



Australian Government

Australian Civil-Military Centre



SAME SPACE – DIFFERENT MANDATES

INTERNATIONAL EDITION

A Civil-Military-Police Guide to
Stakeholders in International Disaster
and Conflict Response

About the ACMC

The Australian Civil-Military Centre (ACMC) (formerly the Asia Pacific Civil-Military Centre of Excellence) was established in November 2008, in recognition of the growing importance of civil-military-police interaction and is evidence of Australia's commitment to sustainable peace and prosperity in the Asia-Pacific region and beyond.

The ACMC's mission is to support the development of national civil-military-police capabilities to prevent, prepare for and respond more effectively to conflicts and disasters overseas. At its core is a multi-agency approach, with staff from a number of Australian Government departments and agencies, the New Zealand Government and the non-government organisation (NGO) sector.

Applying this collaborative approach to working with other government agencies, the United Nations and other relevant stakeholders, the ACMC seeks to improve civil-military-police learning and development, and develop civil-military-police doctrine and guiding principles.

Through its research program, the ACMC seeks to identify best practice responses to key lessons learned—important for developing doctrine and facilitating training programs—to contribute directly to the ability of the Australian Government to develop a more effective civil-military-police capacity for conflict prevention and disaster management overseas.

<http://www.acmc.gov.au>

About ACFID

The Australian Council for International Development (ACFID) is the peak council for Australian NGOs working in the field of international aid and development to attain a world where gross inequality and extreme poverty are eradicated.

The ACFID Humanitarian Reference Group and ACFID Civil-Military Task Force are, respectively, a delegated committee of the Executive and a peer-learning network. Both are actively engaged in addressing civil-military issues from an Australian perspective to improve impact for beneficiaries in humanitarian response.

ACFID has more than 75 members operating in more than 110 developing countries working to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). ACFID administers a rigorous code of conduct for the Australian aid sector. The code represents the active commitment of 120 overseas aid and development agencies to conduct their activities with integrity and accountability.

The aid and development sector has a combined regular supporter base of 2 million households, jointly donating upwards of \$875 million in 2011/12. Total expenditure by ACFID members was \$1.3 billion in 2011/12. This represents funds from donations, fundraisers, legacies and bequests—public giving was over 66 per cent of the total funds received by ACFID member organisations. Approximately 20 per cent or \$271 million of the sector's revenue comes from the government (Source: <http://www.acfid.asn.au/about-acfid/what-is-acfid>).

For more about ACFID see www.acfid.asn.au

Disclaimer:

The content is published under a Creative Commons by Attribution 3.0 Australia <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/au/licence>. All parts of this publication may be reproduced, stored in retrieval systems, and transmitted by any means without the written permission of the publisher.

ISBN: 978-1-921933-11-0

Published April 2015

This document will be reviewed periodically. Your comments and suggestions are appreciated and should be sent to: info@acmc.gov.au

Contents

Foreword	ii
Acknowledgements	iv
1 Same Space – Different Mandates: What’s the Issue?	1
2 Divided by a Common Language?	5
Foundational terms	5
3 Who are the Key Civil-Military-Police Stakeholders?	13
Host country	13
Aid community	14
Government agencies	20
Military	22
Police	25
The private sector	29
Before we move on, we need to move on	29
Want to know more?	30
4 Response to International Natural Disasters in Times of Peace	31
So, what are the key challenges?	31
How do we respond better?	34
Want to know more?	37
5 Response to Complex Emergencies	39
So, what are the key challenges?	42
Want to know more?	56
6 Useful Tips	59
ANNEX 1 Commonly Used Terms	63
ANNEX 2 Abbreviations and Acronyms	67
ANNEX 3 Regional Intergovernmental Bodies and Agreements	69
ANNEX 4 Useful References	70

Foreword

In response to overseas natural or manmade disasters and complex emergencies, defence forces, police, government agencies and the aid community often find themselves operating in the same physical space as one another. Unfortunately, a lack of understanding and confusion over stakeholder roles, responsibilities, cultures and terminologies can impede communication and coherency in program implementation, leading to reduced effectiveness in meeting the needs of the host population. Issues such as humanitarian space shrinking due to restrictions on humanitarian access; perceptions regarding subordination of humanitarian principles; the tensions that arise between political, humanitarian and military objectives within integrated multiagency stabilisation efforts; and the increase in the number of organisations and individuals operating in these environments all serve to add a degree of confusion and potential for discord. However, experience has shown that improved mutual understanding of the roles, mandates, principles, cultures and objectives of the various civil-military stakeholders enhances constructive engagement, dialogue and communication prior to and during deployments. With this dialogue and communication comes greater opportunity to achieve maximum benefits for people and nations affected by natural disasters and conflict.

The Australian Civil-Military Centre and the Australian Council for International Development have developed this document, *Same Space–Different Mandates: International Edition*, to address an international audience. Building and expanding upon *Same Space–Different Mandates*, which focused on Australian stakeholders, this edition aims to improve the collective understanding of civil-military-police stakeholders responding to international natural disasters and complex emergencies and, in doing so, to create greater opportunity for constructive engagement.

It is our intent that this document will influence policy and become a useful educational tool to support all stakeholders engaged in disaster and conflict response, as well as inform better field practices through improved collective dialogue, communication and interaction.

Dr Alan Ryan
Executive Director
Australian Civil-Military Centre

Mr Marc Purcell
Executive Director
Australian Council for
International Development

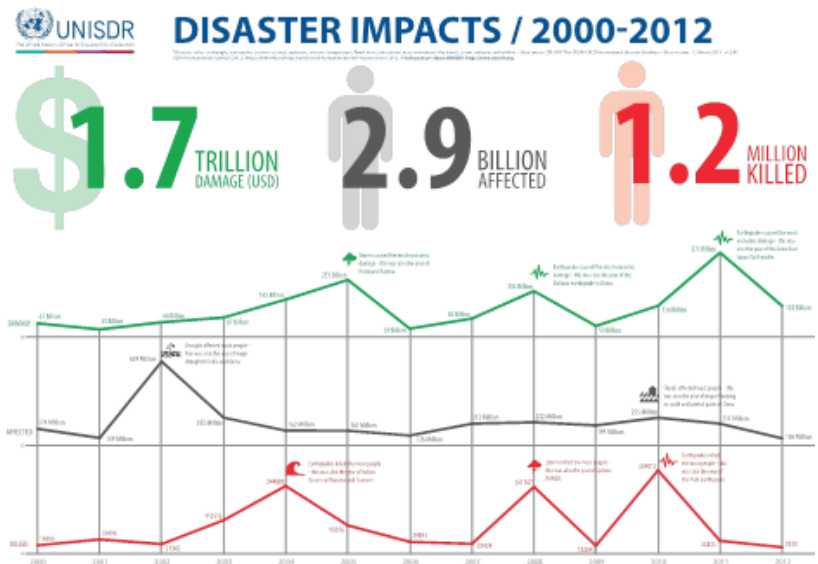
Acknowledgements

Same Space-Different Mandates – International Edition is the result of an effort from many individuals, institutions and agencies. We want to acknowledge everyone who worked on the original version. Special thanks go to the following individuals from the ACMC staff who updated this guide: Gwen Cherne, Lyndon McCauley, Scott Cooper, Michelle Lovi, Martin Hess, Philippa Nicholson, Matthew McNeill, Helena Studdert, Mellisa Bowers, Judy Swann, Greg Elliott, Rowan Martin, Chris Websdane and Amanda Coghlan; and from other institutions: Laura Howieson (ACFID), Leonard James John Blazeby (ICRC), Michele Lipner, Colonel Joe Martin USAF (CFE-DMHA), and Captain (Navy) Hervé Auffret (UN DPKO).

1 | Same Space – Different Mandates: What’s the Issue?

We have all witnessed the significant human toll and suffering brought about by natural and manmade disasters. The number of natural disasters has increased in recent decades—from 100–150 a year in the early 1980s¹ to an annual average of 394 during 2002–11. The increasing trend of reported damages due to disasters from 2000–12 is estimated at US\$1.7 trillion.² In 2010–12 alone, international disasters affected 464.6 million people.³ International disasters are increasingly climate related and affect not only individuals but also economies, governments and the broader international community.

Figure 1: Disaster Impacts 2000–2012



1 Elizabeth Ferris and Daniel Petz 2011, *A Year of Living Dangerously: A review of natural disasters in 2010*, Brookings–LSE Project on Internal Displacement, Washington, DC, p. 8. Also see S Jenny 2011, *Time’s Bitter Flood*, Oxfam GB, Oxford UK, p. 4.

2 UNISDR, ‘Disaster Impacts 2000–2012’, Infographic.

3 OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database, Université Catholique de Louvain, Brussels, <http://www.emdat.be>.

In addition to disasters, intra-state and inter-state conflicts have generated complex emergencies⁴ resulting in significant humanitarian and development challenges, including population displacement, breakdown of fragile governance structures and the rule of law, human rights violations and insecurity. Examples of this can be seen in Afghanistan, Iraq, Syria, the Sudan region and Somalia.

Disasters and complex emergencies can create significant humanitarian crises and the responses to address emergent needs are often multinational and multiagency. These responses may include providing humanitarian assistance, deploying peacekeeping missions mandated by the United Nations (UN) or regional organisations such as the African Union, peacebuilding initiatives, stabilisation efforts, or a combination of some or all of these interventions. The multitude of agencies and organisations that respond to these crises will have different mandates, cultures, responsibilities, modes of operation and objectives. Many of these same stakeholders will also be operating in the same space at the same time.

These stakeholders—whether an international military or police force, a donor or an aid agency—all have critical and often complementary roles to play in disaster response and complex emergencies. Yet, a lack of mutual understanding or confusion over roles, responsibilities, cultures and terminologies often impedes communication and overall effectiveness.

In recent years, efforts have been made to improve civil-military-police stakeholder interactions and mutual understanding. In support of these efforts, and to create opportunities for enhanced dialogue and coordination, *Same Space–Different Mandates* provides an overview of the principles, operational styles and expectations of key civilian, military and police stakeholders regarding disasters and complex emergencies around the world. This publication has expanded upon the original *Same Space–Different Mandates*, which focused primarily on the Australian and Asia-Pacific context, to be an international guide and a primer on the nature and character of the stakeholder communities that respond to these situations.

4 Complex emergencies will be used throughout this guide to denote countries/regions in conflict or emerging from conflict, protracted crises and fragile/emerging states. The commonality is that these emergencies/crises are manmade in origin rather than a result of natural disasters. Refer to Annex 1 for a definition of complex emergency.

This guide clarifies **how** these stakeholders are distinguished from one another, **where** they may have similarities and/or complementarities, and **what** principles guide their engagement with others. This edition is not intended to lay out guidelines for how different stakeholders **should** interact, but rather to lay a foundation for improved mutual understanding. More specifically, the key objectives of *Same Space–Different Mandates* are to:

- provide an overview of militaries, police, government agencies and the aid community and their responses to natural disasters and complex emergencies
- clarify key terminologies used within these contexts as a means of helping to create understanding and an ability to communicate more effectively
- highlight the complexities, challenges and limitations of engagement between the various stakeholders within the civil-military-police dimension
- enhance understanding and use of the major agreed civil-military guidelines
- provide a set of key references and publications to help further inform all stakeholders.

This edition is designed to be used as a reference for basic learning and development purposes for government and non-government entities—particularly civilian, military and police agencies as well as the aid community, volunteers and those on technical or specialist registers. It should also help inform and influence policy and planning, and serve as a pocket guide for practitioners during field operations and deployments. The Australian Civil-Military Centre (ACMC) will periodically review this guide with key government and non-government civil-military-police stakeholders to ensure currency, utility and uptake.

2 | Divided by a Common Language?

One of the concerns we often hear when speaking about the challenges of different civil-military-police stakeholders working alongside one another in disaster response and complex emergencies is that we are divided by a common language. What does this actually mean?

We all use concepts that are critical to our understanding of the specific work we do. At the same time, there are also phrases and concepts we use that may look the same but in fact have different and/or multiple meanings depending on whether we come from a civilian, military or police perspective. As the first step towards mutual understanding, a number of foundational concepts are presented below. While not exhaustive, these highlight the importance of gaining a shared understanding of what we each mean when we say what we say. Definitions are based on international and/or standard references and documents.⁵

A number of terms used in this guide and commonly used within the civil-military-police construct are also explained in the *Civil-Military-Police Language Guide*,⁶ which is a companion volume to this publication. The guide includes key terms that are often contested or have inconsistent interpretation, or that are used by a limited number of actors in the civil-military-police space and thus are unfamiliar to many stakeholders. Some key terms also are included in Annex 1.

Foundational terms

Civil-military-police relations

The concept of civil-military-police relations has different meanings depending on the context within which it is used.

Military

From a military perspective, the concept has been born out of the need for the military to confront tasks that are not precisely 'military' in nature. The most widely used term, especially in the Western military community, is

5 Annex 3 contains references to source documents.

6 Australian Civil-Military Centre 2015, *The Civil-Military-Police Language Guide*.

civil-military cooperation (CIMIC). Generally the military only uses the term ‘civil-military’ and does not include the term ‘police’ in CIMIC. Note the purpose of CIMIC to the military commander in the following definition:

CIMIC (Civil-Military Cooperation): The coordination and cooperation, in support of the military mission, between the Force Commander and civil actors, including the national population and local authorities, as well as international, national and non-government organisations (NGOs) and agencies.⁷

Aid community

The United Nations (and more specifically the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs or OCHA) has adopted the term ‘UN Humanitarian CMCoord’ (United Nations Humanitarian Civil-Military Coordination) to describe the civil-military-police relationship in natural disasters and complex emergencies. This relationship, illustrated in Figure 2, is defined as:

UN Humanitarian Civil-Military Coordination (UN CMCoord): The essential dialogue and interaction between civilian and military actors in humanitarian emergencies that is necessary to protect and promote humanitarian principles, avoid competition, minimise inconsistency and, when appropriate, pursue common goals. Basic strategies range from coexistence to cooperation. Coordination is a shared responsibility facilitated by liaison and common training.

UN CMCoord should not be confused with CIMIC or UN CIMIC:

UN CIMIC: In the context of a UN peacekeeping operation, UN CIMIC is conducted in support of the wider peace process and not solely in support of the military commander’s intent or humanitarian objectives.

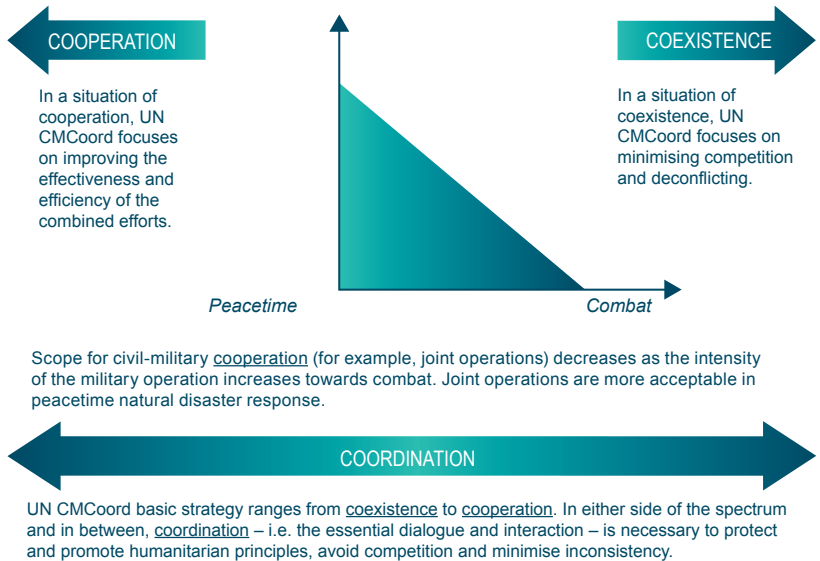
UN CMCoord is a civilian and humanitarian function, while UN CIMIC is a military staff function in a UN peacekeeping mission.

While many in the aid community outside the United Nations subscribe to this approach, some do not and have instead developed their own approaches/policy and doctrine in this area.⁸

7 AJP-9 NATO Civil-Military Co-Operation (CIMIC) Doctrine, July 2003.

8 See, for example, Steering Committee on Humanitarian Response (SCHR) 2010, *Position Paper on Humanitarian-Military Relations*, Steering Committee on Humanitarian Response, Geneva.

Figure 2: The Civil-Military Relationship⁹



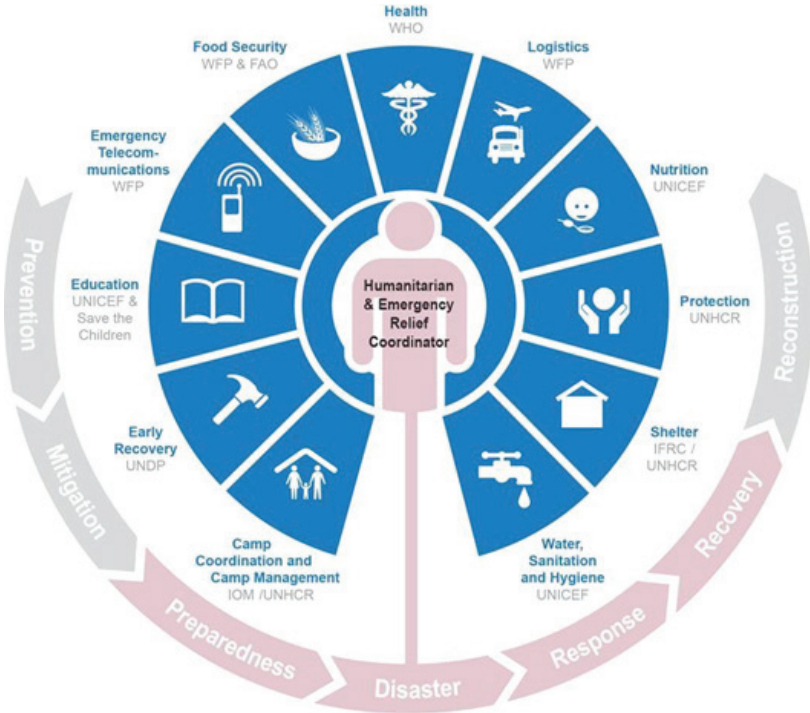
UN cluster approach

The concept of the ‘cluster’ approach was an outcome of the UN’s humanitarian reform process in 2005, which sought to strengthen the capacity of the humanitarian response system. Generally, the approach is a mechanism employed by the United Nations and broader aid community to address identified gaps in response and to enhance the quality of humanitarian action. The cluster approach is intended to strengthen system-wide preparedness and technical capacity to respond to humanitarian emergencies by ensuring predictable leadership and accountability in all the main sectors or areas of humanitarian response. Global clusters are often merged or subdivided at the country level and are established from the operational to the subnational level in an effort to ensure improved coordination.¹⁰ Cluster groupings are made up of UN and government agencies, NGOs and other international organisations. There are 11 global clusters and each is led by a designated agency.

⁹ See UN OCHA and IASC 2008, *Civil-Military Guidelines and References for Complex Emergencies*.

¹⁰ UN OCHA 2014, *A Guide for the Military*, p. 25.

Figure 3: The 11 Global Clusters and the Global Cluster Lead Agencies¹¹



Do no harm

This principle is part of the civil-military-police construct and is used by many in the aid community in the execution of their work. From a civil-military-police perspective, ‘do no harm’ means that all civil-military-police coordination activities will not knowingly contribute to further conflict or harm or endanger the beneficiaries of humanitarian assistance. The recently endorsed Core Humanitarian Standard goes further than this by emphasising that actors should ‘identify and act upon, potential or actual, unintended negative effects in a timely and systematic manner’.¹²

Within the aid community, this principle states that its members should prevent, to the best of their ability, any unintended negative consequences of their actions to affected populations.

¹¹ UN OCHA 2014, *A Guide for the Military*, p. 25.

¹² Groupe URD, HAP International, People In Aid and the Sphere Project, 2014, *Core Humanitarian Standard on Quality and Accountability*, <http://www.corehumanitarianstandard.org/files/files/Core%20Humanitarian%20Standard%20-%20English.pdf>

Donor

This phrase is commonly used to denote those agencies or organisations that provide funding to other entities to undertake humanitarian and/or development work on their behalf. In this guide, ‘donor’ refers to government agencies that provide funding for humanitarian and development activities and strategic policy that underpins the government’s overseas aid and development portfolio. Donors fund, for example, intergovernmental organisations (IGOs), the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, NGOs, private contractors and regional organisations. Donors may also have, or enter into, bilateral agreements with nations that have been affected by crisis.

Good Humanitarian Donorship principles

The Good Humanitarian Donorship (GHD) initiative, supported by 41 countries, recognises that by working together donors can more effectively encourage and stimulate principled donor behaviour and, by extension, improve humanitarian action. The *23 Principles and Good Practice* provide a framework to guide official humanitarian aid and a mechanism to encourage greater donor accountability. These were drawn up to enhance the coherence and effectiveness of donor action, as well as their accountability to beneficiaries, implementing organisations and domestic constituencies (see reference in Annex 3).

Humanitarian imperative

The humanitarian imperative is a core value that guides humanitarian activity undertaken by the aid community. It refers to the idea that the right to receive humanitarian assistance, and to offer it, is a fundamental humanitarian principle that should be enjoyed by all people. The aid community recognises its obligation to provide humanitarian assistance wherever it is needed. When this aid is given, it is not a partisan or political act; the prime motivation of the humanitarian imperative is to save lives and alleviate human suffering of those most in need. The core humanitarian principles are described in Box 1.

Box 1 – Core humanitarian principles

To realise the humanitarian imperative, many within the aid community share and adhere to a number of core humanitarian principles that underpin their activities. These principles are translated into practical measures to secure access to those in need, deliver effective humanitarian assistance and protect staff from harm. These principles are based on the UN General Assembly Resolution 46/182, which states that humanitarian assistance must be provided in accordance with the principles of humanity, neutrality and impartiality. Core principles were further developed and embedded within the *Code of Conduct for the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement and NGOs in Disaster Relief*.¹³

- **Humanity:** To save and protect life and dignity, and prevent and alleviate human suffering wherever it is found.
- **Impartiality:** Help that is based solely on need. Assistance provided will not discriminate on the basis of gender, race, ethnicity, religion, nationality, political affiliation, sexual orientation or social status.
- **Independence:** Humanitarian aid activities will be implemented separately from political, military, commercial or other objectives.
- **Neutrality:** Assistance must be provided without taking sides in controversy that is of a political, military, religious or ideological nature. (Some agencies do not consider neutrality a core principle due to the nature of their advocacy work.)

Governments that provide funding to the aid community generally understand and support their humanitarian partners' efforts to maintain their neutrality in humanitarian response. At the same time, it is acknowledged that other political objectives may influence government responses.

¹³ ICRC 1994, *Code of Conduct for the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in Disaster Relief*, Publication Ref. 1067, <http://www.icrc.org/eng/resources/documents/publication/p1067.htm>

Humanitarian space¹⁴

Humanitarian space not only relates to a physical environment, but more broadly to principles, codes of conduct and ways of working that apply to the provision of humanitarian assistance. To ensure that core humanitarian principles are upheld, the aid community believes it should have access to all vulnerable people in all areas and be free to negotiate such access with all parties to a conflict, without fear of attack, retribution or undue pressure.

The aid community also believes in the importance of maintaining a clear distinction—real or perceived—between the role and function of humanitarian actors from that of a military force that is a party to the conflict. This distinction is a determining factor in creating an operating environment in which aid agencies can discharge their responsibilities effectively and safely. As a result, many in the aid community insist on the ability to work independently of and separately from the military, police, government and related aid agencies that comprise whole-of-government,¹⁵ UN or multinational missions responding to humanitarian crises or complex emergencies.

Option of last resort

Particularly from the viewpoint of UN agencies and the broader aid community, the use of international military assets, armed escorts, joint humanitarian–military operations and other actions involving visible interaction with the military should be the option of last resort. Such actions should take place only where there is no comparable civilian alternative and the use of military support can meet a critical humanitarian need. While some governments use the military as a primary responder, most governments use military and defence assets when there is no civilian assistance available at the time.¹⁶

Protection of civilians

Protection of civilians (POC) has become an increasingly important component of the tasks performed by the military, police and civilian agencies (including the aid community) in disaster response,

¹⁴ See Definition in Annex 1.

¹⁵ See Annex 1 for definition.

¹⁶ See Chapter 4 for further information on guidelines on the use of foreign military and civil defence assets.

peacekeeping missions and more generally in complex environments. While the UN has developed POC guidelines to assist in civil-military-police coordination, more work is required to achieve conformity in definition among key stakeholders and to clarify roles and responsibilities among them. A number of humanitarian agencies have protection mandates or specific roles concerning vulnerable groups including child protection and gender-based violence. In cases where military actors have a protection mandate, humanitarian actors may share information on threats against civilians, advocate with the military to enhance security for civilians, and respond to requests for information on population movements and humanitarian needs.¹⁷

Military

Within the military context, POC is primarily viewed in terms of military activities, including an armed response, to ensure the physical protection of people under imminent threat of violence.

Police

For the police, POC encompasses activities aimed at securing full respect for the rights of individuals, applying the rule of law, and the physical protection of people under imminent threat of violence.

Aid community

Generally, the aid community views POC as encompassing activities aimed at securing full respect for the rights of individuals—women and girls, men and boys—in accordance with the letter and the spirit of the relevant bodies of human rights, humanitarian and refugee law. Integration of a gender perspective and the different experiences of women and girls, men and boys is a fundamental component for protection programs. Protection activities aim to create an environment where human dignity is respected and to prevent, reduce or mitigate the impact of violence, coercion, deprivation or abuse towards individuals or groups. Protection activities also seek to increase people's capacity to cope with these threats and vulnerabilities while restoring dignified conditions of life.

¹⁷ UN OCHA 2014, *A Guide for the Military*, p. 46.

3 | Who are the Key Civil-Military-Police Stakeholders?

Often the greatest potential source of confusion and miscommunication within the civil-military-police context is a lack of understanding and appreciation of each other's mandates. This can lead to significant misperception and stereotyping. This chapter provides a broad overview of the key stakeholders in disaster response and complex emergencies.

Host country

The host country,¹⁸ which is where the natural disaster or complex emergency occurs, should be the first and pre-eminent authority in disaster response and complex emergencies. In general, there will be no international response unless at the express request of the host country and upon their acceptance of international offers of assistance. International response, once provided, is expected to respect host country ownership and leadership.

The Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness (2005) and the Accra Agenda for Action (2008) commits signatories to respect partner host country leadership and help strengthen their capacity to exercise it.¹⁹ Furthermore, it commits donors to basing their overall support on partner host countries' national development strategies, institutions and procedures. This highlights the importance of working with host governments, including national disaster management offices. The Busan Partnership for Effective Development Co-operation (2011), endorsed by 158 countries and territories and 50 organisations, reiterated the commitment to Paris and Accra and set out a series of concrete action points to accelerate the implementation of these commitments.²⁰

It should be noted, however, that in situations where a host country's national authorities are engaged in armed conflict or violence involving other actors within the territory, it may be difficult for humanitarian

18 Host country is sometimes referred to as host nation/region, affected state/region, affected nation or partner country.

19 <http://www.oecd.org/dac/effectiveness/parisdeclarationandaccraagendaforaction.htm>

20 See Busan Partnership For Effective Development Co-Operation Fourth High Level Forum On Aid Effectiveness, Busan, Republic of Korea, 29 November–1 December 2011.

agencies to work alongside or cooperate with the national authorities without compromising their neutrality or independence.

In addition to national authorities, international military, police and the aid community are likely to encounter a range of other important and influential stakeholders in the host country. Stakeholders include local civil society and NGOs, tribal and factional leaders, religious organisations and the private sector. These entities range from credible, professional organisations with strong popular support to ineffective organisations or groups with criminal ties. It is important to remember that not only is the affected population always the first responder, but that, when possible, local capacities should be an option of first resort in facilitating a comprehensive response.

Natural disaster management organisations/offices

Many host countries have established a national agency responsible for disaster management, reinforcing the principle that disaster management is a national responsibility. These agencies, sometimes referred to as natural disaster management organisations/offices (NDMOs) or national disaster management committees (NDMCs), are responsible for providing rehabilitation services for victims of disasters, mobilising people at various levels of society to support governmental programs, ensuring the preparedness of the country, and coordinating the activities of various government and non-government agencies in the management of disasters. NDMOs coordinate directly with the UN Country Team, which is described later in this chapter.²¹ Many governments also provide assistance on a bilateral basis, not only through UN organisations. It is the national authorities, generally the NDMOs, who coordinate this assistance.

Aid community

Intergovernmental organisations

Intergovernmental organisations (IGOs) are made up primarily of sovereign entities—for example, the United Nations; the European Union (an example of a supranational organisation) and its humanitarian arm, the European Community Humanitarian Office (ECHO); as well as international financial institutions such as the World Bank and the International Monetary

²¹ UN OCHA 2013, *Disaster Response in Asia and the Pacific: A guide to international tools and services*, https://docs.unocha.org/sites/dms/ROAP/Promotional%20Materials/Disaster_Response_in_Asia_Pacific.pdf

Fund (IMF). These bodies work across the relief-to-development continuum and some address peace and security issues as well.

United Nations

The United Nations (UN) comprises many agencies, funds and programs with specialised agencies, including World Food Programme (WFP), UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), UN Children’s Fund (UNICEF), Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) and the UN Development Programme (UNDP). A United Nations Country Team (UNCT) in a country ensures that present UN programs, funds and agencies are unified and coherent.²²

In a disaster response, OCHA is the lead UN department to facilitate the coordination of the international humanitarian response. OCHA has humanitarian and civil-military-police coordination functions. OCHA assists governments in mobilising international assistance when national capacity has been exceeded, and in coordinating humanitarian action. OCHA coordinates donors, agencies from the aid community, UN agencies and others, and supports host governments to prepare contingency plans, run scenarios, and respond when a disaster strikes.

After the immediate humanitarian response, the agency usually tasked with coordinating the UN development response is the UNDP. In situations of conflict or instability, the United Nations will, when called upon by the UN Security Council, authorise peacekeeping missions in countries or regions affected by conflict. These missions often involve a combination of military, political, security, humanitarian and development objectives to support peacebuilding efforts.

UN agencies are **not** NGOs and NGOs are **not** part of the United Nations, although NGOs are implementing partners for many UN agencies.

Regional intergovernmental bodies and agreements

There are many regional bodies worldwide that have a development, disaster response and/or conflict resolution mandate to ensure regional cooperation in response efforts and promote preparedness among

²² UN OCHA 2014, *A Guide for the Military*, p. 20.

member states.²³ Most notably are the European Union, the Association of the West African States (ECOWAS) and the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), which are increasingly playing roles in humanitarian assistance.²⁴ In addition to regional IGO bodies, there are a number of regional IGO agreements. Notably, disaster relief coordination arrangements exist between France, Australia and New Zealand (FRANZ) within the FRANZ Agreement on Disaster Relief Cooperation in the South Pacific (1992).

The FRANZ agreement is primarily a coordination mechanism between the three countries and is activated through a request from the host country following a natural disaster in the Pacific region. When activated, signatories will identify ways to coordinate response efforts and optimise resources and assets. Other regions have similar frameworks in place, with localised mechanisms and details. The Caribbean, through its Community Secretariat, has established the Caribbean Disaster Emergency Management Agency (CDEMA) to coordinate regional response assets in the event of a disaster. The Pan American Health Organization (PAHO) provides technical cooperation and mobilises partnerships to coordinate disaster response in the broad region of the Americas. PAHO is a product of a regional cooperative framework between the broader Americas region, focusing particularly on Central and South America.

The International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement

The International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement (the Movement) has three components: two international institutions, specifically the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) and the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (Federation),²⁵ and national Red Cross and Red Crescent societies located in 189 countries. While the ICRC protects and assists victims of armed conflict and other situations of violence, the Federation directs and coordinates international assistance of the Movement to victims of natural and technological disasters.

The ICRC, whose mandate is to assist and protect people affected by armed conflict, is given international legal status by the Geneva Conventions of 1949.²⁶ The ICRC is the guardian and promoter of

23 Examples of these found in Annex 3.

24 UN OCHA 2014, *A Guide for the Military*, p. 14.

25 The Federation is also referred to as the IFRC.

26 See <http://www.icrc.org> for more information on the Geneva Conventions.

international humanitarian law (IHL), also known as the Law of Armed Conflict. These laws aim to protect groups such as civilians and the wounded, and to reduce human suffering at times of armed conflict.

The ICRC is known for its rigorous adherence to the principles of neutrality, independence and impartiality and has well-established procedures for operating in conflict zones. In situations of armed conflict and other situations of violence, the ICRC's services include protection, health services (war surgery, primary health care and orthopaedics), economic security (food, household items and livelihood support), water, sanitation and shelter.

The ICRC's protection roles are mandated by the Geneva Conventions and include visiting detainees (including prisoners of war) to assess the conditions of their detention and working with authorities to improve them where necessary. The ICRC also conducts tracing—searching for separated or missing family members, exchanging family messages, reuniting families, and seeking to clarify the fate of those who remain missing. The ICRC also reminds the parties to a conflict of the rules governing the conduct of hostilities as well as the rules relating to the use of force in law enforcement operations. Finally, the ICRC acts as a neutral intermediary (providing a neutral channel or zone for achieving humanitarian outcomes) when and where requested and agreed to by national authorities or any other party involved. The ICRC coordinates and directs international assistance within the Movement at times of armed conflict.

The Federation acts as the secretariat and policy development body for member national societies. It coordinates and directs international assistance within the Movement following natural disasters in non-conflict situations. It works with national societies to build their capacities and respond to disasters and refugee outflows. Its relief operations are conducted with and through national societies and combined with its development work. The Federation is also the convenor of the shelter cluster in natural disasters and the promoter of the International Disaster Response Law (IDRL) guidelines.

National Red Cross and Red Crescent societies form the backbone of the Movement. Each national society is made up of members, volunteers and staff who provide a wide range of services, including disaster preparedness and response, health services and community welfare programs. Specific programs vary per country depending on needs and capacity, but standing programs usually include first aid training, support

to blood banks, restoring family links, support to vulnerable communities and promoting IHL.

Domestically, national societies are auxiliary to host governments and usually sit on national disaster management committees. However, they retain their independence by adhering to their fundamental principles. To support the work of the Movement internationally, national societies also send funds, delegates and supplies abroad during natural disasters or conflict situations, under the coordination of the Federation or the ICRC respectively.

Due to its specific legal status, **no part** of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement is a UN entity or an NGO.

Non-government organisations

Non-government organisations (NGOs) are civilian and not-for-profit-organisations that may be international, national or local, and some may be faith-based in their focus.²⁷ Their size, nature and intents are highly diverse, as is their willingness to work with other agencies, in particular the military. Some are part of global confederations or alliances and others may be very small, unaffiliated organisations that address niche needs. In any one country, there may be anywhere from just a few to thousands of NGOs present, with a range of mandates, objectives, operations, organisational structures, impacts and effectiveness. They are often referred to as civil society organisations or community-based organisations, depending on their legal status. While NGOs may have a voluntary aspect to their organisations, the majority of individuals working for them are trained professionals. Some of the larger NGOs that respond to humanitarian emergencies include CARE International, Médecins Sans Frontières, International Rescue Committee, Caritas, Plan, Oxfam, Danish Refugee Council, Save the Children and World Vision.

NGOs usually receive their funding from private individuals and groups as well as from government and UN agencies. NGOs are not part of a whole-of-government response, even though their funding may come in part from government. Many NGOs cap the amount of government funding they will accept; some do not accept any government funding so they can maintain their independence.

²⁷ Unless otherwise noted, NGOs refer to both humanitarian and development NGOs.

NGOs may be singularly focused or have multiple mandates. These mandates may include humanitarian assistance, longer term development and/or advocacy of causes. Given the NGO community's diversity, ensuring minimum standards (in whatever field an NGO might operate) is a significant challenge. To overcome this, a group comprising HAP International, People In Aid and the Sphere Project devised the Core Humanitarian Standard on Quality and Accountability (CHS). It describes the essential elements of principled, accountable and quality humanitarian action, compiled through broad consultation across the humanitarian sector.

There are a number of NGO peak bodies that work to promote best practice and enhanced coordination in humanitarian and development aid delivery. These peak bodies typically do not have any authority over their members. International peak bodies include the Voluntary Organisations in Cooperation in Emergencies (VOICE) in Europe, InterAction in the USA, the Australian Council for International Development (ACFID), and the global International Council of Voluntary Agencies (ICVA). VOICE and ICVA serve as consortiums of international NGOs and provide a range of services to their members, but also act as strong proponents of specific efforts that normally include increasing government foreign aid budgets and levels of awareness for specific emergencies.²⁸ NGOs may subscribe to a national, regional or broader international standard that define standards of good practice for international development organisations and represent an active commitment to conduct their activities with integrity and accountability. The International Committee of the Red Cross provides a universal standard for humanitarian NGOs that 481 organisations around the world have subscribed to as signatories to the Red Cross Code of Conduct.

In addition to regional and international peak bodies, there are often peak bodies in the host countries that seek to facilitate NGO coordination and advocate on behalf of the NGO community. Some examples include the Timor-Leste NGO Forum (FONGTIL), the Agency Coordinating Body for Afghan Relief (ACBAR) and the Pacific Island Association of Non-Governmental Organisations (PIANGO).

NGOs tend to work in ways that build the capacity of partners, including host governments, local organisations and local communities. Increasingly, international NGOs rely more on partnerships with host

28 Lynn Lawry (ed) 2009, *Guide to Nongovernmental Organizations for the Military*, The Center for Disaster and Humanitarian Assistance Medicine.

country organisations and groups and less on international staff directly implementing responses. NGOs work with communities to enhance resilience, reduce vulnerabilities, increase capacities, and promote sustainable and enduring development. Many NGOs discourage the notion of handouts and instead emphasise the importance of local ownership and empowerment. NGOs strive to design and implement programs that actively reduce people’s vulnerability and risk to future disasters as well as to help communities rebuild after disasters—this is known as ‘building back better’. This emphasis on sustainability ensures that agencies assist communities to overcome poverty and injustice over the long term. Within the NGO mandate, it is not just *what is done* but *how it is done* that informs their engagement, and NGOs believe this is critical to their long-term success.

NGOs are **not** part of the United Nations, the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement or government agencies.

Government agencies

Increasingly across the world, governments are adopting a multiagency or whole-of-government approach that seeks to integrate all government resources supporting responses to natural disasters and/or complex emergencies. A whole-of-government approach ensures a variety of experts are able to address the complexity of tasks involved.

Foreign offices and ministries

Foreign offices and ministries often oversee their government’s response to overseas crises, whether in relation to natural disasters or complex emergencies. They are responsible for coordinating whole-of-government advice to governmental bodies such as Cabinet and Congress on response options. This involves chairing interdepartmental committees, task forces, or groups that are set up to coordinate a government’s response across agencies. Foreign offices and ministries are often involved in assisting vulnerable countries to prevent, prepare for, respond to and recover from conflicts and disasters.

In a host country where a government has established a foreign mission, the foreign office or ministry head of mission is responsible for overseeing the government’s official liaison with local leadership and all aspects of its

response in-country, including consular and humanitarian efforts. Foreign offices and ministries provide strategic direction, coordination and oversight of mission activities, engagement with local leaders (official and unofficial) to influence political processes, public advocacy in support of mission objectives and facilitation of regional or international cooperation.

Agencies for international development or international aid programs

Many governments have agencies or programs for coordinating the humanitarian and development components of their government's response to disasters and crises in developing countries. These agencies may sit outside or within ministries or departments of foreign affairs and vary from country to country.

USAID is an independent federal agency that receives overall foreign policy guidance from the US Secretary of State, and USAID plans its development and assistance programs in coordination with the US Department of State.

In contrast, in Australia, the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade (DFAT) manages Australia's international aid program. They are the lead in facilitating regional and international cooperation around crisis response and seek to ensure Australia's efforts to a disaster or crisis are focused on supporting the needs of the host country's people and the partner host government's disaster management priorities.

In 2013, the Canadian Government combined the Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade (DFAIT) and the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) into the Department of Foreign Affairs, Trade and Development. This merge facilitated a more coherent approach to Canadian international policy, supported the achievement of Canada's international goals, and provided improved outcomes for Canadians through more efficient, effective and targeted programming.²⁹

These government agencies or programs provide humanitarian assistance at the host country's request, which is relayed to the assisting government(s) via normal diplomatic processes. The agency or program then develops a course of action to deliver appropriate and effective assistance, which can include:

29 Anni-Claudine Büelles and Shannon Kindornay 2013, *Beyond Aid: A Plan for Canada's International Cooperation*, The North-South Institute, <http://www.nsi-ins.ca/wp-content/uploads/2013/05/BuellesKindornay.2013.CNDPolicyCoherenceEN.pdf>

- contributing funds to trusted international and local partners with local capability and specialist knowledge to deliver emergency relief assistance on the ground
- providing relief supplies to meet affected communities' urgent needs
- deploying experts and specialist teams with required skills, including through standing arrangements with other government agencies.

Civilian volunteer programs

Many governments have civilian volunteer programs through which they deploy highly qualified, paid civilian specialists to countries experiencing or emerging from disaster or conflict. They support stabilisation, recovery and development planning. Civilian volunteer programs are typically managed by foreign offices, departments and ministries, aid programs or perhaps even defence departments, and act as a bridge between humanitarian and emergency response measures and long-term development programs. The programs complement the work already facilitated by agencies for international development or international aid programs in the areas of emergency response and ongoing humanitarian aid. Generally, civilian volunteer program specialists work with and within host governments to facilitate rebuilding state functions, the rule of law and essential service delivery.

Military

Military forces differ from country to country. Each military force's capabilities vary; as such they provide different options to their respective governments for responding to crises. It is essential to identify the specific capabilities of a particular military force to avoid stereotyping all militaries. However, some commonalities can include:

- employing a hierarchical command structure, to enable the control of many tasks or functions occurring over a wide geographical area or span of responsibility
- using assumption-based planning, to enable troops and assets to be moved to where they will be required prior to all the facts being known
- maintaining communications and reporting lines, particularly to the higher headquarters, enabling confirmation of facts from those on the ground and informing further planning.

The primary role of militaries is, in theory, defence of a nation from external threat. Humanitarian activities or disaster relief are not a primary function of many militaries. However, often they can quickly perform such operations and have specific capabilities that can complement the overall relief effort, including proximity and scale of suitable resources to the disaster area or specialist skills needed to deal with the consequences of a humanitarian emergency or disaster.

As a result, many governments look to their militaries to be a principal responder to domestic disasters and often are the first major responder outside of the affected population itself. Military support, directly or indirectly provided to affected populations, may include but is not limited to infrastructure, logistics, transportation, airfield management, communications, medical support, distribution of relief commodities and security.

When militaries are deployed in response to disasters overseas, it is generally at the express invitation of the host country, in strict adherence with the host nation's response priorities. This necessitates close interaction and/or communication with host country authorities.

In contrast to deployments for international disasters, deploying military forces into complex emergencies requires a legal basis for the deployment under international law; for example, an international mandate authorised by the UN Security Council or another internationally recognised body.

Under all but exceptional circumstances, international military forces will be deployed in support of disaster relief efforts and will normally not assume leadership of the overall effort. This does not preclude supporting civil command and control. The generic military role is to support and enable effort to relieve emergency needs until such time as traditional disaster-management capacities no longer require military support.

Militaries should, wherever possible, make maximum use of established infrastructure and civilian capacity to avoid becoming a hub upon which other responding agencies become reliant. Such reliance creates the potential for longer-term dependency and can make it more difficult for donor states to redeploy their military forces.

Military forces responding to complex emergencies apply their normal planning approach, but undertake different tasks to their role in conflict. In complex emergencies, there is a heightened imperative for military forces to gain a detailed understanding of the political dynamics within their operating area, including friendly, neutral and adversarial groups.

Population support is central to enabling a successful transition from conflict to a political settlement and setting the groundwork for sustainable social and economic development. However, militaries also may be involved in a wider spectrum of activities directed towards population support (e.g. restoration of basic services such as health facilities) and capacity building.

In the event of an international disaster response or complex emergency, the nature of the effort provided by military forces will vary from country to country and often will be in support of a multiagency response. The nature and timing of the military component of a response to a disaster is guided by a number of factors, including international guidelines, host nation requests, and the role and responsibility of the military within its own country. For example, the Oslo Guidelines³⁰ suggest military assets should only be used as a last resort, whereas the Asia-Pacific Conferences on Military Assistance to Disaster Relief Operations (APC-MADRO) acknowledges that the military can play a vital and early part in disaster responses.³¹ As a result, military force capabilities deployed will be mission specific, determined in response to its government's guidance and in concert with the other government agencies involved in the response. The size and range of military capabilities deployed may also change over the course of an extended commitment in response to the changing operating environment, revised government guidance and changes in host nation requests, or within international mandates.

The focus of any international disaster response will be to save human life, alleviate suffering and foster recovery efforts. The military's role in this response is to carry out high-impact, short-duration assistance and relief efforts to establish humanitarian conditions conducive to delivering effective ongoing relief provisions, delivered by specialist government and non-government providers.

Within a complex emergency, the military's role may initially be focused on security operations, which will have a higher priority in the execution of the military mission.

Militaries responding to an international disaster or complex emergency, in conjunction with other government agencies, will establish contact with key

30 OCHA 2007, *Oslo Guidelines: Guidelines on the Use of Foreign Military and Civil Defence Assets in Disaster Relief*, Revision 1.1, United Nations, Geneva.

31 APC-MADRO 2014, *Asia-Pacific Regional Guidelines for the Use of Foreign Military Assets in Natural Disaster Response Operations*, Version 8.01, UNOCHA, Geneva.

stakeholders within the local population and support the international response community. In complex emergencies, these activities will be on behalf of the force commander and will support the overall military mission.

Recent operational experiences have shown that the IGO and NGO communities in host countries often have been in place long before the military arrived and will remain long after the military has left. A key goal will be to minimise the impact of military operations on the local population and to seek areas of cooperation between the military force, the host country, and IGO and NGO providers. On deployment the military force will establish contact with host country stakeholders, the United Nations Country Team (UNCT)—if present, and other stakeholders to understand the host country, IGO and NGO structures in place. The military may deploy a Civil-Military Cooperation (CIMIC) team to support these interactions. As the environment permits, the military may establish a civil-military operations centre as a place where IGOs and NGOs can meet with the military and exchange information. This centre will be positioned away from the military operating facilities, as the threat allows.

Even if a foreign military is fulfilling or supporting humanitarian tasks, the military is a tool of the foreign policy of a government, and as such is not perceived as neutral or impartial.³²

Police

There are various models of policing worldwide that have evolved due to a range of historical and political factors. Some states have a highly decentralised model with different police forces operating at the local, state or provincial and national levels. Other states have a single national police force. Historical, political and legal factors will also determine whether police act in a community policing or a paramilitary role. Policing around the world varies depending on whether the police are accountable to a local or national authority, how they are structured (i.e. nationally or decentralised), their legal powers and how the use of force is regulated, and to what extent they are accountable to their community and their governance institutions.

Although many police and defence forces look similar, with their uniforms, hierarchical rank and command structure, there are often significant

32 UN OCHA 2014, *A Guide for the Military*, p. 13.

differences. The police mandate is to keep the peace and enforce criminal law, with protection of life and property as their primary function. In liberal democracies this is reliant upon public consent. Military forces have an entirely different institutional outlook, role and approach.

When deployed internationally, police take on a number of different roles including executive policing, advisory, training and support, not just capacity, capability and training support. Other activities undertaken include maintaining order and controlling crime through deterrence and the provision of social services (i.e. working with youth groups and neighbourhood watch).

When nations deploy their police to UN and other missions, there is a requirement for a legal foundation for the deployment; for example, a request from a host government or authorisation by a UN Security Council resolution. Police deployments can be either by secondment of individuals or as Formed Police Units (FPUs).

In many instances deployed police are civilians and have non-combatant status. They are generally trained to use the minimum force necessary to perform their law enforcement functions, using lethal force in extremely limited circumstances, in accordance with applicable law. Given that, negotiation and conflict management are core components of police training. Specific authorisation is also needed for police to carry weapons on overseas deployments. Finally, police are empowered legally and organisationally to exercise autonomous responsibility at all levels, with accountability through the legal and governance institutions such as the courts and the government.

Police, unlike the military, are usually civilians and have non-combatant status under international law.

Box 2 – An Australian Case Study: the Australian Federal Police International Deployment Group

The Australian Federal Police (AFP) International Deployment Group (IDG) is a unique capability in the world. It was established in February 2004 to provide the Australian Government with an enhanced standing capability to deploy police domestically and internationally. The AFP has continuously contributed to stability and security operations, United Nations (UN) missions and regionally in capacity

development missions since 1964, when Australian police were first deployed to the United Nations Force in Cyprus (UNFICYP).

The AFP IDG model has three main components:

- Australian based members – providing executive, planning, administrative, intelligence, training, technical and logistical support for deployed personnel and strategic advice to the AFP Executive.
- Mission component members – providing a blend of sworn and unsworn personnel deployed, or ready to deploy, to overseas missions and other operations as required.
- Specialist Response Group – providing ready response, highly-skilled tactical and specialist policing capability for rapid deployment to domestic and international operational situations, including public order incidents.

The AFP IDG will only be deployed after Australia has received and accepted an invitation for assistance from a sovereign state. AFP IDG deployments are subject to a formal agreement between Australia and the host nation that establishes the numbers of personnel to be deployed and the conditions and principles of their deployment. The range of skills deployed and the conditions of the agreement with the host nation will depend on whether the deployment is to a post-disaster, conflict or post-conflict situation. AFP IDG members may be granted the ability to exercise legal powers to restore public order and form joint operational teams with military forces or local police.

Depending on the mandate or agreement, international police, including the AFP, may be required to exercise executive policing powers. This requirement is generally limited to circumstances where there are no existing police, or the existing police are incapable of performing their duties properly. At all times the intention is to restore full executive policing functions to the host country police as early as possible.

In complex emergencies, and depending on the mission mandate, the role of AFP IDG officers may also range across the spectrum of policing from support to the rule of law functions to capacity building in specialist areas such as disaster victim identification, and investigation of serious crimes or human rights abuses. In capacity

building missions, the AFP IDG forms a partnership with the local police force and assists local officers by training, mentoring and institution building as appropriate to the local context.

Stability policing

Stability policing is a European model for the deployment of specialist FPU into conflict or post-conflict environments. In common with the AFP IDG model (as described in Box 2), Stability Police Units (SPUs) can deploy a range of specialised police functions. However, unlike the AFP IDG model, SPUs are normally drawn from states that have a gendarme, or paramilitary model of policing. In 2004, members of the G8 voted to create a centre of excellence for training police in the skills necessary for peace support operations. The following year, the Center of Excellence for Stability Policing Units (CoESPU) was established in Vicenza, Italy, to train SPU commanders and unit personnel, and develop doctrinal principles for the deployment and employment of SPUs.

SPUs are able to perform law enforcement and public order tasks that require a disciplined, robust and flexible response that may include the use of lethal or less-than-lethal force, depending on the prevailing circumstances. SPUs are designed for rapid deployment, they are logistically self-sustaining and, due to their paramilitary character, they can work effectively with the police and military components of a peace support mission. As formed self-reliant units, SPUs can operate during the early post-conflict period of a mission to bridge the security gap that can develop between the end of military operations and the restoration of the rule of law. Their ability to combine investigative and criminal intelligence functions with a flexible use of force makes them well suited to situations where large-scale, orchestrated civil disorders can disrupt the peace process.

The concept of stability policing has proven effective in a range of UN, NATO and European Union peace support missions. An SPU is typically 125 personnel in size and comprises specialised subunits for investigation, criminal intelligence, tactical response and logistics. In UN missions, SPUs have operated under the command of a UN police commissioner. In the NATO context, stability police are designated Multinational Specialised Units (MSUs) and range in strength from 250 to 600 personnel, which operate under the control of the NATO force commander. The European Union designates such units Integrated Police Units (IPUs), but in common

with the stability policing model these units are able to perform a range of law enforcement and rule of law roles under the command of an international police commissioner or a senior military commander.

The private sector

The term ‘private sector’, for the purpose of this publication, refers to for-profit companies, business and managing contractors, and excludes NGOs and not-for-profit organisations. The private sector has become increasingly active and widespread in international disaster response and complex emergencies.

Private sector groups involved in humanitarian action vary in size and scale—ranging from international to national and subnational levels. Currently national and subnational private sector actors undertake considerable and critical risk management and state building activities.³³ Managing contractors receive funding from government bodies as well as from other for-profit entities and are often found implementing donor programs in developing countries. Managing contractors include companies such as Development Alternatives Inc, Creative Associates, GRM, Coffey, URS, and ANU Enterprise.

The private sector will continue to be involved in responses to disasters and complex emergencies in the future. Understanding the commercial realities of the private sector is essential as it becomes more prevalent in a fiscally restrained environment. Additionally, managing contractors receive funding from government bodies, as well as from other for-profit entities, and are often found implementing donor programs in developing countries. The private sector has a vital interest in minimising disruption to economic activity caused by disasters such as damage to assets, disruption to supply chains, and the displacement of the workforce.

Before we move on, we need to move on

There are many stereotypes that the military, police and the aid community hold in relation to one another. They are often untrue, over-exaggerated and almost always unhelpful. Rather than detailing and therefore reinforcing these views, it is more constructive to stress how

33 The Humanitarian Futures Programme 2013, ‘The Private Sector Challenge Report’, <http://acmc.gov.au/the-private-sector-challenge-report-by-the-humanitarian-futures-programme/>

a little effort in communicating with each other can lead to changes in the quality and effectiveness of a response. The foundation for such communication is based on relationship building before crises occur and acceptance of the different mandates to which organisations work.

Managing contractors are **not** part of the government, they are **not** NGOs, they are **not** intergovernmental organisations and they are **not** part of the United Nations.

Want to know more?

- ACFID: <http://www.acfid.asn.au>
- Active Learning Network for Accountability and Performance (ALNAP): <http://www.alnap.org>
- Australian Civil-Military Centre: <http://www.acmc.gov.au>
- CIVICUS: <http://civcus.org/index.php/en/about-us-125>
- The Code of Conduct for the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement and NGOs in Disaster Relief: <http://www.icrc.org/eng/resources/documents/publication/p1067.htm>
- Core Humanitarian Standard: <http://www.corehumanitarianstandard.org>
- Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade: <http://aid.dfat.gov.au/Pages/home.aspx>
- Humanitarian Accountability Partnership: <http://www.hapinternational.org>
- Interaction: <http://interaction.org>
- International Committee of the Red Cross: <http://www.icrc.org>
- International Council of Voluntary Agencies: <https://icvanetwork.org>
- International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies: <http://www.ifrc.org>
- OCHA: <http://www.unocha.org>
- Red Cross: <http://www.redcross.org.au>
- Sphere Project: <http://www.sphereproject.org>

4 | Response to International Natural Disasters in Times of Peace

It is the primary responsibility of the host country to respond to any disaster and provide its citizens with adequate assistance and protection. If the situation has overwhelmed the capacity of the government to respond, outside assistance may be requested or accepted. This assistance may span the spectrum of international humanitarian organisations (both NGO and IGO) to multinational police and military forces, as briefly described in Chapter 3.

In this crowded environment, it is understandable that challenges and issues will arise as agencies respond in line with their organisational mandates, objectives, cultures, languages and philosophies. What follows in this chapter is a brief description of these challenges, specifically in relation to disasters occurring in times of peace. While this emphasis on disasters in peacetime may seem an arbitrary distinction to some, it is often the case that the challenges involved, the international laws invoked and the existing guidance documents used are different from those used in complex emergencies and thus deserve separate attention. Complex emergencies are covered in Chapter 5.

So, what are the key challenges?

Disaster response is an area where civil-military-police relationships tend to be less contested and contentious. Host country militaries often play a substantial role in disaster response. Many governments look to their militaries to be a principal responder to domestic disasters and militaries often are the first major responder outside of the affected population. Further, in a natural disaster environment, the aid community not only acknowledges that military deployments to disaster zones may follow government direction, but also recognises the capacity of the military to provide rapid deployment of medical, logistics and engineering capabilities. In this context, non-military stakeholders are more likely to coordinate their activities with the military. Nevertheless, challenges and issues remain and are discussed below.

The cluster approach

The clusters, as described in Chapter 2, are not command and control mechanisms and it is unlikely that directives will be given to other agencies within the clusters. Instead, clusters are reliant on consensus, cooperation and information sharing to gain a clear picture of the situation and mobilise resources to address needs and avoid duplication of effort. The clusters can coordinate joint assessments, identify the gaps and requirements guided by Sphere Standards (see Box 3), map out ‘who is doing what where’, develop action plans, engage in advocacy if appropriate, and carry out evaluations and contingency planning.

From military and police perspectives, the cluster system can seem disorganised as the web of relationships does not fit comfortably with their organisational approaches to coordination and planning. Contact with cluster group leads may be facilitated through OCHA or, if invited, through military personnel attending cluster meetings. Military personnel may be invited—on an ad hoc basis, and only in specific context—to be involved in clusters, in which case information can be passed from a cluster to the military through a Humanitarian Civil-Military Coordination (UN CMCoord) officer.³⁴ It is essential for the military to recognise, however, that they cannot attend cluster meetings without an explicit invitation to do so from the cluster lead.

It should be recognised that many significant responders often do not participate in the cluster system. This is a reminder that coordination goes beyond the cluster system and this arrangement cannot be expected to resolve or solve all major coordination issues.

Prioritisation

In disaster response, there are competing needs and not every stakeholder shares the same priorities. The host country’s military response and supporting international military forces will be guided by the host country’s priorities. In most disaster responses, this will align with the efforts of the international aid community; however, in circumstances where there may be competing priorities, the host country’s priorities will be upheld. For the military, this often requires managing others’ expectations of how and

34 A UN CMCoord officer advises the humanitarian community leadership on civil-military issues and facilitates the establishment, maintenance and review of appropriate relations between humanitarian and armed actors present in a disaster response or complex emergency. For more information, see United Nations 2008, *Civil-Military Coordination Officer Field Handbook*, version E1.1; or UN OCHA 2014, *A Guide for the Military*.

where military assets are allocated. For the aid community, this means being realistic in requests for support from military assets.

Access to resources

A practical challenge in disaster response is competition over resources, such as commodities, ports, airports, air space or transport facilities. This competition for access and use affects all key stakeholders. Coordinating these efforts, prioritising need, and allocating and tasking resources and assets can create significant challenges. Stakeholder operational and organisational demands can strain the best intentions for cooperation and/or coordination of effort. This highlights the need for enhanced communication among stakeholders. Equitable access and distribution of resources among beneficiaries regardless of sex, religion, nationality, etc, is a standard consideration in humanitarian operations.

Planning approaches

A distinction between military and civilian agencies is their different approaches to planning. The military employs assumption-based planning, while police and the aid sector conducts needs-based assessments.

Figure 4: Key Differences in Military and Civilian Planning, Environment and End-states³⁵

	Military	Civilian
Planning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Force and coercion • Fact and assumption-based • Highly structured • Centralised, hierarchical • Advance planning • Clear delineation of levels 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Flexible and dynamic • Delay detailed planning • Responsive to ‘on the ground’ • Devolved decision-making • Needs-based
Environment	Control environment	Respond to environment
Desired End-state	‘Return to normalcy’	‘Build back better’

The differences between these approaches is that militaries will conduct planning based on known information and make documented assumptions

35 Bowers and Cherne 2014, ‘A Lessons Framework for Civil-Military-Police Conflict and Disaster Management: An Australian Perspective’ in *Evidence-Based Lessons Learned for Organizational Innovation and Change*, IGI Global.

about information that is not yet available, with these assumptions validated as the planning continues. The assumption-based approach allows for the military to have a plan in place faster than the needs-based approach. However, it is important to note that there can be issues with assumption-based planning, such as incorrect and/or poor allocation of resources, which may cause overcrowding and logistic blockages.

Preparedness and contingency planning are also part of the aid community's disaster management cycle. However, once a disaster strikes, the aid community focuses heavily on needs-based programming and responses. This means that while some program activities are known prior to the disaster, the response will always be contextualised by the current situation, the assessed needs of the affected populations, and the complementarity between responding agencies and government entities. As a result, needs-based planning is a longer process.

Principles not universally accepted and/or not consistently applied

Among the aid community, and particularly NGOs, adherence to codes of conduct is voluntary rather than mandatory. There is no one universally accepted and implemented set of principles or codes of conduct. Further, there are no country-specific or international bodies that serve as regulatory entities to enforce adherence or application. In recent times there has been a rise in the number of NGOs operating in disasters and complex emergencies. This rise has also increased the number of NGOs who do not adhere to codes of conduct, creating confusion and mixed messages for all stakeholders. This lack of uniformity by some NGOs has resulted in internal conflict within the NGO community. Due to the diversity and number of aid agencies in the field, it is challenging to promote good practice within the civil-military-police context when standards of behaviour among the aid agencies may differ so significantly.

How do we respond better?

The accepted norm among stakeholders is that disaster relief should be **as civilian as possible and as military as necessary**. Recognised international guidance recommends that military assets only be used when 'no comparable civilian alternative' is available. The Oslo Guidelines (see Box 3) offers guidance on when and how militaries and military assets are used within disaster response. Specifically:

- when there is a humanitarian gap—no comparable civilian alternative to meet humanitarian needs
- to complement existing relief mechanisms to provide specific support to specific requirements
- at the request (or at least with the consent) of the affected state
- that relief actions remain the overall responsibility of the affected state
- under civilian control—meaning civilian direction and coordination
- at no cost to the affected state and, in principle, covered by funds other than those for international development activities
- will avoid dependency on military resources
- within a limited timeframe.

Many governments, especially in South-East Asia, have determined that their militaries are first responders to disasters. To this end, guidelines have been developed to assist all stakeholders in managing their relations (Box 3).

Box 3 – Guidelines and minimum standards in disaster response

There are a number of very important guidelines of which all stakeholders need to be aware. The first one addresses how governments should manage incoming international relief. The second and third speak to the issue of using military defence assets in disaster response, broadly and regionally, respectively. The fourth focuses on the issues of humanitarian civil-military-police coordination and using military and civil defence assets in country/situation specific guidelines. The fifth guideline addresses the issue of minimum standards for humanitarian response in disasters and complex emergencies.

The **IDRL Guidelines** (for the domestic facilitation and regulation of international disaster relief and initial recovery assistance) are meant to assist governments to improve their own disaster laws with respect to incoming international relief, ensuring better coordination and quality.

The voluntary and non-binding **Oslo Guidelines**, officially known as the *Guidelines on the Use of Foreign Military and Civil Defence Assets in Disaster Relief*, address the use of foreign military and civil defence assets following natural, technological and environmental emergencies in times of peace. They cover the use of UN military and

civil defence assets (MCDA)—see Box 4—requested by UN humanitarian agencies and deployed under UN control specifically to support humanitarian activities, as well as other foreign military and civil defence assets that might be available. Under the guidelines, MCDA should be viewed as a tool that complements existing relief mechanisms to provide specific support to specific requirements, in response to the acknowledged humanitarian gap between the disaster needs that the relief community is being asked to satisfy and the resources available to meet them.

The **Asia-Pacific Conferences on Military Assistance to Disaster Relief Operations** (APC-MADRO) have developed the *Asia-Pacific Regional Guidelines for the Use of Foreign Military Assets in National Disaster Operations* to complement other existing and emerging regional guidelines on effective and principled foreign military assistance to disaster relief operations in the region. The member states and organisations that developed the guidelines recognise that military capacities in the region are often the first capabilities offered and make a valuable contribution to responses. There is also growing recognition of the importance of fostering stronger civil-military collaboration in responding to disasters. These guidelines are also voluntary and non-binding.³⁶

Country/situation specific guidelines and guidance on humanitarian civil-military-police coordination and the use of military and civil defence assets exist for a number of countries, including South Sudan, Haiti, Pakistan, Chad, Afghanistan, Iraq, Sudan, Democratic Republic of the Congo and Liberia.

The **Sphere Handbook**, *Humanitarian Charter and Minimum Standards in Humanitarian Response*, sets out minimum standards of response in key life-saving sectors: water supply, sanitation and hygiene promotion; food security and nutrition; shelter, settlement and non-food items; protection principles; and health action. The Sphere Handbook outlines the ideal minimum standards that all stakeholders should aim to achieve in any humanitarian response in order for disaster-affected populations to survive and recover in stable conditions and with dignity. These guidelines are intended for

³⁶ The Asia-Pacific Conferences on Military Assistance to Disaster Relief Operations 2014, *Asia-Pacific Regional Guidelines For The Use Of Foreign Military Assets In Natural Disaster Response Operations*, Version 8.01, <https://docs.unocha.org/sites/dms/Documents/Guidelines-APC%20MADRO-%20Final.pdf>

use by the aid community in a range of settings, including disasters and complex emergencies.

Want to know more?

- *The Asia-Pacific Regional Guidelines for the Use of Foreign Military Assets in Natural Disaster Response Operations* (2010). <https://ochanet.unocha.org/p/Documents/APC-MADRO%20Draft%20Guidelines%20V8.0%20%2823%20November%202010%29.pdf>
- *Guidelines on the Use of Foreign Military and Civil Defence Assets in Disaster Relief* (Oslo Guidelines). Updated November 2006 (Revision 1.1, November 2007). <http://reliefweb.int/node/22924>
- Country/situation specific guidelines and guidance on humanitarian civil-military-police coordination and the use of military and civil defence assets are available at: <http://www.unocha.org/what-we-do/coordination-tools/UN-CMCoord/publications>
- *Sphere Humanitarian Charter and Minimum Standards in Disaster Response*. The Sphere Project (2011). <http://www.sphereproject.org/handbook/index.htm>
- The International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC) has a disaster law database—a collection of international disaster response laws, rules and principles (IDRL). <http://www.ifrc.org/en/publications-and-reports/idrl-database/>

5 | Response to Complex Emergencies

Many parts of the world have been immersed in complex emergencies (see definition at Annex 1). Complex emergencies typically create significant humanitarian crises and needs. These crises:

- may be either intra-state or inter-state in nature
- involve areas where local allegiances are often blurred or unclear and where there is an abundance of non-state actors engaged in the conflict
- tend to see humanitarian and development assistance delivered by entities that may also be a party to the conflict
- are highly politicised and/or militarised operating environments that have heightened security and risk for all involved, including members of an international military or police force, government agencies or aid community
- pose significant issues around protection, human rights violations and the targeting of civilians
- affect men and boys, and women and girls in different ways, with women and girls carrying a disproportionate burden of the impact of conflict through gender-based violence, inequitable access to food and resources, and unequal participation in peacebuilding or negotiation processes.

It is in complex emergencies that there is the greatest international effort to promote stabilisation³⁷ through peacemaking, peacekeeping and peacebuilding activities and missions. It is also in these environments where multiple stakeholders provide an array of services, ranging from humanitarian and development assistance to inputs into stabilisation activities such as rule of law, security sector reform, reconciliation and good governance. It is in these environments where ‘comprehensive’ and whole-of-government approaches are implemented to combat conflict, and where political, economic, military, humanitarian and development assistance is being used to sustain and enrich the peace in order to bring stability. The obligations of international humanitarian law (IHL) in environments of armed conflict are extremely important in these circumstances.

³⁷ See Annex 1 for the definition of stabilisation.

Interaction between civilian, military and police components in complex emergencies is far more difficult and challenging than might be found in a natural disaster. In these settings, it may be the case that humanitarian and development programs are being implemented at the same time that there is open conflict or when peace may still be fragile. Thus, along with the aid community and donors, there may also be host country, multinational and peacekeeping military forces and police units. Humanitarian and development aid, once provided primarily by aid agencies, may now be provided by more non-traditional stakeholders such as military and police. This aid may be in support of counterinsurgency strategy, larger stabilisation efforts or peacebuilding initiatives.³⁸

Responses to complex emergencies have become increasingly more complicated, and the blurring of the lines between peacekeeping and peace enforcement, and more importantly between peace enforcement, stability operations and war, have become a concern. To help tease out these challenges, responses to complex emergencies are explored in this chapter and key stakeholder challenges are highlighted, followed by a brief discussion on shared challenges.

Peacekeeping operations

Peacekeeping operations are typically led by the United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO), although some are conducted by regional organisations. The Regional Assistance Mission to the Solomon Islands for instance, did not involve DPKO input (although it was endorsed by the President of the United Nations Security Council at the time). In mid-2014 there were 17 UN peace operations deployed on four continents.³⁹

According to DPKO, peacekeeping has proven to be one of the most effective peacebuilding instruments available to the United Nations to assist host countries navigate the difficult path from conflict to peace. Peacekeeping is flexible and has been deployed in many configurations. Some of the unique strengths of peacekeeping include legitimacy, burden sharing, and an ability to deploy and sustain military and police from

38 Counterinsurgency strategy, also known as COIN strategy, is largely a military term that is used to describe civil-military-police approaches to combat insurgency in complex emergencies. Under this approach, military, aid and development activities are integrated to achieve more effective (military) campaign objectives.

39 <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/operations/peacekeeping.shtml>

around the globe. Military and police personnel are integrated with civilian peacekeepers to advance multidimensional mandates.

Peacekeeping operations may involve a range of organisations including the United Nations, regional organisations, NGOs and other non-state actors. They incorporate political, economic, social and/or cultural elements as well as military security components and cover a multitude of tasks including monitoring, enforcement, protection of civilians, security, governance, rule of law, human rights, humanitarian assistance and elections.⁴⁰ UN peacekeepers provide security and the political and peacebuilding support to help countries make the difficult, early transition from conflict to peace.⁴¹

UN peacekeeping is guided by three basic principles:

- consent of the parties
- impartiality
- non-use of force except in self-defence and defence of the mandate.⁴²

Peace enforcement

UN DPKO defines peace enforcement as the application, with the authorisation of the Security Council, of a range of coercive measures, including the use of military force. Such actions are authorised to restore international peace and security in situations where the Security Council has determined the existence of a threat to the peace, breach of the peace or act of aggression. The Security Council may use, where appropriate, regional organisations and agencies for enforcement action under its authority.

Peace enforcement, through robust military protective actions, seeks to enhance the security of civilians by protecting them from identified or unidentified third parties or ‘spoilers’. While the lines between robust peacekeeping and peace enforcement can be easily blurred, peace enforcement does not complement peacekeeping, but exceeds its capacity and can replace it when the peace process collapses.⁴³

40 Kristine St-Pierre 2008, *Then and Now: Understanding the Spectrum of Complex Peace Operations*, The Pearson Peacekeeping Centre.

41 <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/operations/peacekeeping.shtml>

42 <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/operations/peacekeeping.shtml>

43 Joint Doctrine Note 5/11, *Peacekeeping: An Evolving Role For Military Forces*, UK Ministry of Defence, July 2011.

Stability operations

Stabilisation is an evolving concept, generally used in a conflict or post-conflict context, and can include a range of activities such as establishing peace; early efforts to resuscitate markets, livelihoods and services; and efforts to build a government's core capacities to manage political, security and development processes. A useful working definition is: 'the process by which underlying tensions that might lead to resurgence in violence and breakdown in law and order are managed and reduced, while efforts are made to support the preconditions for successful longer term development'. Activities undertaken in support of stabilisation may also include disarmament, demobilisation, reintegration and rehabilitation (DDRR).

So, what are the key challenges?

Unlike disaster response where civil-military-police relationships tend to be less contentious, the challenges in complex emergencies can be polarising. This polarisation is partly due to the environment and partly a result of stakeholders with different mandates operating in the same space. Stabilising and rebuilding weak or failing states is particularly challenging where social and security institutional infrastructure are ineffective or even non-existent. These states are then plagued by internal conflicts in which the civilian population is often the target.

Challenges through the lens of the aid community

It must be remembered that, despite some similarities, there are three distinct types of aid agencies, and their relationships with armed actors and with governments vary accordingly. This relates directly to the roles and responsibilities of the different agencies.

UN agencies have a responsibility under the UN Charter to be directly involved with issues of international peace and security, and they have an obligation to work with their members—the states that make up the United Nations. They are therefore very likely to work closely with host country and member state government departments, including those involved in law and order. They may work directly on security issues, be comfortable with travelling together with government and military actors in the field, and may even perform a security function directly. Specialist UN humanitarian agencies—most notably OCHA, UNHCR, UNICEF and WFP—may aim for more independence, particularly in relation to the

populations and partners they are trying to assist. All will accept armed escort pending the decision of the senior UN official in-country.

The International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement has a different role with governments, either as independent auxiliaries to the humanitarian services of government (in the case of national societies) or as an entirely independent and neutral humanitarian organisation operating under a legal mandate provided to it by the Geneva Conventions (in the case of the ICRC). In both cases, the Fundamental Principles of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement mean that the Movement must consistently demonstrate absolute neutrality, independence and impartiality. They will not accept armed escorts (except for possible extraction operations *in extremis*) and will take care to distance themselves in the field. The ICRC works closely, constructively and confidentially with militaries and police forces to monitor compliance with IHL.

Among NGOs, individual agencies vary greatly in their attitude to interaction with military personnel. In some circumstances no contact at all will be advocated, particularly where the military is a party to the conflict. Managing relationships with armed groups in a way that protects the principles and safety of humanitarian staff and the communities they serve has been, and always will be, a complex task on the ground. Operationally, NGO staff may face particular issues such as whether to use military assets, how to share information appropriately, how to approach armed security, what to do in the event of witnessing abuses by armed actors, and irregular demands for payment or other relief assets. In the case of some NGOs, sharing the operational space with the military may not be an option at all. An appreciation of the diversity of armed groups NGOs encounter is particularly important at an operational level.

The alignment of aid activities, real or perceived, with political objectives can result in parties to the conflict labelling aid organisations as legitimate targets. One of the greatest challenges for NGOs providing humanitarian assistance is how to avoid becoming, or even the appearance of becoming, an instrument of political or ideological objectives, while maintaining access and operational capability. Multi-mandated organisations are caught in this paradox; as agencies committed to providing relief (according to the humanitarian principles), they also conduct public and private advocacy and carry out development programs that may align with the interests of host and/or donor governments.

Comprehensive or whole-of-government approaches and the UN integrated mission model⁴⁴ may increase fears among NGOs, the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, and even some specialist humanitarian UN agencies of the subordination of humanitarian action to broader political or military goals. On the other hand, many of these actors recognise that some degree of coordination, consultative planning and good working relations are crucial for effective and safe operations.

The challenge to aid agencies is how to work with other stakeholders without compromising humanitarian principles and thus risk being targeted or losing acceptance from the local population. A more pragmatic approach may be appropriate in some circumstances while strict adherence to principles may be more appropriate in others.

NGOs often work in unstable and austere environments, meaning they must take significant risks to be effective. To manage risk, NGOs often adopt three key strategies: acceptance, protection and deterrence. Acceptance is the principle of reducing the threat to NGO personnel by gaining local acceptance of their work. Protection is to reduce the risk, but not the threat, by reducing personnel vulnerability. Deterrence reduces the risk by containing the threat with a counter-threat.

Most NGOs emphasise acceptance and protection over deterrence. Acceptance begins with direct dialogue and engagement with members of the community, particularly leaders of various ethnic and religious groups. This approach is characterised by proactive relationship building in the field, and is a key enabling factor in effective humanitarian operations.

Protection entails the security of physical assets and infrastructure, as well as aid workers. The disadvantage to pursuing a security strategy emphasising protection is projecting a potentially negative image by 'bunkering in'. Physical separation from the community in which NGOs operate can create negative perceptions of the organisation among its beneficiaries.

Deterrence is a traditional security approach that includes armed protection of assets and personnel. This model is very rarely pursued in the development arena due to the obviously negative effect such operations would have on public perception. Deterrence is useful, however, for specific operations that are carried out in short timeframes.

44 See Annex 1 for definition.

Ultimately, NGOs should seek to strike a balance between acceptance and protection, with a stronger emphasis placed on acceptance.

There is a growing concern among humanitarian actors over the militarisation of aid. Militaries are perceived as encroaching on what traditionally have been seen as the humanitarian and development domains, eroding humanitarian space as the distinctions become blurred. NGO use of indirect military support to meet a critical humanitarian need can further blur distinctions. The types of activity militaries undertake under the banners of ‘consent winning activities’ or ‘hearts and minds’—often quite legitimately aimed at stabilisation goals and enhancing force protection—cause concern to aid agencies and communities as *how* and *by whom* these activities are done are often as important as what is done.

In addition to the points raised above, there are other challenges for the aid community:

- Although there is a range of globally agreed civil-military-police guidelines and some country specific guidelines, as noted in Chapter 4, there still seems to be a very limited uptake and socialisation of these concepts and practices.
- Terminology is still a challenging area for communication between the humanitarian community and militaries, as noted in Chapter 2.
- There is a persistent view that ‘we (military, police and aid community) are all here for the same reason’—which is not the case. A clear understanding of different mandates is needed before real dialogue or coordination can take place. It is important to understand that the aid community does not take direction from militaries or governments, they do not gather intelligence, they do not engage in ‘hearts and minds’ projects and they are not force multipliers.

Challenges through the lens of the military

Given the scope of tasks within complex emergencies, many militaries will deploy as part of a multiagency endeavour. The key focus of military involvement will be on improving the security situation sufficiently to allow the appropriate civilian organisations to operate effectively and safely. In circumstances of extreme insecurity, military forces may be required to contribute to wider civil tasks in addition to establishing a robust security framework. In fact, the Law of Armed Conflict obliges parties to a conflict to facilitate and allow the passage of impartial humanitarian relief through

territory under their control, in order to access civilians in need.⁴⁵ In addition, they impose a further obligation on all parties to provide basic food, shelter, and medical supplies and services to the civilian population, within their capabilities.

These obligations will continue post-conflict in areas under their control or occupation. Civilian expertise should be integrated into operational planning and execution of civil tasks whenever possible. The manner in which immediate humanitarian needs are met may affect long-term development and governance structures in a way that could undermine the authority of the host government. This process should be consistent with the needs and priorities of the local population. As permissiveness increases, civil tasks should be handed over, as soon as is practicable, to the host country government and/or other civilian agencies.

Specific challenges for the military include:

- Strict military security protocols will likely impede the timely release of information sought by IGOs and NGOs.
- Many IGOs and NGOs will seek military protection *in extremis* and, if necessary, support to evacuate. If this expectation of *in extremis* support is within these organisations' emergency plans, then these expectations need to be discussed and negotiated with the military as early as possible in their planning processes. Preferably this should be conducted through civil-military-police coordination mechanisms and in accordance with existing guidelines.
- The ability of militaries, IGOs and NGOs to meet in a neutral setting may be limited. At times a meeting house will be established outside a secure military perimeter, but often, as movement to this location is limited or undesirable, alternative and creative methods to communicate are required, including identifying and using existing coordination mechanisms. In the first instance, contact should be made with the UN CMCoord officer to facilitate communication.

Challenges through the lens of the police

Security during peacetime is ordinarily a policing function. However, in extreme circumstances such as complex emergencies, police can share security enforcement mandates with the military. Fragile states⁴⁶ are often

45 The Law of Armed Conflict is also known as international humanitarian law (IHL).

46 See Annex 1 for definition.

characterised by an absence of effective or legitimate governance structures and institutions, including the police and military, which as a result sometimes can act with impunity, thus exacerbating the problem of instability.

There is often no effective or legitimate criminal justice system, or broader justice system within which to hold individuals, or indeed institutions, to account for malpractice.

Many of these societies are characterised by violence and other criminal activity. Left unchecked, these activities can become widespread to the extent that they can threaten the legitimacy of the state itself. Such societies are particularly vulnerable to corruption and transnational organised crime, reinforcing the need to strengthen police institutions and for multijurisdictional cooperation in these circumstances.

Traditionally the philosophical underpinnings of many international interventions has featured significant military input, particularly in relation to planning. This is particularly evident when working with the United Nations. There are sound reasons behind this, including the fact that the military sectors in most troop contributing countries are better organised, trained and resourced, and often more experienced than their police counterparts. Nonetheless, planning will be improved if, in addition to military considerations, other perspectives, including those of the police, are considered.

Operational complementarity between police and military is a prime concern. As peacekeeping was, and still is, largely dominated by military thinking and practice, several issues in relation to such cooperation should be addressed.

Another challenge facing internationally deployed police is their mission mandate, as it is a key factor in their safety and effectiveness. Although police are trained in the use of lethal force and many carry side arms in the execution of their normal duties, the actual use of force, including lethal force, is as a last resort in the defence of themselves or third parties at risk of death or serious injury. Additionally, many international mission mandates may prohibit the carrying of firearms and the use of force. Mandates for police in complex emergency responses are intended to take into account the security needs of those police personnel while operating in the host state, but sometimes the reality on the ground does not match the requirements of the mandate.

It is also important that missions with particular policing needs are assigned police with the appropriate capabilities to conduct those duties. There is a wide spectrum of policing activities and if a mission requires paramilitary duties then it cannot be fulfilled by assigning police who are limited to constabulary roles in their home state.

In complex emergencies, host nation police should ideally retain primacy in relation to the maintenance of law and order; however, should the situation become so difficult that existing resources are overwhelmed, the military can be called upon to assist. In extreme circumstances, the military can assume primacy under conditions of martial law, but this is rare and a resumption of host nation police primacy, as early as possible, should be an automatic presumption.

Specific challenges for the police include:

- Expectation management in relation to what duties police can perform, in a physical and a legal sense.
- Members of the aid community and military may have preconceived ideas of the role of the police in their home country, particularly if they come from a liberal democracy, and may think that police can perform this same role in the host country. This can lead to misconceptions.
- There needs to be a clear understanding of the different mandates that police have in complex emergencies. For example, one mandate may authorise the police to perform executive policing functions and thus actively investigate crime and/or be armed, but others may not.
- Recognition that some police forces are not 'paramilitary forces'. In fact, in liberal-democratic societies this approach to policing has been historically actively discouraged.
- Often host country police or military institutions maintain power by force, and are likely therefore to be reluctant to relinquish that power, thereby exacerbating preconditions for further instability.
- Information sharing protocols, including some serious legal issues, vary between the police and military, and may affect timely information sharing.
- In non-permissive environments, often there is a requirement for military security primacy. This requires police officers to develop an understanding of military protocols to work effectively and safely together.

- Policing approaches, roles, standards and common policing concepts vary around the world. To work together effectively, police need to develop an understanding of their role within the mission and find commonalities with other police officers to achieve effective working relationships and work within the mission’s mandate.
- Police are increasingly involved in longer-term capacity building initiatives, which may be part of the response to a complex emergency. The challenge is to convey to other stakeholders that, although results may not be evident in the short term, these initiatives will lead to improved and sustainable law and order in the longer term.

Shared/thematic challenges

In addition to sector-specific challenges, there are challenges that affect multiple stakeholders.

Coordination

Coordination is a challenge for all stakeholders within and between organisations, at headquarters and on the ground—not to mention with the host government, within a whole-of-government approach, among donors, and with additional stakeholders becoming involved as attention shifts from humanitarian to longer-term development, reconstruction and stabilisation. There are also a range of stakeholders who are outside any formal coordination mechanism, be they from the aid community, non-state armed actors, local communities or non-traditional/emerging NGOs and donors.

Coordination is limited by the level of participation the aid community has, the capacity to allocate, and by the appropriateness of military personnel being directly involved, or not, in formal coordination mechanisms like the UN’s Humanitarian Country Team and the cluster system. In complex emergencies, coordination can be the cause of great sensitivity and friction between the military, police and the aid community; hence, it is helpful to understand the interaction continuum described in Chapter 2. Even the term ‘coordination’ can be problematic, as for the aid community it generally means information sharing and consensus building on the best way forward to address all needs, while for military and police stakeholders it can be more about alignment of activities and resource mobilisation.

It is important to understand that the aid community places as much emphasis on the coordination process as on the result during a complex emergency. This means that relationships, perceptions, local capacity building and local ownership are paramount, even if this takes more time. This emphasis can be perceived by military and police stakeholders as inefficient and even ineffective in a crisis situation. Ultimately the level of coordination is context specific and can change drastically after a major security or political event.

Most important for all stakeholders to remember is that **coordination with** may be acceptable, but **coordination by** is not.

Different security requirements

All stakeholders, including military, police, government agencies, the United Nations, NGOs and the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement have different security requirements for operating in insecure environments. As a result, this can complicate the way they interact with each other.

The aid community generally believes that military or armed protection for humanitarian actors or for specific humanitarian activities should occur only in exceptional circumstances where there is no alternative. NGOs will tend to prefer area security to personnel escorts, as the former helps to maintain the humanitarian environment and it benefits the local community. However, as NGOs differ in their approach to security and personal protection, this can cause confusion among other stakeholders, noting the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement will not use armed security at all. Additionally, NGOs have a number of good practices that help them manage security risks and balance the criticality of life-saving programs including acceptance-based approaches, local co-ownership of programs, negotiating access, a low-profile approach and remote programming.⁴⁷

The military and police will have their own security protocols for the environment, which determines where they are able to travel, the level of force that can legally be applied and if they will be armed. Similarly, each government agency may have different security procedures and some may require armed escorts and/or the use of armoured vehicles. Thus, at times, different stakeholders' conflicting security requirements can make building relationships and understanding of organisations' different

⁴⁷ More information regarding these good practices can be found in UN OCHA 2014, *A Guide for the Military*, pp. 32–34.

mandates challenging. For example, using armed escorts can mean that parts of the aid community will not meet with other stakeholders, even in neutral venues, as it may compromise their perceived neutrality and/or independence.⁴⁸

Disaster response in complex environments

Stakeholders have increasingly been called upon to respond to natural disasters occurring in complex emergencies. The challenges of working in these environments are multiple, not just from a single agency or sector perspective, but in relation to stakeholder relationships. Even before the natural disaster strikes, these environments are characterised by insecurity and weak or weakened institutions and systems. In these fragile environments, a natural disaster may further destabilise the affected state and create additional pressures and demands on existing capacities. Response can be significantly hampered if, for example, those who have previously deployed and/or been posted to an affected state as part of a mission or agency response are themselves victims of the disaster, such as the 2010 Haiti earthquake.

Further, decision making regarding redirection of assets and personnel must be weighed against the impact on ongoing activities. Allocation of resources, mobilisation of multiple stakeholder effort, and access to those most in need become critical and pose significant and unique coordination challenges. Other responses ranging from provision of security, protection of civilians and intra-agency coordination overlaid with an increased number of intra-sector stakeholders (e.g. affected state and foreign militaries) all require a level of understanding and stakeholder cooperation/coordination that is yet to be fully developed among stakeholders.

Gender

Armed conflict and natural disasters are inherently gendered crises; they can affect women and girls, men and boys in profoundly different ways. It is increasingly accepted that understanding these differences—such as adopting a gender perspective—improves the effectiveness of responses to these crises.⁴⁹ ‘Gender mainstreaming’ refers to the process of integrating a

48 See: *Use of Military or Armed Escorts for Humanitarian Convoys*, Discussion Paper and Non-Binding Guidelines, 14 September 2001.

49 Sarah Shteir 2013, *Gendered Crises, Gendered Responses – The Necessity and Utility of a Gender Perspective in Armed Conflicts and Natural Disasters: An Introductory Overview*, Australian Civil-Military Centre.

gender perspective into all activities. The strategy of gender mainstreaming has been widely adopted by the UN system, national governments, non-government and other intergovernmental organisations.

A gender approach recognises that women are disproportionately affected in conflict and disaster situations due to pre-existing gender inequalities. During conflict or disaster, gender inequalities are exacerbated and can manifest in many ways for women, including sexual and gender-based violence, a lack of access to basic resources, and exclusion from formal conflict prevention, reconstruction and peacebuilding efforts.⁵⁰ In conservative societies, cultural taboos may mean women are prevented from receiving aid and medical care provided by male relief workers. In Pakistan, following floods in 2010, restrictions on women's movement without male accompaniment had particularly severe consequences for female heads of household who were 'left out of the distribution system'.⁵¹

Each civil-military-police stakeholder has different ways of approaching gender in complex emergencies. Challenges to addressing gender are not only found in the field, but also require that gender issues be integrated into training and planning prior to conducting response efforts.

Box 4 – UNSCR 1325

Unanimously adopted in 2000, the United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 is widely considered a landmark resolution that for the first time formally recognised the link between women's experiences in armed conflicts and maintaining levels of peace and security internationally. UNSCR 1325 provided four key pillars to be addressed in support of its overarching aims. These are: the participation of women at levels of decision making; the protection of women from sexual and gender-based violence; the prevention of violence against women through the promotion of women's rights, accountability and law enforcement; and the mainstreaming of gender perspectives in peace operations.⁵²

50 UN WOMEN National Committee for Australia 2014, *Women, Peace and Security: An Introductory Manual*, Australian Civil-Military Centre, p. 5.

51 Asia-Pacific Forum on Women, Law and Development (APWLD) 2006, *Guidelines for gender sensitive disaster management: Practical steps to ensure women's needs are met and human rights are respected and protected*.

52 UNWOMEN National Committee for Australia 2014, *Women, Peace and Security: An Introductory Manual*, Australian Civil-Military Centre, p. 19.

UNSCR 1325 has had a widespread effect and has become better known over the past decade, but there are criticisms that member states have failed to deliver fully on its promises, particularly in regard to turning international policy into effective implementation and action in conflict and post-conflict environments. This is of particular concern in regard to ongoing incidences of conflict-related sexual and gender-based violence. Women and girls account for the majority of survivors of conflict-related sexual and gender-based violence. Such targeting has been observed in the well-known cases of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Rwanda and Sierra Leone and more recently in the Democratic Republic of Congo.⁵³ Experts say those in the female population who are most at risk of this type of violence are refugee and internally displaced women and girls, unaccompanied girls, displaced women and girls in urban settings, and women and girls with physical and mental disabilities.⁵⁴

In recent years, important progress has been made at the national and international levels towards implementation of integrated programs and activities that support the application of UNSCR 1325 principles. This includes policy and operational adoption of a gender perspective that helps an operation improve its situational awareness, including enhanced understanding of the vulnerabilities, risks, threats, needs, priorities and interests of the local population.

This perspective can assist operations to prioritise tasks; develop targeted programming; ensure more accurate, effective and equitable service provision; and reduce potential backlash against the operation.

Information sharing

While information sharing may be an issue in disaster response, it is often a far more unwieldy issue in complex emergencies. It is recognised that there are constraints when it comes to sharing information and all stakeholders have their own protocols for safeguarding and sharing information. This can inhibit stakeholders' ability to build relationships and coordinate efforts. Likewise, a lack of understanding as to why certain

53 Sarah Shteir 2014, *Conflict-related Sexual and Gender-based Violence: An introductory overview to support prevention and support efforts*, Australian Civil-Military Centre.

54 United Nations 2002, *Women, Peace and Security*, Study submitted by the Secretary-General pursuant to SCR 1325, New York.

pieces of information cannot be shared creates perceptions of intentional deception and/or obstruction.

In the past, information sharing has been viewed as a one-way activity, with the aid community providing awareness of the local population's requirements and concerns without the military providing any information on their activities or the overall security environment. Acknowledging this, militaries have worked to establish protocols that enable information sharing regarding the security environment to the IGO and NGO communities. Two-way, transparent information sharing can benefit all through sound liaison and information exchange mechanisms. However, information sharing and management systems need to be jointly developed and used.

The distinction between information sharing and intelligence gathering remains a point of contention, confusion and sensitivity. Often the issue is one of differing expectations. For example, the military may expect the aid community to share certain types of information that the aid community may think would jeopardise their reputation, their independence or the safety and security of their staff and beneficiaries. Conversely, the aid community may expect government agencies, military and police to share information that is classified or sensitive.

Length of deployments

The length of deployments for military, police and aid agency personnel will differ considerably, so it is a constant challenge to keep track of the respective contacts from various groups. Most will be deployed for a number of months; however, individuals may rotate in and out at different times. This constant churn of personnel means that staff are frequently trying to develop working relationships with new staff when they arrive, handover efforts often suffer, and knowledge management becomes a core issue. Local beneficiaries are also challenged because they need to build trust and relationships with constantly changing contacts. Trust needs to be developed between all stakeholders as early as possible to maintain communication and understanding.

Private military and security companies

Private military and security companies (PMSCs) are private business entities that provide military and/or security services, irrespective of how they describe themselves. Military and security services include armed

guarding and protecting persons and objects, such as convoys, buildings and other places; maintaining and operating weapons systems; prisoner detention; and advice to or training of local forces and security personnel.

The Montreux Document, while not legally binding, reaffirms states' obligations to ensure that PMSCs working in armed conflicts comply with international humanitarian and human rights law.

Working in the same space as PMSCs can cause concerns for the aid community, government agencies, the military and police as there are no formal channels for communication or mechanisms for coordination. This concern creates confusion and challenges for other stakeholders, including the host country. While PMSCs have obligations under IHL and for their management under the Montreux Document, there may still be limited oversight of their activities.

Stabilisation challenges

Stabilisation promotes an integrated or comprehensive whole-of-government approach bringing together different government actors around strategic objectives within a conflict or post-conflict context. This is an evolving concept and can include a range of activities such as establishing peace; early efforts to resuscitate markets, livelihoods and services; and efforts to build a government's core capacities to manage political, security and development processes. Stabilisation approaches differ across different countries and are not always used in situations of armed conflict. Stabilisation approaches recently have been used in Afghanistan, Timor-Leste, Iraq, Pakistan, the Solomon Islands and Syria.

Under the banner of stabilisation, stakeholders may pursue parallel sets of objectives relating to security, political and development objectives. In environments where stabilisation approaches are used, humanitarian assistance can be more easily perceived as supporting political agendas rather than humanitarian objectives. This perception may jeopardise the personal safety of the aid community and their access to affected populations. Further, it has been argued by some within the aid community that further evidence is required to demonstrate visibly improved security and stability benefits from this approach.

Box 5 – MCDA Guidelines

Within complex emergencies, the non-binding and voluntary *Guidelines on the Use of Military and Civil Defence Assets to Support United Nations Humanitarian Activities in Complex Emergencies* are particularly important. Often called the ‘MCDA Guidelines’, they provide guidance on the use of international military and civil defence personnel, equipment, supplies and services in support of the UN’s pursuit of humanitarian objectives in complex emergencies. They speak to such issues as when these resources can be used, how they should be employed, and how UN agencies can best coordinate with international military forces with regard to the use of military and civil defence assets.

Concepts central to the MCDA Guidelines include:

- the notion that requests for such assets can only be made on humanitarian grounds
- MCDA should be employed only as a last resort in the absence of civilian alternatives
- humanitarian operations using military assets must retain their civilian nature and character
- the use of MCDA should be limited in scale and scope
- countries providing military personnel to support such operations should ensure respect for UN codes of conduct and the humanitarian principles of humanity, neutrality and impartiality.

While military assets remain under military control, the humanitarian operation must remain under the overall authority and control of the responsible humanitarian organisation.

Want to know more?

- *Civil-Military Guidelines and References for Complex Emergencies* (2008). <http://ochaonline.un.org/cmcs/guidelines> or <http://www.reliefweb.int>
- *Civil-Military Relationship in Complex Emergencies—An IASC Reference Paper*, IASC (28 June 2004).

- *Guidelines on the Use of Military and Civil Defence Assets to Support United Nations Humanitarian Activities in Complex Emergencies* (MCDA Guidelines) (2003, revised January 2006).
- *Guidelines on the Use of Military Escorts for Humanitarian Convoys*, UN OCHA (2001).
- *United Nations Peacekeeping Operations: Principles and Guidelines* ('Capstone doctrine'), UN DPKO (January 2008). <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/resources/policy.shtml>
- *Use of Military or Armed Escorts for Humanitarian Convoys— Discussion Paper and Non-binding Guidelines*, IASC (14 September 2001). <http://ochaonline.un.org/cmcs.guidelines>
- *Gender Crises – Gendered Responses: The Necessity and Utility of a Gender Perspective in Armed Conflicts and Natural Disasters: An introductory overview*, APMC (2013). <http://acmc.gov.au/civil-military-occasional-paper-012013-gendered-crises-gendered-responses/>

6

Useful Tips

This guide is ultimately about building trust, respect and relationships through shared understanding. To foster this understanding, the following are quick tips for improving civil-military-police interactions. While there will continue to be areas of disagreement, our individual and collective goal should always be to work better, whether together or separately. This can be achieved in the same space and with different mandates.

Seek out information	<p>Be curious about the place, local laws, institutions and history, and also about the people, culture, gender and the unwritten laws.</p> <p>Don't be overwhelmed, nobody knows it all.</p> <p>Look up guidance publications specific to your area and/or the country you are in. Read the UN mandate—if there is one—for the country.</p>
Try not to revert to your last deployment	<p>Analyse information from the community you are currently in; leave your prejudice behind, listen and be patient.</p> <p>You have two ears, two eyes and one mouth; use them in proportion.</p> <p>Learn about local customs and laws, don't assume there is only one system and don't assume it is all in writing—most often these are based on unwritten traditions.</p> <p>Respect local customs; if that is not possible, seek advice.</p>
Get your facts about other organisations and prioritise	<p>All organisations active overseas have different goals, values, resources, size and limits. A little prior research and knowledge of organisational mandates, objectives, capacities and programs can go a long way to improving your job.</p> <p>Identify and focus on key players and main coordinators. Seek advice. Depending on context, this could be a CMCoord officer or a UN OCHA humanitarian affairs officer.</p>

	<p>Stakeholders deploying in response to a natural disaster need to identify which clusters are active, and establish contact with OCHA to avoid duplication of effort and facilitate cooperation where achievable and appropriate. When interested in interacting with clusters, stakeholders need to check the terms of reference.</p> <p>Don't ignore local stakeholders, including local NGOs and national Red Cross Red Crescent societies. Learn about your community through religious leaders, community representatives and others.</p>
<p>Simplify language—your goal is to be understood</p>	<p>All other stakeholders need to understand your mandate and your role in their own terms. Talk to one another.</p> <p>Avoid acronyms, as confusion around terminology is often a barrier to mutual understanding.</p>
<p>Identify common program areas</p>	<p>Determine how your activity affects other organisations' activities. For example, if your mandate includes capacity building, be informed by what other stakeholders are doing in that area.</p> <p>Identify points of converging interest.</p>
<p>Meeting other organisations</p>	<p>Everyone should consider neutral venues for liaison. If you are a member of the police or the military, ensure visits to the aid community are by prior arrangement and consider the appropriate level of interaction.</p> <p>Many agencies within the aid community have a no-gun policy. This is also true with the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement. Do not enter their premises armed. Seek alternative ways to engage.</p> <p>Don't assume <i>Western</i> personnel are in charge. Consider the appropriate level of interaction.</p> <p>Actively develop strong personal networks.</p>
<p>Take advantage of existing coordination structures</p>	<p>Identify if there is a civil-military-police coordination forum or focal point and determine if this is appropriate for you to attend or to reach out. OCHA and the cluster system are recognised coordination mechanisms. If participating in an open forum is not appropriate, seek other ways to interact.</p>
<p>Be proactive in information sharing</p>	<p>Wherever possible, exchange information with other organisations and do not be insular. Think about information other organisations may need and that can be shared.</p>

Commit and deliver	Never promise anything you cannot deliver or are not authorised to do, even (and especially) out of good intentions. Broken promises can have a worse effect than no promise.
Read up and stay informed	Stay aware of key publications, whether they are guidelines, updates on mission activities or situation reports. OCHA situation reports, Red Cross and Red Crescent situation reports and UN mission specific websites are particularly good sources of context specific information.

We are keen to improve our repository of useful tips. Please send any tips that have worked well for you to info@acmc.gov.au

ANNEX 1

Commonly Used Terms

Complex emergency

As defined by the United Nations, a complex emergency is a humanitarian crisis in a country, region or society where there is a total or considerable breakdown of authority resulting from internal or external conflict that requires an international response that goes beyond the mandate or capacity of any single agency and/or the ongoing United Nations country program.⁵⁵ Other definitions highlight more broadly the point that these emergencies refer to war-affected regions where there is a multifaceted and multinational response. These emergencies are more manmade in origin, protracted and can include areas emerging from conflict or still engaged in low-level regional or localised conflict to significant conflict. Humanitarian response is often made more problematic in the face of natural disasters (e.g. floods, drought, earthquakes) occurring in already fragile states or regions, as response often is not only one of attending to life-saving interventions but of ensuring the fragility of the 'state' is not further eroded.

Development

Development seeks to improve the conditions of communities in a sustainable way to ensure benefits will continue after development assistance has ceased. It is based on working with communities, rather

than for or on behalf of communities. Development is a process where a community of people work together to break the cycle of poverty and dependence so that their fundamental needs are met and the quality of their lives enhanced. Development activities seek to address and reduce the root causes or the lack of need identified. While sometimes used interchangeably, stabilisation and development are not one in the same. While development activities may be undertaken in support of stabilisation efforts, motivations and objectives tend to be different (see definition of stabilisation).

Early recovery

This is a multidimensional process of recovery that begins in a humanitarian setting. It is guided by development principles that seek to build on humanitarian programs and to catalyse sustainable development opportunities. It aims to generate self-sustaining, nationally owned, resilient processes for post-crisis recovery. It encompasses the restoration of basic services, such as livelihoods, shelter, governance, security and rule of law, as well as environmental and social dimensions, including the reintegration of displaced populations. Understanding the complexity of early recovery acknowledges that it is not an identifiable stage in a sequential 'continuum' between relief and recovery. There is overlap with a range of other activities, including stabilisation. In a

⁵⁵ *Working Paper on the Definition of Complex Emergency, Inter-Agency Standing Committee, December 1994*

humanitarian setting, the needs and opportunities for early recovery evolve over time and are subject to rapid change.

Fragile state

This term is defined differently by a number of sources, as noted below.

OECD

Fragile states are when state structures lack political will and/or capacity to provide the basic functions needed for poverty reduction, development and to safeguard the security and human rights of their populations.⁵⁶

Military

A fragile state still has a viable national government, but it has a reduced capability and capacity to secure, protect and govern the population. Without intervention, it is likely to become a failed state.⁵⁷

Gender

Gender refers to the socially constructed roles ascribed to women and men, and relationships between and among them, as opposed to biological and physical characteristics. Gender roles vary according to socio-economic, political and cultural contexts, and are affected by other factors, including time, age, race, class and ethnicity.⁵⁸ Gender roles are learned and changeable, and structure the experiences and concerns of men, women, boys and girls.⁵⁹

Humanitarian assistance/ humanitarian action

Among aid agencies, this term is often defined with slight variation, depending on the source agency. There is divergence in meaning between aid agencies and the military, as noted below.

Aid community

Technical, material or logistical assistance provided for humanitarian purposes, typically in response to humanitarian crises. The primary objective of humanitarian assistance is to save lives, alleviate suffering and maintain human dignity.

Military

Support provided to host governments and humanitarian and development agencies by a deployed force whose primary mission is not the provision of humanitarian aid.

Humanitarian Space

A conducive environment, where the receipt of humanitarian assistance is not conditional upon the allegiance to or support to parties involved in a conflict but is a right, independent of military and political action (IASC). This includes the safety and security of humanitarian workers and the recipients of humanitarian assistance, not being subjected to harassment, looting, etc.⁶⁰

56 OECD and the World Bank maintain lists of countries that are considered fragile. DFAT uses a combination of the two lists.

57 Joint Doctrine Publication 3-40, *Security and Stabilisation: The Military Contribution*, UK, 2009.

58 United Nations 2002, *Women, Peace and Security*, New York, p. 4.

59 *Australian National Action Plan on Women, Peace and Security 2012–2018*, 2012, Annex A, p. 51.

60 UN OCHA 2014, *A Guide for the Military*, p. 32.

Multidimensional/ integrated mission

UN multidimensional missions incorporate peacemaking, peacekeeping and peacebuilding. They often not only perform more traditional ceasefire related military tasks but also employ a mix of civilian, police and military capabilities to secure a fragile peace and provide a window of opportunity for the implementation of measures designed to prevent the recurrence of conflict.

These missions often cover some or all phases of a post-conflict operation, from stabilisation and peace consolidation to longer-term recovery and development. A UN integrated mission is a strategic partnership between a multidimensional mission and the UN Country Team based on a shared vision among all UN actors as to the strategic objectives of the UN presence at the country level.

Reconstruction

This reflects actions undertaken by international or national actors to support the economic and social dimensions of emergency response in post-conflict recovery. The term is used by militaries to describe engineering activities undertaken by military engineers or overseen contracted projects that are conducted to restore essential services when the security threat prevents other actors from delivering this support.

Security

This concept has multiple meanings depending on context and stakeholder, as noted below.

Aid community

Security for the aid community is often looked at in relation to humanitarian assistance and framed within the construct of 'human security', looking at issues such as physical and economic access to food (food security), minimum protection from disease and unhealthy lifestyles (health security), and protection of people from physical violence (personal security). Security also relates to issues around degree of access to beneficiaries and degree of threat to those who provide assistance. Security in the face of physical threat is a primary consideration in determining the nature and degree of interaction between the humanitarian aid community and military forces. The aid community's physical security framework remains rooted in the concepts of acceptance, protection and deterrence.

Military

Security generally refers to protection of people, information, materiel, activities and installations from attack, sabotage, subversion or terrorism.

Police

Security in a policing context is concern with the safety of the general populace of a country. Security can include the preservation of life and people's freedom to pursue their livelihood.

Security sector reform

Security sector reform, also known as SSR, is a multidisciplinary, holistic and strategic approach to the reform of the security institutions of a state, including but not limited to armed forces and police; intelligence services; border and coast guards; oversight bodies such as the executive, legislature, ministries of defence, justice and law enforcement bodies, such as the judiciary; the prosecution and prison system; and non-state or paramilitary security actors.

Stabilisation

Stabilisation is an evolving concept, often used in a conflict or post-conflict context, and can include a range of activities such as establishing peace; early efforts to resuscitate markets, livelihoods and services; and efforts to build a government's core capacities to manage political, security and development processes. A useful working definition is: 'the process by which underlying tensions that might lead to resurgence in violence and break down in law and order are managed and reduced, while efforts are made to support the preconditions for successful longer term development'.⁶¹ Activities undertaken in support of stabilisation may also include disarmament, demobilisation, reintegration and rehabilitation (DDRR) of militaries/militias.

Whole-of-government

For the purpose of this guide, 'whole-of-government' is defined as public service agencies working across portfolio boundaries to achieve a shared goal and an integrated government response to international natural disasters and complex emergencies.

Women, Peace and Security agenda

In 2000 the UN Security Council passed Resolution 1325 (UNSCR 1325). This was the first time the UN Security Council formally recognised the unique impact of armed conflict on women and 'the importance of bringing gender perspectives to the centre of all UN conflict prevention and resolution, peacebuilding, peacekeeping, rehabilitation and reconstruction efforts'.⁶²

The focus on women's inequality and the linkages between sustainable peace, security and gender equity has since been further supported through the passing of UNSCRs 1820, 1882, 1888, 1889 and 1960.⁶³ The Security Council has continually worked 'to inform and guide consistent implementation of resolution 1325 and to monitor progress on all issues pertaining to women, peace and security, including women's participation'⁶⁴ and the eradication of sexual violence against women and girls. The Women, Peace and Security agenda refers to this group of resolutions and work associated with their implementation.⁶⁵

61 UK Stabilisation Unit.

62 United Nations 2002, *Women, Peace and Security*, New York, p. 1.

63 UN Security Council Resolutions 1325 (2000), UNSCR 1820 (2008), UNSCR 1888 (2009), UNSCR 1889 (2009) and UNSCR 1960 (2010) are available under the year of adoption from <http://www.un.org/documents/scres.htm>

64 UN Security Council, *Women, Peace and Security Monthly Forecast*, October 2011, accessed 15 November 2011, http://www.securitycouncilreport.org/site/c.gkWLLeMTISG/b.7751817/k.A1AF/October_2011brWomen_Peace_and_Security.htm

65 *Australian National Action Plan on Women, Peace and Security 2012–2018*, Annex A, 2012, p. 51.

ANNEX 2

Abbreviations and Acronyms

ACBAR	Agency Coordinating Body for Afghan Relief
ACFID	Australian Council for International Development
ACMC	Australian Civil-Military Centre
AFP	Australian Federal Police
APC-MADRO	Asia-Pacific Conferences on Military Assistance to Disaster Relief Operations
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
CDEMA	Caribbean Disaster Emergency Management Agency
CHS	Core Humanitarian Standards
CRED	Centre of Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CIMIC	Civil-Military Cooperation
CM-Coord	Civil-Military Coordination
CMOC	Civil-Military Operations Centre
CoESPU	Center of Excellence for Stability Policing Unit
DDRR	Disarmament, Demobilisation, Reintegration and Rehabilitation
DFAIT	Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade
DFAT	Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade
DfID	UK Department for International Development
DPKO	United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations
ECHO	European Community Humanitarian Aid Office
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
FONGTIL	Timor-Leste NGO Forum
FPU	Formed Police Unit
FRANZ	France, Australia and New Zealand
GHD	Good Humanitarian Donorship
IASC	Inter-Agency Standing Committee
ICRC	International Committee of the Red Cross
ICVA	International Council of Voluntary Agencies

IDG	International Deployment Group
IDRL	International Disaster Response Law
IFRC	International Federation of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies
IGO	Intergovernmental Organisation
IHL	International Humanitarian Law
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IPU	Integrated Police Unit
MCDA	Military Civil Defence Assets
MSU	Multinational Specialised Unit
NDMO	Natural Disaster Management Organisation/Office
NDMC	National Disaster Management Committees UNISDR - United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction
NGO	Non-Government Organisation
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OFDA	Office of Foreign Disaster Assistance
PAHO	The Pan American Health Organization
PIANGO	Pacific Island Association of Non-Governmental Organisations
PMSC	Private Military Security Company
POC	Protection of Civilians
SPU	Stability Police Unit
UN	United Nations
UNCT	United Nations Country Team
UNDP	UN Development Programme
UNFICYP	United Nations Force in Cyprus
UNHCR	UN High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	UN Children's Fund
UN OCHA	UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
USAID	US Agency for International Development
VOICE	Voluntary Organisations in Cooperation in Emergencies
WFP	World Food Programme
WPS	Women, Peace and Security

ANNEX 3

Regional Intergovernmental Bodies and Agreements

The African Union (AU)

The European Union (EU)

The Organization of American States (OAS)

The Caribbean Community (CARICOM)

The Arab League

The Pacific Island Forum (PIF)

The Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC)

Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)

South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC)

European Community Humanitarian Aid Office (ECHO)

Central American Integration System

Organization of Ibero American States for Education, Science and Culture (OEI)

Caribbean Disaster Emergency Management Agency (CDEMA)

East Asia Summit (EAS)

Regional Commissions of the United Nations Economic and Social Council:

- United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (ECE)
- United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA)
- United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC)

- United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP)

- United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA)

Development Banks:

- The Asian Development Bank
- The African Development Bank
- The European Bank for Reconstruction and Development
- The Inter-American Development Bank

Regional Economic Communities recognised by the African Union (each established under a separate regional treaty):

- The Arab Maghreb Union (UMA)
- The Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA)
- The Community of Sahel-Saharan States (CEN-SAD)
- The East African Community (EAC)
- The Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS)
- The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS)
- The Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD)
- The Southern Africa Development Community (SADC)

ANNEX 4

Useful References

General

Australian Council for International Development (ACFID) Code of Conduct. <http://www.acfid.asn.au/code-of-conduct>

Australian Civil-Military Centre website. <http://www.acmc.gov.au>

The Busan Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation. <http://www.oecd.org/dac/effectiveness/Busan%20partnership.pdf>

Code of Conduct for the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in Disaster Relief (1994). <http://www.icrc.org/eng/resources/documents/publication/p1067.htm>

The Core Humanitarian Standards (2014). <http://www.corehumanitarianstandard.org/files/files/Core%20Humanitarian%20Standard%20-%20English.pdf>

The Core Humanitarian Standard and the Sphere Core Standards, Analysis and Comparison (2015).

http://www.spherehandbook.org/-sh_resources/resources/Sphere_Core_Standards_and_CHS.pdf

Do No Harm: How Aid Can Support Peace—or War (1999). Mary B Anderson (ed), Lynne Rienner Publishers, Boulder/London.

Good Humanitarian Donorship Principles. <http://www.goodhumanitarianandonorship.org/gns/home.aspx>

HISS-CAM: A Decision-Making Tool.

World Vision International (2008). http://www.worldvision.org.uk/upload/pdf/HISS-CAM_Explanation.pdf

Humanitarian Civil-Military Coordination: A Guide for the Military (OCHA, 2014). <https://docs.unocha.org/sites/dms/Documents/UN%20OCHA%20Guide%20for%20the%20Military%20v%201.0.pdf>

IASC Guidance Note on Using the Cluster Approach to Strengthen Humanitarian Response (2006). <http://www.ochaonline.un.org/OchaLinkClick.aspx?link=ocha&docId=1058871>

The OECD Whole-of-Government Approaches to Fragile States (OECD, 2006). <http://www.oecd.org/dac/governance-peace/conflictandfragility/docs/37826256.pdf>

The Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness and the Accra Agenda for Action. <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/11/41/34428351.pdf>

Steering Committee on Humanitarian Response. (SCHR) Position Paper on Humanitarian-Military Relations (2010). <http://reliefweb.int/node/25231>

United Nations Civil-Military Coordination Officer Field Handbook (2008). <http://reliefweb.int/node/23775>

UNOCHA Humanitarian Civil-Military Coordination Publications. <http://www.unocha.org/what-we-do/coordination-tools/UN-CMCoord/publications>

United Nations Peacekeeping Operations: Principles and Guidelines ('Capstone Doctrine') UN DPKO (2008). <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/resources/policy.shtml>

World Development Report 2011: Conflict, Security and Development (2011). World Bank. <http://www.worldbank.org/wdr2011>

World Humanitarian Summit. <https://www.worldhumanitariansummit.org/>

International disaster response

Guidelines on the Use of Foreign Military and Civil Defence Assets in Disaster Relief (Oslo Guidelines), Updated November 2006 (Revision 1.1 November 2007). <http://reliefweb.int/node/22924>

Humanitarian Charter and Minimum Standards in Disaster Response (The Sphere Project) (2011). <http://www.sphereproject.org/handbook/index.htm>

UN OCHA Disaster Response Preparedness Toolkit. <http://ocha.unog.ch/drptoolkit/pstandbyarrangements.html>

The World Customs Organisation (WCO) directory lists national focal points and legislation, instruments and tools related to the movement of emergency relief aid, as well as international resolutions. <http://www.wcoomd.org/en/topics/facilitation/activities-and-programmes/natural-disaster.aspx>

Complex emergencies

Aide Memoire for the Consideration of Issues Pertaining to the Protection of Civilians in Armed Conflict (2011), Policy and Studies Series vol. 1, no. 4, UN OCHA. <http://ochanet.unocha.org/p/Documents/Aide%20Memoire%20on%20the%20Protection%20of%20Civilians%202010.pdf>

Building Peaceful States and Societies: A DFID Practice Paper (2010). London: Department for International Development. https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/67694/Building-peaceful-states-and-societies.pdf

Civil-Military Guidelines and Reference for Complex Emergencies (2008), UN OCHA and IASC. <http://ochaonline.un.org/cmcs/guidelines>

Enhancing Protection for Civilians in Armed Conflict and Other Situations of Violence (2008). ICRC. <https://www.icrc.org/eng/resources/documents/publication/p0956.htm>

Global Burden of Armed Violence, Geneva Declaration Secretariat (2008). <http://www.genevadeclaration.org>

Guidelines on Humanitarian Negotiations with Armed Groups (2006). OCHA. <http://ochaonline.un.org/humanitariannegotiations/Documents/Guidelines.pdf>

Guidelines on the Use of Foreign Military and Civil Defence Assets to Support United Nations Humanitarian Activities in Complex Emergencies ('MCDA Guidelines') (2003), revised January 2006. <http://ochaonline.un.org/cmcs/guidelines>

Handbook on UN Multidimensional Operations.
<http://www.peacekeepingbestpractices.unlb.org/Pbbs/library/Handbook%20on%20UN%20PKOs.pdf>

Humanitarian Negotiations with Armed Groups—A Manual for Practitioners (2006). OCHA. <http://ochaonline.un.org/humanitariannegotiations/Documents/Manual.pdf>

Principles for Good International Engagement in Fragile States and Situations (2007). Paris: OECD DAC. <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/61/45/38368714.pdf>

Statebuilding in Situations of Conflict and Fragility, United States Agency for International Development (2011). [http://reliefweb.int/rw/RWFiles2011.nsf/FilesByRWDocUnidFilename/EGUA-8EBMV2-full_report.pdf/\\$File/full_report.pdf](http://reliefweb.int/rw/RWFiles2011.nsf/FilesByRWDocUnidFilename/EGUA-8EBMV2-full_report.pdf/$File/full_report.pdf)

To Stay and Deliver: Good practice for humanitarians in complex security environments. <http://www.unocha.org/about-us/publications>

Use of Military or Armed Escorts for Humanitarian Convoys—Discussion Paper and Non-binding Guidelines (2001), IASC. <http://ochaonline.un.org/cmcs/guidelines>

Field reports

Relief Web. <http://reliefweb.int/home>

UN OCHA Situation Reports. <http://www.unocha.org/about-us/publications/situationreports>

UN OCHA Humanitarian News and Analysis. <http://www.irinnews.org>

International Crisis Group Reports. <http://www.crisisgroup.org/en/publication-type/crisiswatch.aspx>

This guide clarifies how the various stakeholders are distinguished from one another, where they may have similarities and/or complementarities and what principles guide their engagement with others. This edition is not intended to lay out guidelines for how different stakeholders should interact, but rather to lay a foundation for improved mutual understanding. More specifically, the key objectives of *Same Space – Different Mandates: International Edition* are to:

- provide an overview of militaries, police, government agencies and the aid community and their responses to natural disasters and complex emergencies
- clarify key terms used within these contexts as a means of helping to create understanding and an ability to communicate more effectively
- highlight the complexities, challenges and limitations of engagement between the various stakeholders within the civil-military-police dimension
- enhance understanding and use of the major agreed civil-military-police guidelines, and
- provide a set of key references and publications to help further inform all stakeholders.