic activities. In such situations and according to the principle of protecting human rights, the international community is called upon to play an active role.

The protection of civilians in armed conflicts is a cross-sectoral task in peace operations, where civilian, police and military mission components should support the host government in providing adequate protection to its population. However, on several occasions international intervention was too little or too late, of which the mass killings in Rwanda and Srebrenica in the 1990s are the sad evidence.

The tragic events of the early 1990s sparked a new debate in the UN Security Council on how to prevent such atrocities by protecting populations from violence. In 1999, the UN Secretary-General was charged with developing recommendations for the protection of civilians. In the same year, the Security Council explicitly allowed the use of force for the protection of threatened civilians in missions such as UNAMSIL in Sierra Leone and INTERFET in East Timor. The mission in Sierra Leone was the first one to include 'protection of civilians' explicitly in its mandate.

Since then, the Security Council has passed various resolutions on the protection of civilians: 1265 (1999), 1270 (1999), 1674 (2006), 1894 (2009) and 2145 (2014), in addition to reports by the Secretary-General and other resolutions on protection themes such as gender and child protection. Nowadays, the protection of the civilian population is one of the priorities

in almost all UN-mandated peacekeeping missions and is considered a prerequisite for socio-political reconstruction and durable peace in troubled or fragile states. In practice, direct implementation activities, training and institution building are complemented by political engagement, and are closely coordinated with humanitarian and development actors.

The EU has welcomed the UN´s operational concept on the protection of civilians, through various policy documents and drafts from its experience and lessons learned. The EU aims to develop the concept along the UN's three-tiered approach:

Tier 1 – protection through engagement and dialogue

Tier 2 – providing protection from physical violence

Tier 3 – establishing a protective environment

From this, it is evident that for UN peacekeeping, the concept of 'protection of civilians' is more than only physical protection or security. The concept includes the creation of political traction to accept the responsibility to protect the population, as well as building roads towards sustainable peace.

Despite this broad inclusive approach, protection of civilians' mandates encounter many challenges in their implementation. On the one hand it is a solid concept, with firm roots in international law and enjoying wide political support. Peacekeeping missions, which feature military and police components as well as multi-sectoral technical expertise in the civilian realm, are well suited to deal with protection issues – especially those related to physical threats. However, on the other hand, true progress in the protection of civilians is dependent on political commitment by troop-contributing countries, by Security Council members and, most of all, by the host government, which is the ultimate party responsible for providing protection to its population.

Protecting civilians requires capabilities in prevention, reaction, defence and deterrence, as well as sufficient, qualified civilian, military and police personnel. Any conflict prevention portfolio should include political and diplomatic measures by the UN and Member States, such as conflict resolution, analysis and early warning. At the same time, the UN must warn against excessive and unrealistic expectations: the protection of each and every individual is impossible, and the presence of peacekeepers alone creates expectations among civilians. Violations of civilians are often blamed on peacekeeping missions.

One recurrent problem is the coordination between peace operations and humanitarian actors that also commit to the protection of civilians. Humanitarian actors often have a slightly different interpretation of the concept of protection: since they do not have an armed component, they focus less on physical safety and take an approach geared more towards human rights. While UN missions aim largely at reducing threats, the humanitarian approach is to reduce vulnerabilities. These are complementary approaches; however, in practice, coordination on the ground could often be improved.

To meet current challenges regarding the protection of civilians, a variety of innovative tools and strategies, such as community alert networks, community liaison assistants (CLAs), joint protection teams and the UN's new 'intervention brigade', have been developed, alongside new tools to monitor the implementation of protection activities and changes in the protection situation over a longer period of time. In addition, mechanisms have been put in place to improve the coordination between civilian, police and military actors and to include the expertise of humanitarian actors and the local population in preventing and reacting effectively to atrocities against civilians.

11. Refugees, IDPs and stateless people

Both refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) are people who have been forced to flee their homes as individuals or groups.

The **Convention relating to the Status of Refugees** (also known as the 'Refugee Convention') was approved at a UN conference in 1951 and completed by a protocol adopted in 1967. It defines a refugee as a person who, "owing to 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, 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 by demanding that no contracting state shall expel or return a refugee in any manner to the frontiers of territories where their life or freedom would be threatened on account of their race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion.

The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) was established in 1950 by the UN General Assembly to lead and coordinate international action to protect refugees. Using the Refugee Convention as its major tool, UNHCR's core mandate is to ensure the international protection of 31.7 million uprooted people worldwide. It promotes the basic human rights of refugees and works to prevent refugees being returned involuntarily to a country where they face persecution. It helps them to repatriate to their homeland when conditions permit, integrate into states of asylum or resettle in third countries. UNHCR promotes international refugee agreements, helps states establish asylum structures and acts as an international watchdog over refugee issues. More information can be found in UNHCR's 2011 publication, Handbook and Guidelines on Procedures and Criteria for Determining Refugee Status.

Signatories to the Refugee Convention agree to cooperate with UNHCR in the exercise of its functions and help it supervise the implementation of the convention. However, especially since the great increase in refugee movements in Europe since 2015, compliance with the Refugee Convention has been problematic. While some European states push forward a European solution including a shared responsibility and an equal allocation of refugees, others focus on national security, closure of borders, and return or expel refugees. These opposing positions within Europe make it difficult to follow and further develop the Common European Asylum Strategy (CEAS).

Even after the agreement in March 2016 between the EU and Turkey, which tackled the EU migration crisis by closing down smuggling routes and protecting European borders, the situation for refugees remains highly problematic. Remaining challenges are ensuring and harmonising protection standards by further aligning the EU states' asylum legislation, effective and well-supported practical cooperation on the ground as well as recognising solidarity and shared responsibility among EU states, the EU and non-EU countries.

In the 1998 **Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement**, IDPs are defined as "persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to 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 generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border". The growing number of refugees is overshadowed by the even greater number of IDPs worldwide. According to the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC), 40.8 million people were internally displaced worldwide by violence and armed conflict as of December 2015.

Furthermore UNHCR estimates that at least 10 million people are stateless, which means they receive no legal protection or automatic rights to health care, education or employment. This excludes them from participating in social and political processes and increases the risks of exploitation and harassment. Statelessness occurs because of discrimination against certain groups, redrawing of borders or gaps in nationality laws. In addition to refugees, UNHCR has a mandate to help stateless people.

12. 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 from genocide, war crimes, ethnic cleansing and crimes against humanity. If it is unable or unwilling to do so, the international community should, as appropriate, take measures to protect the civilian population within this state.

The idea of the responsibility to protect evolved from the discussion on humanitarian intervention (e.g. in Kosovo) at the end of the 1990s. The conceptual development of R2P took place in several commissions and reports in preparation for the 2005 UN World Summit in New York, where it was formally recognised by UN Member States after protracted negotiations. The realm of application for R2P was explicitly limited to the four cases of genocide, war crimes, ethnic cleansing and crimes against humanity. In the final resolution, states affirmed their responsibility to employ – in accordance with Chapters VI and VIII of the UN Charter – the appropriate diplomatic, humanitarian and other peaceful means to help protect populations. In case national authorities failed to do so and peaceful means proved not to be sufficient, UN Member States declared that they were "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".

13. 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 management mission. Local ownership is both a result-oriented principle and a normative concept that foresees the involvement of local actors as early as possible.

For decades, local ownership has been an ingredient in development cooperation. This involves concepts such as 'helping people help themselves' or 'participatory development'. With an increasing number of peace-consolidation tasks, local ownership has become even more important since the 1990s. The concept has become a key element of reports, position papers and guidelines for a broad variety of actors in crisis-management missions. However, there is neither a coherent theory of local ownership nor a common

view of what the implementation of the principle entails in practice. How can a local population completely or even partly take ownership of a peacebuilding process if that process is dominated by international actors? Often, local ownership constitutes the attempt to adjust already defined international politics to local realities.

Interaction between local and international actors is, as a rule, asymmetric. International actors dominate processes, thus often impeding local ownership. In practice, however, methods and instruments of cooperation between local and international actors are applied that support local participation, acceptance and eventually ownership. In this regard, the co-location of international and local personnel can contribute to good cooperation and joint learning. Programmes for the recruitment and further education of national employees (national professional officers), although well received, entail the possibility that qualified national experts may migrate to international organisations ('brain drain').

14. 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 prepare local authorities to take over responsibilities or tasks from internationals.

Most international civilian experts deployed will be tasked with mentoring either an individual national counterpart or a national administrative body. Thus, the ability to interact in a culturally aware and sensitive manner, while establishing a respectful relationship to promote national/international cooperation, is crucial to implementing your own tasks as well as the mandate of the mission as a whole.

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 between 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 to MMA. 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 terms of reference (ToR) for the correct terminology, but do not get too hung up on titles.

Roles in MMA break down as follows:

Monitors collect information, observe, assess and report on the performance of relevant home-country institutions (e.g. police, military, justice and administration) and their personnel. In addition, compliance with agreements or political processes can be monitored, such as respect for human rights, peace or cease-fire agreements and elections. An important part of monitoring involves increasing international visibility on the ground and observing the performance, efficiency and work methods of local counterparts. This knowledge is then used to analyse how performance can be improved through mentoring and advising.

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.

Advisers provide expertise to institutions or organisations on operational issues, in order 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 can concentrate either on a solution to an individual problem (usually short-term) or on a long-term relationship with an organisation.

How can you be a good mentor?

★ Take your job seriously. 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 and get to know your mentee.

★ Follow up. 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 your mentee to learn and discover by being inquisitive, critical and resourceful. You should by no means transfer all that you know to them, but rather facilitate the acquisition of that knowledge. Be flexible to adapt your goals to their needs and provide the space for

the mentee to resolve their own problems first, before jointly working out additional solutions.

★ Be ready to learn from your mentee. Mentoring is never a one-way relationship. If you work together with your mentee and value their experience and skills, they will also take your experience and skills seriously. You should 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.

15. Policing

The use of police in UN peacekeeping operations goes back to the 1960s, with the first deployment of police officers to the United Nations Operation in the Congo (ONUC) and the organisation of the first CivPol component in the United Nations Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus (UNFICYP) in 1964. In former Yugoslavia, the international police force was not only involved in assisting election preparations, but also in the operational monitoring of the economic embargo. Additional tasks included the training of and consultation with 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 new tasks

and challenges are nowadays summarised under the generic term security sector reform (SSR).

While the first sizeable EU police missions were deployed in the Balkans at the end of the 1990s (e.g. EUPM Bosnia, EUPOL PROXIMA in the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia), police missions, especially those mandated by the UN, have progressively increased in size and number of personnel. The EU has increased the policing capacity in its Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP) operations and civilian police have gained a leading role in improving EU crisis response capabilities. In 2015, UN Police (UNPOL) deployed nearly 13,800 police officers worldwide.

The work of UN Police deployed in peacekeeping missions has moved swiftly from a relatively passive role of monitoring individual host state police officers to supporting the reform and restructuring of whole police and security organisations. This has especially been pushed forward through UNSCR 2185, the first ever resolution the UN Security Council passed on the role of policing in UN peacekeeping and peacebuilding. The resolution, passed in 2014, reaffirms that UN Police occupies an indispensable role in today's peacekeeping operations and special political missions.

A UN Police component can consist of individual police officers (IPOs) or cohesive, mobile, 'Formed Police Units' (FPUs). The main tasks of international police missions are as follows:

★ supporting the host state in early warning;

★ mentoring, advising, monitoring, training and capacity building;

★ interim policing and law enforcement (rare);

★ operational support to the host country police (mainly FPUs);

★ protection of UN personnel and facilities (FPUs);

★ public order management (FPUs);

★ creating a protective environment;

★ ensuring the protection of civilians (PoC).

Police components in UN peacekeeping operations are mainly staffed from police forces, criminal investigation departments and gendarmerie forces of Member States. In the last decade, FPUs have gained importance in peacekeeping, featuring in two-thirds of all UNPOL's deployments. FPUs are generally composed as a standing unit of 130 officers from one Police Contributing Country (PCC) who are qualified through joint training sessions and special equipment to react

to violence-prone demonstrations and unrest. As a coherent part of the UN Police component, FPUs close the capability gap between the military component and the operational portfolio of (usually unarmed) IPOs.

FPUs' main tasks today are the protection of a mission's personnel and facilities, the support of local police forces in maintaining public order and security, and local FPU capacity building. Since 2003, seven EU Member States that already had specialised police forces with military status (known as gendarmerie-type corps) have made these units available to the EU by creating a new European Gendarmerie Force (EGF or Eurogendfor). In 2015, 69 FPUs of the UN were in action, totalling 9,000 police personnel in eight UN missions.

16. Rule of law (RoL)

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, independently adjudicated and consistent with international human rights norms and standards. The rule of law requires measures to ensure adherence to the principles of supremacy of the law, equality before the law, accountability to the law, fairness in the application of the law, separation of powers, participation in decision-making, legal certainty, avoidance of arbitrariness and procedural and legal transparency. Peace operations and crisis management missions work to strengthen police, justice and correctional entities, as well as the institutions that can hold them accountable.

Since 1999, the UN Security Council has mandated virtually all new peacekeeping operations to assist national actors to strengthen the rule of law. Activities designed to promote the rule of law have also been central to most CSDP missions. Currently, the EU Rule of Law Mission (EULEX) Kosovo, the EU Police Mission in the Palestinian Territories (EUPOL COPPS) and the EU Police Mission in Afghanistan (EUPOL Afghanistan) all illustrate the European Union's approach towards rule of law missions.

Both the UN and the EU 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 partner organisations.

EU Member States have deployed officials from the security sector reform (SSR) pool and the crisis response team – two structures managed under the CSDP. A generic concept of rule of law for missions in the field was elaborated within the European Council Secretariat and clarified two distinct roles:

★ 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 non-existent, in order to consolidate the rule of law in crisis situations and thereby restore public order and security).

17. Security sector reform (SSR)

Since the late 1990s, security sector reform (SSR), based on the concept of human security, has formed part of the toolbox of international crisis management. SSR is both an operational and 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 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. Typical activities may include support to judicial and police reform, small arms control, mine action, and the promotion of human rights and gender justice.

SSR encompasses, among other things, the establishment of civilian offices for the supervision of security forces, the reform of institutional structures and the improvement of operational capabilities. All measures are interdependent, so a sustainable SSR can only be accomplished if activities are effectively coordinated.

The cooperation of national and local authorities and stakeholders, and their ownership of the process, are therefore crucial to the success of SSR.

SSR is carried out in fragile and post-conflict countries both through bilateral programmes and through SSR components of international programmes and missions. Many states and international organisations have adopted SSR as an integrated concept and field of action.

The EU has long-standing experience of supporting SSR programmes in post-conflict, transitional and developing countries. Key policy documents include Draft Council Conclusions on a Policy Framework for Security Sector Reform (2006) and Council Conclusions on Security and Development (2007) that clearly place SSR in the security-development nexus.

The EU possesses several principal tools to support SSR worldwide:

★ Development cooperation: the EU has disbursed approximately €1 billion over the period 2001-2009, targeting justice and security sector reform in more than 120 countries worldwide.

★ Instrument contributing to Stability and Peace (IcSP): this has become a key instrument to

enable the EU to operate within the area of security and development in a more timely manner, supporting SSR projects in a wide variety of crisis situations.

★ CSDP missions and operations: most of the civilian and military crisis management missions deployed by the EU have an SSR component. The EU is training, mentoring and advising police, justice and military institutions and their personnel in countries such as Afghanistan, Libya, Mali, Somalia and many others.

★ The EU has created an SSR Expert Pool, the members of which can be deployed in the context of SSR activities carried out by the EU within the framework of CSDP or Community external action.

★ Joint Communication to the European Parliament and the Council: elements for an EU-wide strategic framework for supporting security sector reform.

The UN supports SSR through a variety of operations, missions and projects managed by a number of UN agencies and departments. The UN Inter-Agency Security Sector Reform Task Force (IASSRTF) was established in 2007 to promote an integrated, holistic and coherent UN approach to SSR. In 2014, it released the Security Sector Reform Integrated Technical Guidance Notes.

In terms of policy, the UN Secretary-General published reports on security sector reform in 2008 and 2013. On 28 April 2014, the Security Council concluded an open debate on SSR with the unanimous adoption of its first ever stand-alone resolution on the topic (UNSCR 2151), underlining the growing importance of SSR in the UN context.

In 2005, the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) released guidelines on the implementation of SSR followed by the publication in 2008 of the OECD DAC Handbook on Security System Reform: Supporting Security and Justice.

The African Union (AU) issued the Solemn Declaration on a Common African Defence and Security Policy in 2004, followed by the adoption of its Policy on Post-Conflict Reconstruction and Development (PCRD) in 2006, which serves as a guide for the development of comprehensive policies and strategies that seek to consolidate peace, promote sustainable development and pave the way for growth and regeneration in countries and regions emerging from conflict. Furthermore, the adoption of the African Union Policy Framework on Security Sector Reform in 2013 was a major step in targeting the lack of African ownership of SSR approaches.

The International Security Sector Advisory Team (ISSAT) of the Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces (DCAF) is also one of the most important actors in the field of SSR. It provides practical support to the international community in its efforts to improve security and justice, primarily in conflict-affected and fragile states. To do so, it works with a group of Member States and institutions to develop and promote good security and justice reform practices and principles, and by helping its members to build their capacity to support national and regional security and justice reform processes.

18. 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 western Balkans and Africa.

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.

Chapter 3
Preparing for deployment

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

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

A. Understanding the situation

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 capabilities to perform professionally and to deal with the challenges you will encounter.

The basic questions you need to ask yourself before deployment are: 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 also have been told to be flexible and open enough to face all kinds of surprises. However, the fact that you are bound to encounter unexpected challenges along the way does not mean you should refrain from reading about the country of deployment and preparing yourself as well as you can. Understanding the mission background and familiarising yourself with the country of your future (temporary) home is indispensable.

Therefore, before you leave, try to get a comprehensive understanding of the environment, history, culture and living conditions of the location to which you are being deployed. 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 or geopolitical influences
- ★ economy, inflation rates, currency, exchange rates
- ★ history of diseases, viruses, potential health concerns
- ★ disputes (e.g. history, developments, past involvement of peacekeepers, mandates).

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)

- ★ websites of think tanks, 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, if available).

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 mission duties and tasks before deployment. Study the employment contract and ToR for your position. If anything is unclear in your contract, ask the entity that is hiring you for clarification. Look into the available documents that form the basis of the mission to which you will be deployed: mandates, UN Security Council resolutions or, in the case of a Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP) mission, look into the concept of operations (CONOPS) or the operation plan (OPLAN). You will receive these documents during your induction session.

B. What should you do before departure?

Once you have fuelled yourself with essential knowledge about the country of deployment as well as your mission's purpose and mandate, it is time to 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 same challenges that you will be tackling while on mission, your family will nonetheless have to cope with various emotional – and sometimes material – hardships while you are away. For instance, spouses often undergo the frustration of being physically separated from their partners, worrying about them constantly, while struggling to manage household responsibilities single-handedly.

Communication can be a crucial factor when preparing your loved ones for the news of your departure. Take the time needed to explain clearly where you are going and why it is important for you to go there. For example, it could be a good opportunity to engage with 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, consider how such rolling news might be perceived by family members. Make sure they remain aware of the risks and drawbacks that accompany around-the-clock media coverage. In order to avoid misunderstandings and misplaced concerns, you should try to maintain regular contact with family members through 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 measures 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, a living will and also a last will and testament. Writing a will might feel strange, but crisis management brings its own set of risks, so 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 (POA) can be general, limited or enduring. A general POA 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 POA contract whereby you specify the powers and issues to be tackled by the chosen person. Finally, an enduring POA becomes valid if you lose your ability to handle your own affairs (e.g. if you are injured or incapacitated). 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 to.

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; it also designates 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 courts.

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

2. Medical arrangements

Immunisation and vaccination

You may have to work in areas where poor public health conditions prevail. Therefore, you should get all the vaccinations required for diseases prevalent in your area of deployment. Ensure your vaccinations are up-to-date and registered in an international certificate of vaccination or prophylaxis (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 to get immunised once the phone rings telling you to be at destination X within 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.

Yellow fever is now known to be prevented throughout life by a single yellow fever vaccination (standard WHO advice). At the time of writing, some countries still require a certificate showing that you have been vaccinated every 10 years. Prior to your departure,

check whether the countries you are travelling to require such documentation and make sure that any yellow fever vaccination is recorded with the date and signature in your international certificate of vaccination or prophylaxis. Other vaccines do not normally have to be certified except under special circumstances.

If you are being deployed to or likely to visit an area where malaria is known to occur, you will need specialist advice before going, including taking anti-malarial tablets. See Chapter 5 for more information on malaria.

Diseases you are well advised to think about ahead of time include:

★ 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 Southeast Asia

★ cholera (a good oral cholera vaccine exists and is perhaps a wise precaution against natural disasters or complex emergencies)

- ★ meningococcal meningitis
- ★ infectious diseases (zika, ebola, etc.).

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

General screenings/checkups

Ensure that you have regular health screenings or 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 (make sure your blood group is documented in a recorded blood test);
- ★ breast examination and PAP (cervical smear) for women;
- ★ dental checkup;
- ★ visual acuity;
- ★ chest X-rays and ECGs (EKGs): although some agencies require them, they are not generally advised except under severe field conditions or when clinically necessary.

Make sure you know what diseases may exist in the region where you are being deployed, such as dengue fever or schistosomiasis (bilharzia) (see Chapter 5).

It is advisable to visit a physician experienced in travel medicine as early as possible before deployment and to take a first aid course to gain knowledge and confidence in case of emergencies.

Insurance

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

3. Professional arrangements

Understanding the job

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) as well as independently try to find out information on:

★ the basic planning documents of the mission/operation, such as the concept of operations (CONOPS), the (military) operation plan (OPLAN), the mission implementation plan (MIP) and any strategic mission reviews;

★ the history of the project and its goals;

★ challenges, lessons and good practices;

★ the location of resources and support structures;

★ key information on personnel, partners and stakeholders;

★ current needs, priorities and issues;

★ manuals, guidelines or other sources dealing with your job.

Make sure you understand and accept your job description, come to terms with your responsibilities and manage your expectations. Due to the complexities of recruitment, you might be given tasks that do not reflect your responsibilities in previous positions. To avoid bad feelings or frustration that may arise from this, make sure you manage your own expectations before accepting a job offer.

Equipment

Each organisation has its own rules about what equipment you may or may not use during deployment. For example, 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.

Check equipment regulations before departure and ensure that you procure what you need.

Preparatory training and 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.

So, even if you have previous experience with, for instance, the UN in Goma, 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 that can be physically attended. If your receiving organisation offers you a mission-specific pre-deployment training course, it is essential that you attend it.

Most organisations require their mission personnel to have recently attended a first aid course or hold a valid certificate. Make sure you are still familiar with the content and that any certificate you hold is not more than one or two years old.

For many missions, hostile environment awareness training (HEAT) or at least an electronic high risk environment security training is a precondition for deployment. Since IT support and internet connectivity might be unreliable in the area of deployment, you should complete compulsory web-based courses before your departure.

Furthermore, most mission roles require you to hold a driving licence. In some cases you may need to be able to drive armoured vehicles. Inform yourself in advance about such requirements and plan ahead for preparation and training.
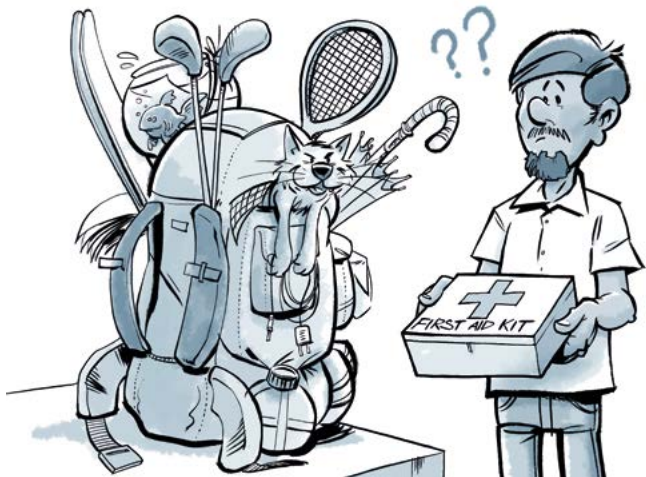
C. What should you pack before departure?

Clothing and equipment requirements for a mission vary according to the location, climate, culture, season and the state of the local economy. You should expect 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 (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, country offices, main contact person's 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
- ★ an updated map of where you are going.

It is advisable to store important information in more than one location – for example, 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. However, be aware of hand-luggage regulations and also keep in mind that in some places the use of a camera can be restricted or forbidden.

- ★ holdall or rucksack
- ★ clothing appropriate for the location, elevation, time of year and expected duration of the mission
- ★ culturally appropriate clothing, including long-sleeved garments and headscarves if local cus-

toms require them (remember that short sleeves and shorts may not be culturally acceptable in some countries)

★ elegant clothing for official meetings

★ water-resistant, sturdy walking shoes or boots

★ rain gear

★ sleeping bag with liner

★ extra pair of glasses and sunglasses

★ identification kit (i.e. vest and ID)

★ towel

★ dry wash in case there is a potential for water shortage

★ ear plugs

★ torch with spare bulb and batteries

★ pocket knife/multi-tool (not in hand luggage)

★ sewing kit (not in hand luggage)

★ washing powder

★ plastic bags

★ candles

★ universal adapters for electronic equipment

★ water bottle with purification filter and/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 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. For some quantities and types of medication, it is useful to carry a written declaration from a doctor that confirms they are required for personal usage. 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 or insect bites

★ antiseptic cream for cuts and abrasions.

Other supplies:

★ if you have a history of severe allergies (ana-phylaxis), take with you two epinephrine (adren-alin) 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 dos-ages 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.
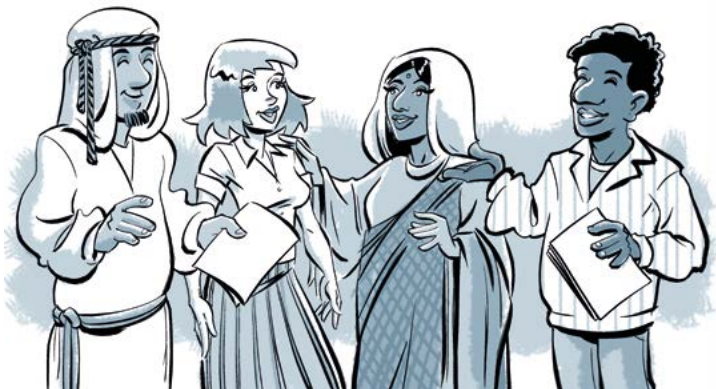
Chapter 4
How to cope with everyday reality in the field

Working in a crisis management mission can be one of the most rewarding professional and personal learning experiences of your life.

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 every action of yours in the field and form the basis of 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. Most importantly, however, being involved in civilian crisis management is a commitment to local capacity building.

Although you were recruited to work in a specific mission because of your professional experience and skills, and you might be called an 'expert', it will benefit you to display a willingness to listen and learn. This applies to your relationships with both national and international colleagues and partners.

There are some basic differences between your regular work at home and working in a mission. You will find yourself in a foreign environment exhibiting a vivid blend of social and cultural differences, working with colleagues from different countries as well as from the host nation. Crisis management missions often engage in rebuilding and reforming dysfunctional pub-

lic institutions in a host country. This is a highly sensitive political process, because it might affect the powers and privileges that certain social groups or sectors of the host country enjoy and are keen to maintain. You may therefore feel welcome among some national counterparts, but not among others.

You will probably face challenges inherent to a post-conflict setting, such as a fragile security situation, partially or completely dysfunctional public institutions (including the security forces), an inadequate legal framework, a population that might be traumatised by political violence and massive human rights violations, impunity of violent political actors, a rapidly changing environment and heightened public and 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 (SOPs) 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;

★ 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, safety and security issues, 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 the code of conduct and ethical principles

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 and ethical principles, such as independence, impartiality, objectivity and loyalty.

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 are 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, 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 analysed 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 UN General Assembly created the United Nations Ombudsman and Mediation Services (UNOMS) with responsibilities for UN staff and peacekeeping

missions, including ombudsmen attached to peace-keeping missions in Entebbe and Kinshasa.

The ombudsman may find maladministration if an institution fails to respect fundamental rights, legal rules or principles, or the principles of good administration. This covers, for example, administrative irregularities, unfairness, discrimination, abuse of power, failure to reply, refusal of information and unnecessary delay.

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

Examples of complaint mechanisms in different organisations include:

★ European Ombudsman
  (www.ombudsman.europa.eu)

★ UN Office of Internal Oversight Services
  (www.un.org/Depts/oios)

★ OSCE Office of Internal Oversight
  (www.osce.org/oio)

B. Cultural sensitivity and diversity

1. Respecting your host culture

The environment of a crisis management mission brings together people from various professional fields who may not be used to working together, such as military officers and enlisted personnel from different services, NGOs of varying scope and size, international civil servants and 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.

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

For example, you might find yourself having to deal with people and cultures whose basic speech patterns greatly differ from your own. In non-Western cultures, for instance, the use of indirect speech patterns

when communicating with colleagues is prevalent. Some cultures are 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 embrace 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, remember that crisis management missions are aimed at empowering people and should always draw on local capacity and culture instead of imposing 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 the 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 help avoid misunderstandings and embarrassment. Equally, you must be aware of your own cultural background and its historical context. This is crucial because your nationality and country of origin may have a historical footprint of colonialism and occupation.

Cultural sensitivity is not only about learning another culture's customs and history, it is also about learning and acquiring a deeper understanding of your own.

2. Trusting behaviours

As outlined by Stephen Covey in The Speed of Trust, the following actions can be useful for creating a trusting atmosphere:

★ Tell the truth. Be honest. Exercise integrity. Let people know where you stand. Use simple language. Do not manipulate or spin the truth. Do not leave false impressions.

★ Demonstrate respect. Note the importance of the little things. Genuinely care. Treat people with dignity. Take time. Listen.

★ Create transparency.

★ Right wrongs. Correct mistakes. Apologize quickly. Demonstrate humility.

★ Deliver results. Establish a track record of getting the right things done. Make things happen. Do not over-promise and under-deliver. Do not make excuses for not delivering.

★ Constantly improve. Be a learner. Develop feedback mechanisms. Act on feedback and appreciate it.

★ Clarify expectations. Disclose expectations. Discuss them and validate them. Be realistic. Do not create expectations that you will not be able to meet. Do not assume that expectations are shared or clear.

★ Listen before you speak. Understand. Listen with your ears, eyes and heart. Do not presume that you have all the answers or that you know what is best for others. Ask them. Demonstrate understanding and compassion.

C. Managing communication and media relations

1. Personal communication

The mission you work in might have a policy on the personal use of blogs, Facebook, Twitter and other media in connection with mission activities. No mission member should make statements on social media or to the media on behalf of the mission unless they have received 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 remains in the public domain – forever. You are not able to control what people do with that information and whether third parties can access it. 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 they became public.

★ Never post anything on social media in relation to an ongoing or future security incident. By doing so, you could endanger yourself or colleagues, or you might hamper ongoing investigations.

2. Internal communication

Internal communication within a mission includes information gathering, dissemination and interactivity. Possible internal communication tools include the 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. Consider providing information through internal communication even before you go public. Amongst other benefits, this has a trust building effect on all mission staff. Mission personnel should be aware of the current programmes being performed by the mission and of political, social and other factors in the host country that may affect the mission's endeavours. All mission staff are ambassadors of the mission and important multipliers of information.

Keep in mind that with all these tools and with a large number of staff within the mission there is a strong 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

Missions have both an obligation and a key self interest in communicating frequently and transparently about their work. Communication and media relations should therefore be regarded as an opportunity, rather than a challenge. The key is to coordinate effectively with the members of your press and communication team. Everyone must know what their tasks are. A simple procedure for crisis communication should be established in advance. Transparency – as much as possible under safety and security considerations – builds trust and is an important foundation for public acceptance of the mission.

Managing relationships with the media and answering their queries requires trained staff. Whenever possible, refer requests for comments or information to the assigned staff or designated spokesperson in your mission.

Never say "no comment", speculate, or lie. Give the basic information you have, offer to provide more details as soon as you have them and remember to do so. Focus on communicating facts, never speculate and avoid the communication vacuum that lets rumours take the lead. Clarify facts as best 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 message. There are no 'off-the-record' comments. Assume that everything you share will be used in one way or the other.

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 you the information you need and the methods to counter negative coverage or encourage positive coverage of the mission's 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 must respond quickly to reports by wire services, because wire services provide news for other media outlets and have an immediate and multiplying effect.

★ Accuracy: the mission must be 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: do we really need to respond? If we do, who should we be in touch with? How should we make contact (e.g. phone, email, meeting)? Should it be formal or informal? How strong should our language be?

D. Dress codes and uniforms

1. Dress codes

Dress codes exist to help you ensure a level of decency and decorum and to present your image in a respectful 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, the cultural and religious context, and whether you are a man or a woman. Depending on the cultural and religious context, women are required to pay specific attention to modest and appropriate

clothing, not only to show respect for local customs and culture, but also to avoid harassment.

Even if you do not agree with certain dress codes, always remember that you are a guest and you express respect or disrespect for your national partners and hosts through the way you dress.

This also applies to remote field locations. If you meet local authorities or security forces, make sure you visit them wearing discreet and formal clothing.

If you have trouble deciding what clothes to wear, there are some general guidelines that you should follow:

★ Dress down, not up. This does not mean that you have to fake a scruffy and dirty look. But you also do not want to wear flashy sunglasses, Gucci scarves and cashmere sweaters among locals who might be struggling to make ends meet. Parading your wealth around will not make you more popular, 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. It will be more appreciated there.

2. Recognising different uniforms

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

★ 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 their light blue berets, helmets and 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 (e.g. 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 peace-keeping missions, this might not always be the case. Keep in mind that they might sometimes choose to replace their green berets with 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.

A list of military rank insignia used by European states can be found in the Annex.

E. 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, if time allows, will not hurt. On the contrary, it will be seen as an expression 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, for example:

★ 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 people 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. Interpreters should be trained public speakers who are able to understand meaning and 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 quite

challenging, considering that locals could have been 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 the following modes:

★ Consecutive interpretation: this 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 is more challenging than consecutive interpretation. 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 simultaneously actively listening to and comprehending the next sentence.

★ Whispered interpretation: here the interpreter whispers their translation to a person or small group.

Where possible, prepare meetings with your interpreter and discuss the purpose and expected outcome of the meeting. Gather information on the stakeholder or partner you are going to meet.

Make sure you are using terminology that can be easily understood and translated by your interpreter. If you have to use specialised terminology, check with your interpreter how they will explain this in the local language, especially if there is no direct translation for certain expressions or words.

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 run the risk of being debriefed, questioned or even arrested 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.

If possible, use international interpreters for meetings which might compromise the national interpreter's security. Do not, under any circumstances, allow national stakeholders to take photographs of your local staff or interpreter, especially if the meeting is about conflict-related issues.

F. 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 their impact on the environment. Although you might be working and living in conflict areas or countries where disposal and recycling systems are not common, you should be aware of the mission policy on longer environmental impact.

The basic principles of environmental awareness by which you are expected to abide are as follows:

★ Reduce waste and dispose of waste safely.

★ Reduce emissions and pollution.

★ Use resources sparingly (e.g. electricity, water, raw materials). Use renewable energy where possible.

★ Raise awareness!

1. Reduce waste

In peacekeeping missions, different types of waste will be generated which require proper disposal. While even the disposal of 'normal' waste can be difficult in certain areas of the world, waste which is hazardous to public health and the environment requires special attention. The improper disposal of waste, especially hazardous waste, may lead to pollution and contamination of the environment. Dangerous goods may be diverted to the 'black' market for resale or misuse. Direct exposure to hazardous waste may also lead to acute health risks for staff and those that come into contact with it after disposal.

For this reason, adequate control measures should be put in place to minimise these hazards. Employers must take responsibility to protect not only their own employees, but also the environment from hazards. Employees, on the other hand, also have the responsibility to control and report potentially biohazardous situations and to adhere to safe procedures. All staff should follow minimum waste disposal standards, such as those provided by the Sphere Project. In addition, strategies for waste disposal and protection of staff and environment should always be planned and implemented in adherence with local and national legislation, as well as in cooperation with the authorities.

Colour-coding:

★ **Yellow**: laboratory waste, including blood;

★ **Red**: oil, car batteries, medical waste (e.g. human tissue, contaminated material, bandages, tubing, drains, Porto-Vac, catheters, vaculiters, latex gloves);

★ **Black**: normal household waste.

The three Rs of waste minimisation

Office procurement and waste minimisation should embrace the three Rs: Reduce, Reuse, Recycle! Although recycling measures require an off-site recycling system (which may not be in place in some countries), below is advice for putting the three Rs into practice:

Reduce

★ avoid printing unless necessary and always print double-sided documents;

★ implement a paper-free electronic database for information storage and communication within your office.

Reuse

★ reuse single-sided paper for draft copies or notepaper;

★ reuse folders, file clips and covers;

★ encourage staff to use reusable cups, crockery and cutlery for lunch and 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 landfills.

2. Reduce emissions

Most organisations encourage staff to reduce their environmental footprint in different ways, for example by avoiding unnecessary travel in missions by conducting meetings through video-conferences or the internet. Under certain circumstances, solar panels can be deployed as a power source in remote bases. Other ideas to reduce emissions include:

★ Travel: reduce travelling and support more efficient travel through a proper travel policy (e.g. use environmentally friendly cars/trucks, trains and eco-driving techniques);

★ Buildings: take active and passive measures to reduce consumption (e.g. through use of natural lighting, improving the efficiency of

whatever functions energy is used for);

★ Processes: procurement (e.g. green procurement programme), administration, budgeting and meetings;

★ Organisational culture: create green policies, environmental management systems, formal checkpoints and innovative incentives (e.g. green awards).

3. Use resources sparingly

To reduce energy consumption, take the following into consideration with regard to office supplies and equipment:

Lighting

★ Use natural light wherever possible.

★ Replace traditional incandescent bulbs with fluorescent bulbs to reduce running costs by up to 75 % and energy consumption by 20-30 %. 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. Put up eye-catching energy-saving reminder signs and stickers.

Information technology

★ Switch all equipment off when not in use (e.g. at night) and set 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, as screensavers often waste energy rather than save it.

★ Minimise the number of photocopiers and printers in the office. Turn off photocopiers 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.

Air conditioning

Climate control accounts for about 40 % 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.

Some tips:

★ Use natural ventilation and fans where possible.

★ Set air-conditioner systems to a minimum of 24° Celsius.

★ If air-conditioning is used, close all windows and doors to reduce the escape of cool air.

★ If the air-conditioner machine has adjustable louvres, 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 office hours.

Green purchasing

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

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

Water

★ When 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 fully.

★ Make use of low-flow showerheads and taps (less than 10 litres per minute). A tap aerator 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 toilets.

★ Collect rainwater and store it in tanks (to prevent mosquitoes breeding there, put mosquito

nets over the top). It can be used for showers and washing hands and dishes.

Committed management

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 (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 and offices, and avoiding excessive use of personal transport. However, it takes a little more understanding and commitment from management to avoid purchasing unsustainable products that are at risk of becoming obsolete or supporting unscrupulous companies that employ techniques that adversely affect the environment

4. Take action, raise awareness!

★ Raise awareness on environmental issues through regular meetings for all staff and through emails reminding them of particular environmentally benign measures to be adopted, etc.

★ Regularly provide comprehensive information on the ecological footprint of the mission in order to raise awareness of the impact of your modes of practice.

★ Elaborate guidelines (e.g. on the use of water, electricity, paper, production of waste) which support the environmentally sustainable performance of staff. Monitor and report on the results of implementation and publicise those achievements. Adopt these green guidelines during meetings and conferences as well.

★ Initiate awareness raising and environmentally responsible activities through a green procurement programme.

★ Initiate a climate action plan by getting into contact with an elected representative at the local, state or federal level. Climate change is no longer seen only as an environmental problem – its effects on health, food production, economic development, infrastructure, and even peace and security are now commonly recognised.

Chapter 5
Dealing with health, safety and security challenges

When working in a crisis situation, it is necessary to adapt to an environment that can be very different from what you are used to at home. Telephone networks may operate inefficiently (if and when they do work), transportation infrastructure may be rudimentary and the working culture, team structure and security situation may be different as well. For these reasons, it is vital to develop and maintain a flexible attitude, coupled with basic survival skills, in order to stay healthy, safe and sane while on mission.

An individual's attitude and degree of preparedness can greatly influence team safety, as well as the effectiveness, image and reputation of an entire mission in a host community. Hence, every civilian expert on mission should take personal responsibility for learning certain basic skills in order to cope successfully 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 in unfamiliar and stressful situations.

A. Staying healthy

This section highlights some simple precautions to minimise the chances of you falling ill. Some suggestions may seem obvious. Unfortunately, many civilian experts on mission do not take necessary precautions, often because they are deployed at short notice or adopt an overly tough attitude and assume they are immune to microbes and mosquitoes.

Keeping these guidelines in mind throughout your deployment may help save your life.

1. General health advice

General behaviour

Organise a health check before starting your mission, if it is not done by your employer. Some diseases (e.g. psychiatric diseases, alcoholism, heart failure, strokes, cancer under treatment, epileptic diseases) will exclude you from missions in crisis areas, but this is absolutely necessary for your safety and for the team's security!

The health check must include checking your immunisation status. There are vaccinations available against

many life-threatening diseases (e.g. yellow fever, hepatitis B, encephalitis, rabies). Follow the recommendations of the institutes for tropical medicine. See Chapter 3 for more details on pre-deployment vaccinations and health screenings.

If you suffer from a chronic disease, make sure that you are in a stable condition before you depart. Be sure that you have access to sufficient medication. You may need a special certificate to clear your medication through customs.

In case of sickness, stop work and visit a medical specialist as soon as possible. If you spread disease through the mission, it is not only a risk for you, but also for your mission colleagues.

Check your first aid kit regularly and make sure you know how to use the equipment. Ask for additional medication and advice if there is no medical treatment available for a certain period of time (e.g. during duty trips).

You can avoid most diseases by following some simple rules. Contaminated water and food, along with disease vectors (e.g. mosquitoes, sandflies), are the most common ways in which life-threatening infectious diseases are transmitted.

Do not expect only tropical diseases. 'Normal' illnesses, such as heart attacks or strokes can also happen during your mission. If you feel symptoms like chest pain, shortness of breath, or paresthesia (tingling sensation) contact your mission's medical service or the emergency services immediately.

Establish the key health risks in your area of deployment and the most reliable health facilities, preferably well before you arrive in the mission area.

Avoid excessive alcohol and all other substance abuse.

Food safety

If you abide by the following rules before eating, you could eliminate the main reasons why crisis managers fall ill. 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.

★ Egg yolks should be firm and not runny.

★ 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.

★ Some table sauces in restaurants are diluted with unsafe water.

Water safety

Your body weight is more than 50 % water. Without water, you couldn't maintain a normal body temperature or get rid of waste through urination, sweat and bowel movements.

Not getting enough water can lead to dehydration, which can cause muscle weakness and cramping, a lack of coordination, and an increased risk of heat exhaustion and heat stroke. In general, a person cannot last for more than three days without water. Your body needs enough water to replace what you

lose daily through urination, sweating and even exhaling. The Institute of Medicine has determined that an adequate intake for men is roughly 13 cups (three litres) of beverages a day, while women should drink about 9 cups (2.2 litres) per day. However, in warm or hot weather, after vigorous exercise or during illness (e.g. fever, vomiting or diarrhoea) additional water is needed, sometimes considerably more.

Apart from drinking enough water, you need to ensure you take in enough electrolytes, such as sodium (salt), potassium and sugar. When sweating, due to illness, heat or exertion, it is important to use oral rehydration salts, sometimes several times a day, to restore energy.

Contaminated water is one of the main reasons people fall ill during their stay in foreign countries. Risks of diseases caused by unclean water can be minimised if you follow some simple rules:

★ When the safety of drinking water is doubtful, filter the water, boil it for a full minute (ideally for three minutes if over 2,000 metres), or use reliable disinfectant tablets/liquid/UV light water purifiers.

★ Cleaning water filters is not always safe. Only

use good quality filters and follow the instructions carefully.

★ Avoid ice cubes in your drinks.

★ Beverages such as hot tea or coffee, wine, beer, carbonated soft drinks or fruit juices that are either bottled or packaged are usually safe to drink. Check that the lid of the bottle is properly sealed before purchasing.

★ Unpasteurised milk should be boiled before consumption. Buy and use bottled water 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 certain situations it may not be possible to maintain the standard of hygiene you are used to at home. However, the following points are important for the prevention of infection and contribute to your general health and well-being.

Care of the body:

★ Try to wash your body with a warm bath or shower whenever possible. It is essential for

personal health and hygiene, as is the wearing of clean underwear.

★ Be sure to visit a physician regularly. Schedule an appointment with your home physician when you are back on leave.

★ If living in shared housing or accommodation, use flip-flops to take a shower (one pair to walk to the shower, another pair in the shower).

★ Wash your clothes regularly, especially underwear.

★ Be aware that some hygiene products, such as tampons, may not be available in the country of deployment.

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.

★ Cut nails regularly.

★ No person who has sores, cuts or broken skin on their hands should handle food. Disease-causing micro-organisms can be transferred in this manner.

Procedures for the washing of hands:

★ Use soap.

★ Moisten hands, wrists and forearms, apply soap to the palm of one hand and rub over the hands, wrists, forearms and between fingers. This needs to be done with care and thoroughness, and not in a hurry.

★ Rinse hands thoroughly under clean and, if possible, hot running water.

★ Dry hands and arms with a disposable paper towel, start with the hands and end at the elbows.

Alcohol gel, hand sanitiser or antibacterial dry wash are effective at killing germs and worth using frequently. If hands are visibly dirty, then using soap and water is preferable. Dry your hands before using disinfectants; if you do not, it will damage the skin.

Large numbers of germs are transferred when shaking hands and through touch. Respiratory infections as well as diarrhoea are caused by touching the face and mouth with dirty hands. Regular use of alcohol gel will reduce your risk of these common and annoying conditions. During ongoing epidemics, e.g. influenza, use antiviral hand disinfectant regularly.

Dental care:

★ Keep your teeth clean, healthy and brushed at least twice a day.

★ Try to schedule regular dentist appointments when you are on leave back home.

Foot care:

★ Wear clean, comfortable, closed shoes with closed heels, 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.

★ Hair should be worn away from the face and not hang over the collar of protective 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 are given attention and the source of water consumed is safe. Many diarrhoea attacks are caused by viruses, bacteria or unusual food (e.g. camel milk); these are self-limiting and clear up in a few days. It is important to avoid becoming dehydrated. As soon as diarrhoea sets in, drink more fluids, such as bottled, boiled or treated water or weak tea. Eat slowly and sensibly if you can and avoid dairy products as they can aggravate diarrhoea.

The body loses water, salts (especially sodium and potassium), water-soluble vitamins and other important trace minerals through diarrhoea. In order to replenish some of these losses, it is recommended that you consume at least three litres of fluid within the first three hours and continuously drink fluids thereafter, especially oral rehydration solution (ORS) in the correct dilution. If there is no ORS available you can create your own solution with six level teaspoons of sugar and half a level teaspoon of salt added to one litre of clean water (WHO recommendation).

Evidence and experience show that loperamide such as Imodium or antibiotics such as ciprofloxacin and azithromycin can reduce the frequency and severity of diarrhoea in about seven out of 10 cases and can be taken as part of the medical kit. They can be especially helpful when work, travel or important engagements may otherwise be disrupted.

You should seek medical help if there is any blood in your stools or accompanying fever and vomiting. Diarrhoea that lasts for more than three days requires medical attention.

Use your own toilet in case of diarrhoea or, if this is not possible, clean the toilet and washbasin properly and use disinfectant after each visit to the toilet.

Fever

A high body temperature (i.e. 38.5 °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 see a doctor if a fever persists or is worsening. It helps to be aware of some important causes of fever, outlined below.

★ Meningitis: severe headache, stiff neck, often a rash that does not fade when you touch it.

★ Acute bilharzia or katayama fever: often accompanied by wheezing and itching 20 or more days after swimming in an area where bilharzia is common, such as Lake Victoria or Lake Malawi.

★ Urinary tract infection: aching in the loins, often with nausea, shivering and 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, also known as sepsis or septicaemia: alternate shivering and sweating, often in the presence of an infected bite or other skin

infection like a boil or cellulitis (warm infected feet or legs).

★ Heat stroke also causes 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 for the skin (concentration of 50 % DEET is now recommended).

★ Wear long sleeved, repellent-treated clothes and cover the feet with strong shoes. Close the gap between shoes and trousers.

★ Keep skin covered as much as possible, from before dusk till dawn. Keep in mind that some mosquitoes also bite during the day.

★ Sleep under an insecticide-treated mosquito net.

★ Take a standby treatment kit.

★ If dengue fever, chikungunya or Zika are likely to be present, also protect yourself from day-biting mosquitoes. The Aedes mosquito causing these three illnesses bites during the day, especially early morning and late afternoon.

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 drugs 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, get tested 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.

The use of rapid diagnostic tests has greatly improved the ease and speed of testing for malaria, but a high quality malaria blood smear is still recommended. Falciparum malaria, which may cause cerebral

malaria, can be life threatening and it is common in most of the malarial regions in tropical countries. So if you are in any doubt, treat yourself and visit a medical facility as soon as possible. Further examination is an urgent priority!

Malaria still kills more people than wars do in some parts of the world.

4. Treating infections, parasites and bites

Infections, parasites and bites can turn nasty, so proper treatment is important. This section will offer you advice on 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 impossible to reach a doctor and get medical advice.

Dengue fever

This is a mosquito-borne illness that can cause severe illness very rapidly. 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 joint pain, and feeling seriously ill. If you experience these symptoms, see a doctor, get a blood

test, 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. Do not go back to work until your energy is restored!

Since the symptoms are congruent with those of malaria, it is wise also to get a malaria test when you go for a dengue test. But beware: it is possible to have a false negative on a malaria test if the parasite count in your blood is still low. In case of doubt, get re-tested for malaria the day after. Remember that while dengue fever will subside with rest and time, malaria will not disappear without medication and can get very serious if left untreated. It is therefore worth your while to get an extra test done to make sure you are not missing a malaria diagnosis hidden behind the dengue.

Dengue is continuing to spread worldwide and its risk is becoming as great as or even greater than malaria in many areas such as South East Asia and South America. There is also a haemorrhagic form of dengue and it seems likely that some people develop a more serious infection on subsequent attacks.

Zika virus

The Zika virus is a mosquito-borne illness whose symptoms include fever, erythema (rash or redness of skin), conjunctivitis, headache and muscle pain. However, symptoms are often mild and many people are infected without realising it. Sexual transmission has been confirmed in a number of cases. The Zika virus can be passed from a pregnant woman to her foetus and infection during pregnancy can cause a serious birth defect of the brain called microcephaly and other severe brain defects, with lifelong effects on the physical and mental health of the child. Cases of Guillain-Barre syndrome (paralysis of muscles, including life-threatening paralysis of respiratory muscles) can also be caused, but much less frequently.

The Zika virus is spreading rapidly and is likely to occur in most countries where Aedes mosquitoes are found. At the time of writing, however, widespread occurrence beyond tropical areas of America has only occurred to a small degree. Men returning from affected areas should avoid unprotected sex with female partners of child-bearing potential for 28 days – and for six months if they have a probable or confirmed infection. Women who are pregnant or who may become pregnant should avoid areas where the infection is occurring. No vaccination or special

treatment is currently available. This means that avoiding mosquitoes is essential. You should also avoid any areas of standing water, however small (e.g. inside old car tyres), as this is where mosquitoes breed. Make sure your mission cleans up and dries out any such areas.

Information on Zika is changing continually so consult the latest advice.

Viral haemorrhagic fevers

The Ebola outbreak in West Africa, which began in 2013, was explosive and dangerous. However, at the time of writing new cases were occurring with decreasing frequency. Methods of minimising its spread, including the emergence of vaccines, are likely to decrease Ebola's risk and reach.

Other viral haemorrhagic fevers such as Lassa fever and Marburg virus disease occur from time to time. There are often cases of Lassa in rural areas of West Africa. Most viral haemorrhagic fevers are spread by close contact with infectious cases, while some are spread by mosquitoes or ticks. If you are deployed in areas where known outbreaks are occurring, get specialist advice. Symptoms usually start with fever, headaches, muscle pain and conjunctival suffusion (redness of the eye). Lassa may be partially treated

by a slow intravenous infusion of ribavirin. Further information on the specific dangers, causes and best methods of prevention are best checked at the time of any outbreak.

In some cultures, especially in West Africa, there is a custom of touching the dead during pre-burial preparations (for example when washing the body) or as part of the funerary rituals. Be aware that dead bodies may still contain active viruses. HIV, for example, may survive in a dead human body for as long as a week; Ebola may also still be contagious after the death of the host. Therefore, be careful when attending funerals and if you must touch dead bodies, make sure you wear protection (e.g. gloves, mask) and disinfect yourself as soon as possible afterwards, including your clothes.

Pneumonia and respiratory infection

Pneumonia and respiratory infection are especially common at times of stress, tiredness and overcrowding, for example during or after a prolonged or stressful mission, when your immunity is lowered. Symptoms include coughing, shortness of breath, fever, pain when breathing deeply and blood sputum in severe cases. If you experience these symptoms, seek medical advice as soon as possible. Timely treatment with effective antibiotics usually shortens these illnesses.

Remember that pneumonia's symptoms can mimic those of malaria.

If you are deployed to a country where any severe episodes of flu or flu-like illness are known to be occurring in the area or in a worldwide outbreak, follow official guidelines carefully. If you take a shower somewhere hot and the water is stagnant in the pipe, be careful not to inhale the water. It could cause life-threatening legionella pneumonia, whose symptoms can include high fever, cough and weakness. Mission members should take their own supply of antibiotics for use in emergencies, such as acute respiratory infections.

Skin and wound infections

Skin diseases are mostly related to poor hygiene, infected bites or eczema, or a variety of less common parasitic and other infections. Parasites can cause severe skin infection (e.g. scabies). If there is no medical service available, take a photo and send it to the responsible medical facility, describe the symptoms and ask for advice.

A common skin complaint is sunburn. Avoid direct contact with the sun, especially between 10am and 3pm. Use sun lotion with a high sun protection factor – at least 30. If the skin is red, you can use some

cooling cream such as calamine lotion. If there are blisters, you should contact a doctor or pharmacy.

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 develop extremely rapidly. Start a high-dose antibiotic at once, under medical supervision. Do not shower without flip-flops, as warm, damp environments such as showers may be breeding grounds for fungi.

Bites from dogs and other animals

Clean any bites scrupulously with soap and water. Get them looked at by a doctor or other trusted health worker. Bites often become infected and you should start a course of antibiotics even if no infection is obvious. Usually, bites will not get closed surgically because of the risk of infection. You should make regular visits to a medical facility, depending on the depth of the bite. Make sure you have been immunised against tetanus (a primary course of three injections with a booster every 10 years). If you have not been immunised, get a tetanus shot without delay.

Bites from snakes, scorpions, spiders or other animals should be reported immediately to a doctor or medical facility. Take a photo or try to describe the animal, as you may need treatment. Do not waste time!

Rabies is a vaccine-preventable viral disease which occurs in more than 150 countries. Dogs are the source of up to 99 % of all rabies transmissions to humans. Infection causes tens of thousands of deaths every year, mostly in Asia and Africa. Cleansing the wound immediately with soap and water can be life-saving.

Unless you are in a region known to be free of rabies, it is essential that you report to a competent health facility at once if you are bitten. Even if you have been fully immunised against rabies prior to deployment, you will still need two further vaccines. If you have not been immunised, you will need five post-exposure vaccines and probably also human rabies immunoglobulin, which can be hard to get a hold of, even in developed countries. Everyone deployed to a country where rabies is endemic should be immunised prior to their mission.

However, remember that rabies vaccination only buys you time – you must still get shots after being bitten, and you must get them rapidly. If you know there are rabies-infected animals in your surroundings (symptoms in dogs include disorientation, staggering,

seizures, foaming at the mouth), ensure that you know where to get vaccinated for rabies.

Sexually transmitted infections (STIs)

These are very common among mission personnel and humanitarian workers for reasons that are usually obvious. The key rules are never to have unprotected sex (i.e. use condoms) and to avoid sex when alcohol has significantly blurred your decision-making. Also report any signs such as abnormal discharge, sores or genital warts. If in doubt whether you may have become infected, get checked out at the end of your mission as some STIs may cause no symptoms, but can cause infertility and other problems. Include an HIV test.

At the end of your mission

Unless your deployment has been short or to a low-risk destination, it is considered crucial to have a post-mission medical checkup. If you have any unusual or persistent symptoms, including unexplained tiredness or weight loss, have these immediately checked out by a doctor.

Symptoms can start weeks, months and occasionally years after finishing a mission (e.g. parasites, malaria). One of the commonest is bilharzia, frequently caught from swimming in lakes and rivers in sub-Saharan Africa and from showering or bathing in water that has not been treated or has been allowed to stand for at least 48 hours. A blood test is accurate and the treatment is simple (praziquantel tablets) but many doctors unfamiliar with tropical diseases will not know about this. Inform your doctor that you travelled and worked abroad and consider visiting a specialist for tropical medicine if strange symptoms occur. The field of tropical diseases is very broad, not widely practised in Europe and needs specialist diagnosis and treatment.

5. Dealing with climatic extremes

As 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 2,000-3,000 metres. When climbing or travelling to heights above this, try to take a few days to get acclimatised. Above 3,000 metres, 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 a pounding headache or feel drowsy, return 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 hypothermia 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 stroke or sun stroke. 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 non-alcoholic beverages if you are able to, get sponged down, fanned or have cold water poured on your body to evaporate the heat. Get medical help, as this can be an emergency.

Useful websites include:

★ www.who.int
★ www.interhealth.org.uk
★ www.safetravel.ch

6. Environmental risks and challenges

Environmental risks need to be well considered in order to avoid secondary hazards, exposure to hazardous materials and to ensure sustainable early recovery strategies. Three major fields of action need to be considered:

Secondary risks and hazards

Secondary hazards are the potential damage that, for example, infrastructure such as industrial facilities or tailing dams could have on the environment. By identifying and assessing these risks, further harm can be avoided or mitigated. The Flash Environmental Assessment Tool (FEAT), developed by the United Nations to identify acute environmental risks immediately following disasters, is a useful tool not only to assess risks but also to inform early environmental recovery strategies.

Hazardous materials

FEAT classifies hazardous compounds as gases, liquids or solids. These are linked to typical pathways of exposure (e.g. air, bodies of water, soil) and to typical impact types (e.g. human mortality, effects on life support systems including drinking water, fisheries and

agriculture). In crisis situations or emergencies you may be exposed to hazardous materials (hazmat). Trained hazmat experts should handle such situations; however, if you find yourself faced with a potential hazmat incident, take the following actions:

★ Stay away from fumes, smoke and vapour. Remain upwind, even if there is no smell.

★ Be aware of changing weather conditions and wind directions. Note the wind speed, direction, type of precipitation, temperature and cloud cover.

★ Do not operate radios, mobile phones or other electronic devices within 500 metres of the hazard.

★ Leave the area immediately.

★ Notify local emergency officials or community leaders of the situation, so that they may cordon off the scene.

When exposed to hazmat, consider the following, weather-related effects:

★ On a warm day, chemical substances will tend to evaporate quicker than in cold temperatures.

★ High winds will disperse gases, vapours and powders.

★ Precipitation may be problematic if a weather-reactive substance is released. However, precipitation may be a benefit as it can slow down the dispersion of airborne materials and reduce the area of impact.

In any event, inform local and/or international authorities to get access to experts, further information and advice.

Environmental considerations in peace operations

The mission itself should be as environmentally friendly as possible to minimise negative impacts. Further information and advice can be found in Chapter 4.

7. Mental health and stress management

Working in crisis management environments can expose you to stressful situations and conditions. You may realise that a situation your colleague judges to be extremely stressful is one that you can handle easily. It is only natural that different people react differently to stress triggers and that coping strategies vary from one person to another.

Experiencing stress during crisis management 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, prove detrimental to your functioning and affect the work of your entire team. Early prevention can stop the stress reaction from escalating into a real problem in the future.

This section will focus on three types of stress, namely cumulative stress, acute stress and vicarious trauma. It will provide you with tips on how to deal with them and how to take advantage of the resources at hand to speed up your healing process. Furthermore, you will find a section on post-deployment stress in Chapter 7.

Cumulative stress

Cumulative stress is stress that builds up over time and, if 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?

Everyone has different reasons for feeling stressed. Some can cope with stress better than others by consciously controlling their state of mind. The following are possible causes of cumulative stress:

★ problems with basic needs, e.g. housing discomforts, lack of privacy, food (lack of variety, poor quality, etc.), 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 or tragedy;

★ inability to make a difference, lack of progress, apathy among responders or survivors;

★ noisy or chaotic environment;

★ malfunctioning equipment;

★ no rest or relaxation periods;

★ unclear or constantly shifting tasks, unrealistic expectations (imposed by yourself or others);

★ media attention and coverage of security incidents close to your location;

★ non-recognition of work or hostility towards your efforts;

★ pressure to achieve;

★ unsupportive or difficult colleagues or superiors;

★ anxiety about the mission, your accomplishments, responsibilities or skills;

★ lack of resources or limited control of the situation;

★ cultural and linguistic differences;

★ permanent availability and constant demands from the HQ.

How to recognise cumulative stress

It is important to recognise indicators of cumulative stress. It may be helpful for individual team members to share information 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, verbal aggression or being overly critical;
- ★ inappropriate, purposeless or even destructive behaviour;
- ★ anger;
- ★ sleep disorders;
- ★ susceptibility to viruses or psychosomatic complaints;
- ★ hyper-emotions, e.g. grief, elation, wide mood swings;
- ★ physical tension, headaches;
- ★ increased substance abuse;
- ★ eating problems, e.g. lack of appetite, eating too much;
- ★ lack of energy, interest or enthusiasm;
- ★ withdrawal, depression or loss of sense of humour;
- ★ inability to perform;
- ★ questioning basic beliefs and values, or cynicism.

How to minimise cumulative stress

Experience has shown that pre-deployment training in building up resilience to stress, greater awareness of early-onset indicators and prompt action to establish coping mechanisms all have a positive effect on reducing cumulative stress and avoiding burnout. It is natural to experience cumulative stress during a crisis management operation, but it is a condition that can be identified and managed. Some of the actions below can help to reduce cumulative stress:

★ know your limitations, manage your expectations, accept the situation;

★ get sufficient rest, relaxation, sleep and exercise;

★ eat regularly, drink enough water;

★ change tasks and roles;

★ identify and act on the source of stress;

★ communicate clearly with colleagues and ask for explanations to avoid misunderstandings;

★ take time off regularly;

★ create personal space;

★ control substance abuse;

- ★ talk, laugh or cry with your colleagues;

- ★ practice prayer, meditation, progressive relaxation – depending on your preferences;

- ★ pamper yourself – read, sing, dance, write, listen to or play music, work on a hobby, take a sauna, cook a meal;

- ★ participate in non-work related social activities;

- ★ get access to supervision from outside, e.g. through skype.

Acute traumatic stress

Acute or traumatic stress is a powerful type of stress 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 abnormal events such as:

- ★ witnessing casualties and major destruction;

- ★ serious injury to yourself or injury/death of a relative, colleague or friend;

- ★ events that are life threatening (natural disasters, manmade disasters);

- ★ events that cause extreme physical or emotional harm.

It is important to remember that strong emotional, physiological, behavioural and psychological reactions occur in the immediate aftermath of a traumatic experience.

How to recognise acute stress

Physical reactions:

- ★ nausea, gastro-intestinal distress,
- ★ trembling, shaking, sweating, shivering,
- ★ general weakness,
- ★ elevated heartbeat, rapid respiration, hyperventilation,
- ★ headache, stomach problems.

Cognitive reactions:

- ★ racing, circular thoughts,
- ★ confusion, dissociation,
- ★ intrusive images,
- ★ negative thoughts,
- ★ loss of perspective, lack of perception.

Behavioural reactions:

★ constantly talking about the event,

★ exaggerated, black humour,

★ inability to rest or let go,

★ sleep and appetite disturbances, substance abuse,

★ withdrawal,

★ irrational activities.

Emotional reactions:

★ rapidly shifting emotions,

★ shock or disbelief,

★ numbness, anxiety, fear,

★ exhilaration,

★ helplessness, feeling overwhelmed,

★ anger, sadness,

★ guilt, shame, hopelessness, grief,

★ decreased attention, difficulties in decision-making.

Spiritual reactions:

★ loss of trust,

★ questioning the meaning of life,

★ loss of purpose and hope,

★ changes in beliefs.

Psychological first aid

Psychological first aid (PFA) should be offered after any traumatic incident. Like medical first aid, PFA provides initial support until further help arrives (if needed). PFA may include:

★ ensuring a sense of safety;

★ helping people to contact family members;

★ providing food, shelter and other practical help;

★ offering comfort and reassurance;

★ listening;

★ providing information.

A major aim is to help reduce emotional arousal, as this will reduce the likelihood that the person will develop post-traumatic stress later.

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 (e.g. with books, films) – avoid dwelling on the experience;

★ try to connect with others and seek support from your family, friends, colleagues or other survivors of the same or similar events;

★ participate in memorials and organised events concerning the traumatic event;

★ challenge your sense of helplessness by reclaiming some control (e.g. take positive action, help others, seek creative solutions);

★ make it a priority to get enough rest and take care of yourself.

Dealing with strong emotions

Allow yourself time and be aware that you may well experience strong emotional reactions. Try some of the following:

★ do not 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.

What you can do as a colleague:

★ spend time with your traumatised colleague, offer support and listen with understanding and a non-judgemental attitude;

★ respect their privacy, but encourage them to get enough exercise, rest and nourishing food;

★ help them to resume normal day-to-day life, encourage them to take up hobbies and social activities; be persistent but not pushy!

★ If trauma survivors display anger or aggressive behaviour, do not take it personally – these behaviours are linked to acute stress reactions.

When to seek help for acute or traumatic stress

Try to seek support through your own social networks (e.g. friends, family, colleagues) as much as possible during the aftermath of experiencing a traumatic event. If this support is not immediately available or you do not have access to these networks, try to find a specialist. As stated above, extreme emotional reactions to traumatic experiences are perfectly normal.

However, if you find your functioning is profoundly affected, or if your reactions are taking a long time to subside or are worsening, you should seek professional assistance. This especially applies if you display the symptoms listed below, four to six weeks after the incident.

Intrusive symptoms:

★ recurrent and intrusive recollections of the event,

★ recurrent dreams of the event,

★ acting as if the event was recurring,

★ intense distress at exposure to cues that symbolise the event,

★ physiological reactivity to cues or reminders of the event.

Avoidance and emotional numbing symptoms:

★ efforts to avoid thoughts, feelings or conversations about the event,

★ avoiding activities, places or people associated with the event,

★ inability to recall important details surrounding the event,

★ diminished interested in formerly enjoyable and important activities of life,

★ a feeling of detachment, estrangement and alienation from other people,

★ a restricted range of emotional experiences,

★ a sense of a shortened future accompanied by a notable lack of preparation for the future.

Emotional arousal symptoms:

★ hypervigilance for danger,

★ exaggerated and distressing startle response,

★ sleep disturbances,

★ difficulty concentrating,

★ irritability or angry outbursts.

If these criteria are present and impairing normal functioning, you should contact 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 professional help.

It is possible that your seconding or contracting organisation can provide access to services to support you in dealing with stress or trauma. Be sure to research all available services and how to access them prior to your deployment.

If you feel like you can no longer remain in the mission because of the trauma that you have experienced, do not hesitate to take the necessary steps to end your contract. There is no shame in leaving a stressful and traumatic situation.

Vicarious trauma

Vicarious trauma, also known as secondary trauma, can affect anyone who is exposed on an ongoing basis to the suffering of others. Therefore, anyone who works in crisis environments can be vulnerable.

You are particularly at risk if:

★ you care deeply about your work, but tend to set unrealistic expectations;

★ you have not processed previous traumatic experiences;

★ you lack social support or find it difficult to talk about your feelings.

Common reactions to vicarious trauma

Vicarious trauma is a cumulative process that makes gradual changes over time to a person's emotional, physical and spiritual well-being. Common reactions include:

★ loss of a sense of meaning, purpose and hope,

★ difficulty maintaining healthy work/life boundaries,

★ relationship problems,

★ cognitive confusion and disorientation,

★ unpredictable emotional shifts.

Coping with vicarious trauma

Because vicarious trauma is such a gradual process, there is no quick fix for recovering from it. However, helpful strategies for dealing with vicarious trauma are noted below.

★ Take good care of yourself. Ensure that you are getting adequate sleep, nutrition and moderate physical exercise.

★ Take regular breaks. Create space to get away from your job, both physically and mentally (e.g. reading books, engaging in hobbies, spending time with friends, taking short trips).

★ Examine your limits. Do you need to make changes to the amount of time you spend in crisis environments (temporarily or permanently)? Do you need to balance crisis work with other kinds of activity? It can be helpful to talk this over with a friend or counsellor.

★ Explore your motives. Think about what inspires you and where you find a sense of higher purpose. Look for ways to connect with yourself more deeply (e.g. meditation, journal writing).

Addiction to trauma

If people have suffered early trauma in their lives or are repeatedly exposed to acute stress in adulthood, it is possible to become addicted to the experience (the term 'adrenalin junkie' may be familiar). Otherwise known as 'repetition compulsion', it refers to the need to persistently revisit disturbing experiences.

Clinical research suggests that this may represent an attempt to gain mastery over a previous trauma. It is also thought that the excitement of the risk acts as a distraction from feelings of loss and confusion that might otherwise prove overwhelming.

Common symptoms of trauma addiction

If you are in the grip of repetition compulsion, you may:

★ feel bored and numbed by ordinary life back home;

★ only feel engaged and alive in violent and unpredictable surroundings;

★ compulsively watch violent or disturbing films or listen to aggressive music;

★ engage in sexual promiscuity or other risky behaviour;

★ repetitively become involved in abusive relationships.

Responding to trauma addiction

In many ways, repetition compulsion needs to be treated like any other addiction. That may mean a period of abstinence in order to 'detox'. It can be very helpful to take breaks from adrenalin-fuelled crisis environments to reflect on your experiences and talk through your reactions.

Addiction of any kind is a very isolating experience, which can usually only be fully resolved in relationships with others. If you are aware of difficult or traumatic experiences that you sense you have not come to terms with, it is important that you find someone to discuss this with.

Some people prefer to talk to one other person (such as a trusted friend, colleague or counsellor) but others find group support more helpful. However you do it, clinical experience indicates that dealing with past experiences can help people move on in their working lives with a renewed sense of purpose and engagement.

8. 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, 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:

Physical evidence

★ smelling of alcohol

★ bleary-eyed

★ intoxication (slurred speech, unsteady on feet, confusion)

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

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.

Work performance

★ reduced quality and quantity of work

★ increasing number of mistakes and errors of judgment

★ 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 they could be struggling with alcohol or substance abuse. The best solutions you can offer them (or seek out if you suffer these problems yourself) are guidance, support and treatment. Some options are noted below.

★ Talk to staff members about the situation and collectively agree on a realistic plan of action. Include existing professional HR and HQ support and consultation.

★ If you find that the situation has escalated to a more serious level and is starting to affect work performance, discuss it with a supervisor or contact whoever is in charge of offering confidential counselling.

★ Make sure that you or the person concerned seeks medical advice and that this issue is dealt with in a confidential manner.

9. 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. We strongly recommend that you attend a professional first aid course and possess a valid, up to date first aid certificate. You may also take an online course, such those as offered free of charge by the British Red Cross.

B. Staying safe

This section gives information and advice on how to protect yourself and how to deal with situations that threaten your safety.

Please remember that these guidelines are merely advisory and do not supersede instructions, standard

operating procedures (SOPs) or contingency plans issued by the security office of your particular mission.

The following topics should be covered in greater depth during safety and security training, such as the hostile environment awareness training (HEAT) that you should try to participate in before deployment.

1. Cyber security

Cybercrime has increased significantly in recent years and is now considered to be an important transnational issue. Online fraud, identity theft or lost intellectual property have become a profitable business affecting countries, organisations and individuals around the world. To ensure the safe use of data and the internet, further transnational cooperation is needed among governments, the private sector, civil society organisations as well as law enforcement agencies.

The EU articulates a shared responsibility of Member States and EU institutions to guarantee a safe cyberspace. As fundamental European values and rights, such as freedom of expression, equality, privacy and protection of personal data and property apply to the digital world in the same way as to the physical world,

the EU raises awareness to the threats of cybercrime and is working to develop a coherent cyberspace policy including strong and effective legislation at the international level. This should deepen the coordination between EU and Member States' activities, improve capabilities and develop industrial and technological resources to prevent and combat cybercrime.

In the context of crisis management operations, attacks on cyberspace are extremely significant as sensitive data is constantly being transmitted. If valuable mission data falls into the wrong hands, the consequences can be very harmful. Through awareness and responsible use of data the chances of cyberattacks can be minimised. As a mission member it is important to reflect on what is transmitted to the public, especially if this has an effect on your own or the mission's safety.

Some examples of preventive measures applicable to a mission context are outlined below.

★ Use anti-virus software for your computer (Apple Mac operating systems are as vulnerable to cyberattacks as Microsoft Windows personal computers).

★ Use secure passwords as well as different passwords and usernames or email addresses for different websites. A secure password consists

of at least eight symbols including numbers, letters, mixed cases and no similar characters. You can use hints to set and remember your password (e.g. Brian moved to Chicago in 1995! Password would be: BmtChi995!).

★ Store your information in safe places and in different places (in case one email account gets hacked, you can access your data somewhere else). Do not store your credit card details online.

★ Open attachments only from people and institutions you know and trust.

★ Ignore pop-up windows (do not click what you did not expect, even if the window might be appealing to you).

★ Shop online only on secure internet pages, check your browser shows a padlock symbol and use https:// (the secure version of http://).

★ If possible, use a two-step verification process for payment online (e.g. an extra verification code by phone, mobile transaction authentication numbers (TAN) in online banking).

★ If in doubt, block your accounts, cards or data immediately.

★ Social networks have privacy settings. Use them to protect yourself.

★ Immediately report abuse and content you are not comfortable with to: www.virtualglobaltask-force.com or www.thinkuknow.co.uk

2. At your residence, at work and during recreational time

On mission, daily life and work may be very different from what you are used to at home. This section gives you basic safety instructions and advice on infrastructure at your residence and at work, as well as on how to behave during recreational time.

Residential safety and security

There are some important matters to take into consideration when choosing a residence.

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. Check out the parking possibilities (e.g. carports and driveways within fenced or guarded areas). An apartment, especially one above the second floor, presents a more difficult target for criminal intrusion than a house and provides the tenant some degree of anonymity. 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).

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, windows without mosquito mesh, 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.

Make sure that the owner of your apartment or house is legitimate and that you have the proper legal paper-work to rent the place. In general, the security section of your mission should be consulted during the process of selecting your residence. A specialist engineer should be consulted when selecting accommodation in an earthquake-prone environment.

Recreational time

These rules are obvious, but all too easy to brush aside when other things seem more important. Having survived the mud and potholes on mission, take care during your leisure time. At the seaside, be aware of dangerous currents, undertow or rip-tides, and areas known to have jellyfish, 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 pool of unknown depth. Do not drink alcohol before swimming or diving.

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

3. Fire safety

Fire extinguishers

Make sure you are familiar with whatever types of fire extinguishers you are provided and how to use them. If possible, you should also have access to a fire blanket.

The five main types of fire extinguisher and the types of fire they can be used on are displayed in the diagram below.

Remember: never put water onto boiling oil. It will explode!

	WATER	FOAM SPRAY	ABC POWDER	CARBON DIOXIDE	WET CHEMICAL
Wood, paper & textiles (A)	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓
Flammable liquids (B)	✗	✓	✓	✓	✗
Flammable gases (C)	✗	✗	✓	✗	✗
Electrical	✗	✗	✓	✓	✗
Cooking oils and fats (F)	✗	✗	✗	✗	✓

Actions in the event of fire

In the event that someone catches fire, you should:

★ stop, drop and roll them over;

★ cover them with a fire blanket, damp sheet or other material;

★ try to smother the fire.

In the event of a small fire in a building or vehicle:

★ use your fire extinguisher or fire blanket;

★ keep your escape route to your back – never let a fire get between you and your exit;

★ if one extinguisher does not put the fire out, get out;

★ if in doubt, get out;

★ call the local emergency services;

★ assemble at your designated assembly point.

In the event of a large fire in a building or vehicle:

★ keep yourself and others well back from the fire;

★ remember: cylinders and compressed gases

can explode in a fire and have been known to travel more than 200 metres;

★ never re-enter a burning building.

Fire exits

★ make sure you are familiar with your environment;

★ know your escape routes;

★ have an escape plan.

Fire safety

★ nominate a fire warden to take charge in case of fire;

★ carry out routine fire safety walks if the building does not have a fire alarm;

★ check for fire dangers regularly;

★ if you smell smoke, investigate and evacuate;

★ if you smell gas, open all windows, ventilate and evacuate;

★ agree on an assembly point with your colleagues – a location everyone goes to in the event of an evacuation or emergency;

★ know how to call the local emergency services;

★ know your address or your location;

★ if possible, place battery-operated smoke alarms on escape routes and in bedrooms or dormitories.

At night

★ check for fire dangers before you go to sleep;

★ re-check your escape route.

4. On the road

Road safety

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

★ Never drive after drinking alcohol or taking drugs.

★ Never drive beyond your capabilities or in dangerous road conditions.

★ Get a good night's rest before any long journey. Take regular breaks (every two hours if possible).

- ★ Drive with a companion and share the driving when covering long distances.

- ★ Avoid travelling in the dark. Ensure that all timings on your route plan enable you to reach the destination before nightfall.

- ★ Maintain a sensible speed, even if you have an urgent appointment.

- ★ Always wear a safety belt.

- ★ Ensure any vehicle you use is well maintained and regularly serviced.

- ★ Select and train any drivers you use with care and thoroughness.

- ★ Before taking a trip, familiarise yourself with the appropriate behaviour in case of an accident in your specific mission context.

- ★ Keep a first aid kit, gloves and a torch with spare batteries in the vehicle.

- ★ Always know the phone numbers for the local emergency services and for the relevant mission personnel.

- ★ Wear a crash helmet if riding a motorbike.

Checkpoints and road blocks

Checkpoints and road blocks are quite similar: a manned position on the road designed to monitor and control movement in a particular area. Checkpoints can be operated by legitimate authorities as legal checkpoints (e.g. police or military) or by illegitimate individuals or groups as illegal road blocks, often 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 gain more experience and credibility with the group manning the barrier, you may be allowed to pass unchecked. Never rely on this, however, and always be prepared to stop.

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 may well have mines placed across the road for added security. In other cases you may simply encounter a tree or even a branch pulled across the road, with one or two men plying their new-found, lucrative trade as toll collectors.

So how do you deal with checkpoints and road blocks? The following information and advice is valid for legal checkpoints. When approaching illegal checkpoints, consider the advice below, but use your common sense.

- ★ Do not approach a checkpoint that appears to be out of place or hostile. Consider asking your local staff or drivers for their opinion.

- ★ At night, dim your headlights well in advance of the checkpoint so as not to blind the personnel working at the checkpoint. Switch on your inside light so that those inside the vehicle can be seen not to pose a 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, inform your base, slow down, lower the volume of your radio speaker and make no transmissions. Using your communications equipment could raise suspicions.

- ★ Turn off any music. Take your sunglasses off. Keep your hands visible.

- ★ Obey any signs or instructions to pull in or stop.

- ★ Be polite, friendly and confident. You should not talk too much, offer cigarettes, etc. This might suggest that you are afraid and could be exploited by the road block personnel.

- ★ Do not open any doors or windows until you are satisfied that it is 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, but keep it short.

★ In case they insist on checking your vehicle, let them do so.

★ Do not be in a rush to continue your journey. Be aware that the road block personnel might be keen to talk or offer advice to you. You could also ask them for useful information on the route ahead or your eventual destination.

★ Avoid temptation by ensuring that there are no attractive items such as electronics, sweets, chewing gum or cigarettes visible from the window. Avoid wearing expensive watches.

★ Pass through checkpoints one vehicle at a time, maintaining visibility of any other vehicles in your convoy.

★ When you leave the checkpoint, contact your base (watchkeepers).

★ At illegal checkpoints run by free agents rather than clearly identifiable legitimate personnel, it might be worthwhile stopping before the block itself if you possibly can. Just wait for a while and observe. Is other traffic passing through the road block? How are the occupants of the vehicles being treated as they pass through?

★ You could wait for an oncoming vehicle (i.e. one that has passed through the road block) and ask them for advice on whether it is safe to proceed yourself. You could ask your local staff or drivers for their opinion on whether it is safe to proceed. If it does not feel safe, turn back.

Ambush

An ambush is an attack by assailants 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 being ambushed:

★ Avoid travelling close to vehicles that might be targets (e.g. food convoys).

★ Avoid travelling at night.

★ Avoid routines and predictable patterns of operation where possible.

★ If travelling is absolutely necessary, try to travel in a convoy and listen to road safety information from credible sources (if available).

★ Consider the use of an armoured vehicle where necessary and wear protective gear or have it available for use.

★ If you encounter a deliberate obstacle or a road block and you have time to stop in advance, do so and assess the situation. Withdraw if necessary or if in doubt. A professional ambush will be situated 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 of your movements.

★ 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 caught in an ambush?

If you are caught in a deliberate ambush, you are in an extremely dangerous situation. Your options might be limited:

★ Stay calm, think quickly, use your common sense.

★ You might want to accelerate and race through the ambush site, or reverse, if at all possible. Reversing might be too slow to get away and racing through might not be an option if the road is blocked.

★ Do not do anything that could exacerbate the situation further.

★ In case you cannot get away, follow the instructions given by the personnel who have ambushed you.

★ If possible, call for help and inform your mission headquarters of your location and the incident.

5. Individual protective gear

The flak jacket

If you receive a flak jacket, familiarise yourself with the jacket before you have to use it. It provides a low level of protection for the chest, back and neck against the effects of blast, shrapnel and splinters of glass, wood, etc. It is not designed to stop a bullet. It is comfortable, 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 and only designed to protect certain parts of the body. Additional neck and groin protection options are available. They can come with a large front pocket for your ID cards and first aid pressure bandages. With high levels of protection comes weight (up to 12 kg). At first you will find them very difficult to wear, but you will soon become accustomed to them. There are male and female versions. Make sure that you have the correct version and size, and that you are familiar with the protection level and correct usage. Use the ballistic jacket as follows:

★ The back and front collar options, which can be opened and closed, give added protection to your neck and throat.

★ 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 other safety items are very expensive. You will need to take care of them as best as you can. They are extremely attractive items for thieves.

★ The ballistic jacket can save your life. Make sure that it is fully functional and protected from damage or theft.

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. Use the helmet as follows:

★ The helmet is worn in high-risk areas where flak and ballistic jackets are used.

★ Always ensure that the neck strap is securely fastened. Otherwise a jolt will send the helmet flying off your head just when you need it most.

★ The helmet takes time to put on and fasten, so do not 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, you might not hear the warning sounds of danger.

★ Be aware!

Unauthorised possession or carrying of weapons of any kind is a no-go for civilian personnel.

The handling of weapons by civilian crisis managers is not only unnecessarily dangerous, it can irretrievably undermine the image of the mission. This applies whether you use a weapon, possess it or simply pose with it.

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

6. Mine hazards

When deployed on a crisis management mission, you may be confronted with mine hazards in different ways. Mines or minefields can be leftovers from an earlier conflict. Mines or improvised explosive devices (IEDs) are used, for example, to protect property, to pose a threat or even to attack an enemy. This section provides basic information on mines, IEDs, unexploded ordnance (UXO), explosive remnants of war (ERW) as well as booby traps and offers basic advice on dealing with these threats.

There are two types of mines that you need to watch out for: anti-personnel mines (APMs) and anti-vehicle mines (AVMs).

Anti-personnel mines

APMs are designed to cause injury to people rather than to equipment. They might be laid in conjunction with anti-vehicle mines or by themselves. APMs are grouped into three different munition sorts: blast, fragmentation and small shaped charge.

Most APMs will be triggered when put under pressure, but one or more tripwires attached to fuzes can also trigger the device. The lethal radius of these mines depends on the type and the amount of explosives. Some APMs have a lethal radius of about 50 m. Most APMs are coloured green or black.

Blast mines

Blast APMs were formerly made of metal or wood, but now are often made of polymer. They are either cylindrical in shape, with a diameter of about 7 cm to 16 cm, or rectangular, measuring around 10 cm x 20 cm long and 5 cm to 10 cm high. The mine explodes

when the victim steps on the fuze and the concentrated blast of the explosives causes death or serious injuries.

Fragmentation mines

Fragmentation APMs include stake mines, directional fragmentation mines and bounding fragmentation mines. Over the years, mines become rusty and will be hard to find. Stakes and trees can be broken, vegetation will grow over tripwires. So the best advice is to stay out of areas with a possible threat of mines.

Stake mines are fitted to wooden or metal stakes hammered into the ground until the mine is fixed at a height of about 20 cm above the surface. The fuze will usually be triggered by pulling a tripwire, which is made from very fine metal or nylon wire and is hard to see. The fragmentation shrapnel will blast in all directions over a large distance and lead to death or serious injuries.

Directional fragmentation mines, also called Claymore mines, use an electrical fuze and will be triggered by the victim stepping on a piezoelectric sensor or by a triggerman closing an electrical circuit using a command wire. The fragments will be projected through an angle of about 60° and will cause death or serious injuries up to a range of about 50 m. These mines

are often attached to a tree or tripod at a height of about 50 cm.

Bounding fragmentation mines are normally buried. The mine is integrated in a small tube like a mortar. The fuze can be triggered by stepping on it or with a tripwire. Once triggered, a small charge pushes the mine out of the tube. At a defined height, around 1 m, the mine explodes and the fragments spread out in 360°. The typical deadly radius will be about 25 m or more.

Shaped charge mines

APMs with a shaped charge are very small, generally buried and painted in different mainly dark colours. They have a diameter of about 5 cm and a length of 12 cm. The fuze is operated by the victim stepping on it. An APM with a shaped charge is not designed to kill the victim. A small amount of explosives fires a shaped charge through the shoe, the ankle into the knee. Heavy pain, amputation of the leg above the knee and long-term treatment are the results.

Anti-vehicle mines (AVMs)

AVMs, also referred to as anti-tank mines, are designed to disable 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 are protecting valuable routes or objectives.

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 them.

Some important features of AVMs are as follows:

★ much larger than APMs, with a diameter/length of up to 30 cm and a height of up to 11 cm;

★ Square or round in shape;

★ made of plastic or metal;

★ coloured the same as APMs, i.e. dark, camouflaged;

★ detonated by the pressure of a vehicle passing over them (remember, your vehicle is heavy!)

Occasionally AVMs are detonated by a tilt rod sticking out from the top of the mine, which is sometimes attached to tripwires. Just as these mines are normally kept under observation, they are also further protected by APMs in the surrounded area – another good reason to keep away from them. Bad weather conditions such as heavy rainfall could flush the mines out of the (marked) dangerous areas. Furthermore, insurgents or other militant groups can use mines to close paths and roads. It therefore is important to drive only on paved roads and not to leave them for any reason.

IEDs/UXO/ERW

Improvised explosive devices (IEDs)

IEDs are essentially home-made, non-standard devices. They are usually fabricated from readily available raw material. Most IEDs incorporate military, civilian or homemade explosives. CBRN (chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear) agents are also possible. IEDs are produced in different sizes and forms, from a 'letter bomb' up to heavy trucks with five tonnes of explosives. Currently, high quality, series production, technology transfer and further development lead to a serious hazards.

Unexploded ordnance (UXO)

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

UXO includes unexploded submunitions and bomblets, for example undetonated cluster bombs, warheads of artillery rockets and artillery rounds. These weapons can have a high failure rate of up to 50 % in vegetated and urban areas, leading to a huge amount of UXO. A submunition can be an APM, a HEAT bomblet or a small bomb with different fillers. The submunition comes in a variety of shapes, colours and dimensions. Particularly dangerous are APMs in the shape of a butterfly or a dragon's tooth. Children pick up these mines, because they look like toys.

Explosive Remnants of War (ERW)

ERW are all the ordnance that remains after an armed conflict. This includes unexploded ordnance in abandoned stockpiles, military vehicles and

facilities. In some cases these areas will be secured with mines and booby traps. Abandoned vehicles could be damaged with projectiles containing depleted uranium. This heavy metal is toxic and leads to serious diseases.

Dealing with mine/IED/UXO/ERW threats

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

★ Contact the local Mine Action Centre or your mission's security officer for information on mine threats in your specific mission area.

★ Do not touch any mine/IED/UXO/ERW or any unknown object – stay well clear of it. If you did not put it down, never pick it up.

★ Resist helping attacked people. Further IEDs directed at assisting passengers might be lying around (standard repertoire of terrorists) and need to be taken carefully into account.

★ Do not use your radio, mobile phone or SAT-COM in close proximity (within 100 metres) of 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 UXO.

★ If you come across mines/IEDs/UXO/ERW inform responsible organisations and 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, IEDs and booby traps can be attached to tripwires. 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 leave the paved road. Do not get out of your vehicle. Try to drive backwards slowly along the same track you came along.

★ 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 (mines may be laid in tempting orchards, vineyards or vegetable plots).

★ Make sure you understand local mine-awareness signage and be alert to the presence of uncollected, dead livestock or uncultivated land which may indicate the presence of mines.

★ Make use of the 5/25m check in unsafe areas or after attacks. It refers to looking out for anything suspicious within a five metre radius if you are in a vehicle; if your vehicles stop, you should clear a 25 m perimeter before moving ahead.

★ Electronic counter measures, particularly 'jammers' can, depending on the location and context, protect you from radio-controlled IEDs.

★ Be on your guard against 'cleared areas'. An area might be declared to be clear of mines, but you cannot be 100 % certain.

Remember, if you identify a mined area or are informed of one, spread the news. Record the information and mark it on your maps.

Actions in a minefield (MINED):

★ Movement stops immediately.

★ Inform and warn people around you. If you can, contact your base for help, indicating where you are located.

★ Note the area. Examine the ground to ensure you are safe where you are, look for tripwires/mines/fuzes.

★ Evaluate the situation. Be prepared to take control.

★ Do not move from your location.

Avoid booby traps!

A booby trap is an outwardly harmless object designed or adapted to kill or injure by exploding unexpectedly when a person disturbs or approaches it. A booby trap can be triggered when you perform 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 disguised as, or hidden inside, a harmless object.

Withdrawing troops may place booby traps in all sorts of places so as to inflict damage on their advancing adversaries. Booby traps may 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. You should not be tempted to snoop around or use empty 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. Communications equipment

Even though familiar communications equipment (such as the internet and mobile phones) is often available in the field, you will still be faced with slightly uncommon devices at times, ranging from the rustic and old-fashioned to the high-tech and sophisticated. You may not have to resort to pigeon post, but devices such as two-way radios might be tricky for first-time users and therefore require basic technical know-how. The same applies to more advanced satellite communications (SATCOM).

This chapter will highlight the main types of communications equipment that you may 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. 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 that you are looking from your vehicle to your office in the

distance through a pair of binoculars. The radio waves from your set are 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 the line of sight cannot get through. Obstacles such as trees, forests, houses and pylons make it difficult for VHF radio waves to follow certain paths. Obstacles either absorb the waves completely or deflect them. If you want to improve communications, 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 waves are broadcast outward from the antenna, they spread 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 thereby understand the distance over which you can communicate.

HF radio

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

Unlike VHF sets, from which you can obtain better results through correct use, HF transmission and the clarity of your signal 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 may work well at one time of the day and then be virtually useless at another. It may 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, because the transmitter is disabled and reception is almost impossible.

How to use VHF and HF radio

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

Preparing your radio set for operation

★ Ask the responsible unit in your mission for an introduction to the devices that are being used in your area of operation.

★ Check the antenna and all cable connections, ensuring tight and proper connection of all components.

★ Make sure that there is a power source and that it provides sufficient power. Ensure your radio set is properly connected to the power source.

★ Connect the audio accessories and check the proper operation of function switches.

★ Make sure you know which channels are being used for transmission.

★ Turn on the radio by using the power button or turning the volume dial.

★ Tune in to the correct channel and you are ready to go!

Transmitting

In general, there are five parts to transmitting a radio message that should always be followed:

7. give the call sign of the station you are calling (this alerts the station that they are being called);

8. then say "This is…";

9. then give your call sign;

10. transmit your message;

11. end your message with "over"; end the conversation with "out" (see also the Annex for radio procedures).

Some tips to improve your radio procedure are outlined below.

★ Decide on a message before transmitting, ensuring it is clear and brief. Stay off the air unless you are sure you can be of assistance.

★ Before you transmit, make sure no one else is speaking.

★ Remember to divide your message into sensible phrases, make pauses and maintain a natural rhythm in 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 noise.

★ When ready to transmit, press the transmission button and wait a second before speaking. When you have finished transmitting, wait a moment before releasing the button.

★ Remember, as long as you are pressing the transmission button, no one else is able to transmit from their radio.

★ 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 the message to be repeated ("say again").

★ Remember: think, press 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 noise, 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 may be good in some areas, particularly in cities, but poor or non-existent in rural areas;

★ you may have to purchase a new SIM card or phone for use in some countries if your system is not compatible with local networks.

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 may have been destroyed or damaged. In this case, mobile phone communications will be unavailable or at best unreliable.

★ **Jammed channels**: in times of crisis, a mobile phone system can become overloaded with too many users and it may prove impossible to make calls.

★ **Political manoeuvring**: given that the local authorities can control the mobile phone system, they might just decide to turn it off.

★ **Insecure conversations**: local authorities can listen in to any phone conversation. As with all forms of telecommunications 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 features of mobile phones (e.g. camera, video, storage, apps or location features) could get you into trouble. The mere presence of these built-in features could cause your intentions to be misunderstood or abused as their presence could be deliberately used against you. Essentially, we are talking about potential spying gadgets.

3. Satellite communications (SATCOM)

SATCOM devices are simple to use. They work by bouncing signals off a satellite and back down to a ground receiver or 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' may 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 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, VHF sets are still the most economical and useful option.

★ **Channel overload**: with the increasing use of satellite phones in troubled regions, simultaneous communications can overload the capacity of the satellite channels. Therefore, satellite communications should not be considered as a self-sufficient network, but rather as a supplement to HF and VHF networks.

★ **Makes you traceable (when you least want it!)**: 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 SATCOM, only point-to-point communication is possible – you cannot transmit to a number of receivers simultaneously.

4. Internet and computers

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

★ **Watch out for your information!** As with all the systems mentioned above, the internet is not secure. See also Chapter 4 on personal communication and Chapter 5 on cyber security.

★ **Watch out for your computer!** Your computer is vulnerable to unscrupulous thieves who may steal it or even download large amounts of information when you are not around. So make sure you lock your portable computer away in a room or desk 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. Make sure to use strong passwords to secure your computer, hard drives and USB sticks (see Chapter 5 on cyber security).

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:

★ to enable staff to find their way around a given country and to recognise features on the ground and on a map;

★ to enable staff to understand the information provided on a map so that they can picture the terrain and its possibilities and limitations;

★ to 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 answers to many questions, such as the best route to be taken and areas to be avoided. Maps enable the user to visualise the lie of the land, assist with sense of direction and increase 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

that relative and absolute positions of mapped features can be determined.

How to read a topographic map

The first step in reading a topographic map is to become familiar with the specific characteristics of the map or maps that are being used:

★ What is the map scale? The scale indicates the comparative size of features and distances portrayed on the map.

★ Which direction is north? The north point orientates the map to the real world.

★ What symbols are used on the map? To understand the map, the symbols need to be understood. Look at the legend.

★ Which coordinate system (or datum) is used on the map? This information will be contained in the text in the map margin. Some newer maps show GPS coordinates. Remember to set your GPS to the right system, or a compatible one, and include a reference to the datum when quoting the coordinates.

Map scale

A map represents a given area on the ground. A map scale refers to the relationship (or ratio) between distance on a map and the corresponding distance on the ground. Map scales can be shown using a scale bar.

SCALE 1:250,000

0   5

Scale bar for a 1:250,000 map

Using a 1:250,000 scale map, for example, the first number of the scale (1) represents a core unit of distance on the map while the second (250,000) represents that same distance on the ground. In this case, one centimetre on the map represents 250,000 centimetres, or 2.5 kilometres, on the ground.

The scale bar can be used to determine the distance between two points on the map. Scales are usually shown in increments of one, five or ten kilometres. Use a piece of string, a ruler or a strip of paper to measure the distance between two points on the map. Then compare that measurement to the scale bar on the map to determine what distance 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. 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.
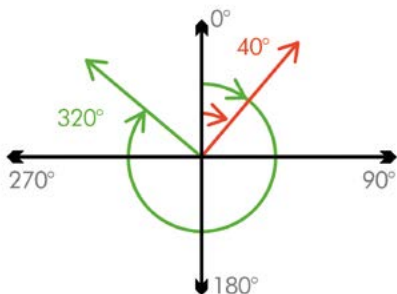
Illustration depicting bearings of 40° and 320°

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. As 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

GN
TN MN

Grid convergence 1.3°

Grid/Magnetic angle 13.5°
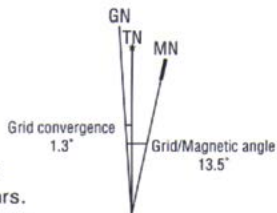
Directions can also be expressed as bearings. A bearing is the clockwise horizontal angle, measured from north to a chosen direction. Bearings are usually shown in degrees and range from 0° (north) to 360° (also north). South is 180°, east is 90° and west is 270°.

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 that 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.

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 (°), minutes (') and seconds ("). For example, the geographic coordinates for a position could be stated as 33°40′30″S,

153°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°S; the North Pole at 90°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.

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 set 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, the distance between adjacent lines represents 1,000 metres or 1 kilometre. Therefore, each grid 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.
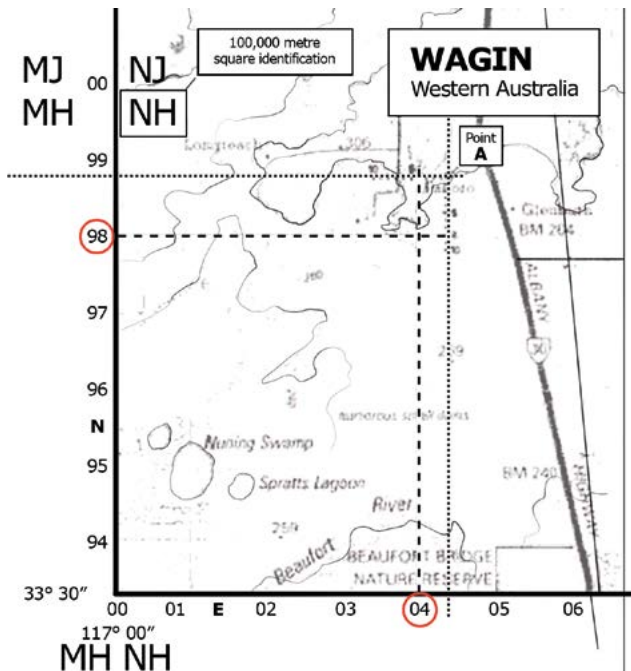
Example of determining a grid reference (not to scale)

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 (not shown in the picture).

- ★ 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 (dashed line).

- ★ Estimate the tenths from the vertical grid line 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 (distance between the dashed line and the dotted line).

- ★ Locate the horizontal grid line below the point of interest and read the two-figure northing value. Point A's northing value is 98 (dashed line).

★ 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 (distance between the dashed line and the dotted line).

★ Note the datum of the map from the map margin. The Wagin Map is on GDA94 (not shown in the diagram). Therefore, the complete grid reference for point A is either: Wagin, NH044988 or 50HNH044988 (including the grid zone number).

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.

Always make sure to hold the compass level during use. Otherwise, the magnetic needle may jam in the casing.

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 orientating lines marked on the rotating dial so they can be used for measuring grid bearings on a map.
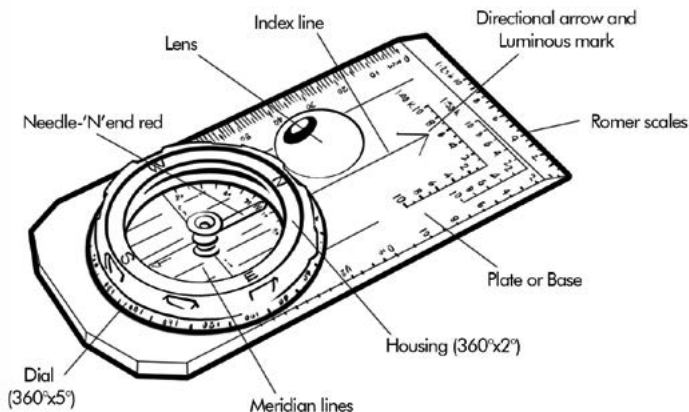
Using the compass to reach a destination

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 marked end of the needle. Read the bearing in degrees on the dial index.

★ 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.

4. Global Positioning System (GPS)

The Global Positioning System (GPS) is a world-wide radio-navigation system, operated by the U.S. Air Force, which is formed from a constellation of 31 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.

Nowadays almost every smartphone is equipped with a built-in GPS chip similar to those found in hand-held GPS receivers. GPS-enabled phones need a third application to exploit the functionality of the GPS chip. Similar to hand-held devices, GPS applications running on smartphones can visualise locations on digital maps, record waypoints and trackpoints, and record locations as described below.

How GPS works

The basis of GPS is triangulation from satellites. To triangulate, a GPS receiver measures distance using the travel time of radio signals. Using the signals from any three of these satellites, a two-dimensional position is fixed; using any four satellites, a three-dimensional position is fixed. The larger the number of GPS satellites visible to the receiver, the more accurate the location reading.

What GPS can do

Some general functions of most GPS receivers include:

★ determining ground speed,

★ plotting current position,

★ storing the current position as a waypoint,

★ storing other positions as waypoints,

★ plotting routes travelled as tracks,

★ calculating a bearing between two positions,

★ determining an error left or right of the intended track,

★ determining 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 (see below).

Using GPS with a map

GPS is based on the WGS84 datum (see explanation of datums above). By default, most receivers report geographic coordinate units of latitude and longitude in decimal degrees.

However, not all maps have a WGS84 datum. It is important to check which datum, map projection and map units are used on the map. This information is normally printed in the map margin.

For the best match between the coordinates of the map and those of your 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 relevant unit in your mission (e.g. GIS technician) 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

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 the GPS signal include:

★ 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.

GPS receivers are equipped with a built-in compass and altimeter sensor. These two instruments need to be calibrated prior to setting off on a new field mission. This operation normally involves rotating the GPS around both its horizontal and vertical axes. To calibrate the compass, find the GPS settings and follow the instructions given by the manual.

Most commercial GPS receivers are accurate to approximately 50 metres horizontally and 70 metres vertically. In ideal conditions, accuracies of about 10 metres can be reached. As GPS receivers are powered by batteries, it is important that you know the duration and condition of those batteries, particularly before heading into rural or remote areas. You should of course carry spare batteries, but as a backup to the GPS receiver, make sure that you have a magnetic compass and map with you 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. Normally a data set of latitude, longitude and elevation documents a WP. Track logs are a record of a series of points that are collected automatically every few seconds by the GPS to record the path travelled by the GPS receiver during a field 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 of roads and at villages and settlements. Track logs 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 signals.

Remember that the GPS unit only records the WP numbers: a record of what each of these points represents must be made by means of attributes. The attributes can be recorded in the device itself, in a notebook or on a form designed for this purpose.

5. Planning

Prior to travelling, divide your chosen route 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.

Orientating a map

Orientate 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 you are unable to identify the surrounding features, use the compass to orientate 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 orientated, prominent features in the landscape can be identified.

Finding your current position

Once you have set your GPS receiver to a datum corresponding to the datum on the map, you can use your GPS to determine the coordinates of your current position. Alternatively, once you have identified surrounding features on the ground and on the map, use the following procedure to find your 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.

★ Place the compass on the map with the edge of the base touching the feature and pivot it until the orientating 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 meet.

Setting a course

Once you have orientated your map and identified your current position, you can set your course. Do this by sighting or by laying a straight line across the map (using the edge of the map card or a piece of string). 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, you can use a GPS receiver. 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 orientating lines are parallel with the grid north lines on the map and the orientating arrow is also pointing to grid north.

★ 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 orientating arrow, pointing to '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 you make continuous checks with 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 you have covered. There are two basic methods for achieving this:

Pacing

★ This is generally accepted as being the more reliable method.

★ Distances can be counted by the number of paces you take.

★ These paces can be translated into kilometres, depending on the type of terrain and the average length of 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.

★ To calculate your personal pace length, measure out a 100 metre flat distance and count how many right foot paces you take to complete that distance.

Time

★ Distance can also be calculated by the time spent walking in relation to the 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.

★ Naismith's rule, devised by a Scottish mountaineer in 1892, allows for 1 hour per 5 km (3.1 miles) forward plus 1 hour for every 600 m (2,000 ft) of ascent.

6. Spatial information sharing

In crisis situations, whether natural disasters or armed conflict, a fast acquisition and transfer of reliable information is crucial. Sharing geographical information through web-based solutions is becoming increasingly popular as it can facilitate rapid and adequate humanitarian support to affected regions. Such solutions speed up communications and strengthen coordination between many different players in a complex and constantly changing environment.

A range of modern information technology tools have been developed lately, which allow trained users to make quick and reliable damage analysis from satellite imagery and to share real time information. Since 2000, UNOSAT (the UN's Operational Satellite Applications Programme) has provided satellite-derived analysis to support disaster management and humanitarian response through data acquisition and delivery. UNOSAT's rapid mapping unit is able to compare pre- and post-event satellite imagery of, for example, damage to infrastructure or dislocated populations. Teams on the ground can later verify those results. In 2004, UNOSAT developed a live map, compiling information from various sources and partners into one 'common operational picture'. This ensures that all parties can operate from the same map, minimising

misunderstandings and facilitating efficient and effective decision-making.

'Asign' is a mobile app which geo-locates (tags) photos, sizes them according to bandwidth and sends them to a web-server where the photos can be further assessed and shared with collaborators. Developed under the EC-funded GEO-PICTURES project by AnsuR in collaboration with UNOSAT, Asign allows a near real-time sharing of information between research institutions, private enterprises and humanitarian organisations with assessment teams or response personnel on the ground. It not only facilitates communication between different actors, it also constantly transfers messages and visual information into the live map.

The recent development of ArcGIS, an online, cloud-based mapping platform, makes the LIVE map and ASIGN app in combination with ArcGIS Collector app a powerful tool for the recording and sharing of information in a crisis response setting.

A key challenge for organisations involved in crisis management is to make adequate resources available to integrate new information technologies into crisis management procedures, for example through training

mission personnel in the application of geographical information systems (GIS) in crisis response.

Before you depart on mission, make sure you inform yourself about the relevant GIS technologies and resources your organisation can make available to you in the field.

C. Transport

1. Four-wheel drive vehicles

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 four-wheel driving lessons before leaving on a mission.

Four-wheel drive means that four road wheels provide power for the vehicle; 4WD is often selectable, but in some cases all wheels provide drive all the time (constant 4WD, e.g. Range Rover). In most cars, only two wheels provide power 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 also engaging when the driver selects 4WD. To reduce wear, noise and fuel consumption, 4WDs are often fitted with freewheeling hubs on the front wheels.

Why do 4WD vehicles need special handling?

There are a number of important differences between a normal car and a 4WD vehicle. 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 a 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 the 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. Successful four-wheel driving takes practice and skill, and comes with experience.

General principles of four-wheel driving

The following general principles apply to driving off-road or on a poor road in a 4WD vehicle:

- ★ **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 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, take your foot off the accelerator.

- ★ **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 take with you in your vehicle and keep an eye on at all times:

- ★ tyres (make sure they are in good condition and have sufficient air pressure, including the spare!);

- ★ oil, coolant, fuel (check fluid levels regularly, never allow your fuel tank to be less than half full);

- ★ tools (make sure they are all in place, including the wheel jack and wrench for wheel nuts);

- ★ spare fan belt, extra fuel in cans (if needed) and a spare, properly inflated tyre;

- ★ individual protective gear (if required), e.g. 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 and spare batteries;

★ map, compass, GPS;

★ vehicle logo/flag (if your organisation has one);

★ lights (functioning headlights, tail lights, brake lights, indicators and lights to illuminate your logo/flag);

★ documents required by organisations or local authorities, e.g. vehicle log, registration and insurance papers.

3. Armoured vehicles

Armoured vehicles are usually of the 4WD variety. All vehicles can be protected with armour if required (e.g. the cabin of a convoy truck). 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 (vehicles between 3.5 and 7.5 tonnes) requires special driving skills because of

the handling peculiarities this creates. To drive an armoured vehicle in Europe a 'C1' driving licence is needed. Increasingly, missions therefore require you to hold a 'C1' rather than a standard 'B' driving licence as a basic mission requirement. Check if you need a 'C1' driving licence for your position prior to deployment (e.g. if you are a border monitor). If you do, make sure you practice sufficiently as it takes time to get used to armoured vehicles.

Armour plating can provide good protection against rifle fire and the blast effect from shells, anti-personnel mines and, to some extent, other mines. However, just because you have an armoured vehicle available, do not treat it as your personal go-anywhere tank. It can and will protect you against 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, anti-tank mines or a direct hit from an artillery or mortar round. Understand the level of protection which your vehicle gives you.

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, then you must also wear your helmet and flak or ballistic jacket for added protection.

Likewise, if the situation calls for the use of protective equipment, you should 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 to 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 shrapnel from grenades, exploding ordnance or anti-personnel mines. However, you should not let these passive protection aids give you a false sense

of security. They will not protect you or your vehicle against anti-vehicle mines.

Sandbags can be laid on the floor of vehicles to provide added protection against mine threats. They are effective against blast and shrapnel from anti-personnel mines, but should only be expected to reduce the blast effect of anti-vehicle mines. In other words, do not expect full protection. However, sandbags add to the vehicle's weight and reduce its stability.

4. Unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs)

As the development and use of new technologies is expanding worldwide, the importance of unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs) has also increased significantly in recent years. While some argue that UAVs will become a common tool in future crisis management operations, the debate around UAVs has historically tended to focus on moral issues and the use of drones for military strikes. However, today's use of UAVs is much broader and includes innovative, economic and professional ways of investigating what is happening on the ground. This can be valuable in diverse and dangerous contexts such as natural disasters, armed conflicts or fragile states. So far, UAVs or drones have been used in different

conflict environments in, for example, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Mali, and they are increasingly becoming a common peacekeeping tool.

The legal basis for the civilian use of UAVs is controversial: legal frameworks on the humanitarian use of UAVs are often absent, which is why in practice, ad hoc solutions with local authorities are often arranged. These arrangements, however, are short-term and lack transparency, clear policies, standards or guidelines. Information pertaining to the timing of flights, purpose, and type of data being collected should always communicated to the public, though this is rarely the case.

Further contentious issues around the use of UAVs are the collection, selection, use and transfer of data, assignment and responsibility of tasks, logistical problems and the ambivalent impact the use of UAVs may have on ongoing processes on the ground.

As the pressure to adopt new technologies is expected to increase for both military and civilian actors, clear policies, legal frameworks and strict standards are urgently needed. Organisations such as the Humanitarian UAV Network are working to improve the legitimacy of UAVs by creating a platform, compiling good practice and developing international guidelines for their safe and transparent civilian use.

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 secure 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 or exit strategy – with the understanding that the strategy will require constant adjustment. This may include planning, preparing and coordinating 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 peace-building 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 go to waste. 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 or 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 materials are 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: their 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 there is clear communication about the process and consultation where possible.

Ending supplier contracts

Contracts with local companies, owners of buildings and others may need to be ended as well. In an 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; and it would damage the reputation of your organisation.

Disposing of property

Early decisions should be made on how to dispose of the organisation's property. Some property may be sold or given to local organisations. Some may be taken away by the organisation for use in other programmes. These decisions will depend on the requirements of donors, on the rules of the organisation and 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 interviews 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 readers about the progress as well as problems in your field work during the reporting period. The final report (also referred to as an end-of-assignment report) reflects your contribution towards achieving your mandate and tasks. It should identify lessons learned, come to conclusions and facilitate future decision-making.

The purpose of a final report is to provide an assessment of the implementation of the mission's mandate, particularly with regard to the specific area

of your responsibility. It should offer recommendations for improving the effectiveness and efficiency in implementing the mission's mandate, with the aim of informing policies, procedures and practices. The report should also focus on lessons and good practices, and highlight replicable factors that contributed to success or failure.

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 for the organisation to enrich institutional memory. The following points may be covered:

- ★ pre-departure,
- ★ arrival in-country and orientation,
- ★ mission activities,
- ★ relations with other organisations and entities,
- ★ organisational and administrative issues,
- ★ equipment,
- ★ other issues and 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 are 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 consult a doctor with experience in tropical medicine.

If you had any sexual contact during your deployment or if you lived in an area strongly affected by HIV/AIDS, you should get tested for HIV/AIDS and venereal disease. HIV tests may not be positive until about three weeks after exposure to the virus. If signs of stress persist after returning home from deployment, you should consult a professional mental healthcare provider.

Medication

You should continue to take 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. Reintegration: work and family

Reintegration with family and former colleagues can turn out to be difficult. After coming home from your deployment you may want to talk about your experiences, while others do not want to listen. Equally, it may prove difficult if you do not want to talk about your experience when others keep asking. Understanding what sorts of reactions to expect from yourself and your family and friends when you return home is important in making your reintegration less stressful.

Prepare yourself for a range of emotional reactions, such as excitement, disorganisation, disorientation, 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 mission for a while.

Reverse culture shock

A reverse culture shock is classically experienced as a period of depression or apathy after the initial excitement of returning home. This stage can be very challenging, as feelings of isolation and confusion are common. Reverse culture shock can last for several months and is often not well understood. The lack of tolerance and patience displayed at home can make you feel displaced or misunderstood, and could reinforce feelings of depression that you may be experiencing. Reverse culture shock is likely to have an impact on friendship and family relations. This particularly applies to partnerships – where difficulties in re-establishing confidence, trust and intimacy may occur – and to children who, depending on their ages, may react in unexpected ways.

Factors contributing to reverse culture shock

There are many reasons why reverse culture shock occurs, but the major contributing factors are outlined below:

★ 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.

★ You will also have changed. You may have adopted different values and find it hard that people do not seem interested in the matters which concern you (such as caring about world issues).

★ 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, the way in which you overcome the challenges you face will be highly personalised. However, simply by being aware that reverse culture shock exists can already ease the process to some extent.

Strategies for dealing with reverse culture shock

Some possible strategies for dealing with reverse culture shock are outlined below:

★ Start mentally preparing for the adjustment process before ending your assignment. Ongoing reflection is useful in terms of clarifying your thoughts and feelings.

★ Take your time when coming home, both physically and mentally. Go easy on yourself and avoid setting deadlines for 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 with regard to family members, friends, politics, the job market and so on. Try to adapt to new routines and situations.

★ Renegotiate your roles and responsibilities at work and at home. The workload can be shared in new ways.

★ Seek and engage in 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 contact with colleagues or find other outlets that attract people of a similar mindset.

★ Find ways to incorporate your new interests and cross-cultural skills into your life at home.

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.

Symptoms of post-deployment stress

Some symptoms of post-mission stress include:

★ sleep disturbance,

★ restlessness and anxiety,

★ re-experiencing events,

★ feelings of emotional emptiness,

★ irritability,

★ self-reproach and feelings of guilt,

★ aggressiveness and hatred,

★ problems concentrating,

★ physical complaints.

Strategies for dealing with post-mission stress

Some strategies for dealing with post-mission stress are as follows:

★ Be patient and make time for recovery. It takes time to adjust to your new environment both physically and mentally. Following stressful experiences, it is natural to require more than your 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 to adapt to daily life at home.

★ Try to look after your body. As well as getting adequate rest, it is helpful to exercise. Avoid using excessive alcohol or drugs to cope with how you are feeling, as it tends to make things worse.

★ Communicate your experiences. Talk about your experiences, but keep in mind that others may not share the same interest in your mission experience or may lose interest sooner than you expect. Expressing your feelings and experiences through other channels such as the arts or cultural activities (e.g. writing, painting, dancing) may also be helpful.

★ 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 30 days or become more intense, it is advisable to seek assistance from a trained professional. It is not uncommon to develop depression after the mission, but it can be effectively treated.

Abbreviations

4WD	Four-wheel drive vehicle
AMM	Aceh Monitoring Mission (European Union)
AMISOM	African Union Mission in Somalia
AOR	Area of Responsibility
APM	Anti-Personnel Mines
ASF	African Standby Force
AU	African Union
AUBP	African Union Border Programme
AVM	Anti-Vehicle Mines
BINUCA	United Nations Integrated Peacebuilding Office in the Central African Republic
BNUB	United Nations Office in Burundi
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)

CMPD	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	Conflict Prevention Centre (OSCE) (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 (European Union)
DDR	Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration
DG	Directorate-General
DSD	Defence and Security Division (African Union)
EASF	Eastern Africa Standby Force
EC	European Commission
ECOMIB	ECOWAS Mission in Guinea-Bissau
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 (OCHA) (United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs)

ERW	Explosive Remnants of War
ESDC	European Security and Defence College
ESDP	European Security and Defence Policy (European Union)
EU	European Union
EUAM Ukraine	EU Advisory Mission for Civilian Security Sector Reform Ukraine
EUAVSEC	EU Aviation Security Mission in South Sudan
EU SITCEN	Joint European Situation Centre
EU SSR	European Union Security Sector Reform (Mission)
EUBAM	European Union Border Assistance Mission
EUCAP	EU capacity-building mission
EUFOR	European Union Force
EUJUST LEX	uropean 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
EUNAM RCA	EU Military Advisory Mission in the Central African Republic
EUNAVFOR Somalia/ Operation Atalanta:	European Union Naval Operation Force
EUPM/ EUPOL	European Union Police Mission
EUSEC DRC	EU Security Sector Reform Mission in the DRC
EUSR	European Union Special Representative
EUTM	European Union Training Mission

FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization (United Nations)
GPS	Global Positioning System
HoM	Head of Mission
HR	High Representative
HR/VP	High Representative of the European Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy and Vice-President of the European 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
IED	Improvised Explosive Device
IDDRS	Integrated Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration Standards
IDP	Internally Displaced Person
IfS	Instrument for Stability (European Union)
IcSP	Instrument contributing to Stability and Peace (European Union)
IMPP	Integrated Mission Planning Process (United Nations)
IMT	International Monitoring Team
INTERFET	International Force for East Timor
ISAF	International Security Assistance Force in Afghanistan
JPF	Joint Peacekeeping Force
KFOR	Kosovo Force (North Atlantic Treaty Organization)
MAPP OEA	Mission de Apoyo al proceso de paz en Colombia

MCDA	Military and Civil Defence Assets
MENUB	United Nations Electoral Observation Mission in Burundi
MFO	Multinational Force and Observers
MINURSO	United Nations Mission for the Referendum in Western Sahara
MINUSCA	UN Multidimensional Integrated Stabilization Mission in the Central African Republic
MINUSMA	United Nations Multidimensional Integrated Stabilization Mission in Mali
MINUSTAH	United Nations Stabilization Mission in Haiti
MISAHEL	African Union Mission to Mali and the Sahel
MISAC	African-led International Support Mission to the Central African Republic
MNJTF	Multinational Joint Task Force (in Boko Haram Regions)
MONUSCO	United Nations Organization Stabilization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo
MSF	Médecins Sans Frontières (Doctors Without Borders)
MVM	Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) Monitoring and Verifi cation Mechanism
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NRF	NATO Response Force
OAU	Organization of African Unity
OCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
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	United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
OHQ	Operational Headquarters
OIOS	Office for Internal Oversight Services
OMA	Office of Military Affairs
OPLAN	Operation plan
OROLSI	Office of Rule of Law and Security Institutions (United Nations)
OSCE	Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe
OSCE SMM	OSCE Special Monitoring Mission to Ukraine
PCRD	Post-Conflict Reconstruction and Development
POW	Prisoners of war
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
RAMSI	Regional Assistance Mission to Solomon Islands
RECs	Regional Economic Communities
RMs	Regional Mechanisms for Conflict Prevention, Management and Resolution
RoL	Rule of Law

RTF	Regional Task Force of the Regional Cooperation Initiative for the Elimination of the Lord's Resistance Army
SOP	Standard operating procedures
SRSG	Special Representative of the Secretary-General (United Nations)
SSR	Security Sector Reform
TIPH	Temporary International Presence in the City of Hebron
ToR	Terms of reference
UAV	Unmanned Aerial Vehicle
UN	United Nations
UNAMA	United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan
UNAMI	United Nations Assistance Mission for Iraq
UNAMID	United Nations/African Union Hybrid Operation in Darfur
UNDAC	United Nations Disaster Assessment and Coordination
UN DFS	United Nations Department of Field Support
UNDOF	UN Disengagement Observer Force
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UN DPA	United Nations Department of Political Affairs
UN DPKO	United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations
UNFICYP	United Nations Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus
UNGA	United Nations General Assembly
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIFIL	UN Interim Force in Lebanon

UNIOGBIS	United Nations Integrated Peacebuilding Office in Guinea-Bissau
UNIPSIL	United Nations Integrated Peacebuilding Office in Sierra Leone
UNISFA	United Nations Interim Security Force for Abyei
UNMIK	United Nations Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo
UNMIL	United Nations Mission in Liberia
UNMISS	United Nations Mission in South Sudan
UNMIT	United Nations Integrated Mission in East Timor
UNMOGIP	UN Military Observer Group in India and Pakistan
UNOCA	United Nations Regional Office for Central Africa
UNOCI	United Nations Operation in Côte d'Ivoire
UNOMS	United Nations Ombudsman and Mediation Services
UNOWA	United Nations Office for West Africa
UN PBC	United Nations Peacebuilding Commission
UN PBSO	United Nations Peacebuilding Support Office
UNPOL	United Nations Police
UNRCCA	United Nations Regional Center for Preventive Diplomacy for Central Asia
UNSCO	Office of the UN Special Coordinator for the Middle East Peace Process
UNSCOL	Office of the UN Special Coordinator for Lebanon
UNSMIL	United Nations Support Mission in Libya
UNSOM	United Nations Operation in Somalia

UNTAET	United Nations Transitional Administration in East Timor
UNTSO	United Nations Truce Supervision Organization
UTC	Coordinated Universal Time
UXO	Unexploded Ordnance
WEU	Western European Union
WHO	World Health Organization
WP	Way Points

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Annex

Phonetic Alphabet Letter 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**	XRAY
L	LIMA	**Y**	YANKEE
M	MIKE	**Z**	ZULU

Numbering Digit pronunciation

0	ZERO	**5**	FIFE
1	WUN	**6**	SIX
2	TOO	**7**	SEVEN
3	TREE	**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	WUN TOO
44	FO-WER FO-WER
90	NINER ZERO
138	WUN TREE ATE
500	FIFE HUNDRED
7,000	SEVEN THOUSAND
16,000	WUN SIX THOUSAND
1478	WUN FO-WER SEVEN ATE
19A	WUN NINER ALFA

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

Radio procedure words

PRO WORD	MEANING
ACKNOWLEDGE	Confirm that you have received my message.
AFFIRM NEGATIVE	Yes/correct. No/incorrect.
ALL AFTER ALL BEFORE	Everything that you/I transmitted after. Everything that you/I transmitted before.
BREAK-BREAK-BREAK	All stations will immediately cease transmission on hearing this 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 that 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	Transmitting 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.
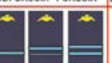
SEND SEND YOUR MESSAGE	Go ahead with your transmission. Go ahead, I am ready to copy.
SILENCE-SILENCE-SILENCE	Cease all transmission immediately. Silence will be maintained until lifted by network control operator.
SILENCE LIFTED	Silence is lifted, net is free for traffic.
SPEAK SLOWER/FASTER	Adjust the speed of your transmission.
I SPELL	I shall spell the next word phonetically.
THROUGH ME MESSAGE PASSED TO…	I am in contact with the station you are calling. I can act as a relay station. Your message has been passed to…
UNKNOWN STATION	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	I must pause for a few seconds.
WAIT OUT	I must pause longer than a few 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.

AIR FORCE	OR-1	OR-2	OR-3	OR-4
BELGIUM	NO INSIGNIA SOLDAAT	1ste SOLDAAT	KORPORAAL	KORPORAAL CHEF / 1ste KORPORAAL CHEF
BULGARIA	PRIVATE	NO RANK	NO RANK	CORPORAL
CANADA	NO INSIGNIA PRIVATE RECRUIT	NO INSIGNIA PRIVATE BASIC	PRIVATE TRAINED	CORPORAL
CZECH REPUBLIC	VOJÍN	SVOBODNÍK DESÁTNÍK ČETAŘ	ROTNÝ ROTMISTR	NADROTMISTR
DENMARK	KONSTABEL	OVERKONSTABEL	SPECIALIST	CONSCRIPT / CAREER KORPORAL
ESTONIA	NO INSIGNIA REAMEES	KAPRAL	NOOREM SEERSANT / SEERSANT	VANEMSEERSANT
FRANCE	NO INSIGNIA SOLDAT DE 2EME CLASSE	SOLDAT DE 1ERE CLASSE	CAPORAL	CAPORAL-CHEF
GERMANY	FLIEGER	GEFREITER	OBER-GEFREITER / HAUPT-GEFREITER	STABS-GEFREITER / OBERSTABS-GEFREITER
GREECE	NO INSIGNIA SMINITIS	NO INSIGNIA ANTHYPOSMINIAS	YPOSMINIAS	EFEDROS SMINIAS
HUNGARY	HONVÉD	ŐRVEZETŐ	TIZEDES	SZAKASZVEZETŐ
ICELAND	NO REGULAR ARMED FORCES - Icelands defe			
ITALY	NO INSIGNIA AVIERE	NO RANK	AVIERE SCELTO	1 ER AVIERE
LATVIA	NO INSIGNIA PRIVATE		LANCE CORPORAL	CORPORAL

OR-5	OR-6	OR-7	OR-8	OR-9
SERGEANT	1ste SERGEANT / 1ste SERGEANT CHEF	1ste SERGEANT MAJOOR	ADJUDANT	ADJUDANT CHEF / ADJUDANT MAJOOR
SERGEANT SECOND CLASS	SERGEANT	SERGEANT FIRST CLASS	CHIEF PETTY OFFICER	WARRANT OFFICER
MASTER CORPORAL	SERGEANT	WARRANT OFFICER	MASTER WARRANT OFFICER	CHIEF WARRANT OFFICER
ŠTÁBNÍ ROTMISTR	POPRAPORČÍK	PRAPORČÍK	NADPRAPORČÍK	ŠTÁBNÍ PRAPORČÍK
CONSCRIPT SERGENT / CAREER SERGENT	NO RANK	OVERSERGENT	SENIORSERGENT	CHEFSERGENT
NOOREMVEEBEL	VEEBEL	VANEMVEEBEL	STABIVEEBEL	ÜLEMVEEBEL
CONSCRIPT SERGENT / CAREER SERGENT	SERGENT-CHEF		ADJUDANT	ADJUDANT CHEF / ADJUDANT MAJOR
UNTER-OFFIZIER / STABSUNTEROFFIZIER	FELDWEBEL / OBERFELDWEBEL	HAUPTFELDWEBEL	HAUPT-FELDWEBEL / STABS-FELDWEBEL	OBERSTABSFELDWEBEL
SMINIAS	EPSISMINIAS	ARCHISMINIAS	NO RANK	ANTHYPASPISTIS
ÖRMESTER	TÖRZSÖRMESTER	FÖTÖRZSÖRMESTER	TÖRZSZÁSZLÓS / ZÁSZLÓS FÖTÖRZSZÁSZLÓS	NO RANK
...nce is provided by US manned Icelandic Defence Force (IDF)				
SERGENTE	SERGENTE MAGGIORE	NO RANK	MARESCIALLO DI 3° CLASSE / MARESCIALLO DI 2° CLASSE	MARESCIALLO DI 1° CLASSE / PRIMO MARESCIALLO / LUOGOTENENTE
SERGEANT	SENIOR SERGEANT	STAFF SERGEANT	SERGEANT MAJOR	COMMAND SERGEANT MAJOR

	OF-1	OF-2	OF-3	OF-4	OF-5
BELGIUM	ONDER-LUITENANT / LUITENANT	KAPITEIN	KAPITEIN COMMANDANT / MAJOOR	LUITENANT-KOLONEL	KOLONEL
BULGARIA	SECOND LIEUTENANT / FIRST LIEUTENANT	CAPTAIN	MAJOR	LIEUTENANT COLONEL	COLONEL
CANADA	2nd LIEUTENANT / LIEUTENANT	CAPTAIN	MAJOR	LIEUTENANT-COLONEL	COLONEL
CZECH REPUBLIC	PODPORUČÍK / PORUČÍK	NADPORUČÍK / KAPITÁN	MAJOR	PODPLUKOVNÍK	PLUKOVNÍK
DENMARK	SECOND LEUTNANT / LØJTNANT / PREMIER LEUTNANT	KAPTAJN	MAJOR	OBERSTLØJTNANT	OBERST
ESTONIA	LIPNIK / NOOREM LEITNANT / LEITNANT	KAPTEN	MAJOR	KOLONELLEITNANT	KOLONEL
FRANCE	SOUS-LIEUTENANT / LIEUTENANT	CAPITAINE	COMMANDANT	LIEUTENANT COLONEL	COLONEL
GERMANY	LEUTNANT / OBERLEUTNANT	HAUPTMANN / STABS-HAUPTMANN	MAJOR	OBERSTLEUTNANT	OBERST
GREECE	ANTHY-POSMINAGOS / YPOSMINAGOS	SMINAGOS	EPISMINAGOS	ANTISMINARCHOS	SMINARCHOS
HUNGARY	HADNAGY / FÖHADNAGY	SZÁZADOS	ÖRNAGY	ALEZREDES	EZREDES
ICELAND	NO REGULAR ARMED FORCES - Icelands defence is				
ITALY	SOTTOTENTE / TENENTE	CAPITANO / 1° CAPITANO	MAGGIORE	TENENTE COLONNELLO	COLONNELLO
LATVIA	LIEUTENAKT / FIRST LIEUTENANT	CAPTAIN	MAJOR	LIEUTENANT COLONEL	COLONEL

OF-6	OF-7	OF-8	OF-9	OF-10
BRIGADEGENERAAL	GENERAAL-MAJOOR	LUITENANT-GENERAAL	GENERAAL	NO RANK
MAJOR GENERAL	BRIGADIER GENERAL	LIEUTENANT GENERAL	GENERAL	NO RANK
BRIGADIER-GENERAL	MAJOR-GENERAL	LIEUTENANT-GENERAL	GENERAL	NO RANK
BRIGÁDNÍ GENERAL	GENERALMAJOR	GENERÁLPORUČÍK	ARMÁDNIGENERÁL	NO RANK
BRIGADEGENERAL	GENERALMAJOR	GENERALLØJTNANT	GENERAL	NO RANK
BRIGAADIKINDRAL	KINDRALMAJOR	KINDRALLEITNANT	KINDRAL	NO RANK
GENERAL DE BRIGADE AERIENNE	GENERAL DE DIVISION AERIENNE	GENERAL DE CORPS AERIEN	GENERAL DE ARMEE AERIENNE	MARÉCHAL DE FRANCE
BRIGADEGENERAL	GENERALMAJOR	GENERALLEUTNANT	GENERAL	NO RANK
TAXIARCHOS	YPOPTERARCHOS	ANTIPTERARCHOS	TERARCHOS	NO RANK
DANDÁRTÁBORNOK	VEZÉRŐRNAGY	ALTÁBORNAGY	VEZÉREZREDES	NO RANK

provided by US manned Icelandic Defence Force (IDF)

OF-6	OF-7	OF-8	OF-9	OF-10
GENERALE DI BRIGATA AEREA	GENERALE DI DIVISION AEREA	GENERALE DI SQUADRA AEREA	GENERALE DI SQUADRA AEREA CON INCARICHI SPECIALI / CAPO DI STATO MAGGIORE DELLA DIFESA	NO RANK
BRIGADIER GENERAL	MAJOR GENERAL	LIEUTENANT GENERAL	NO RANK	NO RANK

AIR FORCE	OR-1	OR-2	OR-3	OR-4
LITHUANIA	NO INSIGNIA ELINIS	GRANDINIS	JAUNESNYSIS SERŽANTAS	SERŽANTAS
LUXEMBOURG	NO AIR			
NETHERLANDS	NO INSIGNIA SOLDAAT	SOLDAAT DER 1E KLASSE	KORPORAAL	KORPORAAL DER 1E KLASSE
NORWAY	NO INSIGNIA FLYSOLDAT	NO RANK	NO RANK	KORPORAL
POLAND	NO INSIGNIA SZEREGOWY	STARSZY SZEREGOWY	KAPRAL STARSZY KAPRAL	PLUTONOWY
PORTUGAL	NO INSIGNIA SOLDADO	SEGUNDO-CABO	PREMEIRO- CABO	CABO - ADJUNTO
ROMANIA	NO INSIGNIA SOLDAT		FRUNTAS	CORPORAL
SLOVAKIA	NO INSIGNIA VOJAK	VOJAK	SLOBODNIK	DESIATNIK
SLOVENIA	NO INSIGNIA VOJAK	PODDESETNIK	DESETNIK	NADDESETNIK
SPAIN	SOLDADO	SOLDADO PRIMERO	CABO	CABO PRIMERO
TURKEY	NO INSIGNIA ER	NO RANK	NO RANK	ONBAŞI
UK	NO INSIGNIA AIRCRAFTMAN	LEADING SENIOR AIRCRAFTMAN	JUNIOR TECHNICIAN	CORPORAL
USA	NO INSIGNIA BASIC AIRMAN	AIRMAN	AIRMAN FIRST CLASS	SENIOR AIRMAN

OR-5	OR-6	OR-7	OR-8	OR-9
VYRESNYSIS SERŽANTAS	VERŠILA	JAUNESNYSIS PUSKARININKIS	PUSKARININKIS	VYRESNYSIS PUSKARININKIS
SERGEANT	SERGEANT DER 1E KLASSE	SERGEANT-MAJOOR / SQUADRON SERGEANT-MAJOOR	ADJUDANT-ONDEROFFICIER / SQUADRON-ADJUDANT	STAFF-ADJUDANT / LUCHTMACHT-ADJUDANT
SERSJANT	NO RANK	NO RANK	NO RANK	NO RANK
SIERŻANT	STARSZY SIERŻANT	MŁODSZY CHORĄŻY	CHORĄŻY	STARSZY CHORĄŻY / STARSZY CHORĄŻY SZTABOWY
SEGUNDO-FURRIEL / FURRIEL	SEGUNDO-SARGENTO / PREMEIRO-SARGENTO	SARGENTO-AJUDANTE	SARGENTO-CHEFE	SARGENTO-MOR
SERGEANT / MAISTRU MILITAR CLASA V	SERGEANT MAJOR / MAISTRU MILITAR CLASA IV	PLUTONIER / MAISTRU MILITAR CLASA III	PLUTONIER MAJOR / MAISTRU MILITAR CLASA II	PLUTONIER ADJUTANT / MM CLASA I / PLUTONIER ADJUTANT SEF / MM PRINCIPAL
ČATÁR	ROTNÝ	ROTMAJSTER	NADROTMAJSTER	ŠTÁBNY NADROTMAJSTER
VODNIK	VIŠJI VODNIK / ŠTABNI VODNIK	VIŠJI ŠTABNI VODNIK	PRAPORŠČAK / VIŠJI PRAPORŠČAK	ŠTABNI PRAPORŠČAK / VIŠJI ŠTABNI PRAPORŠČAK
CABO MAYOR	SARGENTO	SARGENTO PRIMERO	BRIGADA	SUBTENIENTE / SUBOFICIAL MAYOR
ÇAVUŞ	ASTUBAY ÇAVUŞ / ASTUBAY KIDEMLI ÇAVUŞ	ASTUBAY ÜSTÇAVUŞ / ASTUBAY KIDEMLI USTÇAVUŞ	ASTUBAY BAŞÇAVUŞ	ASTUBAY KIDEMLI BAS ÇAVUŞ
SERGEANT		CHIEF TECHNICIAN / FLIGHT SERGEANT	NO RANK	MASTER AIRCREW / WARRANT OFFICER
STAFF SERGEANT	TECHNICAL SERGEANT	MASTER SERGEANT (1st SERGEANT) / MASTER SERGEANT	SENIOR MASTER SERGEANT (See Note 1)	CHIEF MASTER SERGEANT (See Note 1) / COMMAND CHIEF MASTER SERGEANT / CHIEF MASTER SERGEANT OF THE AIR FORCE

FORCES

	OF-1	OF-2	OF-3	OF-4	OF-5
LITHUANIA	LEITENANTAS / VYRESNYSIS LEITENANTAS	KAPITONAS	MAJORAS	PULKININKAS LEITENANTAS	PULKININKAS
LUXEMBOURG	NO AIR F...				
NETHERLANDS	TWEEDE-LUITENANT / EERSTE-LUITENANT	KAPITEIN	MAJOOR	LUITENANT-KOLONEL	KOLONEL
NORWAY	FENRIK / LØYTNANT	KAPTEIN	MAJOR	OBERSTLØYTNANT	OBERST
POLAND	PODPORUCZNIK / PORUCZNIK	KAPITAN	MAJOR	PODPUŁKOWNIK	PUŁKOWNIK
PORTUGAL	ASPIRANTE / ALFERES / TENTE	CAPITÃO	MAJOR	TENENTE -CORONEL	CORONEL
ROMANIA	SUBLOCOTENENT / LOCOTENENT	CAPITAN	LOCOTENENT-COMANDER	CAPITAN-COMMANDER	COMANDOR
SLOVAKIA	PORUČIK / NADPORUČIK	KAPITÁN	MAJOR	PODPLUKOVNIK	PLUKOVNIK
SLOVENIA	POROČNIK / NADPOROČNIK	STOTNIK	MAJOR	PODPOLKOVNIK	POLKOVNIK
SPAIN	ALFÉREZ / TENIENTE	CAPITÁN	COMANDANTE	TENIENTE CORONEL	CORONEL
TURKEY	ASTEĞMEN / TEĞMEN / ÜSTEĞMEN	YÜZBAŞI	BİNBAŞI	YARBAY	ALBAY
UK	PILOT OFFICER / FLYING OFFICER	FLIGHT LIEUTENANT	SQUADRON LEADER	WING COMMANDER	GROUP CAPTAIN
USA	2nd LIEUTENANT / 1st LIEUTENANT	CAPTAIN	MAJOR	LIEUTENANT COLONEL	COLONEL

OF-6	OF-7	OF-8	OF-9	OF-10
BRIGADOS GENEROLAS	GENEROLAS MAJORAS	GENEROLAS LEITENANTAS	NO RANK	NO RANK
FORCES				
COMMODORE	LUITENANT-GENERAAL	GENERAAL-MAJOOR	GENERAAL	NO RANK
BRIGADER	GENERALMAJOR	GENERALLØYTNANT	GENERAL	NO RANK
GENERAŁ BRYGADY	GENERAŁ DYWIZJI	GENERAŁ BRONI	GENERAŁ	NO RANK
BRIGADEIRO-GENERAL	MAJOR-GENERAL	TENENTE-GENERAL	GENERAL	MARECHAL (DIGNIDADE HONORÍFICA)
GENERAL DE FLOTILA AERIANA	GENERAL-MAIOR	GENERAL-LOCOTENENT	GENERAL	NO RANK
BRIGÁDNY GENERÁL	GENERÁLMAJOR	GENERÁLPORUČÍK	GENERÁL	NO RANK
BRIGADIR	GENERAL MAJOR	GENERAL PODPOLKOVNIK	GENERAL	NO RANK
GENERAL DE BRIGADA	GENERAL DE DIVISIÓN	TENIENTE GENERAL	GENERAL DE EJÉRCITO	CAPITÁN GENERAL
TUĞGENERAL	TÜMGENERAL	KORGENERAL	ORGENERAL	MAREŞAL
AIR COMMODORE	AIR VICE MARSHAL	AIR MARSHAL	AIR CHIEF MARSHAL	MARSHAL OF THE ROYAL AIR FORCE
BRIGADIER GENERAL	MAJOR GENERAL	LIEUTENANT GENERAL	GENERAL	GENERAL OF THE AIR FORCE

ARMY	OR-1	OR-2	OR-3	OR-4
BELGIUM	NO INSIGNIA SOLDAAT	1ste SOLDAAT	KORPORAAL	KORPORAAL CHEF / 1ste KORPORAAL CHEF
BULGARIA	PRIVATE	NO RANK	NO RANK	CORPORAL
CANADA	NO INSIGNIA PRIVATE RECRUIT	PRIVATE BASIC	PRIVATE TRAINED	CORPORAL
CZECH REPUBLIC	VOJÍN	SVOBODNIK / DESATNIK / ČETAŘ	ROTNÝ / ROTMISTR	NADROTMISTR
DENMARK	KONSTABEL	OVERKONSTABEL	OVERKONSTABEL 1	KORPORAL
ESTONIA	NO INSIGNIA REAMEES	KAPRAL	NOOREM SEERSANT / SEERSANT	VANEMSEERSANT
FRANCE	SOLDAT DE 2EME CLASSE	SOLDAT DE 1ERE CLASSE	CAPORAL	CAPORAL-CHEF
GERMANY	SOLDAT	GEFREITER	OBER-GEFREITER / HAUPT-GEFREITER	STABS-GEFREITER / OBERSTABS-GEFREITER
GREECE	NO INSIGNIA STRATIOTIS	NO RANK	YPODEKANEAS	DEKANEAS
HUNGARY	HONVÉD	ŐRVEZETŐ	TIZEDES	SZAKASZVEZETŐ
ICELAND	NO REGULAR ARMED FORCES - Icelands defe			
ITALY	NO INSIGNIA SOLDATO	CAPORALE	CAPORAL MAGGIORE / 1° CAPORAL MAGGIORE / CAPORAL MAGGIORE SCELTO	CAPORAL MAGGIORE CAPO / CAPORAL MAGGIORE CAPO SCELTO
LATVIA	NO INSIGNIA PRIVATE		LANCE CORPORAL	CORPORAL

OR-5	OR-6	OR-7	OR-8	OR-9
SERGEANT	1ste SERGEANT / 1ste SERGEANT CHEF	1ste SERGEANT-MAJOOR	ADJUDANT	ADJUDANT CHEF / ADJUDANT MAJOOR
SERGEANT SECOND CLASS	SERGEANT	SERGEANT FIRST CLASS	CHIEF PETTY OFFICER	WARRANT OFFICER
MASTER CORPORAL	SERGEANT	WARRANT OFFICER	MASTER WARRANT OFFICER	CHIEF WARRANT OFFICER
ŠTÁBNÍ ROTMISTR	PODPRAPORČÍK	PRAPORČÍK	NADPRAPORČÍK	STÁBNÍ PRAPORČÍK
SERGENT	NO RANK	OVERSERGENT	SENIORSERGENT	CHEFSERGENT
NOOREMVEEBEL	VEEBEL	VANEMVEEBEL	STABIVEEBEL	ÜLEMVEEBEL
SERGENT	SERGENT-CHEF		ADJUDANT	ADJUDANT CHEF / MAJOR
UNTER-OFFIZIER / STABSUNTER-OFFIZIER	FELDWEBEL / OBER-FELDWEBEL	HAUPTFELDWEBEL	HAUPT-FELDWEBEL / STABS-FELDWEBEL	OBERSTABSFELDWEBEL
LOHIAS	EPILOKHIAS	ARKHILOKIAS	NO RANK	ANTHYPASPISTIS
ÖRMESTER	TÖRZSÖRMESTER	FŐTÖRZSŐRMESTER	ZÁSZLÓS / TÖRZSZÁSZLÓS / FŐTÖRZSZÁSZLÓS	NO RANK
nce is provided by US manned Icelandic Defence Force (IDF)				
SERGENTE	SERGENTE MAGGIORE	SERGENTE MAGGIORE CAPO	MARESCIALLO / MARESCIALLO ORDINARIO	MARESCIALLO CAPO / PRIMO MARESCIALLO / LUOGOTENENTE
SERGEANT	SENIOR SERGEANT	STAFF SERGEANT	SERGEANT MAJOR	COMMAND SERGEANT MAJOR

	OF-1		OF-2		OF-3		OF-4	OF-5
BELGIUM	ONDER LUITENANT	LUITENANT	KAPITEIN		COMMANDANT	MAJOOR	LUITENANT-KOLONEL	KOLONEL
BULGARIA	SECOND LIEUTENANT	FIRST LIEUTENANT	CAPTAIN		MAJOR		LIEUTENANT COLONEL	COLONEL
CANADA	2nd LIEUTENANT	LIEUTENANT	CAPTAIN		MAJOR		LIEUTENANT-COLONEL	COLONEL
CZECH REPUBLIC	PODPORUČÍK	PORUČÍK	NADPORUČÍK	KAPITÁN	MAJOR		PODPLUKOVNÍK	PLUKOVNÍK
DENMARK	LØJTNANT	FLYVER LØJTNANT	PREMIER LØJTNANT	KAPTAJN	MAJOR		OBERSTLØJTNANT	OBERST
ESTONIA	LIPNIK	NOOREM LEITNANT	LEITNANT	KAPTEN	MAJOR		KOLONELLEITNANT	KOLONEL
FRANCE	SOUS-LIEUTENANT	LIEUTENANT	CAPITAINE		COMMANDANT		LIEUTENANT COLONEL	COLONEL
GERMANY	LEUTNANT	OBER LEUTNANT	HAUPTMANN	STABS-HAUPTMANN	MAJOR		OBERSTLEUTNANT	OBERST
GREECE	ANTHY POLOKHAGOS	YPOLOKHAGOS	LOKHAGOS		TAGMATARKHIS		ANTISYNTAGMATARKHIS	SYNTAGMATARKHIS
HUNGARY	HADNAGY	FÖHADNAGY	SZÁZADOS		ÖRNAGY		ALEZREDES	EZREDES
ICELAND	NO REGULAR ARMED FORCES - Icelands defence is							
ITALY	SOTTOTENENTE	TENENTE	CAPITANO	1°CAPITANO	MAGGIORE		TENENTE COLONNELLO	COLONNELLO
LATVIA	LIEUTENANT	FIRST LIEUTENANT	CAPTAIN		MAJOR		LIEUTENANT COLONEL	COLONEL

OF-6	OF-7	OF-8	OF-9	OF-10
BRIGADEGENERAAL	GENERAAL-MAJOOR	LUITENANT-GENERAAL	GENERAAL	NO RANK
BRIGADIER GENERAL	MAJOR GENERAL	LIEUTENANT GENERAL	GENERAL	NO RANK
BRIGADIER-GENERAL	MAJOR-GENERAL	LIEUTENANT-GENERAL	GENERAL	NO RANK
BRIGÁDNÍ GENERÁL	GENERÁLMAJOR	GENERÁLPORUČÍK	ARMÁDNÍGENERÁL	NO RANK
BRIGADEGENERAL	GENERALMAJOR	GENERALLØJTNANT	GENERAL	NO RANK
BRIGAADIKINDRAL	KINDRALMAJOR	KINDRALLEITNANT	KINDRAL	NO RANK
GENERAL DE BRIGADE	GENERAL DE DIVISION	GENERAL DE CORPS D'ARMEE	GENERAL D'ARMEE	MARECHAL DE FRANCE
BRIGADEGENERAL	GENERALMAJOR	GENERALLEUTNANT	GENERAL	NO RANK
TAXIARKHOS	YPOSTRATIGOS	ANTISTRATIGOS	STRATIGOS	NO RANK
DANDÁRTÁBORNOK	VEZÉRŐRNAGY	ALTÁBORNAGY	VEZÉREZREDES	NO RANK

provided by US manned Icelandic Defence Force (IDF)

OF-6	OF-7	OF-8	OF-9		OF-10
BRIGADIER GENERALE	MAGGIOR GENERALE	TENENTE GENERALE	TENENTE GENERALE DON INCARICHI SPECIALI	CAPO DI SATO MAGGIORE DELLA DIFESA	NO RANK
BRIGADIER GENERAL	MAJOR GENERAL	LIEUTENANT GENERAL	NO RANK		NO RANK

ARMY	OR-1	OR-2	OR-3	OR-4
LITHUANIA	NO INSIGNIA ELINIS	GRANDINIS	JAUNESNYSIS SERŽANTAS	SERŽANTAS
LUXEMBOURG	NO INSIGNIA SOLDAAT	SOLDAAT 1 CLASSE / SOLDAAT -CHEF / 1 SOLDAAT -CHEF	CAPORAL / CAPORAL 1 CLASSE	CAPORAL -CHEF / 1 CAPORAL -CHEF
NETHERLANDS	NO INSIGNIA SOLDAAT	SOLDAAT DER 2E KLASSE / SOLDAAT DER 1E KLASSE	KORPORAAL	KORPORAAL DER 1E KLASSE
NORWAY	NO INSIGNIA MENIG	NO RANK	NO RANK	KORPORAL
POLAND	NO INSIGNIA SZEREGOWY	STARSZY SZEREGOWY	KAPRAL / STARSZY KAPRAL	PLUTONOWY
PORTUGAL	NO INSIGNIA SOLDADO	SEGUNDO-CABO	PREMEIRO-CABO	CABO-ADJUNTO / CABO-DE-SECCAO
ROMANIA	NO INSIGNIA SOLDAT		FRUNTAS	CORPORAL
SLOVAKIA	NO INSIGNIA VOJAK	VOJAK	SLOBODNIK	DESIATNIK
SLOVENIA	NO INSIGNIA VOJAK	PODDESETNIK	DESETNIK	NADDESETNIK
SPAIN	SOLDADO	SOLDADO PRIMERO	CABO	CABO PRIMERO
TURKEY	NO INSIGNIA ER	NO RANK	NO RANK	ONBAŞI
UK	NO INSIGNIA PRIVATE (CLASS 4)	NO INSIGNIA PRIVATE	LANCE CORPORAL	CORPORAL
USA	NO INSIGNIA PRIVATE E-1	PRIVATE E-2	PRIVATE FIRST CLASS	SPECIALIST / CORPORAL

OR-5	OR-6	OR-7	OR-8	OR-9
VYRESNYSIS SERŽANTAS	VERŠILA	JAUNESNYSIS PUSKARININKIS	PUSKARININKIS	VYRESNYSIS PUSKARININKIS
SERGENT	1 SERGENT	SERGENT-CHEF	ADJUDANT	ADJUDANT-CHEF / ADJUDANT-MAJOR / ADJUDANT DE L'ÉTAT-MAJOR DE L'ARMÉE
SERGEANT	SERGEANT DER 1E KLASSE	SERGEANT-MAJOOR / COMPAGNIES SERGEANT-MAJOOR	ADJUDANT-ONDEROFFICIER / ADJUDANT	STAFF-ADJUDANT
SERSJANT	NO RANK	NO RANK	NO RANK	NO RANK
SIERŻANT	STARSZY SIERŻANT	MŁODSZY CHORĄŻY	CHORĄŻY	STARSZY CHORĄŻY / STARSZY CHORĄŻY SZTABOWY
SEGUNDO-FURRIEL / FURRIEL	SEGUNDO-SARGENTO / PREMEIRO-SARGENTO	SARGENTO-AJUDANTE	SARGENTO-CHEFE	SARGENTO-MOR
SERGEANT / MAISTRU MILITAR CLASA V	SERGEANT MAJOR / MAISTRU MILITAR CLASA IV	PLUTONIER / MAISTRU MILITAR CLASA III	PLUTONIER MAJOR / MAISTRU MILITAR CLASA II / PLUTONIER ADJUTANT	MM CLASA I / PLUTONIER ADJUTANT SEF / MM PRINCIPAL
ČATÁR	ROTNÝ	ROTMAJSTER	NADROTMAJSTER	ŠTÁBNÝ NADROTMAJSTER
VODNIK	VIŠJI VODNIK / ŠTABNI VODNIK	VIŠJI ŠTABNI VODNIK	PRAPORŠČAK / VIŠJI PRAPORŠČAK	ŠTABNI PRAPORŠČAK / VIŠJI ŠTABNI PRAPORŠČAK
CABO MAYOR	SARGENTO	SARGENTO PRIMERO	BRIGADA	SUBTENIENTE / SUBOFICIAL MAYOR
ÇAVUŞ	ASTUSBAY ÇAVUŞ / ASTUSBAY KIDEMLI ÇAVUŞ	ASTUSBAY ÜSTÇAVUŞ / ASTUSBAY KIDEMLI ÜSTÇAVUŞ	ASTUSBAY BAŞÇAVUŞ	ASTUSBAY KIDEMLI BAŞÇAVUŞ
SERGEANT		STAFF SERGEANT	SGT MAJ WARRANT OFFICER CLASS 2 / RQMS WARRANT OFFICER CLASS 2	WARRANT OFFICER CLASS 1
SERGEANT	STAFF SERGEANT	SERGEANT FIRST CLASS	MASTER SERGEANT / FIRST SERGEANT	SERGEANT MAJOR / COMMAND SERGEANT MAJOR / SERGEANT MAJOR OF THE ARMY

Country	OF-1	OF-2	OF-3	OF-4	OF-5
LITHUANIA	LEITENANTAS / VYRESNYSIS LEITENANTAS	KAPITONAS	MAJORAS	PULKININKAS LEITENANTAS	PULKININKAS
LUXEMBOURG	LIEUTENANT / LIEUTENANT EN PREMIER	CAPTAIN	MAJOR	LIEUTENANT COLONEL	COLONEL
NETHERLANDS	TWEEDE-LUITENANT / ERSTE-LUITENANT	KAPITEIN	MAJOOR	LUITENANT-KOLONEL	KOLONEL
NORWAY	FENRIK / LØYTNANT	KAPTEIN	MAJOR	OBERSTLØYTNANT	OBERST
POLAND	PODPORUCZNIK / PORUCZNIK	KAPITAN	MAJOR	PODPUŁKOWNIK	PUŁKOWNIK
PORTUGAL	ASPIRANTE / ALFERES / TENENTE	CAPITÃO	MAJOR	TENENTE CORONEL	CORONEL
ROMANIA	SUBLOCOTENENT / LOCOTENENT	CAPITAN	MAIOR	LOCOTENENT-COLONEL	COLONEL
SLOVAKIA	PORUČÍK / NADPORUČÍK	KAPITÁN	MAJOR	PODPLUKOVNÍK	PLUKOVNÍK
SLOVENIA	POROČNIK / NADPOROČNIK	STOTNIK	MAJOR	PODPOLKOVNIK	POLKOVNIK
SPAIN	ALFÉREZ / TENIENTE	CAPITÁN	COMANDANTE	TENIENTE CORONEL	CORONEL
TURKEY	ASTEĞMEN / TEĞMEN / ÜSTEĞMEN	YÜZBAŞI	BİNBAŞI	YARBAY	ALBAY
UK	2ND LIEUTENANT / LIEUTENANT	CAPTAIN	MAJOR	LIEUTENANT COLONEL	COLONEL
USA	2nd LIEUTENANT / 1st LIEUTENANT	CAPTAIN	MAJOR	LIEUTENANT COLONEL	COLONEL

OF-6	OF-7	OF-8	OF-9	OF-10
BRIGADOS GENEROLAS	GENEROLAS MAJORAS	GENEROLAS LEITENANTAS	NO RANK	NO RANK
NO RANK	NO RANK	NO RANK	NO RANK	NO RANK
BRIGADE-GENERAL	GENERAL-MAJOOR	LUITENANT-GENERAAL	GENERAAL	NO RANK
BRIGADER	GENERALMAJOR	GENERALLØYTNANT	GENERAL	NO RANK
GENERAŁ BRYGADY	GENERAŁ DYWIZJI	GENERAŁ BRONI	GENERAŁ	NO RANK
BRIGADIERO GENERAL	MAJOR GENERAL	TENENTE GENERAL	GENERAL	MARECHAL
GENERAL DE BRIGADA	GENERAL-MAIOR	GENERAL-LOCOTENENT	GENERAL	NO RANK
BRIGÁDNY GENERÁL	GENERÁLMAJOR	GENERÁLPORUČÍK	GENERÁL	NO RANK
BRIGADIR	GENERAL MAJOR	GENERAL PODPOLKOVNIK	GENERAL	NO RANK
GENERAL DE BRIGADA	GENERAL DE DIVISIÓN	TENIENTE GENERAL	GENERAL DE EJÉRCITO	CAPITAN GENERAL
TUĞGENERAL	TÜMGENERAL	KORGENERAL	ORGENERAL	MAREŞAL
BRIGADIER	MAJOR GENERAL	LIEUTENANT GENERAL	GENERAL	FIELD MARSHAL
BRIGADIER GENERAL	MAJOR GENERAL	LIEUTENANT GENERAL	GENERAL	GENERAL OF THE ARMY

NAVY	OR-1	OR-2	OR-3	OR-4
BELGIUM	NO INSIGNIA MATROOS	1STE MATROOS	KWARTIER MEESTER / KWARTIER MEESTER-CHEF	1STE KWATIERMEESTER-CHEF
BULGARIA	SAILOR	NO RANK	NO RANK	SAILOR FIRST CLASS
CANADA	NO INSIGNIA SEAMAN	NO INSIGNIA ORDINARY SEAMAN	ABLE SEAMAN	LEADING SEAMAN
CZECH REPUBLIC	NO NAVA			
DENMARK	MARINEELEV / MARINE KONSTABEL	MARINEOVERKONSTABEL	MARINESPECIALIST	KORPORAL
ESTONIA	NO INSIGNIA MADRUS	VANEMMADRUS	NOOREMMAAT / MAAT	VANEMMAAT
FRANCE	NO INSIGNIA MATELOT	MATELOT BREVETE	QUARTIER-MAITRE DE 2ème CLASSE	QUARTIER-MAITRE DE 1ère CLASSE
GERMANY	NO INSIGNIA MATROSE	GEFREITER	OBERGEFREITER / HAUPT GEFREITER	STABS GEFREITER / OBERSTABS GEFREITER
GREECE	NO INSIGNIA NAFTIS	NAPHTISA	NO RANK	DIOPOS
HUNGARY	NO NAVA			
ICELAND	NO REGULAR ARMED FORCES - Icelands defe			
ITALY	COMUNE DI 2° CLASSE	COMUNE DI 1° CLASSE	NO RANK	SOTTOCAPO
LATVIA	NO INSIGNIA SEAMAN		ABLE SEAMAN	CORPORAL

OR-5	OR-6	OR-7	OR-8	OR-9
TWEEDE MEESTER	MEESTER / MEESTER-CHEF	1STE MEESTER	1STE MEESTER-CHEF	OPPERMEESTER / OPPERMEESTER-CHEF
PETTY OFFICER 2ND CLASS	PETTY OFFICER 1ST CLASS	SERGEANT FIRST CLASS	CHIEF PETTY OFFICER	WARRANT OFFICER
MASTER SEAMAN	PETTY OFFICER 2ND CLASS	PETTY OFFICER 1ST CLASS	CHIEF PETTY OFFICER 2ND CLASS	CHIEF PETTY OFFICER 1ST CLASS
SERGENT	NO RANK	OVERSERGENT	SENIORSERGENT	CHEFSERGENT
NOOREMVEEBEL	VEEBEL	VANEMVEEBEL	STABIVEEBEL	ÜLEMVEEBEL
CONSCRIPT / CAREER SECOND MAITRE	MAITRE	NO RANK	PREMIER MAITRE	MAITRE PRINCIPAL / MAJOR
MAAT / OBERMAAT	BOOTSMANN / OBERBOOTSMANN	HAUPTBOOTSMANN	HAUPTBOOTSMANN / STABS-BOOTSMANN	OBERSTABSBOOTSMANN
KELEFSTIS	EPIKELESTIS	ARCHIKELEFSTIS	NO RANK	ANTHYPASPISTIS

nce is provided by US manned Icelandic Defence Force (IDF)

OR-5	OR-6	OR-7	OR-8	OR-9
SERGENTE	2° CAPO	NO RANK	CAPO DI 3ª CLASSE / CAPO DI 2ª CLASSE	CAPO DI 1ª CLASSE / PRIMO MARESCIALLO / LUOGOTENENTE
PETTY OFFICER	SENIOR PETTY OFFICER	STAFF PETTY OFFICER	CHIEF PETTY OFFICER	CHIEF PETTY OFFICER / COMMAND CHIEF PETTY OFFICER

NAVY	OF-1	OF-2	OF-3	OF-4	OF-5
BELGIUM	VAANDRIG-TER-ZEE TWEEDE KLASSE / VAANDRIG-TER-ZEE	LUITENANT-TER-ZEE	LUITENANT-TER-ZEE EERSTE KLASSE / KORVETKAPITEIN	FREGATKAPITEIN	KAPITEIN-TER-ZEE
BULGARIA	SECOND LIEUTENANT / FIRST LIEUTENANT	LIEUTENANT	LIEUTENANT COMMANDER	COMMANDER	CAPTAIN
CANADA	ACTING SUB-LIEUTENANT / SUB-LIEUTENANT	LIEUTENANT	LIEUTENANT COMMANDER	COMMANDER	CAPTAIN
CZECH REPUBLIC	NO NAVAL				
DENMARK	LØJTNANT / PREMIERLØJTNANT	KAPTAJNLØJTNANT	ORLOGSKAPTAJN	KOMMANDØRKAPTAJN	KOMMANDØR
ESTONIA	LIPNIK / NOOREM LEITNANT / LEITNANT	VANEMLEITNANT	KAPTENMAJOR	KAPTENLEITNANT	MEREVÄEKAPTEN
FRANCE	ENSEIGNE DE VAISSEAU 2e CLASSE / ENSEIGNE DE VAISSEAU 1e CLASSE	LIEUTENANT DE VAISSEAU	CAPITAINE DE CORVETTE	CAPITAINE DE FRÉGATE	CAPITAINE DE VAISSEAU
GERMANY	LEUTNANT ZUR SEE / OBERLEUTNANT ZUR SEE	KAPITÄN LEUTNANT / STABSKAPITÄN LEUTNANT	KORVETTENKAPITÄN	FREGATTENKAPITÄN	KAPITÄN ZUR SEE
GREECE	SIMAIOFOROS / ANTHY POPLIARCHOS	YPOPLIARCHOS	PLOTARCHIS	ANTIPLIARCHOS	PLIARCHOS
HUNGARY	NO NAVAL				
ICELAND	NO REGULAR ARMED FORCES - Icelands defence is				
ITALY	ASPIRANTE GUARDIAMARINA / GUARDIAMARINA / SOTTOTENENTE DI VASCELLO	TENENTE DI VASCELLO / 1° TENENTE DI VASCELLO	CAPITANO DI CORVETTA	CAPITANO DI FREGATA	CAPITANO DI VASCELLO
LATVIA	LIEUTENANT JUNIOR GRADE	LIEUTENANT SENIOR GRADE	LIEUTENANT COMMANDER	COMMANDER JUNIOR GRADE / SENIOR GRADE	CAPTAIN

OF-6	OF-7	OF-8	OF-9	OF-10
FLOTTIELJE ADMIRAAL	DIVISIE-ADMIRAAL	VICE-ADMIRAAL	ADMIRAAL	NO RANK
BRIGADIER ADMIRAL	REAR ADMIRAL	VICE-ADMIRAL	ADMIRAL	NO RANK
COMMODORE	REAR ADMIRAL	VICE ADMIRAL	ADMIRAL	NO RANK
FLOTILLEADMIRAL	KONTREADMIRAL	VICEADMIRAL	ADMIRAL	NO RANK
KOMMODOOR	KONTRADMIRAL	VIITSEADMIRAL	ADMIRAL	NO RANK
CONTRE AMIRAL	VICE- AMIRAL	VICE- AMIRAL D'ESCADRE	AMIRAL	AMIRAL DE FRANCE
FLOTTILLENADMIRAL	KONTERADMIRAL	VIZEADMIRAL	ADMIRAL	NO RANK
ARCHIPLIARCHOS	YPONAVARCHOS	ANTINAVARCHOS	NAVARCHOS	NO RANK

provided by US manned Icelandic Defence Force (IDF)

OF-6	OF-7	OF-8	OF-9	OF-10
CONTRAMMIRAGLIO	AMMIRAGLIO DI DIVISIONE	AMMIRAGLIO DI SQUADRA	AMMIRAGLIO DI SQUADRA CON INCARICHI SPECIALI / CAPO DI STATO MAGGIORE DELLA DIFESA	NO RANK
REAR ADMIRAL LOWER GRADE	REAR ADMIRAL	VICE ADMIRAL	NO RANK	NO RANK

FORCES
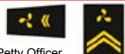
NAVY	OR-1	OR-2	OR-3	OR-4
LITHUANIA	NO INSIGNIA — JŪREIVIS	GRANDINIS	JAUNESNYSIS SERŽANTAS	SERŽANTAS
LUXEMBOURG	NO NAVA			
NETHERLANDS	NO INSIGNIA — MATROOS DER 3e KLASSE	MATROOS DER 2e KLASSE / MATROOS DER 1e KLASSE		KORPORAAL
NORWAY	MENIG	NO RANK	NO RANK	LEDENDE MENIG
POLAND	NO INSIGNIA — MARYNARZ	STARSZY MARYNARZ	MAT / STARSZY MAT	BOSMANMAT
PORTUGAL	NO INSIGNIA — GRUMETE	SEGUNDO-MARINHEIRO	PREMEIRO-MARINHEIRO	CABO
ROMANIA	NO INSIGNIA — SOLDAT		FRUNTAS	CORPORAL
SLOVAKIA	NO NAVA			
SLOVENIA	NO INSIGNIA — VOJAK	PODDESETNIK	DESETNIK	NADDESETNIK
SPAIN	NO INSIGNIA — MARINERO RECLUTA	MARINERO	CABO	CABO PRIMERO
TURKEY	NO INSIGNIA — EGETEM ERI ER	NO RANK	NO RANK	ONBAŞI
UK	ROYAL NAVY ORDINARY RATING	ROYAL NAVY ABLE RATING	NO RANK	LEADING RATING
USA	NO INSIGNIA — SEAMAN RECRUIT	SEAMAN APPRENTICE	SEAMAN	PETTY OFFICER 3rd CLASS

OR-5	OR-6	OR-7	OR-8	OR-9
VYRESNYSIS SERŽANTAS	LAIVŪNAS	JAUNESNYSIS PUSKARININKIS	PUSKARININKIS	VYRESNYSIS PUSKARININKIS
		AL FORCES		
	SERGEANT	SERGEANT MAJOOR	ADJUDANT ONDEROFFICIER	
KVARTERMESTER	NO RANK	NO RANK	NO RANK	NO RANK
BOSMAN	STARSZY BOSMAN	MŁODSZY CHORĄŻY MARYNARKI	CHORĄŻY MARYNARKI	STARSZY CHORĄŻY MARYNARKI / STARSZY CHORĄŻY SZTABOWY MARYNARKI
SEGUNDO-SUBSARGENTO / PREMEIRO-SUBSARGENTO	SEGUNDO-SARGENTO / PREMEIRO-SARGENTO	SARGENTO- AJUDANTE	SARGENTO- CHEFE	SARGENTO- MOR
SERGEANT / MAISTRU MILITAR CLASA V	SERGEANT MAJOR / MAISTRU MILITAR CLASA IV	PLUTONIER / MAISTRU MILITAR CLASA III	PLUTONIER MAJOR / MAISTRU MILITAR CLASA II	PLUTONIER ADJUDANT / MM CLASA I / PLUTONIER ADJUDANT SEF / MM PRINCIPAL
		AL FORCES		
VODNIK	VIŠJI VODNIK / ŠTABNI VODNIK	VIŠJI ŠTABNI VODNIK	PRAPORŠČAK / VIŠJI PRAPORŠČAK	ŠTABNI PRAPORŠČAK / VIŠJI ŠTABNI PRAPORŠČAK
CABO MAYOR	SARGENTO	SARGENTO PRIMERO	BRIGADA	SUBTENIENTE / SUBOFICIAL MAYOR
ÇAVUŞ	ASTUBAY ÇAVUŞ / ASTUBAY KIDEMLI ÇAVUŞ	ASTUBAY ÜSTÇAVUŞ / ASTUBAY KIDEMLI ÜSTÇAVUŞ	ASTUBAY BAŞÇAVUŞ	ASTUBAY KIDEMLI BAŞÇAVUŞ
PETTY OFFICER		CHIEF PETTY OFFICER	Note 1 CHARGE CHIEF ARTIFICER worn with appropriate skill badge	WARRANT OFFICER
PETTY OFFICER 2nd CLASS	PETTY OFFICER 1st CLASS	CHIEF PETTY OFFICER	SENIOR CHIEF PETTY OFFICER	MASTER CHIEF PETTY OFFICER / MASTER CHIEF PETTY OFFICER OF THE NAVY

NAVY	OF-1	OF-2	OF-3	OF-4	OF-5
LITHUANIA	LEITENANTAS / VYRESNYSIS LEITENANTAS	KAPITONAS LEITENANTAS	KOMANDORAS LEITENANTAS	KOMANDORAS	JŪRU KAPITONAS
LUXEMBOURG	NO NAVAL				
NETHERLANDS	LUITENANT TER ZEE DER 3' KLASSE / LUITENANT TER ZEE DER 2' KLASSE JONGSTE CATEGORIE	LUITENANT TER ZEE DER 2' KLASSE OUDSTE CATEGORIE	LUITENANT TER ZEE DER 1' KLASSE	KAPITEIN-LUITENANT TER ZEE	KAPITEIN TER ZEE
NORWAY	FENRIK / LØYTNANT	KAPTEINLØYTNANT	ORLOGSKAPTEIN	KOMMANDØRKAPTEIN	KOMMANDØR
POLAND	PODPORUCZNIK MARYNARKI	PORUCZNIK MARYNARKI	KAPITAN MARYNARKI	KOMANDOR PODPORUCZNIK / KOMANDOR PORUCZNIK	KOMANDOR
PORTUGAL	GUARDA-MARINHA E SUBTENENTE / SEGUNDO-TENENTE	PRIMEIRO-TENENTE	CAPITÃO-TENENTE	CAPITÃO-DE-FRAGATA	CAPITÃO-DE-MAR-E-GUERRA
ROMANIA	ASPIRANT / LOCOTENENT	CAPITAN	LOCOTENENT-COMANDER	CAPITAN-COMMANDER	COMANDOR
SLOVAKIA	NO NAVAL				
SLOVENIA	POROČNIK KORVETE / POROČNIK FREGATE	POROČNIK BONJE LADJE	KAPITAN KORVETE	KAPITAN FREGATE	KAPITAN BOJNE LADJE
SPAIN	ALFÉREZ DE FREGATA / DE NAVIO	TENIENTE DE NAVIO	CAPITÁN DE CORBETA	CAPITÁN DE FRAGATA	CAPITÁN DE NAVIO
TURKEY	ASTEĞMEN / TEĞMEN ÜSTEĞMEN	YÜZBAŞI/ KIDEMLI USTEGMEN	BINBAŞI	YARBAY	ALBAY
UK	MIDSHIPMAN (ON LAPEL) / SUB-LIEUTENANT	LIEUTENANT	LIEUTENANT-COMMANDER	COMMANDER	CAPTAIN
USA	ENSIGN / LIEUTENANT JUNIOR GRADE	LIEUTENANT	LIEUTENANT COMMANDER	COMMANDER	CAPTAIN

OF-6	OF-7	OF-8	OF-9	OF-10
FLOTILĖS ADMIROLAS	KONTRADMIROLAS	VICEADMIROLAS	NO RANK	NO RANK
COMMANDEUR	SCHOUT-BIJ-NACHT	VICE ADMIRAL	ADMIRAL	NO RANK
FLAGGKOMMANDØR	KONTREADMIRAL	VISEADMIRAL	ADMIRAL	NO RANK
KONTRADMIRAŁ	WICEADMIRAŁ	ADMIRAŁ	NO RANK	NO RANK
COMODORO	CONTRA-ALMIRANTE	VICE-ALMIRANTE	ALMIRANTE	ALMIRANTE DA ARMADA (DIGNIDADE HONORÍFICA)
CONTRAAMIRAL DE FLOTILA	CONTRAAMIRAL	VICEAMIRAL	AMIRAL	NO RANK
KAPITAN	KONTRAADMIRAL	VICEADMIRAL	ADMIRAL	NO RANK
CONTRALMIRANTE	VICEALMIRANTE	ALMIRANTE	ALMIRANTE GENERAL	CAPITÁN GENERAL
TUĞAMIRAL / COMMODORE	TÜMAMİRAL	KORAMİRAL	ORAMIRAL	BÜYÜK AMİRAL
COMMODORE	REAR-ADMIRAL	VICE-ADMIRAL	ADMIRAL	ADMIRAL OF THE FLEET
REAR-ADMIRAL (LOWER HALF)	REAR-ADMIRAL (UPPER HALF)	VICE ADMIRAL	ADMIRAL	FLEET ADMIRAL
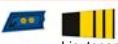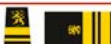
AIR FORCE	OR-1	OR-2	OR-3	OR-4
AUSTRIA				
FINLAND	Airman	**NO RANK**	Airman 1st Class	Senior Airman (rank in the reserve)
SWEDEN				
SWITZERLAND				

ARMY	OR-1	OR-2	OR-3	OR-4
AUSTRIA	Private	Lance Corporal	Corporal	Master Corporal
FINLAND	Private Jaeger	**NO RANK**	Private 1st Class	Corporal (rank in the reseve)
SWEDEN				
SWITZERLAND	**NO RANK**	Private E1 E2	Private First Class	Corporal

NAVY	OR-1	OR-2	OR-3	OR-4
AUSTRIA	NO NAVAL			
FINLAND	Seaman Apprentice Ordnance	**NO RANK**	Seaman Ordnance	Petty Officer, 3rd Class (rank in the reserve)
SWEDEN	Seaman	Seaman 1st class, yr 1 yr 3 yr 5 yr 7	Able Seaman	Able Seaman First Class
SWITZERLAND				

Since Austria is not a NATO member country, there is no policy on NATO rank class equivalents

OR-5	OR-6	OR-7	OR-8	OR-9

AS ARMY

Staff Sergeant	Technical Sergeant	Master Sergeant	Senior Master Sergeant	Chief Master Sergeant
Sergeant	Sergeant Sergeant	Colour Sergeant	Sergeant Major	Wing Sergeant

AS ARMY

OR-5	OR-6	OR-7	OR-8	OR-9
Sergeant	Master Sergeant	Staff Sergeant	Warrant Officer III	Warrant Officer II, I
Sergeant (regular personnel with sword)	Staff Sergeant	Sergeant 1st Class	Master Sergeant	Sergeant Major
Sergeant	Sergeant First Class	Colour Sergeant	Sergeant Major	Regimental Sergeant Major
NO RANK	Sergeant / Sergeant First Class	SGM QMS CSM*	Warrant Officer	SWO MWO CWO**

OR-5	OR-6	OR-7	OR-8	OR-9

FORCES

Petty Officer, 2nd Class, Engine (regular personnel with sword)	Petty Officer, 1st Class, Deck	Chief Petty Officer, Deck	Senior Chief Petty Officer, Engine	Master Chief Petty Officer, Engine
Leading Seaman	Petty Officer	Chief Petty Officer	Warrant Officer	Chief Warrant Officer

FORCES

and the classes shown on this page are approximations given only for the sake of easier comparison to other armies.

AIR FORCE	OF-1	OF-2	OF-3	OF-4
AUSTRIA				
FINLAND	2nd Lieutenant / 1st Lieutenant	Captain	Major	Lieutenant Colonel
SWEDEN	Second Lieutenant / Lieutenant	Captain	Major	Lieutenant Colonel
SWITZERLAND				

ARMY	OF-1	OF-2	OF-3	OF-4
AUSTRIA	Second Lieutenant / First Lieutenant	Captain	Major	Lieutenant Colonel
FINLAND				
SWEDEN				
SWITZERLAND	Second Lieutenant / First Lieutenant	Captain	Major	Lieutenant Colonel

NAVY	OF-1	OF-2	OF-3	OF-4
AUSTRIA	NO NAVAL			
FINLAND	Ensign / Lieutenant Jr. Grade / Lieutenant	Lieutenant, Sr. Grade	Lieutenant Commander	Commander
SWEDEN	Acting Sub Lieutenant / Sub Lieutenant	Lieutenant (N)	Lieutenant Commander	Commander
SWITZERLAND				

Since Austria is not a NATO member country, there is no policy on NATO rank class equivalents

OF-5	OF-6	OF-7	OF-8	OF-9
A	S	A R	M	Y
Colonel	Brigadier General	Major General	Lieutenant General	General
Colonel Brigadier	Brigadier General	Major General	Lieutenant General	General
A	S	A R	M	Y

OF-5	OF-6	OF-7	OF-8	OF-9
Colonel	Brigadier General	Major General	Lieutenant General	General
Colonel	Brigadier General	Major General	Lieutenant General	General
Colonel Brigadier	Brigadier General	Major General	Lieutenant General	General
Colonel	Brigadier General	Major General	Lieutenant General	General

OF-5	OF-6	OF-7	OF-8	OF-9
F	O	R	C	E S
Captain (Navy)	Commodore	Rear-Admiral	Vice-Admiral	Admiral
Captain Commodore (N)	Rear Admiral (lower half)	Rear Admiral	Vice Admiral	Admiral
F	O	R	C	E S

and the classes shown on this page are approximations given only for the sake of easier comparison to other armies.

ICOON

Global picture dictionary:
If you can't say it,
show it!

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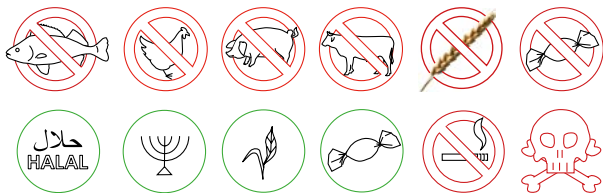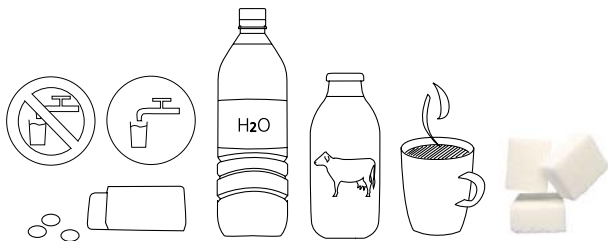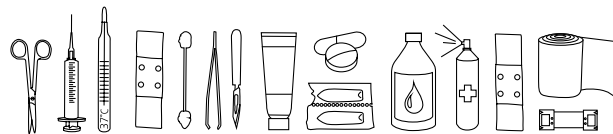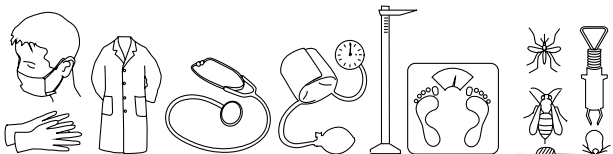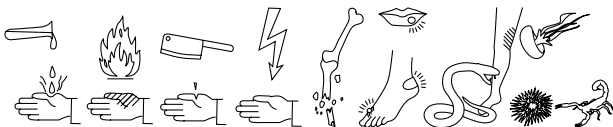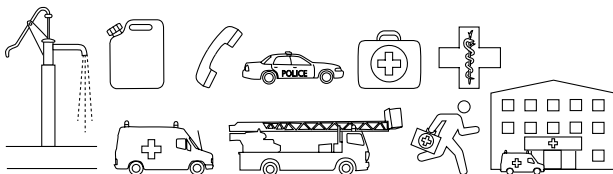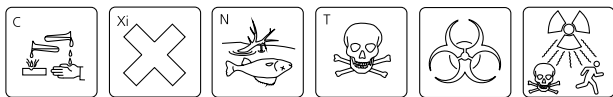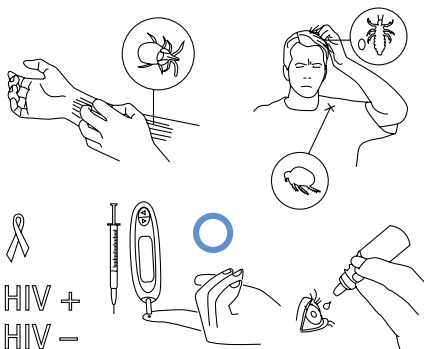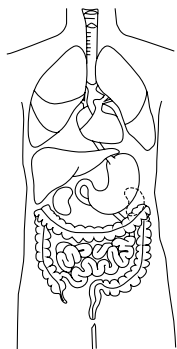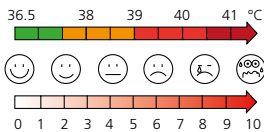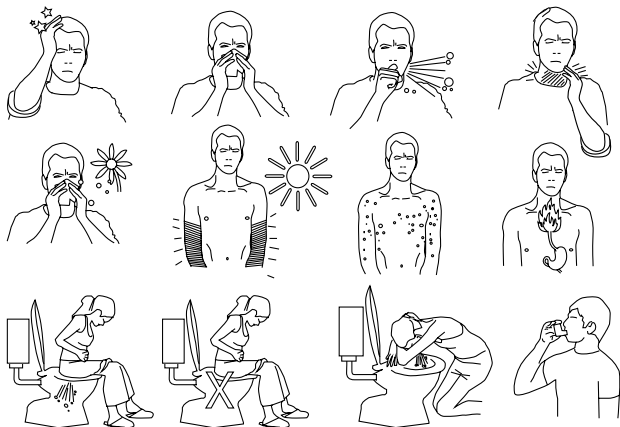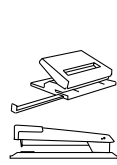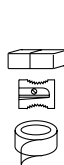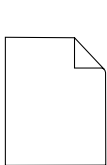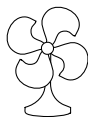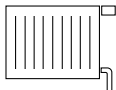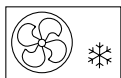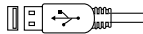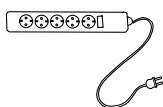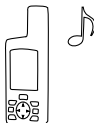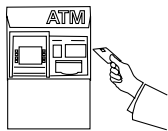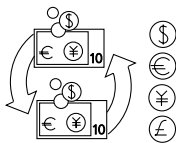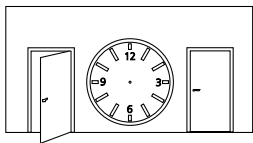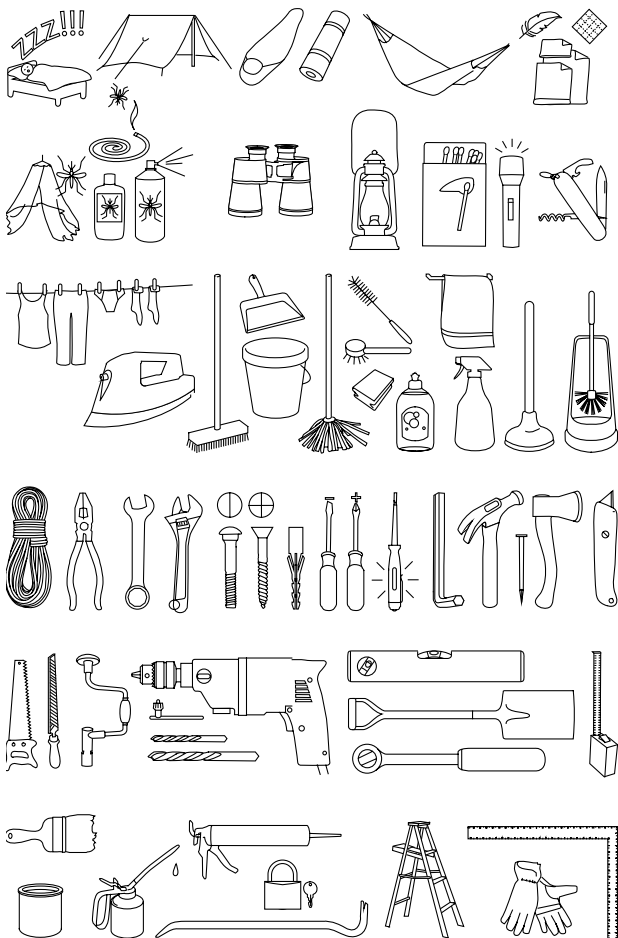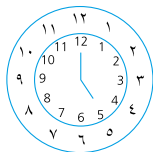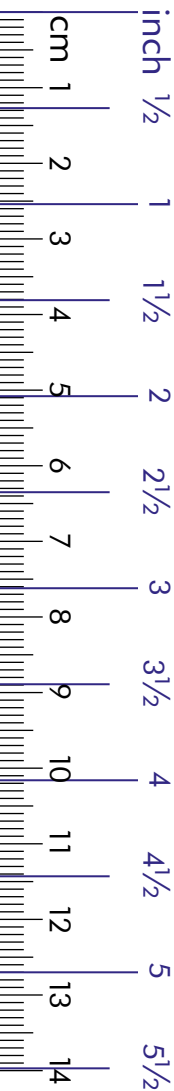
30 km/h	19 mph
70 km/h	43 mph
120 km/h	74 mph
30 mph	48 km/h
70 mph	113 km/h
120 mph	193 km/h

1m²	10.76 sq ft
1 sq ft	0.1 m²
1ha	2.5 acre
1acre	0.4 ha
1km²	0.4 sq mi
1sq mi	2.6 km²

1ml	0.03 fl oz
1fl oz	28 ml
1liter	0.26 gallon
1gallon	3.8 liter
1 cuft	0.028 m²
1 m²	35.3 cuft

1cm	0.4 inch
1inch	2.54 cm
1m	3.3 ft
1ft	0.3 m
1km	0.6 mile
1mile	1.6 km

1g	0.03 oz
1oz	28.35 g
1kg	2.2 lbs
1lbs	0.45 kg

1 tn.l. (UK)	1.016 t
1 tn.sh.(US)	0.907 t

110   43
90   32
70   21
50   10
30   -1
10   -12
-10   -20
°F   °C

English

中文

عربي

SECURITY

Aa
Bb
Cc

1.90m

1m

10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80
١٠ ٢٠ ٣٠ ٤٠ ٥٠ ٦٠ ٧٠ ٨٠

50 60 70
٥٠ ٦٠ ٧٠

80 100 120
٨٠ ١٠٠ ١٢٠
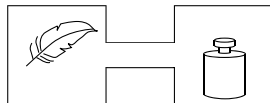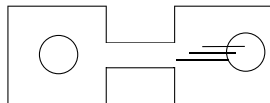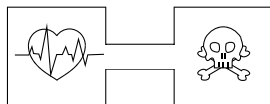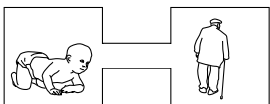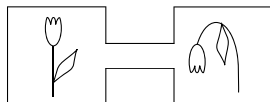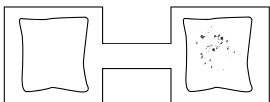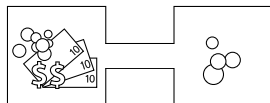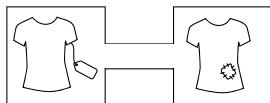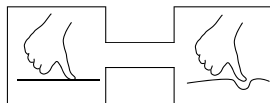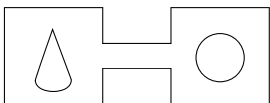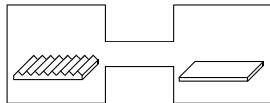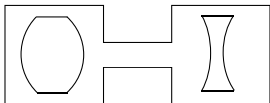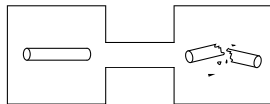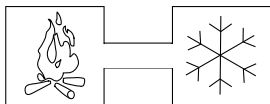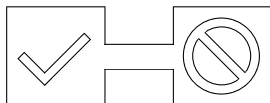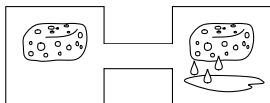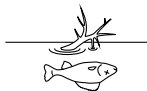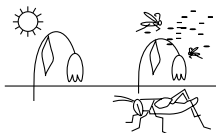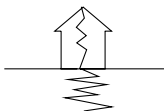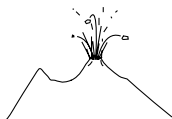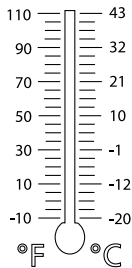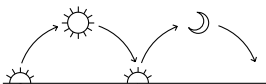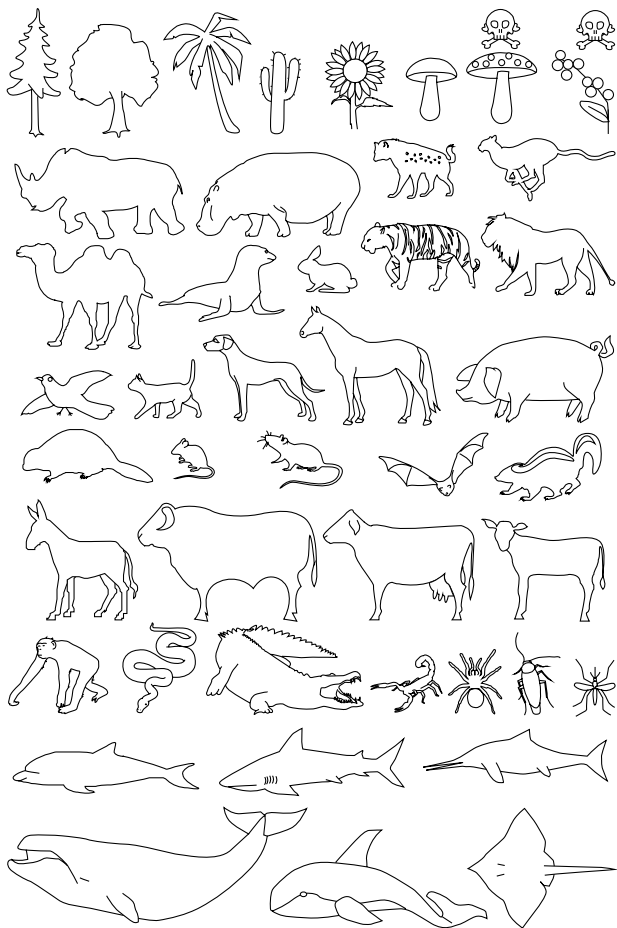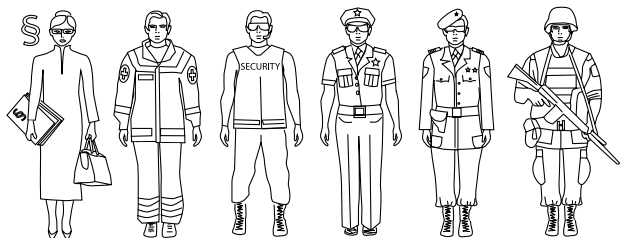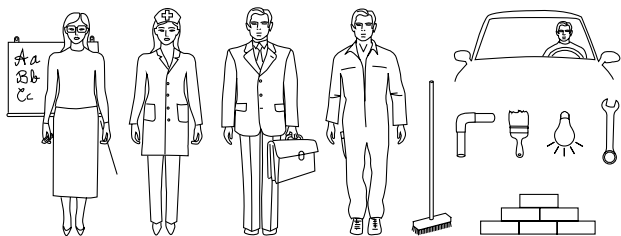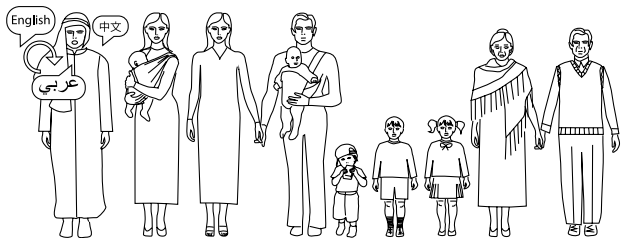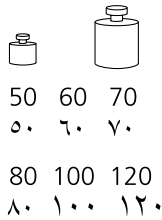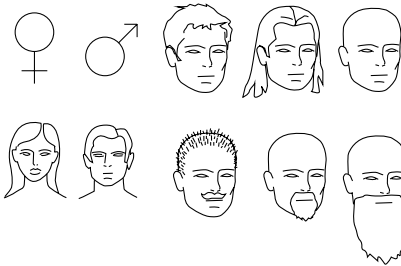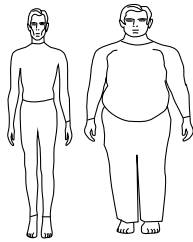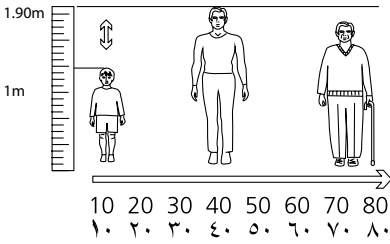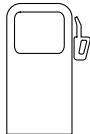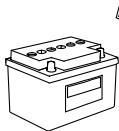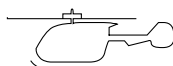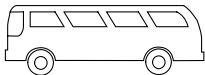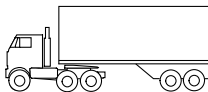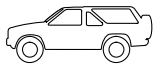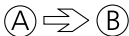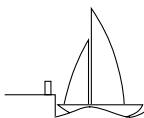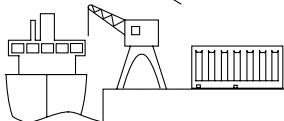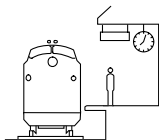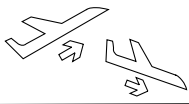
91 | Pb | LPG Gas
95 | Pb | D
98 | D | 1:50

Peace Operations 2015/2016

Bosnia and Herzegovina
- EUFOR Althea 12/2004
- OSCE 12/1995

Serbia
- OSCE 1/2001

Montenegro
- OSCE 6/2006

Albania
- OSCE 3/1997

Kosovo
- UNMIK 6/1999
- KFOR 6/1999
- EULEX Kosovo 2/2008
- OSCE 6/1999

FYROM (Macedonia)
- OSCE 12/1992

Haiti
- MINUSTAH 6/2004

Colombia
- MAPP-OEA 2/2004

Moldova / Ukraine
- EUBAM Moldova and Ukraine 12/2005

Moldova
- OSCE 2/1993
- JPF 7/1992

Ukraine
- OSCE 6/1?
- OSCE SMM 3/20
- OSCE 8/20
- EUAM Ukraine 7/20

Cyprus
- UNFICYP 3/1964

Mediterranean
- EUNAVFOR MED 6/2015

Libya
- UNSMIL 9/2011
- EUBAM Libya 5/2013

Western Sahara
- MINURSO 4/1991

West Africa
- UNOWA 2/2002

Guinea-Bissau
- UNIOGBIS 1/2010
- ECOMIB 4/2012

Liberia
- UNMIL 9/2003

Côte d'Ivoire
- UNOCI 4/2004

Mali
- MINUSMA 7/2013
- EUTM Mali 2/2013
- EUCAP Sahel Mali 4/2014
- MISAHEL 8/2013

Niger
- EUCAP Sahel Niger 8/2012

Central Africa
- UNOCA 1/2011

Boko Haram Regions
- MNJTF 03/2015

Caption

UN Peacekeeping Missions	
UN Political and Peacebuilding Missions	
European Union	
OSCE	Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe
	Others (with or without UN mandate)

Mission area with a total of ...

Over 50 international personnel deployed

Less than 50 international personnel deployed

As of September 2015

Georgia
EUMM Georgia 9/2008

Turkmenistan
OSCE 1/1999
UNRCCA 12/2007

Armenia
OSCE 7/1999

Kazakhstan
OSCE 7/1998

Uzbekistan
OSCE 12/2000

Kyrgyzstan
OSCE 7/1998

Tajikistan
OSCE 7/2008

Lebanon
UNIFIL 3/1978
UNSCOL 2/2007

Israel/Palestinian Territories
UNTSO 5/1948
UNSCO 10/1999
EUBAM Rafah 11/2005
EUPOL COPPS 1/2006
TIPH 1/1997

Israel/Syria
UNDOF 6/1974

Egypt/Israel
MFO 4/1982

Iraq
UNAMI 8/2003

Afghanistan
Operation Resolute Support 1/2015
UNAMA 3/2002
EUPOL Afghanistan 6/2007

Kashmir
UNMOGIP 1/1949

Sudan/Darfur
UNAMID 10/2007

Abyei
UNISFA 6/2011

South Sudan
UNMISS 7/2011
MVM 4/2014

Somalia/Indian Ocean
EUNAVFOR Somalia 12/2008

Somalia
AMISOM 2/2007
UNSOM 6/2013
EUTM Somalia 4/2010

Indian Ocean
EUCAP NESTOR 9/2012

Burundi
MENUB 1/2015

Philippines
IMT 10/2004

Solomon Islands
RAMSI 7/2003

LRA-affected Areas
RTF 11/2011

Democratic Republic of the Congo
MONUSCO 7/2010
EUSEC RD CONGO 6/2005

Central African Republic
MINUSCA 4/2014
Opération Sangaris 12/2013
MISAC 9/2014
EUMAM RCA 3/2015

zif Center for International Peace Operations