This is a compilation of archived online topic pages which explain every aspect of NATO: its origin and fundamental security tasks, policies and decision-making processes, peace support and crisis management operations and how the Alliance tackles threats and develops capabilities. They also cover NATO’s partnerships and cooperative activities, its civilian and military structures, and specialised organisations and agencies, as well as the Organization’s wider activities.

The topic pages were archived as they appeared online on 10 December 2019.

You can either access them via an alphabetical index, which provides a comprehensive list of all online topic pages, or via a thematic overview, which groups the principal topics by area of interest.

For up-to-date information, please visit the Encyclopedia of NATO Topics online.

NATO Public Diplomacy Division
NATO Headquarters
Brussels, Belgium
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NATO is leading a non-combat mission to train, advise and assist the Afghan security forces and institutions. The Resolute Support Mission (RSM) was launched in January 2015, following the completion of the mission of the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in December 2014, when responsibility for security in Afghanistan was transferred to the Afghan national defence and security forces. Beyond supporting RSM, NATO Allies and partners are helping to sustain Afghan security forces and institutions financially, as part of a broader international commitment to Afghanistan. The NATO-Afghanistan Enduring Partnership provides a framework for wider political dialogue and practical cooperation.

- NATO led the UN-mandated International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) from August 2003 to December 2014. ISAF’s mission was to enable the Afghan authorities and build the capacity of the Afghan national security forces to provide effective security, so as to ensure that Afghanistan would never again be a safe haven for terrorists.
- ISAF is NATO’s longest and most challenging mission to date: at its height, the force was more than 130,000 strong with troops from 50 NATO and partner nations.
- ISAF also contributed to reconstruction and development in Afghanistan through 28 multinational Provincial Reconstruction Teams – led by individual ISAF nations – securing areas, outside of Kabul in the provinces, in which reconstruction work was conducted by national and international actors.
- The transition to Afghan lead for security started in 2011 and was completed in December 2014, when the ISAF operation ended and the Afghans assumed full responsibility for security of their country. By the end of 2014, PRTs had been phased out and their functions were handed over to
Afghan authorities. In January 2015, NATO launched the Resolute Support Mission (RSM) to train, advise and assist Afghan security forces and institutions. Currently, it numbers around 17,000 troops from 39 NATO Allies and partner countries.

- Allied leaders decided at the July 2016 NATO Summit in Warsaw to sustain the presence of RSM beyond 2016.
- At the July 2018 NATO Summit in Brussels, NATO welcomed two new troop-contributing nations, the United Arab Emirates and Qatar, which are currently finalising the details of their offers to contribute. The Allies and their operational partners committed to sustaining the mission until conditions indicate a change is appropriate; to extending financial sustainment of the Afghan security forces through 2024; and to making further progress on developing a political and practical partnership with Afghanistan.
- The Enduring Partnership is NATO’s political partnership with Afghanistan. It was set up in 2010 at the NATO Summit in Lisbon. At the 2016 Summit, Allies decided to strengthen and enhance the Partnership, within and alongside RSM, through political dialogue and practical cooperation. In the longer term, a traditional partnership with Afghanistan remains NATO’s goal.
- NATO’s Senior Civilian Representative represents the political leadership of the Alliance in Kabul, liaising with the government, civil society, representatives of the international community and neighbouring countries. The Representative has a leading role in advising the Afghan authorities on the Enduring Partnership.

More background information

Resolute Support Mission

Launched on 1 January 2015, the Resolute Support Mission (RSM) focuses primarily on training, advice and assistance activities at the security-related ministries, in the country’s institutions and among the senior ranks of the army and police. The Resolute Support Mission works closely with different elements of the Afghan army, police and air force.
The mission performs supporting functions in several areas. These include operational planning; budgetary development; force generation process; management and development of personnel; logistical sustainment; and civilian oversight to ensure the Afghan national defence and security forces and institutions act in accordance with the rule of law and good governance.

As of February 2019, RSM has around 17,000 personnel from 39 NATO Allies and partner countries, operating in one hub (Kabul/Bagram) and four spokes (Mazar-e Sharif in the north, Herat in the west, Kandahar in the south, and Laghman in the east).

The Afghan forces are making progress, performing with professionalism and bravery across the country, and continuing to deny the insurgents their strategic goals. They are developing their combat capabilities, notably their Special Operations Forces and the Air Force.

(More on Resolute Support)

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**Financial sustainment of the Afghan National Defence and Security Forces**

At the Wales Summit in 2014, Allied leaders and their international partners renewed the pledge made earlier at the Chicago Summit to play their part in the financial sustainment of the Afghan National Defence and Security Forces (ANDSF) after 2014. The responsibility to contribute to the financing of this effort is one for the international community as a whole.

NATO has participated in that process, by supporting development of transparent, accountable and cost-effective international funding mechanisms and expenditure arrangements for all strands of the ANDSF.

As of 28 May 2018, total contributions made to the NATO-Afghan National Army (ANA) Trust Fund amount to more than USD 2.3 billion. The Afghan government itself is also expected to provide at least USD 500 million per year for the sustainment of the ANDSF. (More on the ANA Trust Fund)

The ANA Trust Fund is one of four funding streams used to channel financial support to Afghanistan’s security forces and institutions. The other three are the Law and Order Trust Fund for Afghanistan (LOTFA), administered by the United Nations Development Programme; the United States Afghanistan Security Forces Fund (ASFF); and the Afghan government’s commitment to providing USD 500 million each year, while attempting to increase this amount annually, until they can financially sustain their own forces. LOTFA is used to pay the salaries of police and justice personnel and to build the capacity of the ministry of interior. The ASFF is subject to a US-Afghan bilateral agreement and pays for equipping and running Afghanistan’s security forces.

In December 2015, NATO Allies and partners launched further work with the wider international community to ensure that the ANDSF could be financially sustained through 2020. Heads of state and government made this commitment at the NATO Summit in Warsaw in July 2016. Allies and their operational partners agreed to extend financial sustainment of the Afghan security forces through 2024.

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**NATO’s Enduring Partnership with Afghanistan**

NATO and Afghanistan signed a Declaration on Enduring Partnership at the 2010 NATO Summit in Lisbon. The document provides a framework for long-term political consultations and practical cooperation in areas of specific interest for Afghanistan where NATO can share expertise.

The initial set of Enduring Partnership activities, agreed by foreign ministers in April 2011, brings together a number of previously separate initiatives. The Enduring Partnership will contribute to NATO’s evolving mission and the sustained development of Afghan institutions.

In May 2015, NATO foreign ministers approved guidelines and principles for the enhancement of the Enduring Partnership. These include a continued presence of civilian and military personnel on the ground after the current Resolute Support Mission. In the longer term, the Enduring Partnership is also intended as a bridge towards a more traditional partnership between NATO and Afghanistan.
Cooperation within this framework includes:

- capacity-building efforts, such as NATO’s Building Integrity (BI) programme, which is helping to provide Afghanistan with practical tools to strengthen integrity, transparency and accountability and reduce the risk of corruption in defence and security sectors;
- professional military education programmes, such as the Defence Education Enhancement Programme (DEEP);
- training in civil emergency planning and disaster preparedness;
- public diplomacy efforts to promote a better understanding of NATO and its role in Afghanistan.

### ISAF’s mission (2001 – 2014)

Deployed in 2001 – initially under the lead of individual NATO Allies on a six-month rotational basis – ISAF was tasked, on the request of the Afghan government and under a United Nations (UN) mandate, to assist the Afghan government in maintaining security, originally in and around Kabul exclusively. NATO agreed to take command of the force in August 2003 and the UN Security Council subsequently mandated the gradual expansion of ISAF’s operations to cover the whole country.

ISAF was one of the largest coalitions in history. It is NATO’s longest and most challenging mission to date. At its height, the force was more than 130,000 strong with troops from 50 NATO and partner nations.

As part of the international community’s overall effort, ISAF worked to create the conditions whereby the Afghan government would be able to exercise its authority throughout the country.

Developing professional, capable and self-sustaining Afghan National Security Forces was at the centre of ISAF’s efforts and the core mission of the NATO Training Mission in Afghanistan (NTM-A). This work was carried out in close cooperation with the European Union Police Mission in Afghanistan (EUPOL Afghanistan) and the Afghan Ministry of Defence. The NTM-A, which was set up in 2009, focused on training initial recruits and building the institutional training capability of the Afghan security forces, while the ISAF Joint Command was responsible for developing fielded units through advice and assistance.

These combined efforts helped build up the Afghan security forces from scratch to approximately 352,000 soldiers and police officers. Since its creation in 2002, the Afghan National Army (ANA) incrementally progressed from an infantry-centric force to an army, with both fighting elements and enabling capabilities – such as military police, intelligence, route clearance, combat support, medical, aviation and logistics. The role of the Afghan National Police (ANP) gradually shifted from countering the insurgency to a more civilian policing role, by further developing capabilities ranging from criminal investigations to traffic control. The Afghan Air Force steadily increased its personnel including civilians as well as military aircrew and maintenance and support personnel, and its fleet of fixed-wing and rotary-wing aircraft.

A gradual process of transition to full Afghan security responsibility – known as “Inteqal” in Dari and Pashto – was launched in 2011. This process was completed on schedule in December 2014, when ISAF’s mission ended and the Afghan forces assumed full security responsibility for their country.

ISAF helped create a secure environment for improving governance and socio-economic development, which are important conditions for sustainable stability. Afghanistan made the largest percentage gain of any country in basic health and development indicators over the decade of ISAF’s mission. Maternal mortality went down and life expectancy rose. A vibrant media scene sprang up. Millions of people have exercised their right to vote in five election cycles since 2004, including the 2014 presidential and provincial council elections, which resulted in the establishment of a National Unity Government.

(More on ISAF’s mission)
A collective international effort

Addressing Afghanistan’s challenges requires a comprehensive approach, involving civilian and military actors, aimed not only at providing security but also at promoting good governance, the rule of law and long-term development. The Alliance acts in a supporting role to the Afghan government and works in close coordination with other international partners, including the United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan (UNAMA), the World Bank, the European Union and the development community.

From the start of NATO’s engagement in international efforts to help secure Afghanistan’s future, the Alliance has also worked closely with many non-member countries. ISAF troop contributors included partners from as far afield as Australia and Latin America, representing more than a quarter of UN member countries, underlining the broad international support for ISAF’s mission. Australia, Georgia and Jordan were among the top non-NATO troop-contributing nations to ISAF.

Partner support continues for the new Resolute Support Mission.

Milestones in relations

SEPTEMBER 2001 – JULY 2003
9/11 AND THE FALL OF THE TALIBAN: THE INTERNATIONAL COMMUNITY GETS ENGAGED

11 September 2001: A series of four coordinated terrorist attacks are launched on several targets in the United States, killing almost 3,000 people.

12 September 2001: NATO Allies and partner countries condemn the attacks, offering their support to the United States. The Allies decide to invoke Article 5 of the Washington Treaty – the Alliance’s collective defence clause – for the first time in NATO’s history, if it is determined that the attack was directed from abroad against the United States.

2 October 2001: The North Atlantic Council is briefed by a high-level US official on results of investigations into the 9/11 attacks and determines that the attacks are regarded as an action covered by Article 5.

7 October 2001: Following the Taliban’s refusal to hand over Osama Bin Laden and close down terrorist training camps, the United States launches airstrikes against Al-Qaeda and Taliban targets in Afghanistan with the support of allies. Ground forces are deployed two weeks later. This marks the start of Operation Enduring Freedom, which is supported by a coalition of allies.

13 November 2001: Taliban forces abandon Kabul, which is taken over by forces of the Northern Alliance – a military coalition of ethnic groups opposed to the rule of the Taliban.

14 November 2001: UN Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1378 calls for a central role for the UN in establishing a transitional administration and invites member states to send peacekeepers to Afghanistan.

5 December 2001: At a UN-sponsored conference in Bonn, delegates of Afghan factions appoint Hamid Karzai as head of an interim government. They also sign the Bonn Agreement, which provides for an international peacekeeping force to maintain security in Afghanistan.

20 December 2001: UNSCR 1386 authorises the deployment of the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in and around Kabul to help stabilise Afghanistan and create the conditions for self-sustaining peace.

22 December 2001: At a ceremony in Kabul, Hamid Karzai is sworn in as head of the interim government of Afghanistan.

January 2002: The first contingent of ISAF peacekeepers arrive in Afghanistan, deployed under Chapter VII of the UN Charter (Action with Respect to Threats to the Peace, Breaches of the Peace and Acts of Aggression). The United Kingdom takes on the first six-month rotation of the command of ISAF; 18 other countries deploy forces and assets.
28 March 2002: The United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan (UNAMA) is established at the request of the interim government of Afghanistan to assist it and the people of Afghanistan in laying the foundations for sustainable peace and development in the country.


20 June 2002: Turkey takes on the second rotation of the command of ISAF, on the basis of UNSCR 1413.

November 2002: The US military starts setting up Provincial Reconstruction Teams (PRTs) in Afghanistan – first in Gardez, then Bamiyan, Kunduz, Mazar-e-Sharif, Kandahar and Herat – to coordinate redevelopment with UN agencies and non-governmental organisations. Some of these PRTs are later taken over by NATO member and partner countries.

21-22 November 2002: The Prague Summit paves the way for NATO to go “out-of-area”.

10 February 2013: Germany and the Netherlands jointly take on the third rotation of the command of ISAF, on the basis of UNSCR 1444.

AUGUST 2003 – SPRING 2006
NATO TAKES THE LEAD OF ISAF AND EXPANDS NORTH AND WEST

August 2003: NATO takes the lead of the ISAF operation under the Command of Lieutenant General Goetz Gliemeroth, Germany.

31 December 2003: NATO-led ISAF initiates the expansion of ISAF to the north by taking over command of the German-led PRT in Kunduz.

4 January 2004: After three weeks of debate, the Loya Jirga approves a new constitution.

January 2004: Ambassador Hikmet Çetin, Turkey, takes up his post as the first NATO Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan.

February 2004: Lieutenant General Rick Hillier, Canada, takes command of ISAF.

31 March-1 April 2004: Berlin donors’ conference on Afghanistan.

28 June 2004: At the Istanbul Summit, NATO announces that it would establish four other PRTs in the north of the country: in Mazar-e-Sharif, Meymanah, Feyzabad and Baghlan.

May-September 2004: ISAF expands to the west, first taking command of PRTs in the provinces of Herat and Farah and a Forward Support Base (a logistics base) in Herat, followed by PRTs in Chaghcharan, the capital of Ghor Province, and one in Qala-e-Naw, capital of Badghis Province. NATO-led ISAF is now providing security assistance in 50 per cent of Afghanistan’s territory.

August 2004: General Jean-Louis Py, France, takes command of ISAF.

1 October 2004: NATO-led ISAF’s expansion into Afghanistan’s nine northern provinces is completed.

9 October 2004: Hamid Karzai wins the presidential elections with 50 per cent of the vote.

29 October 2004: In a video message, Osama Bin Laden takes responsibility for the 9/11 attacks and threatens the West with further attacks.

February 2005: General Ethem Erdagi, Turkey, takes command of ISAF.

August 2005: General Mauro del Vecchio, Italy, takes command of ISAF.

September 2005: NATO temporarily deploys 2,000 additional troops to Afghanistan to support the provincial and parliamentary elections.

18 September 2005: Legislative elections are held in Afghanistan. In the lower house of parliament, 68 out of 249 seats are reserved for female members, as are 23 out of 102 seats in the upper house.

31 January 2006: At a conference in London, the Afghanistan Compact, a five-year plan of peacebuilding, is launched.
February 2006: ISAF troops adopt more robust rules of engagement.

May 2006: General David Richards, United Kingdom, takes command of ISAF.

8 June 2006: Meeting in Brussels, defence ministers from 37 NATO and partner countries that are contributing to ISAF confirm they are ready to expand ISAF’s operation to the south of Afghanistan. It is the first-ever meeting of ministers in ISAF format; after that, such meetings become a regular event.

JULY 2006 – AUGUST 2009
FROM PEACE-SUPPORT TO COMBAT: ISAF EXPANDS SOUTH AND EAST

31 July 2006: NATO-led ISAF assumes command of the southern region of Afghanistan from US-led coalition forces, expanding its area of operations to cover an additional six provinces – Daikundi, Helmand, Kandahar, Nimroz, Uruzgan and Zabul – and taking on command of four additional PRTs. Expanded ISAF now leads a total of 13 PRTs in the north, west and south, covering some three-quarters of Afghanistan’s territory.

24 August 2006: Ambassador Daan Everts, The Netherlands, is appointed to the position of NATO Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan.

5 October 2006: ISAF implements the final stage of its expansion, by taking on command of the international military forces in eastern Afghanistan from the US-led coalition. In addition, ISAF starts to deploy training and mentoring teams to Afghan National Army units at various levels of command.

28-29 November 2006: At the Riga Summit, NATO leaders agree to remove some of the national caveats and restrictions on how, when and where their forces can be used.

February 2007: General Dan K. McNeill, United States, takes command of ISAF.

3 April 2008: At the Bucharest Summit, ISAF troop-contributing nations set out a strategic vision for Afghanistan guided by four principles: a firm and shared long-term commitment; support for enhanced Afghan leadership and responsibility; a comprehensive approach by the international community, bringing together civilian and military efforts; and increased cooperation and engagement with Afghanistan’s neighbours, especially Pakistan.

May 2008: Ambassador Fernando Gentilini, Italy, takes up the post of NATO Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan.

12 June 2008: A donors’ conference for Afghanistan in Paris raises USD 20 billion in commitments, but diplomats harshly criticise the Afghan government’s performance in fighting corruption, tackling the drug trade and promoting reconstruction.

June 2008: General David D. McKiernan, United States, takes over as Commander of ISAF.

August 2008: Lead security responsibility for Kabul city is transferred to Afghan forces.

December 2008: ISAF Commander General David D. McKiernan issues guidelines ordering (ISAF or US) soldiers to use force that is proportional to the provocation and that minimises the risk of civilian casualties.

17 February 2009: New US President Barack Obama announces an additional 17,000 troops to be deployed to Afghanistan during the spring and summer to counter a resurgent Taliban and stem the flow of foreign fighters into the south of Afghanistan.

27 March 2009: President Obama announces a new strategy for Afghanistan and Pakistan. He also decides to deploy 4,000 troops to Afghanistan as trainers for the Afghan security forces.

3-4 April 2009: At the Strasbourg/Kehl Summit, Allied leaders agree to send an additional 5,000 troops to train the Afghan security forces and provide security for the presidential elections in August.

May 2009: UN Special Representative to Afghanistan Kai Eide expresses serious concern over reports of as many as 100 civilians having been killed by airstrikes against Taliban fighters in the western province of Farah on 4 May. President Karzai demands the cessation of airstrikes.
June 2009: Lt Gen Stanley A. McChrystal, United States, takes command of NATO-led ISAF and of US forces in Afghanistan. This signals the adoption of a counter-insurgency strategy.

June 2009: Lt Gen McChrystal announces restrictions on the use of airstrikes in an effort to reduce civilian deaths.

20 August 2009: Presidential elections take place in Afghanistan but they are marred by widespread Taliban attacks, and lengthy vote-counting and fraud investigations leave them unresolved for a couple of months.

SEPTEMBER 2009 – FEBRUARY 2011
COUNTERING THE INSURGENCY: MORE BOOTS ON THE GROUND

20 September 2009: Lt Gen McChrystal’s report to US Defense Secretary Robert Gates, calling for more troops in Afghanistan, is made public.

2 November 2009: Hamid Karzai is declared President of Afghanistan for another five-year term following the cancellation of a second-round run-off with rival Abdullah Abdullah, who had announced his withdrawal.

19 November 2009: President Karzai expresses his ambition to see the Afghan security forces take the lead for security across Afghanistan by the end of 2014.

21 November 2009: Following decisions taken at the Strasbourg/Kehl Summit in April 2009, the NATO Training Mission in Afghanistan is formally activated. Its aim is to bring together efforts to train the Afghan forces.

December 2009: Following a three-month review of the military campaign, President Obama decides on a troop surge involving the deployment of a further 30,000 troops, while also promising to start drawing down US troops by summer 2011. NATO foreign ministers announce the deployment of a further 7,000 soldiers.

28 January 2010: At an international conference in London, high-level representatives from over 70 countries discuss plans to gradually hand over the lead for security operations to the Afghan security forces.

28 January 2010: Ambassador Mark Sedwill, United Kingdom, assumes the position of NATO Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan.

23 June 2010: ISAF Commander Lt Gen McChrystal is dismissed following a controversial article in Rolling Stone magazine in which he is quoted as being critical of the US Administration. He is replaced by Gen David H. Petraeus, United States, who maintains the counter-insurgency strategy.

20 July 2010: The Joint Afghan-NATO Inteqal Board is established as the mechanism to assess the readiness of districts and provinces to transition to Afghan lead for security.

20 July 2010: At a conference in Kabul, hosted by the Afghan government and co-chaired by the United Nations, the government makes a renewed commitment to the Afghan people, presenting an Afghan-led plan for improving development, governance and security.

September 2010: Afghan parliamentary elections take place, overshadowed by violence, fraud and delays in announcing the results.

19-20 November 2010: At the Lisbon Summit, NATO leaders agree with the Afghan government to hand over full responsibility for security in Afghanistan from ISAF to Afghan forces by end 2014. The gradual transition to Afghan security lead is set to be launched in 2011, starting in areas that are relatively stable. NATO and Afghanistan also sign a declaration on Enduring Partnership, providing a framework for long-term political and practical support, designed to continue after the ISAF mission.

MARCH 2011 – DECEMBER 2014
TRANSITION TO AFGHAN LEAD FOR SECURITY

22 March 2011: President Karzai announces the first set of Afghan provinces and districts to start transitioning towards Afghan lead for security.
April 2011: Ambassador Simon Gass, United Kingdom, takes up the post of NATO Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan.

1 May 2011: Osama Bin Laden is killed by US Special Operations Forces in Pakistan.

22 June 2011: President Obama announces plans to withdraw 10,000 troops by end of year and the remaining 20,000 of the “surge” troops by summer 2012.

July 2011: General John R. Allen, United States, takes command of ISAF.

26 November 2011: Pakistani officials claim that NATO aircraft killed at least 25 soldiers in strikes against two military posts at the northwestern border with Afghanistan. NATO launches an investigation which later finds that poor coordination and mistakes made by both the NATO and Pakistani forces caused the incident.

27 November 2011: Announcement of the second set of Afghan provinces, districts and cities to transition to Afghan security lead.

5 December 2011: An international conference takes place in Bonn, to discuss cooperation with Afghanistan beyond the withdrawal of ISAF at the end of 2014. The Afghan president commits to strengthening the fight against corruption in exchange for continued international development aid. Pakistan boycotts the conference because of deaths caused by NATO airstrikes in November.

25 February 2012: A gunman shoots dead two senior US military officers in the Afghan interior ministry. Taliban claim responsibility. Gen John Allen, the commander of NATO and US forces, temporarily recalls all NATO personnel from Afghan ministries for force protection reasons.

1 April 2012: The Regional Police Training Centre in Mazar-e Sharif is handed over to the Afghans. It later becomes a training site for the Afghan National Civil Order Police.

13 May 2012: President Karzai announces the third set of areas to enter the transition process, covering over 75 per cent of the Afghan population.

21 May 2012: At the Chicago Summit, leaders from NATO’s 28 nations and the 22 partners in the ISAF coalition gave Afghanistan a clear, long-term commitment to continue supporting the Afghan security forces with training, advice and assistance after the NATO-led ISAF mission is completed in 2014. Over USD 4 billion is pledged to sustain the Afghan forces.

8 July 2012: At the Tokyo donors’ conference on Afghanistan, the international community pledges USD 16 billion in development aid through 2015 beyond the withdrawal of ISAF. But pressure is put on the government to hold inclusive, transparent and credible elections; to fight corruption and improve good governance; to uphold the constitution, especially human rights; and to enforce the rule of law.

16 July 2012: The Afghan Army Special Operations Command is stood up.

August 2012: English teaching at the Kabul Military Training Center is completely in the hands of Afghan instructors.

October 2012: Ambassador Maurits R. Jochems, The Netherlands, takes up the position of NATO Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan.

31 December 2012: Announcement of the fourth group of Afghan provinces, cities and districts to enter the transition process. With this decision, 23 provinces out of 34 have fully entered transition and 87 per cent of the population lives in areas where Afghan forces are in the lead for security.

1 February 2013: The Afghan Ground Forces Command is established to oversee all operations in Afghanistan.

February 2013: General Joseph F. Dunford, United States, takes command of ISAF.

1 April 2013: The Afghan National Defence University is set up to train the future officers of the Afghan National Army.
18 June 2013: President Karzai announces the launch of the fifth and final tranche of transition. Once fully implemented, this brings the 11 remaining provinces into transition and puts Afghan forces in the lead for security across the whole country.

24 November 2013: The Loya Jirga votes in favour of a Bilateral Security Agreement with the United States, calling on President Hamid Karzai to sign the deal immediately. The agreement governs the presence of US troops in Afghanistan after 2014 and is needed to enable thousands of US soldiers to stay in Afghanistan after the withdrawal of ISAF.

5 April 2014: Millions of men and women turn out in the first-round vote of the presidential election.

14 June 2014: A second-round run-off in the presidential election takes place between Dr Ashraf Ghani and Dr Abdullah Abdullah.

26 August 2014: US Army General John F. Campbell assumes duties as the Commander of ISAF (upon completion of ISAF’s operation in December 2014, he becomes the first commander of the follow-on Resolute Support Mission)

September 2014: At the NATO Summit in Wales, the leaders of ISAF troop-contributing nations underline their commitment to continue supporting Afghanistan post-2014.

29 September 2014: After months of negotiations over contested election results, Dr Ashraf Ghani is sworn in as President of Afghanistan at a ceremony in Kabul, while presidential candidate Abdullah Abdullah is appointed as Chief Executive Officer of the National Unity Government.

30 September 2014: A Status of Forces Agreement between NATO and Afghanistan is signed in Kabul. Ratified by the Afghan Parliament in November, it provides the legal framework for a new NATO-led, non-combat mission ("Resolute Support") to train, advise and assist the Afghan security forces and institutions, starting in January 2015.


28 December 2014: At a ceremony in Kabul, ISAF formally completes its mission in Afghanistan, concluding a three-year transition process whereby the lead for security was gradually transferred to the Afghans. The Afghan security forces now have full security responsibility.

JANUARY 2015 – TRAINING, ASSISTING AND ADVISING AFGHAN SECURITY INSTITUTIONS

1 January 2015: The Resolute Support Mission (RSM) is launched to continue to provide training, advice and assistance to the Afghan National Defence and Security Forces (ANDSF).

January 2015: Ambassador Ismail Aramaz, Turkey, takes up the position of NATO Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan.

22 April 2015: During a three-day visit to Afghanistan, the NATO Secretary General’s Special Representative for Women, Peace and Security, Mariët Schuurman, meets with NATO’s Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan and the Commander of RSM, as well as with First Lady Rula Ghani, an active defender and advocate of women’s rights and gender equality in Afghanistan.

13 May 2015: NATO foreign ministers decide that the Alliance will maintain a civilian-led presence in Afghanistan after the end of RSM with the aim to continue to advise and instruct the Afghan security institutions, to help them become self-sufficient.

25 June 2015: NATO defence ministers and their RSM partners review the security situation and the first six months of the training mission with Afghan Acting Minister of Defence Masoom Stanekzai. While noting that “it has been a challenging time,” NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg stresses that the Afghan forces “have dealt with this effectively”.

15 October 2015: The NATO Secretary General welcomes President Obama’s announcement that the United States will maintain its current troop levels in Afghanistan through 2016 and will retain a substantial presence beyond 2016.
1 December 2015: NATO foreign ministers and their RSM partners agree a plan to sustain the training mission in Afghanistan during 2016 and start work to secure funding for Afghan security forces and institutions until the end of 2020.

2 March 2016: General John “Mick” Nicholson assumes duties as the Commander of RSM.

May 2016: NATO foreign ministers agree that RSM’s presence will be sustained beyond 2016.

9 July 2016: At the NATO Summit in Warsaw, Allied leaders and their RSM partners recognise that, while the Afghan security institutions and forces continue to develop and make progress, challenges and capability gaps persist, and they continue to need international support. They reaffirm their mutual commitment to ensuring long-term security and stability in Afghanistan by sustaining RSM beyond 2016; continuing financial support for the Afghan National Defence and Security Forces until the end of 2020; and strengthening the Enduring Partnership between Afghanistan and NATO.

5 October 2016: 75 countries and 26 international organisations and agencies pledged USD 15.2 billion in financial support for Afghanistan until 2020.

March 2017: Ambassador Cornelius Zimmermann, Germany, assumes the post of NATO Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan.

19 May 2017: NATO Allies and their RSM partners meet at NATO Headquarters to review ongoing efforts in support of the Afghan National Defence and Security Forces (ANDSF) and long-term stability in Afghanistan. They are joined by the Afghan President, the RSM Commander and the NATO Senior Civilian Representative to Afghanistan via video conference. Attendants note the continued progress made by the Afghan security forces and institutions, just over two years since assumption of full security responsibility by Afghanistan. They also underscore the importance to continue supporting the ANDSF through training, advising and assistance through RSM. The meeting reaffirms the commitment undertaken at the NATO Summit in Warsaw to sustaining the NATO-led mission as a conditions-based mission, and to keeping its configuration under review.

9 November 2017: Defence Ministers from NATO Allies and partner nations agree to increase their troop contributions to RSM in the coming months from around 13,000 to around 16,000 troops. Ministers also confirm that they will continue to fund the Afghan security forces until at least 2020.

27 April 2018: NATO foreign ministers reaffirm NATO’s commitment to the development of the Afghan security and defence forces through a conditions-based approach for the Resolute Support Mission. They express support for the Afghan president’s proposal for peace talks between the Government of National Unity and the Taliban, without preconditions, in an Afghan-led and Afghan-owned process. They also underline the importance of fair, inclusive and timely parliamentary and presidential elections due in 2018 and 2019 respectively, which are essential for peace, stability and the consolidation of democracy.

8 June 2018: Defence ministers from NATO Allies and partner nations discuss the strengthening of RSM’s support to the Afghan government and Afghan security forces, noting real progress in the ability of Afghan forces to conduct offensive operations.

12 July 2018: The heads of state and government of Allies and RSM troop-contributing partners meet with the Afghan president at the Brussels Summit. They welcome the progress the Afghan security institutions are making as a result of RSM’s capacity-building efforts and Afghan-led institutional reforms. They underline that effective, professional and self-sustaining Afghan forces will be better able to provide security for the country, create the conditions for a negotiated resolution of the conflict through an Afghan-led and Afghan-owned peace process, and demonstrate to the Taliban that it cannot prevail through force. They welcome the Afghan government’s unprecedented offer of unconditional peace talks to the Taliban and called on the Taliban to engage credibly in this process. Allies and partners reiterated the importance of good and inclusive governance, institution building as well as social and economic development, which would help set the conditions for long-term stability and have an important impact on migration. The Afghan government made a number of commitments in this regard.

5 March 2019: Ambassador Sir Nicholas Kay, United Kingdom, assumes the post of NATO Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan.
The Air and Missile Defence Committee (AMDC) is the senior policy advisory and coordinating body regarding all aspects of NATO’s integrated air and missile defence (IAMD), Air Command and Control (Air C2) and related air power aspects.

The AMDC supports Alliance work on establishing air and missile defence capabilities, including a NATO ballistic missile defence (BMD) capability as an integral part of NATO IAMD, either through its efforts or by, inter alia, offering specialist advice and expertise to other senior-level committees.

The Committee works closely with counterparts in member and partner countries to identify cooperation opportunities for all aspects of integrated air and missile defence.

Main participants

The AMDC is comprised of national experts (at flag officer level) from all member nations – and in Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) format also from partner nations. The Committee is chaired by NATO’s Deputy Secretary General and supported by the Defence Investment Division. The Vice Chairman of the AMDC is a senior-level (two-star) national representative, who serves a two-year term when elected by the AMDC.

Working mechanism

As a senior committee, the AMDC reports directly to the North Atlantic Council (NAC). It is supported by the Panel on Air and Missile Defence, which develops policy advice for consideration by the AMDC to support Alliance objectives and priorities, and by the Air C2 Steering Committee, which is responsible for the governance of the Air C2 programme. The AMDC holds meetings twice a year, including one within the EAPC framework with partners. Monthly meetings are held at the level of Permanent Representatives to ensure regular dialogue between member nations.
Air policing: securing NATO airspace

NATO Air Policing is a peacetime mission, which aims to preserve the security of Alliance airspace. It is a collective task and involves the continuous presence – 24 hours a day, 365 days a year – of fighter aircraft and crews, which are ready to react quickly to airspace violations.

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Highlights

- NATO Air Policing is a collective task and a purely defensive mission, which involves the 24/7 presence of fighter aircraft, which are ready to react quickly to airspace violations.
- NATO members assist those Allies who are without the necessary means to provide air policing of their own territory.
- The Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) is responsible for the conduct of the NATO Air Policing mission.
- Preservation of the integrity of NATO airspace is one of the missions of NATO Integrated Air and Missile Defence.
- Air policing was intensified following the Russia-Ukraine crisis.

More background information

A collective security mission

Safeguarding the integrity of Alliance members’ sovereign airspace is a peacetime task contributing to NATO’s collective defence. It is a clear sign of cohesion, shared responsibility and solidarity across the Alliance.
The NATO Air Policing mission is carried out using the NATO Integrated Air and Missile Defence System (NATINAMDS).

The Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) has the overall responsibility for the conduct of the NATO Air Policing mission.

Allied Air Command (AIRCOM) headquartered at Ramstein, Germany oversees the NATO Air Policing mission with 24/7 command and control from two Combined Air Operations Centres (CAOCs); one in Torrejon, Spain, and one in Uedem, Germany. CAOC Uedem is responsible for NATO Air Policing north of the Alps and CAOC Torrejon for the south. The CAOC decides which interceptor aircraft will be scrambled (i.e. tasked to react) according to the location of the incident.

NATO member nations provide the necessary aircraft and assets for the air policing of their own airspace, under SACEUR direction. Those without the necessary means to do so (Albania, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Montenegro and Slovenia) are assisted by other NATO members to preserve the integrity of their sovereign airspace in peacetime and to ensure their security.

NATO has been protecting the Baltic skies since 2004, when Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania joined the Alliance. The Baltic Air Policing mission started in April 2004 and has been executed continuously ever since. Slovenia’s airspace is covered by Hungary and Italy, while Albania and Montenegro are covered by Greece and Italy.

All NATO member nations that possess an air policing capability, voluntarily contribute to the NATO Air Policing mission in the Baltic States and this responsibility is rotated every four months. The capability for the mission in the Baltic States was established by the deployment of NATO fighter aircraft to Šiauliai Air Base in Lithuania. Since 2014, NATO has also been using Õmari Air Base in Estonia for the deployment of additional air policing assets.

The mission of patrolling the skies along NATO’s eastern border was intensified in 2015 following the beginning of the Russia-Ukraine crisis.

Main components

NATO Air Policing requires the Air Surveillance and Control System (ASACS), the Air Command and Control (Air C2) structure and Quick Reaction Alert (Interceptor) (QRA(I)) aircraft and crews to be available on a 24/7 basis.

This enables the Alliance to detect, track and identify to the greatest extent possible all aerial objects approaching or operating within NATO airspace so that violations can be recognised, and appropriate action taken.

Evolution

The term “air policing” was first used by the United Kingdom between the two World Wars to describe their mission in Mesopotamia (now part of Iraq), where aircraft were used to replace the more traditional army approach of “boots on the ground” in an effort to cut back on the large imperial army. This was the first time air power had been used for a policing task and is still considered to be the birth of the concept, even though this first initiative was policing the situation on the ground, rather than in the air.

In the 1960s, nations participating in the NATO military structure realised that individual air defence systems operating independently could not effectively protect Alliance airspace, so they began working together to establish a structure to overcome this deficiency. Combining national assets supplemented as necessary by other NATO elements, an integrated air defence structure and system – the NATO Integrated Air Defence System (NATINADS) – was established.

Established in 1961 during the Cold War, NATO Air Policing was – and still is – an integral part of NATO Integrated Air and Missile Defence (IAMD). On duty 24/7/365, NATO Air Policing is a constant in a rapidly changing security environment, giving SACEUR the capability to preserve the integrity of Alliance airspace in peacetime.
In the early days of NATINADS, all NATO member nations (with the exception of Iceland and Luxembourg) provided fighter aircraft to SACEUR. Referred to as “NATO command forces”, these aircraft were put under the command of SACEUR already in peacetime. This gave him the necessary flexibility to react to any incident in NATO airspace in a timely manner.

In 2004, nine new member nations joined the Alliance. Some of them did not possess fighter aircraft and could therefore not provide the necessary means for the protection of their airspace. This responsibility was taken over by NATO member nations which possess an air policing capability. Initially, NATO only used the Šiauliai Air Base in Lithuania, but since 2014, has also been using Ämari Air Base in Estonia for the deployment of additional air policing assets.

Also in 2004, special arrangements were established to ensure adequate air policing of Slovenia. The country’s airspace is covered by both Hungary and Italy. The Combined Air Operations Centre (CAOC) decides on a case-by-case basis which nation will be scrambled according to the location of the incident.

In 2006, the United States ended its permanent air policing mission over Iceland. The US mission was replaced by a system whereby Allies periodically deploy fighter aircraft to Keflavik Air Base to provide protection of Icelandic airspace. The first deployment took place in May 2008.

When Albania joined NATO in 2009, an arrangement similar to that for Slovenia was established with Greece and Italy ensuring coverage over Albania.

At the Lisbon Summit in 2010, Allied leaders agreed to address air and missile defence in a holistic way by developing a NATO Integrated Air and Missile Defence System (NATINAMDS). NATINAMDS is based on the previously existing NATINADS enhanced by new BMD elements.

In 2015, Belgium, Luxembourg and the Netherlands signed an agreement to conduct joint air policing of their territories. Under the agreement, the Belgian and Dutch Air Forces will defend the Benelux airspace on a rotational basis. The joint operations started on 1 January 2017.

In 2017, Montenegro joined the Alliance. Greece and Italy have agreed to ensure the coverage of the airspace over Montenegro using the same model as for Albania.
Alliance Ground Surveillance (AGS)

NATO is acquiring the Alliance Ground Surveillance (AGS) system that will give commanders a comprehensive picture of the situation on the ground. A group of 15 Allies is acquiring the AGS system comprised of five NATO RQ-4D remotely piloted aircraft and the associated European-sourced ground command and control stations. NATO will then operate and maintain them on behalf of all NATO Allies. The AGS NATO RQ-4D aircraft is based on the US Air Force Block 40 Global Hawk. It has been uniquely adapted to NATO requirements to provide a state-of-the-art Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance (ISR) capability to NATO.

Highlights

- The AGS system consists of air, ground and support segments, performing all-weather, persistent wide-area terrestrial and maritime surveillance in near real-time.
- AGS will provide in-theatre situational awareness to commanders of deployed forces.
- AGS will be able to contribute to a range of missions such as protection of ground troops and civilian populations, border control and maritime safety, the fight against terrorism, crisis management and humanitarian assistance in natural disasters.

More background information

Overview

The AGS system is being acquired by 15 NATO Allies: Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Germany, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Norway, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia and the United States.
At the same time, all Allies are contributing to the development of the AGS capability through financial contributions covering the establishment of the AGS Main Operating Base in Sigonella, Italy. They will also contribute to communications and life-cycle support of the AGS fleet. The United Kingdom will replace its financial contribution with interoperable contributions in kind (i.e. national surveillance systems that will be made available to NATO).

The NATO-owned and -operated AGS core system will enable the Alliance to perform persistent surveillance over wide areas from high-altitude, long-endurance (HALE) aircraft, operating at considerable stand-off distances and in any weather or light condition. Using advanced radar sensors, these systems will continuously detect and track moving objects throughout observed areas and will provide radar imagery of areas of interest and stationary objects.

The NATO AGS Force is being stood up at the AGS Main Operating Base in Sigonella, Italy. When completed, the base will host around 550 AGS personnel, in addition to a small number of AGS staff elements based at Allied Command Operations in Mons, Belgium and at Allied Air Command in Ramstein, Germany. AGS will serve as NATO Joint Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance (JISR) deployment base and as data exploitation and training centre.

Just as NATO Airborne Early Warning & Control (NAEW&C) aircraft – also known as AWACS or “NATO’s eyes in the sky” – monitor Alliance airspace, AGS will be able to observe what is happening on the earth’s surface, providing situational awareness before, during and, if needed, after NATO operations.

Components

The AGS core will be an integrated system consisting of an air segment, a ground segment and a support segment.

The air segment consists of five NATO RQ-4D aircraft and remotely piloted aircraft (RPA) flight control elements. The aircraft will be equipped with a state-of-the-art, multi-platform radar technology insertion programme (MP-RTIP) ground surveillance radar sensor, as well as an extensive suite of line-of-sight and beyond-line-of-sight, long-range, wideband data links.

The ground segment consists of a number of ground stations in mobile and transportable configurations, able to provide data-link connectivity, data-processing, exploitation capabilities and interfaces for interoperability.

The ground segment will provide an interface between the AGS core system and a wide range of command, control, intelligence, surveillance and reconnaissance (C2ISR) systems. It will interconnect with multiple deployed and non-deployed operational users, as well as with reach-back facilities away from the surveillance area.

The AGS core support segment will include dedicated mission support facilities at the AGS Main Operating Base in Sigonella.

Interoperable contributions in kind, such as national surveillance systems and data/communications, will also be made available to NATO and will complement AGS with additional surveillance capabilities.

The composition of the AGS core system and national contributions in kind will provide NATO with considerable flexibility in employing its ground surveillance capabilities.

This will be supplemented by additional interoperable national airborne surveillance systems from NATO member countries, tailored to the needs of a specific operation or mission conducted by the Alliance.

Mechanisms

The NATO Alliance Ground Surveillance Management Organisation (NAGSMO) and its executive body – NATO Alliance Ground Surveillance Management Agency (NAGSMA) – are responsible for the acquisition of the AGS core capability on behalf of the 15 acquiring countries. The NATO AGS Force, activated in September 2015, with its AGS Staff Element Implementation Office (AGS-SEIO) located at the headquarters of Allied Command Operations (SHAPE) are responsible for ensuring the successful operational integration and employment of the NATO AGS core capability.
NAGSMA, representing the 15 AGS acquisition nations, awarded the prime contract for the system to Northrop Grumman in May 2012 during the Chicago Summit. The company’s primary industrial team includes Airbus Defence and Space (Germany), Leonardo (Italy) and Kongsberg (Norway), as well as leading defence companies from all acquiring countries, which are contributing to the delivery of the AGS system.

An intensive process of re-baselining (or reviewing) the core acquisition contract took place and was finalised and signed in May 2018. This process helps ensure that AGS will deliver an operationally suitable and effective capability that can be certified for operations globally.

The engagement of NATO common funds for infrastructure, communications, operation and support will follow normal funding authorisation procedures applicable within the Alliance.

By the time AGS becomes fully operational, the United Kingdom will sign a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) with the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR), outlining the modalities for making its contributions in kind available to the Alliance.

### Facts and figures about the NATO RQ-4D

General characteristics of the NATO RQ-4D remotely piloted aircraft:

- **Primary function:** High-altitude, long-endurance intelligence, surveillance and reconnaissance
- **Power plant:** Rolls Royce-North American AE 3007H turbofan
- **Thrust:** 7,600 lbs
- **Wingspan:** 130.9 ft / 39.8 m
- **Length:** 47.6 ft / 14.5 m
- **Height:** 15.3 ft / 4.7 m
- **Weight:** 14,950 lbs / 6,781 kg
- **Maximum take-off weight:** 32,250 lbs / 14,628 kg
- **Fuel capacity:** 17,300 lbs / 7,847 kg
- **Payload:** 3,000 lbs / 1,360 kg
- **Speed:** 310 knots / 357 mph / 575 kph
- **Range:** 8,700 nautical miles / 10,112 miles / 16,113 km
- **Ceiling:** 60,000 ft / 18,288 m

### Evolution

Originating from the Defence Planning Committee in 1992, the AGS programme was defined as a capability acquisition effort in 1995, when NATO Defence Ministers agreed that “the Alliance should pursue work on a minimum essential NATO-owned and -operated core capability supplemented by interoperable national assets.”

The AGS programme was to provide NATO with a complete and integrated ground surveillance capability that would offer the Alliance and its member countries unrestricted and unfiltered access to ground surveillance data in near real-time, and in an interoperable manner. It was to include an air segment comprising airborne radar sensors, and a ground segment comprising fixed, transportable and mobile ground stations for data exploitation and dissemination, all seamlessly interconnected through high-performance data links.

From the outset, the AGS capability was expected to be based on one or more types of ground surveillance assets either already existing or in development in NATO member countries, an approach that later also came to include proposed developmental systems based on American or European radars. However, all those approaches failed to obtain sufficient support by the Allies to allow their realisation. In
2001, the North Atlantic Council decided to revitalise AGS through a developmental programme available to all NATO countries and a corresponding cooperative radar development effort called the Transatlantic Cooperative AGS Radar (TCAR).

In 2004, NATO decided to move ahead with what was labelled as a mixed-fleet approach. The air segment was to include Airbus A321 manned aircraft and Global Hawk unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs), both carrying versions of the TCAR radar, while the ground segment was to comprise an extensive set of fixed and deployable ground stations.

Due to declining European defence budgets, NATO decided in 2007 to discontinue the mixed-fleet approach and instead to move forward with a simplified AGS system where the air segment was based on the off-the-shelf Global Hawk Block 40 UAV and its associated MP-RTIP sensor. The ground segment, which would largely be developed and built by European and Canadian industry, remained virtually unchanged as its functional and operational characteristics were largely independent of the actual aircraft and sensor used.

In February 2009, the NATO Allies participating in the AGS programme started the process of signing the Programme Memorandum of Understanding (PMOU). This was a significant step forward on the road towards realising an urgently required, operationally essential capability for NATO. NAGSMA was established in September 2009, after all participating countries had agreed on the PMOU. The PMOU serves as the basis for the procurement of this new NATO capability.

Another important milestone for the AGS programme was the 2010 Lisbon Summit, where the strong operational need for a NATO-owned and -operated AGS capability was reconfirmed with NATO’s 2010 Strategic Concept. AGS also featured in the Lisbon Package as one of the Alliance’s most pressing capability needs.

On 3 February 2012, the North Atlantic Council decided on a way ahead to collectively cover the costs for operating AGS for the benefit of the Alliance. The decision to engage NATO common funding for infrastructure, satellite communications and operations and support paved the way for awarding the AGS acquisition contract. In addition, an agreement was reached to make the UK Sentinel system and the future French Heron TP system available as national contributions in kind, partly replacing financial contributions from those two Allies.

In the margins of the 2012 NATO Summit in Chicago, NATO nations took an important step towards the delivery of a NATO-owned and -operated ground surveillance and reconnaissance capability. A procurement contract for the AGS system was signed on 20 May 2012, in preparation for the delivery of a vital capability that will be made available to all NATO member nations. The AGS acquisition contract includes the purchase and initial operation and maintenance of unmanned aircraft equipped with advanced ground surveillance radar sensors.

Designated the AGS NATO RQ-4D, NATO’s remotely piloted aircraft is based on the US Air Force Block 40 Global Hawk. It has been uniquely adapted to NATO requirements to provide a state-of-the-art Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance (ISR) capability to NATO.

In September 2015, NATO AGS achieved important milestones such as the first live ground testing of NATO’s first RQ-4D aircraft and the activation of NATO AGS Force, meaning Allies formally agreed the configuration (number of staff, their rank structure, etc.) of the unit responsible for operating the AGS NATO RQ-4D remotely piloted aircraft from Sigonella Air Base.

Between September and December 2015, other important milestones were achieved:

- Mobile General Ground Station (MGGS) and Transportable General Ground Station (TGGS) roll-outs took place;
- The first test flight of NATO’s first RQ-4D occurred in Palmdale, California; and
- AGS successfully participated in exercise Trident Juncture 2015 from the NATO AGS Capability Testbed (NACT) in the Netherlands.
From 2016 to 2019, a number of test flights took place in order to further develop and test AGS capabilities. These included the first flight remotely controlled from the AGS Main Operating Base in Sigonella at the end of 2017.

Throughout 2018 and 2019, AGS temporary infrastructure at the Main Operating Base has been put in place. The construction of permanent facilities for AGS began on the site and is expected to be completed in 2021.

Training of AGS pilots, Joint ISR analysts, sensor operators and maintainers has also been initiated at the Main Operating Base, marking the first steps for the creation of a Premier NATO Training Centre in Sigonella. Once fully operational, the centre will host 22 training instructors including mission crew and pilot trainers, working with a simulation capability that will be able to take on around 80 trainees per year.

The first of five AGS NATO RQ-4D aircraft landed in its new permanent home in Sigonella, Italy on 21 November 2019. The first AGS ferry flight from the United States to Italy marks the implementation of a key multinational project for the procurement of state-of-the-art equipment. Following arrival, a system-level performance verification phase will begin in order to ensure full compliance of the system with NATO requirements. The entire AGS system will be handed over to the NATO AGS Force once it has completed all its testing and performance verification. Initial operational capability is expected for the first half of 2020.
Allied Command Operations (ACO)

Allied Command Operations (ACO) is responsible for the planning and execution of all Alliance operations. It consists of a small number of permanently established headquarters, each with a specific role. Supreme Allied Commander Europe – or SACEUR – assumes the overall command of operations at the strategic level and exercises his responsibilities from the headquarters in Mons, Belgium: Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe, more commonly known as SHAPE.

Highlights

- ACO, with its headquarters at SHAPE near Mons, Belgium is responsible for the planning and execution of all NATO military operations and is headed by SACEUR.
- It has the ability to operate at three overlapping levels: strategic, operational and tactical.
- The command’s overall aim is to contribute to Allied defence and security by maintaining the integrity of Alliance territory, safeguarding freedom of the seas and economic lifelines, and to preserve or restore the security of its members.
- Allied Command Operations is one of two Strategic Commands at the head of NATO’s military command structure. The other is Allied Command Transformation, which is responsible for ensuring NATO’s military structure and capabilities remain relevant, capable and credible in a rapidly changing world.
- ACO consists of a number of permanently established headquarters operating at the strategic, operational and tactical levels; they are augmented by national forces assigned to NATO for specific standing and/or crisis roles and tasks.
The structure of Allied Command Operations

ACO is one of two Strategic Commands within NATO’s military command structure; the other is Allied Command Transformation (ACT), which – as its name indicates – leads the transformation of NATO’s military structure, forces, capabilities and doctrine. Together with their subordinate organisations, they form what is called the NATO Command Structure (NCS), whose function is first and foremost to be able to respond to security threats to the Alliance and, should deterrence fail, provide a capable and effective military response to an armed attack against the territory of any of the NATO Allies.

Ultimately, the NCS plays an essential role in preserving cohesion and solidarity within the Alliance. It, maintains and strengthens the vital link, between Europe and North America, and promotes the principle of equitable sharing among Allies of the roles, risks and responsibilities, as well as the benefits of collective defence.

ACO is a three-tier command with headquarters and supporting elements at the strategic, operational and tactical levels. It exercises command and control of static and deployable headquarters, as well as joint and combined forces across the full range of the Alliance’s military operations, missions, operations and tasks. Joint forces are forces from two or more military services (for instance, land, maritime or air) working under a single command; combined forces are forces from different countries working under a single command.

SHAPE, at the strategic level, is at the head of nine operational commands.

At the 2018 Brussels Summit, Allies agreed to strengthen the military backbone of the Alliance. They decided to establish a Cyberspace Operations Centre in Belgium to provide situational awareness and coordination of NATO operational activity within cyberspace; a Joint Force Command Norfolk headquarters in the United States to focus on protecting the transatlantic lines of communication; and a Joint Support and Enabling Command in Ulm, Germany to ensure freedom of operation and sustainment in the rear area in support of the rapid movement of troops and equipment into, across and from Europe. These new entities are gradually being put into place.

Strategic-level command: SHAPE

SHAPE is a strategic headquarters. Its role is to prepare, plan, conduct and execute NATO military operations, missions and tasks in order to achieve the strategic objectives of the Alliance. As such, it contributes to the deterrence of aggression and the preservation of peace, security and the territorial integrity of Alliance.

ACO is headed by SACEUR, who exercises his responsibilities from SHAPE. Traditionally, he is a United States Flag or General officer. SACEUR is dual-hatted as he is also the commander of the US European Command, which shares many of the same geographical responsibilities as ACO. SACEUR is responsible to the Military Committee (MC), which is the senior military authority in NATO under the overall political authority of the North Atlantic Council (NAC) and the Nuclear Planning Group (NPG). The MC is the primary source of military advice to the NAC and NPG.

Operational-level commands: Brunssum, Naples and Norfolk

The operational level consists of three standing Joint Force Commands (JFCs): one in Brunssum, the Netherlands, one in Naples, Italy and one in Norfolk, Virginia, USA. All stand ready to plan, conduct and sustain NATO operations of different size and scope. Effectively, they need to be able to manage a major joint operation either from their static location, or from a deployed headquarters when operating directly in a theatre of operation. In the latter case, the deployed headquarter is referred to as a Joint Task Force HQ or JTFHQ and should be able to operate for a period of up to one year.

When deployed, a Joint Force Command is only charged to command one operation at a time. However, the elements of the Joint Force Command which have not deployed can provide support to other operations and missions. When a Joint Force Command is not deployed, it can assist ACO in dealing with other headquarters which are deployed in theatre for day-to-day matters and assist, for instance, with the training and preparation for future rotations.

The three commands at this level are also responsible for engaging with key partners and regional organisations in order to support regional NATO HQ tasks and responsibilities, as directed by SACEUR.
Additionally, they support the reinforcement of cooperation with partners participating in NATO operations and help to prepare partner countries, which so wish, for NATO membership.

**Tactical-level commands: Izmir (Land), Northwood (Maritime) and Ramstein (Air)**

The tactical (or component) level consists of what are called Single Service Commands (SSCs): land, maritime and air commands. These service-specific commands provide expertise and support to the Joint Force Commands. They report directly to SHAPE and come under the command of SACEUR.

- **Land Command, Headquarters Allied Land Command (HQ LANDCOM), Izmir, Turkey:** this command’s role is to provide a deployable land command and control capability in support of a Joint Force Command running an operation larger than a major joint operation. It can also provide the core land capability for a joint operation (major or not) or a deployable command and control capability for a land operation. Izmir is also the principal land advisor for the Alliance and contributes to development and transformation, engagement and outreach within its area of expertise.

- **Maritime Command, Headquarters Allied Maritime Command (HQ MARCOM), Northwood, the United Kingdom:** this command’s role is to provide command and control for the full spectrum of joint maritime operations and tasks. From its location in Northwood, it plans, conducts and supports joint maritime operations. It is also the Alliance’s principal maritime advisor and contributes to development and transformation, engagement and outreach within its area of expertise. Northwood is able to command a small maritime joint operation or act as the maritime component in support of an operation larger than a major joint operation.

- **Air Command, Headquarters Allied Air Command (HQ AIRCOM), Ramstein, Germany:** this command’s role is to plan and direct the air component of Alliance operations and missions, and the execution of Alliance air and missile defence operations and missions. Ramstein is also the Alliance’s principal air advisor and contributes to development and transformation, engagement and outreach within its area of expertise. Ramstein, with adequate support from within and outside the NATO Command Structure can provide command and control for a small joint air operation from its static location, i.e., from Ramstein or can act as Air Component Command to support an operation which is as big or bigger than a major joint operation. To reinforce its capability, Ramstein has additional air command and control elements available: two Combined Air Operations Centres (CAOC) and a Deployable Air Command and Control Centre (DACCC). The air elements are also structured in a more flexible way to take account of the experience gained in NATO-led operations.

**Tactical Air Command and Control**

To carry out its missions and tasks, HQ AIRCOM (Ramstein) is supported by Combined Air Operations Centres (CAOC) in Torrejon, Spain and in Uedem, Germany, as well as one Deployable Air Command and Control Centre (DACCC) in Poggio Renatico, Italy.

- **CAOCs:** both the CAOC in Spain and in Germany are composed of two parts. One part is a Static Air Defence Centre (SADC) responsible for air policing and the other, a Deployable Air Operations Centre (D-AOC), which supports operations. The D-AOC is an element focused on the production of combat plans and the conduct of combat operations. It has no territorial responsibilities assigned during peacetime, but supplements HQ AIRCOM when required.

- **DACCC:** this entity based in Italy consists of three elements. Firstly, a Deployable Air Control Centre + Recognized Air Picture Production Centre + Sensor Fusion Post (DARS). The DARS is responsible for the control of air missions including surface-to-air missiles, air traffic management and control, area air surveillance and production of a recognised air picture and other tactical control functions; secondly, a D-AOC, which has the same role as a CAOC; and thirdly, a Deployable Sensors Section, which provides both air defence radar and passive electronic support measures tracker capabilities that are deployable.

**Communication and information systems**

Communication and information systems (CIS) consists of two entities: deployable CIS capabilities and static CIS capabilities.
The NATO CIS Group (NCISG) based in Mons, Belgium provides deployable communications and information systems support for ACO. The NATO CIS Group is responsible for provision of all deployable CIS capabilities, as well as CIS operations and exercises planning and control. It acts as the coordinating authority for command and control services support to operations. Provision of the static and central CIS capabilities is the responsibility of the NATO Communications and Information Agency (NCIA), which is not part of the NATO Command Structure.

The NATO CIS Group is supported by three NATO Signals Battalions located at Wesel, Germany, Grazzanise, Italy, and Bydgoszcz, Poland. These three are complemented by various smaller elements (Deployable CIS modules) elsewhere.

Associated assets: STRIKFORNATO, AWACS and AGS

Naval Striking and Support Forces NATO (STRIKFORNATO), NATO Airborne Early Warning and Control Force (NAEW&CF) and Alliance Ground Surveillance (AGS) are part of the NATO Immediate Response Capability. They are multinational structures that are not part of the command structure, but are assets available for the Alliance and organised under memorandums of understanding and technical agreements (MOU/TA) signed by the respective contributing countries.

STRIKFORNATO is a rapidly deployable maritime headquarters that provides scalable command and control across the full spectrum of the Alliance’s fundamental security tasks. It focuses on maritime operations and, as part of NATO reforms, has moved from Italy to Portugal. It comprises 11 participating countries and serves as a link for integrating US maritime forces into NATO operations.

The NAEW&C Force comprises three elements: a multinational HQ (Mons) and two operational components, the multinational E-3A and the E-3D. NATO Air Base (NAB) Geilenkirchen, Germany, is home to 14 Boeing E-3A ‘Sentry’ AWACS aircraft. NATO operates this fleet, which provides the Alliance with an immediately available airborne command and control (C2), air and maritime surveillance and battle-space management capability. The fleet of six Boeing E-3D aircraft based in Waddington, Lincolnshire, United Kingdom is manned by Royal Air Force personnel only. The United Kingdom exercises limited participation, but its fleet of E-3D aircraft is an integral part of the NAEW&C Force.

With regard to the NAEW&C Force, the Force Commander conducted a comprehensive Force Review that determined the size and shape of the Airborne Warning & Control System (AWACS) capability for the future, adapting it to match the new manpower ceilings decided in the context of the new command structure. On this basis, Allies committed to the modernisation of NATO AWACS, extending the fleet’s life until 2035, after which additional lifetime extensions are no longer practical.

NATO is acquiring an Alliance Ground Surveillance (AGS) system that will provide SACEUR the capabilities for near real-time, continuous information and situational awareness concerning friendly, neutral, and opposing ground and surface entities. The AGS system will consist of five Global Hawks remotely piloted aircraft, associated command and control base stations, and support facilities provided by the AGS’ main operating base at Sigonella, Italy. Using advanced radar sensors, these systems will continuously detect and track moving objects and will provide radar imagery of areas of interest and stationary objects. The system will be fully trained and equipped to participate in NATO-approved operations worldwide, and available at graduated levels of readiness.

Evolution

Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE) was activated on 2 April 1951, in Rocquencourt, France, as part of an effort to establish an integrated and effective NATO military force. Allied Command Atlantic (ACLANT), headed by Supreme Allied Commander Atlantic (SACLANT), was activated a year later, on 10 April 1952.

In 1967, after France’s withdrawal from NATO’s integrated military structure, SHAPE was relocated to Mons, Belgium.

The London Declaration of July 1990 was a decisive turning point in the history of the Alliance and led to the adoption of the new Alliance Strategic Concept in November 1991, reflecting a broader approach to
security. This in turn led to NATO’s Long Term Study to examine the Integrated Military Structure and put forward proposals for change to the Alliance’s force structures, command structures and common infrastructure.

In essence, the Cold War command structure was reduced from 78 headquarters to 20 with two overarching Strategic Commanders, one for the Atlantic, and one for Europe; there were three Regional Commanders under Supreme Allied Commander Atlantic (SACLANT) and two under Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR).

During the 2002 Prague Summit, NATO’s military command structure was again reorganised with a focus on becoming leaner and more efficient. The former Allied Command Europe (ACE) became Allied Command Operations (ACO). Supreme Allied Commander Europe and his staff at Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE) situated in Mons, Belgium, were henceforth responsible for all Alliance operations, including those previously undertaken by ACLANT. At the same time, the former Allied Command Atlantic became Allied Command Transformation (ACT), with different functions. The reform resulted in a significant reduction in headquarters and Combined Air Operations Centres – from 32 command centres down to nine – and reflected a fundamental shift in Alliance thinking.

In 2010, the decision was taken to conduct a far-reaching reform of the NATO Command Structure as part of an overall reform of NATO. The reform was conducted with the development of the Strategic Concept 2010 firmly in mind and has focused on ensuring that the Alliance can confront the security challenges of the 21st century effectively and efficiently. The command structure is forward-looking and flexible, as well as leaner and more affordable. In comparison to the previous structures, it provides a real deployable, multinational command and control capability at the operational level. It also offers a more coherent structure that will be understood by other international organisations and partners.

The current command structure was approved by NATO defence ministers in June 2011 and transitioned to its current format (Transition Day) on 1 December 2012. Building on these achievements, more reforms were initiated in June 2011 to further increase the flexibility of ACO and provide a deployable command and control (C2) capability at the operational level, offering choices and options for rapid intervention that were not previously available to the Alliance. Moreover, as a consequence, a Communication and Information Systems (CIS) Group was formed as part of the military command structure to provide additional deployable communication and information systems support. The reform has led to an estimated reduction in personnel of approximately 30 per cent (from 13,000 to 8,800). The military command structure has been downsized from 11 entities to 71.

In 2017, NATO defence ministers agreed on an outline for future work to adapt the NATO Command Structure to new challenges and in June 2018, they agreed to:

- a new command for the Atlantic, based in Norfolk, Virginia, in the United States, to ensure that sea lines of communication between Europe and North America remain free and secure;
- a new command to improve the movement of troops and equipment across Europe, based in Ulm, Germany; and
- a new cyberspace operations centre to strengthen cyber defences and integrate cyber capabilities into NATO planning and operations based in Belgium.

These initiatives were approved at the Summit in Brussels in July 2018.

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1 These figures cover Allied Command Operations and Allied Command Transformation.
Warfare development requires expert evaluation of trends and future threats, capability development, education, exercises, and the implementation of lessons learned. Allied Command Transformation (ACT) plays a central role in these unique missions, which aim to improve the readiness and credibility of NATO’s posture; they also contribute to allowing the NATO Command Structure (NCS) to efficiently command, control, and support current and future operations and provide a secure and stable transition to crisis and conflict, if need be.

**Highlights**

- ACT is one of two Strategic Commands at the head of NATO’s military command structure. The other is Allied Command Operations (ACO), which is responsible for the planning and execution of all NATO military operations.
- ACT is headed by the Supreme Allied Commander Transformation (SACT), who exercises his responsibilities from headquarters in Norfolk, Virginia, the United States. It is the only NATO command in North America.
- SACT is responsible to the Military Committee for the transformation and development of the Alliance to ensure it is capable of meeting the challenges of today and tomorrow. The Military Committee is the senior military authority in NATO and is under the overall political authority of the North Atlantic Council (NAC).
- This Strategic Command directs various subordinate Joint Commands and has strong links with education and training facilities, as well as with ministries of defence.
- ACT also has links with the NATO Force Structure (NFS) in general, which consists of forces placed at the Alliance’s disposal by the member countries, along with their associated command and control structures.¹

¹ Forces from the NATO Force Structure are available for NATO operations in accordance with predetermined readiness criteria and with rules of deployment and transfer of authority to NATO command that can vary from country to country.
ACT’s role and structure

ACT together with ACO form what is called the NATO Command Structure (NCS), whose prime function is first and foremost to provide the command and control needed to address threats and, should deterrence fail, an armed attack against the territory of any of the NATO Allies. Ultimately, the NCS plays an essential role in preserving cohesion and solidarity within the Alliance, maintaining and strengthening the vital link between Europe and North America, and promoting the principle of equitable sharing among Allies of the roles, risks and responsibilities, as well as the benefits of collective defence.

ACT’s role as warfare development command is two-fold: first, to enable ACO to efficiently conduct current operations; second, to prepare NATO’s future operations. In this context, ACT ensures that NATO’s warfare capabilities maintain future relevance, provides an indispensable understanding of the current and future security environment, and contributes to the development of NATO doctrine, concepts and interoperability standards.

Achievement of a NATO Command Structure that is fit for purpose and fulfils NATO’s three core tasks – collective defense, crisis management and cooperative security – can only be done with the strategic military expertise and interoperability provided by ACT with leverage of its network of nations, Joint Commands, and Centres of Excellence.

ACT is organised around four principal functions:

- strategic thinking;
- development of capabilities;
- education, training and exercises; and
- cooperation and engagement.

These functions are reflected in the composition of ACT, which is comprised of the Norfolk Headquarters and three subordinate entities: one in Norway (Joint Warfare Centre), one in Poland (Joint Force Training Centre) and one in Portugal (Joint Analysis & Lessons Learned Centre). ACT also includes a SACT representative at NATO Headquarters in Brussels, Belgium and at the Pentagon outside Washington D.C., an ACT Staff Element at the ACO Headquarters – Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe or SHAPE – and a shared Military Partnership Directorate (MPD) with ACO, also located at SHAPE.

Additionally, NATO’s other education and training facilities and nationally-run entities, which are not part of the NCS, also coordinate with ACT. This includes the NATO Defense College in Rome, Italy, the NATO School in Oberammergau, Germany, the NATO Maritime Interdiction Operational Training Centre, Greece, and the nationally-run Centres of Excellence. NATO Agencies also interact with ACT on matters of common concern.

Strategic Plans and Policy

The main responsibility of Strategic Plans and Policy is to formulate policies, strategies, engagements and analytical practices that enable SACT to provide strategic foresight, planning, strategy and policy advice, concepts, and strategic engagement to NATO’s political and military leadership.

Capability Development

This is a broad area which covers the entire capability development process, i.e., from the moment a need is identified to the production phase when a new capability is actually developed for the Alliance. Moreover, Capability Development provides a major contribution to the NATO Defence Planning Process improving interoperability, deployability and sustainability of Allied forces.

Joint Force Development

Joint Force Development has responsibilities for NATO Force Development Activities. The aim is to improve interoperability among NCS, NFS as well as interoperable partner forces allocated to NATO, and enhance capabilities, to undertake the full spectrum of Alliance missions.
**SACT Representative in Europe**

The SACT Representative in Europe (SACTREPEUR) is located at NATO Headquarters in Brussels acting as SACT's representative to the Military Committee and attending all relevant activities. SACTREPEUR has the coordinating authority for all ACT engagements with NATO Headquarters and maintains strong links with the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) through his counterpart – the SACEUR Representative (SACEUREP) – also based at NATO Headquarters.

**ACT Staff Element Europe**

The ACT Staff Element Europe (SEE) is co-located with ACO in Mons. It deals primarily with defence and resource planning issues, as well as implementation.

**ACT Liaison Office to the Pentagon**

To help enhance NATO transformation, this office promotes effective links and direct coordination between ACT and the US Joint Staff and other departments in the US military headquarters (Pentagon), located outside Washington D.C.

**Military Partnership Directorate**

The Military Partnership Directorate (MPD) provides direction, control, coordination, support and assessment of military cooperation activities across the Alliance. It directs and oversees all non-NATO country involvement in military partnership programmes, events and activities, and coordinates and implements NATO plans and programmes in the area of partnership. The MPD is shared with ACO and is located at SHAPE in Mons with a Staff Element at the ACT headquarters in Norfolk, Virginia.

**Joint Warfare Centre in Stavanger, Norway**

The Joint Warfare Centre’s (JWC) main task is to train Allied forces at the operational level to ensure they remain interoperable and fully integrated. Its principal mission is the training of the NATO Response Force (NRF) Headquarters’ elements and NRF Component Headquarters’ elements. In addition, it performs collective staff training for partner countries and new NATO members.

The JWC also seeks to improve NATO’s capabilities and interoperability by promoting and conducting NATO’s joint and combined experimentation, analysis and doctrine development processes.\(^2\)

**Joint Force Training Centre in Bydgoszcz, Poland**

The Joint Force Training Centre (JFTC) focuses on joint and combined training of Allied and partner forces at the tactical level. It focuses, in particular, on the conduct of tactical training to achieve joint interoperability at key interfaces – a critically important area identified during military combat in Afghanistan.

As a priority, the JFTC provides expertise to help NATO Response Force (NRF) joint and component commanders ensure that each NRF rotation achieves a high level of interoperability, flexibility and extensive training so as to be combat-ready at the beginning of a cycle of duty.

The Centre cooperates with national training centres, including Partnership for Peace (PiP) Training Centres and Centres of Excellence to ensure the application of NATO standards and doctrine in combined and joint fields.

**Joint Analysis & Lessons Learned Centre in Monsanto, Portugal**

The main role of the Joint Analysis & Lessons Learned Centre (JALLC) is to reinforce the process of continuous improvement of concepts, doctrine and capabilities within NATO through the transformation process, based on lessons learned from operations, training, exercises and experimentation.

As such, the JALLC conducts the analysis of real-world military operations, training, exercises and NATO Concept Development and Experimentation collective experiments, and is responsible for establishing and maintaining a lessons learned database.

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\(^2\) Joint forces are forces from two or more military services (for instance, land, maritime or air) working under a single command; combined forces are forces from different countries working under a single command.
ACT and other entities

There are direct linkages between ACT and entities which are not part of the NATO Command Structure, such as NATO educational and training facilities and Centres of Excellence.

NATO’s educational and training facilities (NETFs)

NATO Defense College

At the political-strategic level, the NATO Defense College (NDC) in Rome, Italy is NATO’s foremost academic institution. The mission of the NDC is to contribute to the effectiveness and cohesion of the Alliance by developing its role as a major centre of education, outreach and research on transatlantic security issues. Since its founding in 1951, several thousand senior officers, diplomats, and other officials have passed through its doors.

NATO School

The NATO School Oberammergau (NSO) in Germany is NATO’s premier individual training and education facility at the operational level. The NSO conducts education and individual training in support of current and developing NATO operations, strategy, policy, doctrine and procedures. The NSO works closely with ACT to offer a broad curriculum geared to meet the challenges of a dynamic security environment.

NATO Maritime Interdiction Operational Training Centre

The NATO Maritime Interdiction Operational Training Centre (NMIOTC) in Souda Bay, Greece is a multi-nationally manned facility. It conducts combined training for NATO forces to execute surface, sub-surface and aerial surveillance, and special operations activities in support of maritime interdiction operations.

Centres of Excellence

Centres of Excellence (COEs) are nationally or multi-nationally funded institutions that train and educate leaders and specialists from NATO member and partner countries, assist in doctrine development, identify lessons learned, improve interoperability and capabilities, and test and validate concepts through experimentation.

Coordinated by ACT, COEs are considered to be international military organisations. Although not part of the NATO Command Structure, they are part of a wider framework supporting NATO Command Arrangements. Designed to complement the Alliance’s current resources, COEs cover a wide variety of areas, with each one focusing on a specific field of expertise to enhance NATO capabilities.

Evolution

Before 2002, the two Strategic Commands were Allied Command Europe (ACE), established in 1951, and Allied Command Atlantic (ACLANT), created a year later in 1952.

ACE, together with ACLANT, were streamlined at the end of the Cold War reducing the NATO Command Structure from 78 headquarters to 20. However, the two overarching Strategic Commanders (SC) were maintained, one for the Atlantic area and one for Europe.

During the 2002 Prague Summit, a decision was made to reorganise the NATO Command Structure and make it leaner and more efficient. Additionally, Alliance thinking fundamentally shifted: the NATO Command Structure was to be based on functionality rather than geography. The former Allied Command Europe (ACE) became the Allied Command Operations (ACO), responsible for all Alliance operations, including the maritime operations previously undertaken by Allied Command Atlantic (ACLANT). As such, one strategic command was focused on NATO’s operations – Allied Command Operations with its headquarters in SHAPE – and the other on transforming NATO – Allied Command Transformation with its Headquarters SACT.

The NATO Command Structure was reviewed once more in June 2011 as part of a wider process of reform, not only to optimise the structure but to include new tasks derived from the 2010 Strategic

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Concept. The two strategic commands were maintained, as well as the Alliance’s levels of ambition, which is the ability of the Alliance to manage two major joint operations and six small joint operations, if required.

In June 2018, NATO Defence Ministers agreed to move forward with an adapted NATO Command Structure (NCS-A) and the Detailed Implementation Plans (DiPlans). Both Strategic Commanders immediately initiated the new structures and capabilities, with ACO as the warfighting command and ACT as the warfare development command.
The Archives Committee assists and advises the North Atlantic Council (NAC) on all archives and records-related matters to ensure the preservation of and public access to information of permanent value held in the NATO Archives. Reporting directly to the NAC, it is the only body tasked with NATO-wide responsibilities related to the corporate management of the Organization’s records and archives.

Formally established in 1999, the Archives Committee is mandated to maintain, implement and update records and archives policies and procedures throughout NATO to ensure all requirements emerging from NATO’s missions are met. It serves as the primary forum of exchange and consultation to facilitate dialogue between the Allies on all records and archives matters.

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**Role of the Archives Committee**

The Archives Committee provides guidance to the NAC regarding the management and preservation of the Alliance’s records and archives. It provides a records and archives perspective to Information Management at NATO by reviewing, expanding and monitoring compliance of policies on the retention, disposition, long-term preservation and public disclosure of information.

To support NATO’s ongoing engagement with the public, the Archives Committee raises awareness of the Organization’s archival heritage through the preservation and public disclosure of records of permanent value related to the evolution of NATO, its missions, consultations and the decision-making process. Members also play an advocacy role with their respective governments to emphasise the need for the NATO Archives, their benefits, and the requirements for proper funding.
Working mechanisms

The Archives Committee

The Archives Committee reports directly to the NAC through an annual report. It normally meets once a year but will meet more often should the need arise. It also holds workshops once or twice a year.

All NATO countries are represented at the meetings either by members of Delegations, senior officials or senior national archivists. A senior member of the International Staff chairs the Archives Committee.

Representatives from the International Staff and the International Military Staff, as well as senior officials from both civil and military bodies at NATO, support the work of the Archives Committee.

On behalf of the Archives Committee, the NATO Archivist is responsible for drafting, publishing and amending NATO-wide policies and directives for the management of NATO’s collective institutional memory. The implementation of these policies and guidelines fall into two main areas of responsibility: declassification and public review, and holdings management.

Declassification and Public Disclosure Review

The Archives Committee aims to foster transparency and increase the understanding of the role of the Alliance by making NATO records available through the Public Disclosure Programme. Through this programme, managed and coordinated by the NATO Archivist, 30 year old records of permanent value are identified and proposed for declassification and public disclosure review. Once approved by the competent authorities in the member countries, the records are made available for public consultation in the NATO Archives Reading Room. Ad hoc requests made by competent authorities in member countries for public disclosure of records less than 30 years old also fall under the responsibility of the Archives Committee.

Holdings Management

The Archives Committee is responsible for ensuring that recognised records and archival management practices and standards are implemented at NATO regarding the retention, disposition and long-term preservation of NATO records. It also oversees the drafting and approval of records and archives policies related to the management of NATO’s operations and the closure of NATO civilian and military bodies.

Evolution of the Archives Committee

In response to requests from researchers and the academic community for the historical documents of the Alliance, the process to establish the Archives Committee, and with it the NATO Archives, began in earnest in 1989.

An ad hoc group composed of members of the International Staff and archival experts from member countries was created to prepare guidance for the release of NATO information. In light of the size of the collection and the volume of work it represented the process was strengthened with the creation of a group of Deputy Permanent Representatives reinforced with national archivists and consultants, who were hired by the Organization to prepare the way for the implementation of a release policy. The consultants recommended that an advisory body be established to assist the Council in the corporate management of the NATO Archives.

The NATO Archives officially opened 19 May 1999 in conjunction with the 50th anniversary of the founding of the Alliance and on 10 September 1999, the mandate of the Archives Committee was officially approved by the NAC. The formal establishment of the Archives Committee and the NATO Archives led to the availability of the Alliance’s records to the public for the first time. With the NATO Archives Online portal, researchers are able to enjoy even greater access to publicly disclosed NATO documents related to the Alliance’s history, evolution and decision-making process.
Arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation in NATO

NATO has a long-standing commitment to an active policy in arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation. The Alliance continues to pursue its security objectives through this policy, while at the same time ensuring that its collective defence obligations are met and the full range of its missions fulfilled.

Highlights

- NATO actively contributes to effective and verifiable arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation efforts through its policies, activities and its member countries. NATO itself is not party to any treaty, but it supports and facilitates dialogue among members, partners and other countries to implement their international obligations fully.
- NATO Allies are parties to the Conventional Armed Forces in Europe (CFE) Treaty, the Ottawa Convention on mine action, the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT), the Chemical Weapons Convention and other related treaties and agreements.
- In the field of weapons of mass destruction (WMD), NATO cooperates with the United Nations (UN), the European Union (EU), other regional organisations and multilateral initiatives to address proliferation issues.
- Nuclear weapons committed to NATO defence have been reduced by more than 90 per cent since the height of the Cold War.
NATO will remain a nuclear alliance as long as there are nuclear weapons in the world, but will do so at the lowest possible level and with an appropriate mix of nuclear and conventional forces.

NATO Allies also assist partner countries in the destruction of surplus stocks of mines, arms and munitions. In addition, former military personnel receive retraining assistance through defence reform Trust Fund projects.

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**Definitions**

While often used together, the terms arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation do not mean the same thing. In fact, experts usually consider them to reflect associated, but different areas in the same discipline or subject.

**Arms control**

Arms control is the broadest of the three terms and generally refers to mutually agreed upon restraints or controls (usually between states) on the development, production, stockpiling, proliferation, deployment and use of troops, small arms, conventional weapons and weapons of mass destruction. Arms control includes agreements that increase the transparency of military capabilities and activities, with the intention of reducing the risk of misinterpretation or miscalculation.

**Disarmament**

Disarmament, often inaccurately used as a synonym for arms control, refers to the act of eliminating or abolishing weapons (particularly offensive arms) either unilaterally (in the hope that one’s example will be followed) or reciprocally. It may refer either to reducing the number of arms, or to eliminating entire categories of weapons.

**Non-proliferation**

For the Alliance, “non-proliferation refers to all efforts to prevent proliferation from occurring, or should it occur, to reverse it by any other means than the use of military force.”¹ Non-proliferation applies to both weapons of mass destruction (including nuclear, chemical and biological weapons) and conventional capabilities such as missiles and small arms.

**Weapons of mass destruction proliferation**

Attempts made by state or non-state actors to develop, acquire, manufacture, possess, transport, transfer or use nuclear, chemical or biological weapons or devices and their means of delivery or related material, including precursors, without prejudice to the rights and obligations of the States Parties to the following agreements: the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons or Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT), the Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, Stockpiling and Use of Chemical Weapons and on their Destruction (CWC) and the Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production and Stockpiling of Bacteriological (Biological) and Toxin Weapons and on their Destruction (BTWC).

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**Ways in which NATO effectively participates**

NATO contributes to arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation in many ways through its policies, its activities and through its member countries.

NATO’s policies in these fields cover consultation and practical cooperation in a wide range of areas. These include conventional arms control; nuclear policy issues; promoting mine action and combatting the spread of small arms and light weapons (SALW); preventing the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction (WMD); and developing and harmonising capabilities to defend against chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) threats.

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¹ According to NATO’s Comprehensive, Strategic-Level Policy for Preventing the Proliferation of Weapons of Mass Destruction (WMD) and Defending Against Chemical, Biological, Radiological and Nuclear (CBRN) Threats.
**Conventional forces**

Allies have reduced their conventional forces significantly from Cold War levels. NATO Allies that are Parties to the CFE Treaty remain committed to the regime of the Treaty. As a response to Russia’s unilateral “suspension” of its Treaty obligations in 2007, NATO CFE Allies ceased implementing certain Treaty obligations vis-à-vis Russia in November 2011, while still continuing to implement fully their obligations with respect to all other CFE States Parties. Allies stated that these decisions are fully reversible should Russia return to full implementation. At the 2012 Chicago Summit, Allies reiterated their commitment to conventional arms control and expressed their determination to preserve, strengthen and modernise the conventional arms control regime in Europe, based on key principles and commitments.

At their three summits since 2014, Allies have reaffirmed their long-standing commitment to conventional arms control as a key element of Euro-Atlantic security and emphasised the importance of full implementation and compliance to rebuild trust and confidence. They underscored that Russia’s unilateral military activity in and around Ukraine has undermined peace, security and stability across the region, and its selective implementation of the Vienna Document and Open Skies Treaty and long-standing non-implementation of the CFE Treaty have eroded the positive contributions of these arms control instruments. Allies called on Russia to fully adhere to its commitments.

**Nuclear forces**

NATO is committed to the goal of creating the conditions for a world without nuclear weapons – but reconfirms that, as long as there are nuclear weapons in the world, NATO will remain a nuclear alliance. However, it will do so at the lowest level consistent with its defence obligations, and with an appropriate mix of nuclear and conventional forces. The nuclear weapons committed to NATO have been reduced by more than 90 per cent since the height of the Cold War, and the role of nuclear weapons in NATO’s defence doctrine has been dramatically reduced. NATO nuclear weapon states have also reduced their nuclear arsenals and ceased production of highly enriched uranium or plutonium for nuclear weapons. Allies remain committed to crafting the conditions for further reductions in the future on the basis of reciprocity, recognising that progress on arms control and disarmament must take into account the prevailing international security environment.

Allies also emphasise their strong commitment to full implementation of the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT) in all its aspects, including nuclear disarmament, non-proliferation and the peaceful uses of nuclear energy. The NPT has been the cornerstone of global non-proliferation and disarmament efforts for nearly 50 years, and has an essential role in the maintenance of international peace, security and stability. The Alliance reaffirms its resolve to seek a safer world for all and to take further practical steps and effective measures to create the conditions for further nuclear disarmament negotiations and the ultimate goal of a world without nuclear weapons in full accordance with all provisions of the NPT, including Article VI, in an ever more effective and verifiable way that promotes international stability, and is based on the principle of undiminished security for all. Allies reiterate their commitment to progress towards the goals and objectives of the NPT in its three mutually reinforcing pillars: nuclear disarmament, non-proliferation and the peaceful uses of nuclear energy.

NATO Allies were also strongly in favour of preserving the Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces (INF) Treaty. Despite years of US and Allied engagement, Russia continued to develop and deploy the SSC-8/9M729 missile system, which violated the Treaty. In December 2018, NATO Foreign Ministers supported the finding of the United States that Russia was in material breach of its obligations under the INF Treaty and called on Russia to urgently return to full and verifiable compliance. Russia, nevertheless, continued to deny its Treaty violation. As a consequence, on 1 February 2019, the United States suspended its obligations under the INF Treaty. The American withdrawal from the Treaty took effect on 2 August 2019, six months after this announcement. During this six month period, Russia continued to deny its Treaty violation and did not honour its obligations through the verifiable destruction of its SSC-8/9M729 system. As such, Allies agree that Russia bears sole responsibility for the demise of the Treaty.

NATO has agreed a balanced, coordinated and defensive package of measures to ensure that the Alliance’s deterrence and defence remains credible and effective in the face of the significant risks posed...
by Russia’s missile system. Allies remain firmly committed to the preservation of effective international arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation.

Armed forces
Through its cooperation framework with non-member countries, the Alliance supports defence and security sector reform, emphasising civilian control of the military, accountability, and restructuring of military forces to lower, affordable and usable levels.

Small arms and light weapons (SALW) and mine action (MA)
Allies are working with non-member countries and other international organisations to support the full implementation of the UN Programme of Action to Prevent, Combat and Eradicate the Illicit Trade in SALW in All its Aspects.

NATO also supports mine action activities across the globe. All NATO member countries, with the exception of the United States, are party to the 1997 Mine Ban Treaty, often referred to as the Ottawa Convention.

NATO’s Partnership for Peace (PfP) Trust Fund Policy was initiated in 2000 to assist countries in fulfilling their Ottawa Convention obligations to dispose of stockpiles of anti-personnel landmines. The policy was later expanded to include efforts to implement the UN Programme of Action on SALW. More recently, the Trust Fund Policy has also been expanded to include projects addressing the consequences of defence reform, training and building integrity.

NATO/Partnership Trust Funds may be initiated by a NATO member or partner country to tackle specific, practical issues linked to these areas. They are funded by voluntary contributions from individual NATO Allies, partners and organisations.

At the 2018 Brussels Summit, NATO Heads of State and Government emphasised the need to do more to achieve lasting calm and an end to violence in the Middle East and North Africa, which face continuing crises and instability with direct implications for the security of NATO. They also made a plea for enhanced practical cooperation, including through further support in the areas of counter-terrorism, small arms and light weapons, countering improvised explosive devices, and military border security.

Weapons of mass destruction (WMD)
"With due respect to the primarily military mission of the Alliance, NATO will work actively to prevent the proliferation of WMD by State and non-State actors, to protect the Alliance from WMD threats should prevention fail, and be prepared for recovery efforts should the Alliance suffer a WMD attack or CBRN event, within its competencies and whenever it can bring added value, through a comprehensive political, military and civilian approach."

NATO stepped up its activities in this area in 1999 with the launch of the WMD Initiative and the establishment of a WMD Centre at NATO Headquarters the following year. NATO Allies engage in preventing the proliferation of WMD by state and non-state actors through an active political agenda of arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation. They also do this by developing and harmonising defence capabilities and, when necessary, by employing these capabilities, consistent with political decisions in support of non-proliferation objectives. Both political and defence elements are essential to NATO’s security, as well as the preparedness for recovery efforts, should it suffer a WMD attack or CBRN event.

The Alliance engages actively to enhance international security through partnership with relevant countries and other international organisations. NATO’s partnership programmes are therefore designed to provide effective frameworks for dialogue, consultation and coordination. They contribute actively to NATO’s arms control, non-proliferation and disarmament efforts.

Of particular importance is the outreach to and cooperation with the United Nations (UN), the European Union (EU), and other organisations and multilateral initiatives that address WMD proliferation.

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2 NATO’s Comprehensive, Strategic-Level Policy for Preventing the Proliferation of Weapons of Mass Destruction (WMD) and Defending Against Chemical, Biological, Radiological and Nuclear (CBRN) Threats, Para 4.
Since 2004, NATO organises the annual non-proliferation conference. This unique event provides a venue for senior national officials to informally discuss WMD threats. The last WMD Conference was held in Brussels, Belgium in October 2019.

Chemical weapons

Since its entry into force in 1997, the Chemical Weapons Convention has become one of the pillars of the global non-proliferation regime. The Convention prohibits the development, transfer and use of chemical weapons. States Parties to the Convention include all NATO member countries; they commit not to develop, produce or acquire, stockpile or retain chemical weapons, nor to transfer, directly or indirectly, chemical weapons to anyone. States Parties also undertake not to engage in any military preparations to use chemical weapons, nor to commit to assist, encourage or induce anyone to engage in prohibited activity.

The first offensive use of a nerve agent on Alliance territory since NATO’s foundation occurred on 4 March 2018 in Salisbury, the United Kingdom. The military grade nerve agent was of a type developed by Russia. Allies agree that the attack was a clear breach of international norms and agreements, and they have called on Russia to disclose the Novichok programme to the Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons.

Allies strongly condemned the repeated use of chemical weapons by the Syrian regime and called for those responsible to be held to account. Despite sustained diplomatic efforts, the Syrian regime’s repeated use of chemical weapons against civilians contributed to appalling human suffering since the start of the conflict in 2011. The use of such weapons was in flagrant violation of international standards and non-proliferation norms, multiple UN Security Council Resolutions, and the Chemical Weapons Convention, which Syria ratified in 2013. NATO considers any use of chemical weapons by state or non-state actors to be a threat to international peace and security.

Evolution of NATO’s contribution to arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation

Active policies in arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation have been an inseparable part of NATO’s contribution to security and stability since the Harmel Report of 1967.

Harmel Report

This report formed the basis for NATO’s security policy. It outlined two objectives: maintaining a sufficient military capacity to act as an effective and credible deterrent against aggression and other forms of pressure while seeking to improve East-West relations. The Alliance’s objectives in arms control have been tied to the achievement of both aims. It is therefore important that defence and arms control policies remain in harmony and are mutually reinforcing.

Comprehensive Concept of Arms Control and Disarmament

In May 1989, NATO adopted the Comprehensive Concept of Arms Control and Disarmament, which allowed the Alliance to move forward in the sphere of arms control. It addressed the role of arms control in East-West relations, the principles of Alliance security and a number of guiding principles and objectives governing Allied policy in the nuclear, conventional and chemical fields of arms control.

It clearly set out the interrelationships between arms control and defence policies and established the overall conceptual framework within which the Alliance sought progress in each area of its arms control agenda.

The Alliance’s Strategic Concept

NATO’s continued adherence to this policy was reaffirmed in the 2010 Strategic Concept (with regard to nuclear weapons):

"It [This Strategic Concept] commits NATO to the goal of creating the conditions for a world without nuclear weapons – but reconfirms that, as long as there are nuclear weapons in the world, NATO will remain a nuclear Alliance."
It continues, on a more general note:

“NATO seeks its security at the lowest possible level of forces. Arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation contribute to peace, security and stability, and should ensure undiminished security for all Alliance members. We will continue to play our part in reinforcing arms control and in promoting disarmament of both conventional weapons and weapons of mass destruction, as well as non-proliferation efforts.”

**Deterrence and Defence Posture Review**

The NATO Deterrence and Defence Posture Review (DDPR), agreed at the Chicago Summit in 2012, addresses issues of arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation. The DDPR document underscores: “The Alliance is resolved to seek a safer world for all and to create the conditions for a world without nuclear weapons in accordance with the goals of the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty, in a way that promotes international stability, and is based on the principle of undiminished security for all”. It also repeats that as long as nuclear weapons exist, NATO will remain a nuclear alliance.

The Special Advisory and Consultative Arms Control, Disarmament and Non-Proliferation Committee (ADNC) was established on the basis of DDPR agreement.

**Summit declarations**

Allied leaders have reiterated their commitment in declarations made at every summit meeting since 1999. For instance, at the Bucharest Summit in 2008, Allied leaders took note of a report on raising NATO’s profile in the fields of arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation. As part of a broader response to security issues, they agreed that NATO should continue to contribute to international efforts in these fields and keep these issues under active review. Subsequently, these commitments were reaffirmed in the official declarations of summits that have since taken place. Additionally, at the 2009 Strasbourg/Kehl Summit, Allied leaders endorsed NATO’s Comprehensive, Strategic-Level Policy for Preventing the Proliferation of Weapons of Mass Destruction (WMD) and Defending Against Chemical, Biological, Radiological and Nuclear (CBRN) Threats.

In the 2016 Warsaw Summit Declaration, the Alliance reaffirmed its long-standing commitment to conventional arms control as a key element of Euro-Atlantic security and emphasised the importance of full implementation and compliance to rebuild trust and confidence. Allied leaders also stated that Russia’s unilateral military activity in and around Ukraine has undermined peace, security and stability across the region, and its selective implementation of the Vienna Document and Open Skies Treaty and long-standing non-implementation of the CFE Treaty have eroded the positive contributions of these arms control instruments. At Warsaw, NATO also continued to call on Russia to preserve the viability of the INF Treaty and condemned the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea (DPRK) for its multiple ballistic missile tests and its nuclear tests, calling DPRK to immediately cease and abandon all its existing nuclear and ballistic missile activities in a complete, verifiable, and irreversible manner and re-engage in international talks.

At the Brussels Summit in 2018, Allies reiterated their long-standing position that arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation have made, and should continue to make, an essential contribution to achieving the Alliance’s security objectives and for ensuring strategic stability and our collective security. NATO has a long track record of doing its part on disarmament and non-proliferation. Allies expressed their position that the INF Treaty has been crucial to Euro-Atlantic security. Furthermore, the Allies also underlined the importance of effective multilateralism and international cooperation, including through the Chemical Weapons Convention and the OPCW, in addressing WMD threats. In that spirit, NATO welcomed the decision by the June 2018 OPCW Conference of States Parties, in particular to ask the independent experts of the OPCW Technical Secretariat to put in place arrangements to identify the perpetrators of the use of chemical weapons in Syria. Allies demanded that all perpetrators of chemical weapons attacks worldwide be held accountable and called upon all countries to join the International Partnership against Impunity for the Use of Chemical Weapons.
NATO bodies dealing with these issues

A number of NATO bodies oversee different aspects of Alliance activities in the fields of arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation. Overall political guidance is provided by the North Atlantic Council, NATO's highest political decision-making body. More detailed oversight of activities and policy in specific areas is provided by a number of bodies, including the High Level Task Force (HLTF) on Conventional Arms Control, the Special Advisory and Consultative Arms Control, Disarmament and Non-Proliferation Committee (ADNC), the Nuclear Planning Group High Level Group (NPG/HLG), the Verification Coordinating Committee (VCC), the Committee on Proliferation (CP) in politico-military and defence format.

Within NATO's cooperative frameworks, the EAPC (in particular, the Ad Hoc Working Group on SALW and Mine Action) has a central role.
Assistance for the refugee and migrant crisis in the Aegean Sea

As Europe faces the greatest refugee and migrant crisis since the end of the Second World War, NATO is providing support to assist with the consequences of this humanitarian crisis.

Highlights

- The current refugee and migrant crisis, caused by conflict and instability on NATO’s southern borders, is being fuelled by human trafficking and criminal networks.
- In February 2016, on the request of Germany, Greece and Turkey, NATO decided to join international efforts in dealing with this crisis.
- NATO is contributing to international efforts to stem illegal trafficking and illegal migration in the Aegean Sea, through intelligence, surveillance and reconnaissance in the Aegean Sea and at the Turkish-Syrian border.
- To this end, NATO is cooperating with the European Union’s border management agency Frontex, in full compliance with international law and the law of the sea.

More background information

NATO’s role and contribution

Following a request from Germany, Greece and Turkey, NATO defence ministers decided on 11 February 2016 to assist with the growing refugee and migrant crisis in Europe. NATO has deployed a maritime force...
in the Aegean Sea to conduct reconnaissance, monitoring and surveillance of illegal crossings, in support of Turkish and Greek authorities and the EU’s Frontex agency.

NATO maritime forces are deployed in the Aegean Sea to contribute critical, real-time information to Greece and Turkey, as well as to Frontex, in light of the ongoing humanitarian crisis.

NATO’s Standing NATO Maritime Group 2 (SNMG2) is conducting reconnaissance, monitoring and surveillance of illegal crossings in the territorial waters of Greece and Turkey, as well as in international waters with its maritime and air assets. It is sharing whatever relevant information it finds with the Greek and Turkish coast guards and authorities. Greece and Turkey will only be operating in their own territorial waters and airspace. NATO is also sharing this information in real-time with Frontex so that it can take even more effective action. Since NATO’s ships are larger than Frontex vessels, NATO sensors and radars have a broader reach and complement Frontex assets.

The purpose of NATO’s deployment is to assist Allies and Frontex in carrying out their duties in the face of the crisis. In accordance with international law, all ships that sail, including NATO ships, have to rescue people in distress at sea. Allied vessels will live up to their national responsibility to assist.

### Composition and command of the deployments

The activity has been performed using part of the SNMG2 assets, significantly reinforced by additional ships provided by NATO Allies. On average, there have been around six ships involved in the Aegean.

SNMG2 is one of two Standing NATO Maritime Groups – SNMG1 and SNMG2. SNMGs fall under the authority of Allied Maritime Command (MARCOM), Northwood, United Kingdom. These are multinational, integrated maritime forces made up of vessels from various Allied countries. These vessels are permanently available to NATO to perform different tasks ranging from exercises to operational missions. They function according to the operational needs of the Alliance, therefore helping to maintain optimal flexibility. Their composition varies and they are usually composed of between two and six ships from as many NATO member countries.

### NATO-EU cooperation

The refugee and migrant crisis is the worst humanitarian crisis Europe has witnessed since 1945. NATO has established arrangements enabling direct links with Frontex at the operational and tactical levels. This allows the exchange of liaison officers and the sharing of information in real-time so that Frontex can take even more effective action. In April 2016, a Frontex liaison officer first embarked on the flagship and, since February 2016, the NATO Secretary General has held discussions on the refugee and migrant crisis with several EU counterparts.
NATO’s assistance to Iraq (Archived)

The Alliance demonstrated its commitment to helping Iraq create effective armed forces and, ultimately, provide for its own security by establishing the NATO Training Mission-Iraq (NTM-I) in 2004. It was withdrawn from Iraq on 31 December 2011 when the mandate of the mission expired and agreement could not be reached on the legal status of NATO troops operating in the country.

*Highlights*

- The NATO Training Mission-Iraq or NTM-I was established in 2004 to help Iraq create effective armed forces.
- It was set up at the request of the Iraqi Interim Government in accordance with UNSCR 1546.
- NTM-I focused on training and mentoring, and on equipment donation and coordination.
- NTM-I trained over 5,000 military personnel and over 10,000 police personnel in Iraq.
- The mission was discontinued in 2011 because there was no longer any agreement on the legal status of NATO troops operating in the country.

The NTM-I was set up in accordance with the UN Security Council Resolution 1546 and at the request of the Iraqi Interim Government. It was not a combat mission. Its operational emphasis was on training and mentoring, and on equipment donation and coordination through the NATO Training and Equipment Co-ordination Group. From 2004 to 2011, it trained over 5,000 military personnel and over 10,000 police personnel in Iraq. Nearly 2,000 courses were provided in Allied countries and over 115 million euro’s
worth of military equipment and a total of over 17.5 million euros in trust fund donations from 26 Allies for training and education at NATO facilities.

The aim of NTM-I was to help Iraq develop a democratically-led and enduring security sector. In parallel and reinforcing the NTM-I initiative, NATO and the Iraqi government established a structured cooperation framework to develop the Alliance’s long-term partnership with Iraq.

The aim and contours of the mission

NATO helped the Iraqi government build the capability to ensure, by its own means, the security needs of the Iraqi people. It did not have a direct role in the international stabilisation force that was in Iraq from May 2003 until 31 December 2011 (the US-led combat mission “Operation Iraqi Freedom” was succeeded by “Operation New Dawn” in September 2010).

Operationally, NTM-I specialised at the strategic level with the training of mid- to senior-level officers. By providing mentoring, advice and instruction support through in- and out-of-country training and the coordination of deliveries of donated military equipment, NTM-I made a tangible contribution to the rebuilding of military leadership in Iraq and the development of the Iraqi Ministry of Defence and the Iraqi Security Forces (ISF).

In 2007, Allies decided to extend their training assistance to Iraq by including gendarmerie-type training of the federal police in order to bridge the gap between routine police work and military operations. In December 2008, on the request of Prime Minister Al-Maliki, NATO expanded the Mission to other areas including navy and air force leadership training, defence reform, defence institution building, and small arms and light weapons accountability.

NTM-I delivered its training, advice and mentoring support in a number of different settings. Over time, over a dozen member countries and one partner country contributed to the training effort either in or outside Iraq, through financial contributions or donations of equipment.

In-country training and coordinating

- **The Strategic Security Advisor and Mentoring Division**
  The Strategic Security Advisor and Mentoring Division within NTM-I consisted of three mobile teams of advisors who worked in close cooperation with the Iraqi leadership in the Prime Minister’s National Operation Centre, the Minister of Defence’s Joint Operations Centre, and the Minister of Interior’s National Command Centre. Through intensive training programmes and daily mentoring support NATO helped the Iraqis to achieve Full Operational Capability in the three operations centres.

- **The NATO Training, Education and Doctrine Advisory Division**
  The National Defence University is the overarching institution under which Iraqi Officer Education and Training (OET) is managed. A NATO advisory mentoring team, within the NATO Training, Education and Doctrine Advisory Division, assisted the Iraqi Ministry of Defence with the development of a three-year degree course at the military academy at Ar Rustamiyah and a War College to compliment the Joint Staff College for senior security officials. It focused on the training of middle and senior-level personnel so as to help develop an officer corps trained in modern military leadership skills. It also aimed to introduce values that are in keeping with democratically-controlled armed forces.

- **The National Defence College**
  The North Atlantic Council agreed to support the establishment of the Iraqi National Defence College on 22 September 2004 and it was officially opened on 27 September 2005. In 2010, NTM-I personnel advised and assisted the Iraqi Ministry of Defence with the development of syllabi and lectures.

- **The Defence Language Institute (DLI) and Defence and Strategic Studies Institute (DSSI)**
  Located in Baghdad, DLI teaches civilian and military officials English. It is attached to the National Defence College. NATO played a key role in its establishment by advising on the course curriculum and assisting in the acquisition of its facilities, computers and furniture. NTM-I advisors also assisted Iraqis in the DSSI with the establishment of a digital military library capability.
The Armed Forces Training and Education Branch

The Armed Forces Training and Education Branch is part of the on-going standardisation of educational facilities at Ar Rustamiyah. Through this branch, NATO personnel developed and assisted the Non-commissioned Officer and Battle Staff Training courses.

Out-of-country training

NATO training schools

NTM-I also facilitated training outside Iraq at NATO education and training facilities and national Centres of Excellence throughout NATO member countries. In order to allow an increasing number of Iraqi personnel to take part in specialised training outside of Iraq, NATO supported the establishment of the Defence Language Institute mentioned above.

The NATO Training and Equipment Coordination Group

This group, under the control of Allied Command Transformation, was established at NATO HQ on 8 October 2004. Based in Brussels, it worked with the Training and Education Synchronization Cell in Baghdad to coordinate the requirements of the Iraqi government for out-of-country training and equipment that was offered by NATO as a whole or by individual NATO member countries.

Coordinating bilateral assistance

Additionally, NATO helped to coordinate bilateral assistance provided by individual NATO member countries in the form of additional training, equipment donations and technical assistance both in and outside Iraq.

Command of the mission

The NATO mission was a distinct mission, under the political control of NATO’s North Atlantic Council. Nonetheless, NATO’s training missions were coordinated with Iraqi authorities and the US Forces - Iraq (USF-I).

The NTM-I commander, who commanded the NATO effort in the country, was dual-hatted: he was also United States Forces Iraq (USF-I) Deputy Commanding General for Advising and Training (A&T). He reported to the Supreme Allied Commander Operations at SHAPE, Belgium for all matters related to NATO efforts in the country. The latter then reported, via the Chairman of the Military Committee, to the North Atlantic Council.

US Forces - Iraq provided a secure environment for the protection of NATO forces in Iraq. The NATO chain of command had responsibility for close area force protection for all NATO personnel deployed to Iraq or the region.

The evolution of NATO’s training effort in Iraq

In a letter sent to the NATO Secretary General on 22 June 2004, the interim Iraqi Prime Minister Ilyad Allawi requested NATO support to his government through training and other forms of technical assistance.

At their Summit meeting in Istanbul on 28 June 2004 - the day that sovereignty was formally transferred to an Interim Iraqi Government - NATO leaders agreed to assist Iraq with the training of its security forces and encouraged member countries to contribute.

The NATO Training Implementation Mission

A Training Implementation Mission was established on 30 July 2004. Its goal was to identify the best methods for conducting training both inside and outside the country. In addition, the mission immediately began training selected Iraqi headquarters personnel in Iraq.

The first elements of the mission deployed on 7 August, followed by a team of about 50 officers led by Major General Carel Hilderink of the Netherlands.
Expanding NATO's assistance

On 22 September 2004, based on the mission’s recommendations, the North Atlantic Council agreed to expand NATO’s assistance, including establishing a NATO-supported Iraqi Training, Education and Doctrine Centre in Iraq.

In November 2004, NATO’s military authorities prepared a detailed concept of operations for the expanded assistance, including the rules of engagement for force protection.

On 9 December 2004, NATO Foreign Ministers authorised the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) to start the next stage of the mission.

The activation order for this next stage was given by SACEUR on 16 December 2004. It paved the way for the deployment of 300 additional staff, including trainers and support staff, and a significant increase in the existing training and mentoring given to mid- and senior-level personnel from the Iraqi Security Forces.

It also changed the mission’s name from NATO Training Implementation Mission to NATO Training Mission-Iraq.

By February 2005, the new mission was fully staffed and funded.

Niche training options

At the summit meeting in Riga, November 2006, heads of state and government agreed to develop niche training options within the mandate of the NTM-I on the request of the Iraqi Prime Minister. A few months later, training was extended to include gendarmerie-type training of the national police.

In December 2008, the mission was expanded to other areas. These areas included navy and air force leadership training, police training, defence reform, defence institution-building and standardised officer education and training. In 2010, NTM-I expanded once again, with developments within the Training, Education Doctrine Advisory Division and, more specifically, the Officer Education and Training Directorate, where greater interaction and support were developed between trainers and Iraqi participants.

In addition, in response to Minister of Interior Bolani’s request to the Alliance of 8 September 2010, Italy announced its intention on 5 October 2010 to provide specialized training in the area of oil policing to the Government of Iraq. The training constituted an important contribution to the NATO Training Mission Iraq and the Alliance training support activities with the Government of Iraq.

Legal status of NTM-I personnel in Iraq

On 26 July 2009, NATO and the Government of the Republic of Iraq signed an agreement regarding the training of Iraqi Security Forces (LTA). This agreement provided legal protection for NATO to continue with its training mission until the end of 2011. Extension of this mandate did not prove possible so the NTM-I was permanently withdrawn from Iraq on 31 December 2011. However, NATO remains committed to developing a long-term relationship with Iraq through its structured cooperation framework. Following the closure of NTM-I, a NATO Transition Cell was set up in order to bridge from an operational training mission to a sustained partnership. This Transition Cell operated for one year, from June 2012 until end May 2013.

Transition from NTM-I to an enduring partnership

NATO’s commitment to developing a long-term relationship with Iraq materialised in the decision to grant the country partner status in April 2011. Following the closure of NTM-I, a NATO Transition Cell was set up in order to bridge from an operational training mission to a sustained partnership. And a first step was taken in May 2012, when Iraq officially submitted a draft Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme. This programme aims to provide a framework for regular dialogue and training cooperation in areas such as the fight against terrorism, cross-border organised crime and critical energy infrastructure protection.
Atlantic Treaty Association and Youth Atlantic Treaty Association

The Atlantic Treaty Association (ATA) is an independent organisation designed to support the values enshrined in the North Atlantic Treaty. Created on 18 June 1954, it is an umbrella organisation for the separate national associations, voluntary organisations and non-governmental organisations that formed to uphold the values of the Alliance after its creation in 1949. The Youth Atlantic Treaty Association (YATA) is the youth branch of the ATA and was formed in 1996.

Highlights

- The ATA’s role is to educate and inform the public of NATO’s activities and responsibilities, to promote democracy and, more generally, to uphold the values of the North Atlantic Treaty.
- The ATA’s flagship events facilitate networking and policy debates among political leaders, academics, diplomats and journalists from the Euro-Atlantic area and beyond.
- The YATA – the youth branch of the ATA – has a similar role, helping to bridge the gap between policy and younger generations in civil society in the areas of international security and defence.
- The ATA was created in June 1954, becoming the umbrella organisation for existing national associations, while the YATA was formed in 1996.
- Since the end of the Cold War, the activities of the ATA and YATA have increased significantly to include new NATO member states and countries that are engaged in partnership with the Alliance.
More background information

The role of the ATA and YATA

ATA

The ATA is a community of policy-makers, think tankers, diplomats, academics and representatives from industry. It seeks to inform the public of NATO’s role in international peace and security and promote democracy, individual liberty and the rule of law through debate and dialogue.

To achieve this goal, it holds international seminars and conferences and launches initiatives, such as the Central and South Eastern European Security Forum and the Ukrainian Dialogue and Crisis Management Simulations. The ATA is also active in NATO’s Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme, the Mediterranean Dialogue and the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative, launching conferences, seminars and multi-year research programmes. As a result, the ATA’s geographical scope has increased since the end of the Cold War, i.e. since the early 1990s, mirroring NATO’s enlargement and its engagement with an ever-broader number of partner countries in the Euro-Atlantic area and beyond.

The ATA also cooperates with various organisations connected with Euro-Atlantic security, such as member associations of the ATA, the governments of member associations, the European Union, NATO and the NATO Parliamentary Assembly. It also promotes the development of civil society in, for instance, the Black Sea and Caucasus regions, and engages in dialogue with Middle Eastern countries.

More generally, the ATA fosters debate and dialogue in an effort to create a solid understanding of Alliance issues and current security issues such as hybrid warfare, cyber security and terrorism. In addition, it works to develop relations between organisations in different countries by connecting with civil society groups that support the basic principles of the North Atlantic Treaty. Furthermore, it seeks to develop relations between its members in an effort to achieve common goals.

YATA

The ATA’s youth division – YATA – was formed in 1996 during the ATA’s General Assembly in Rome with the aim of reaching out to younger or “successor” generations.

It serves to bring together groups of young professionals working in security and defence, providing an opportunity for networking between themselves and senior level officials from different countries. It works in close cooperation with the ATA, supports its activities and shares its primary goals. They include educating and informing the successor generation about issues concerning international security, supporting research into NATO’s role in the world and encouraging young leaders to shape the future of the transatlantic security relationship while promoting its importance.

The YATA also seeks to encourage cooperation between the youths of NATO member countries and partner countries, and between various international organisations to generate debate about the role of security institutions.

Although the YATA is officially part of the ATA, it also holds separate activities to achieve its objectives, such as its annual Atlantic Youth Seminars in Denmark (DAYS) and Portugal (PAYS), as well as crisis management simulations and regional conferences. The YATA also works with NATO’s Public Diplomacy Division to organise international conferences and seminars where the national YATA chapters are able to meet Alliance leaders and officials, including the NATO Secretary General, to discuss transatlantic security issues.

Working mechanisms

Structure

The ATA is composed of three main bodies: the Assembly, the Bureau and the Council, as well as the YATA and the Committee of Patrons.
The Assembly is the top decision-making body of the ATA and is comprised of delegates from Member, Associate Member and Observer Member associations. With the exception of Observer Members, each delegate has one vote and resolutions are passed by a simple majority. In addition to the delegates, members of the press and academic community, government and military officials, and international observers may attend the General Assembly meetings, which are held once a year.

The Bureau includes the president, vice presidents, secretary general, treasurer, YATA president and the legal adviser. Members of the Bureau assist in carrying out the decisions of the Council and the Assembly and aid in policy matters, in addition to developing relationships with other groups such as the NATO Parliamentary Assembly.

The Council comprises Bureau members plus up to three delegates from each of the ATA Member, Associate Member and Observer Member associations. The ATA allows the Council to take action on its behalf, with the recommendation of the Bureau and the approval of the Assembly. The Council holds two meetings a year: once at NATO Headquarters and once in a host country.

The YATA

The Youth Atlantic Treaty Association is officially part of the ATA. It serves as the youth division of the ATA and has its own structure, activities and programmes. Similarly to the ATA, there are separate national youth divisions.

The Committee of Patrons

The Committee of Patrons is comprised of previous ATA presidents and other people who have served the ATA with merit.

Officers

The President of the ATA is in charge of the general policy of the Association, in addition to acting as its spokesperson. The Assembly, with input from the Council, elects the president for a three-year period.

The ATA Secretary General is in charge of day-to-day operations for the Association, furthering its goals and aims, implementing the decisions of the Assembly, Council and Bureau, and maintaining relationships with various other institutions. The Assembly, with input from the Council and the Bureau, elects the Secretary General for a three-year renewable period.

The Assembly also elects the treasurer, who is in charge of financial matters, for a renewable three-year period.

Membership

There are three different types of membership in the ATA: Members, Associate Members and Observers.

Members

The national associations, which come from NATO member countries, may join the ATA as Members. As such, they may attend and participate in Bureau, Council and Assembly meetings. They also have full voting rights.

Associate Members

The national associations that make up the Associate Members of ATA come from non-NATO countries that have signed up to NATO’s PfP programme. Associate Members may attend and participate in Bureau, Council and Assembly meetings. Once an association’s respective country joins NATO, the association automatically becomes a Member. Much like Members, Associate Members also have full voting rights.
Observer Members

Associations from non-NATO countries that have a direct interest in Euro-Atlantic security issues can participate in the ATA under the status of Observer Members. As Observer Members, the national associations may attend and participate in Council and Assembly meetings, but not Bureau meetings. Also, unlike Members and Associate Members, Observer Members have no voting rights.

Evolution of the ATA

Following the creation of the Alliance in 1949, several separate organisations in NATO member countries formed with the aim of informing the public of NATO’s role and activities. A few years later, these organisations came together under the umbrella of the Atlantic Treaty Association when the latter was established on 18 June 1954.

Public debates and discussions focused on NATO’s activities during the Cold War, but with the dissolution of the Soviet Union – and with it the Warsaw Pact – the ATA’s focus expanded. The ATA examines security issues related to Central and Eastern European countries, the Balkans, North Africa and the Middle East, as well as the Caucasus and Central Asia.

The creation of the YATA in 1996 enabled the organisation to tailor communication specifically toward younger generations in an effort to raise awareness, while continuing to work with other opinion multipliers across the Euro-Atlantic region and beyond. In 2018, the ATA launched three task forces to provide support in areas of strategic interest for the Association and the Alliance: the ATA Task Force Women, Peace and Security, dedicated to empowering women and supporting balanced gender inclusiveness in the field of defence and security; the ATA-YATA Integrated Task Force for Communication, which uses the potential multiplier effect of the network of ATAs and YATAs in nearly 40 countries; and the ATA Task Force on Disinformation and Malign Influence, which principally analyses trends and provides training and capacity-building to ATA and YATA Chapters, as well as recommendations.
Aviation Committee

The Aviation Committee (AVC) is the senior civil-military NATO body which advises the North Atlantic Council on all relevant aspects contributing to aviation safety and security, in support of the full range of NATO’s missions.

Highlights

- The Aviation Committee’s mission is to advise the North Atlantic Council (NAC) on aspects contributing to aviation safety and security, in support of the full range of NATO’s missions.
- The AVC will enable the Alliance to adapt to the rapidly evolving security environment and to engage in global aviation modernisation efforts pursuing Alliance core tasks to operate, train and exercise in an increasingly complex and networked airspace.
- The AVC acts as NATO’s primary interface with international and regional civil aviation organisations and other relevant civil and military institutions in the aviation domain.
- The Committee reports directly to the NAC – NATO’s principal political decision-making body.
- Established in January 2016 by the NAC, it replaces the former Air Traffic Management Committee.

More background information

Responsibilities

In order to achieve its mission, the primary AVC responsibility is to advise the NAC and seek guidance on all aviation matters of NATO interest and/or concern and to develop, represent and promote consensus views on related NATO policies, programmes and capabilities.

The focus lies on enhancing the overall effort and coherence of policy and capability development concerning relevant aspects of aviation with emphasis on interoperability, coordination of airspace access, rapid air mobility across the Alliance, airworthiness, integration of Unmanned Aircraft Systems (UAS), evaluation of cyber defence and other potential security threats to the aviation system. Another major task is assessing civil aviation projects which could affect the Alliance’s missions and capabilities, including the modernisation initiatives concerning safety, network capacity, effectiveness and
environmental impact, such as the Single European Sky (SES/SESAR) in Europe and the Next Generation Air Transportation System (NEXTGEN) in the United States.

In fulfilling its tasks, the AVC is supported by:

- The Air Traffic Management – Communications, Navigation and Surveillance Advisory Group (ATM – CNS AG), established in 2011, providing policy guidance, standards and capability development on matters related to air traffic management, aeronautical systems and technologies, airfield capabilities, manned aircraft and UAS, on the basis of NATO ATM Policy;

- The Airworthiness Advisory Group (AWAG), providing guidance and standards on the implementation of NATO Airworthiness Policy on the basis of the principles of economy of effort, cooperation and interoperability;

- The joint NATO/Eurocontrol ATM Security Coordinating Group, established in 2003 on the basis of the Memorandum of Cooperation between the two organisations to act as a central civil and military platform to address aviation security issues of common concern, including cyber defence and the handling of air security incidents.

### Framework

AVC meetings are chaired by the Director of the Armament and Aerospace Capabilities Directorate in NATO’s Defence Investment (DI) Division. A major requirement for use of airspace is worldwide coordination, so AVC meetings are organised in two formats.

The first one is restricted to NATO’s member states in order to enable the Allies to discuss sensitive aviation topics and to work on specific NATO aviation policies and capabilities.

The second one allows the Alliance and its partners to assess global and regional aviation developments and to consolidate coordinated and coherent policies and lines of action in support of aviation safety and security objectives. The AVC receives advice and support from representatives of the main international civil aviation organisations and relevant European Union institutions, including the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), the International Air Transport Association (IATA), Eurocontrol, the European Commission, the European Defence Agency, the European Aviation Safety Agency (EASA) and the US Federal Aviation Administration (FAA).
AWACS: NATO’s ‘eyes in the sky’

NATO operates a fleet of Boeing E-3A Airborne Warning & Control System (AWACS) aircraft, with their distinctive radar domes mounted on the fuselage, which provide the Alliance with air surveillance, command and control, battle space management and communications. NATO Air Base (NAB) Geilenkirchen, Germany, is home to 14 AWACS aircraft.

Highlights

- NATO operates a fleet of Boeing E-3A Airborne Warning & Control System (AWACS) aircraft equipped with long-range radar and passive sensors capable of detecting air and surface contacts over large distances.
- The NATO Airborne Early Warning and Control Force (NAEW&C Force) is one of the few military assets that is actually owned and operated by NATO.
- It conducts a wide range of missions such as air policing, support to counter-terrorism, evacuation operations, embargo, initial entry and crisis response.
- Under normal circumstances, the aircraft operates for about eight hours, at 30,000 feet (9,150 metres) and covers a surveillance area of more than 120,000 square miles (310,798 square kilometres).
- The fleet is involved in the reassurance measures following the Russia-Ukraine crisis, and in the tailored assurance measures for Turkey against the background of the Syrian crisis.
- NATO AWACS aircraft are also providing surveillance and situational awareness to the Global Coalition to Defeat ISIS, thereby making the skies safer.
- AWACS surveillance aircraft played an important role in NATO operations such as in the United States after 9/11, in Libya and in Afghanistan. It also provided air support to secure NATO summits or international sporting events.
More background information

Role and capabilities

The NATO E-3A (or AWACS) is a modified Boeing 707 equipped with long-range radar and passive sensors capable of detecting air and surface contacts over large distances. Information collected by AWACS can be transmitted directly from the aircraft to other users on land, at sea or in the air.

The NATO Airborne Early Warning and Control Force (NAEW&C Force) is the Alliance’s largest collaborative venture and is an example of what NATO member countries can achieve by pooling resources and working together in a truly multinational environment.

The NAEW&C Force conducts a wide range of missions such as air policing, support to counter-terrorism, consequence management, non-combatant evacuation operations (NEO), embargo, initial entry, crisis response and demonstrative force operations.

The aircraft is able to track and identify potentially hostile aircraft operating at low altitudes, as well as provide fighter control of Allied aircraft. It can simultaneously track and identify maritime contacts, and provide coordination support to Allied surface forces.

Under normal circumstances, the aircraft can operate for about eight hours (and longer with air-to-air refuelling) at 30,000 feet (9,150 metres).

The active surveillance sensors are located in the radar dome (“rotodome”), which makes the AWACS such a uniquely recognisable aircraft. This structure rotates once every 10 seconds and provides the AWACS aircraft with 360-degree radar coverage that can detect aircraft out to a distance of more than 215 nautical miles (400 kilometres).

One aircraft flying at 30,000 feet has a surveillance area coverage of more than 120,000 square miles (310,798 square kilometres) and three aircraft operating in overlapping, coordinated orbits can provide unbroken radar coverage of the whole of Central Europe.

Operational contributions

In recent years, the Force has been deployed on increasingly complex and demanding tactical missions, including:
- support to maritime operations;
- close air support (CAS);
- airspace management;
- combat search and rescue (CSAR);
- disaster relief; and
- counter-piracy.

Critical asset for crisis management

Since it commenced flight operations in 1982, the NAEW&C Force has proven to be a key asset in crisis management and peace-support operations.

Following the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait in 1990, aircraft from the NATO E-3A Component (NATO Air Base (NAB) Geilenkirchen) deployed to eastern Turkey to help reinforce NATO’s southern flank during the war. Operation Anchor Guard included monitoring air and sea traffic in the eastern Mediterranean and providing airborne surveillance along the Iraqi-Turkish border. The mission was conducted from August 1990 to March 1991.

For most of the 1990s, aircraft from both the NATO and United Kingdom’s AEW&C fleets operated extensively in the Balkans, supporting United Nations resolutions and Alliance missions in Bosnia and
Herzegovina and Kosovo during Operations Deliberate Force and Allied Force. AWACS aircraft from the French Air Force (Armée de l’air) and the US Air Force also helped achieve the objectives of these missions.

From 2007 until 2016, the NAEW&C Force was used successfully in support of NATO’s counter-terrorism activities in the Mediterranean Sea during Operation Active Endeavour.

During Operation Unified Protector in 2011, the NAEW&C Force also performed the crucial function of commanding and controlling all Alliance air assets operating over Libya. This included the issuing of real-time tactical orders and taskings to NATO fighter aircraft, surveillance and reconnaissance aircraft, air-to-air refuellers or unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs). AWACS aircraft also supported Allied ships and submarines enforcing the maritime arms embargo against Libya by providing an aerial maritime surveillance capability.

From 2011 until 2014, aircraft from NAB Geilenkirchen were deployed to Afghanistan to support the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) by providing air surveillance coverage as part of Operation Afghan Assist. In Afghanistan, AWACS aircraft conducted air surveillance, tactical battle management functions such as support and control of friendly aircraft involved in close air support, battlefield air interdiction, combat search and rescue, reconnaissance, and tactical air transport.

On 25 September 2014, the last NATO AWACS aircraft returned to its home base in Geilenkirchen from Mazar-e Sharif, Afghanistan. NATO had decided that AWACS aircraft would not be required for the Resolute Support Mission stood up on 1 January 2015 as the new mission focused on training, advising and assisting Afghan forces.

Assuring Allies

In early 2001, the Force also supported NATO’s defensive deployment to southeastern Turkey during Operation Display Deterrence.

In the wake of the 9/11 terrorist attacks in the United States in 2001, AWACS aircraft were deployed to the mainland US to help defend North America against further attacks during Operation Eagle Assist. This represented the first time in Alliance history that NATO assets were deployed in support of the defence of one of its member nations.

On 1 December 2015, NATO foreign ministers took steps to further the Alliance’s adaptation to security challenges from the south and agreed on tailored assurance measures for Turkey that are meant to contribute to de-escalation in the region. This support includes AWACS surveillance flights; increased naval presence in the eastern Mediterranean; Standing Naval Forces port calls; participation in exercises; enhanced air policing; and maritime patrol aircraft flights.

On 11 February 2016, a significant milestone was reached when AWACS aircraft completed the 1,000th mission in support of NATO reassurance measures. These measures are a series of land, sea and air activities in, on and around the territory of NATO Allies in Central and Eastern Europe, designed to reassure their populations and deter potential aggression. They are taken in response to Russia’s aggressive actions to NATO’s east.

Global Coalition to Defeat ISIS

On 11 February 2016, NATO defence ministers decided in principle that NATO AWACS surveillance planes will backfill national AWACS capabilities in support of the international coalition to counter ISIL. This decision was made in response to a request from the United States.

In July 2016, Allies agreed in principle to enhance the Alliance’s contribution to the efforts of the international counter-ISIL coalition by providing direct NATO AWACS support to increase the Coalition’s situational awareness.

The first NATO AWACS flight in support of the Coalition fighting ISIL took place on 20 October 2016. Operating from Konya Airfield in Turkey, the aircraft support the Coalition’s overall air picture by providing surveillance and situational awareness, thereby making the skies safer.

NATO’s AWACS aircraft do not coordinate Coalition air strikes or provide command and control for fighter aircraft. AWACS aircraft only fly over international airspace or over Turkey. AWACS can detect aircraft
hundreds of kilometres away so they can monitor airspace in Iraq and Syria from inside Turkey. This is an important contribution to the counter-ISIL effort and a clear signal of NATO's determination to help fight terrorism.

In May 2017, Allies agreed to increase their support to the Global Coalition to Defeat ISIS with more AWACS flying hours helping to improve airspace management for the Coalition.

Protecting NATO populations

As a consequence of the 9/11 attacks, NATO governments requested the air surveillance and control capability offered by the NAEW&C Force to assist with security for major public occasions.

These high-visibility events have included the 2004 Summer Olympic Games in Greece, the 2006 World Cup Football Championship in Germany, the 2012 European Football Championship in Poland as well as important meetings held by other international organisations such as the 2010 Nobel Prize award ceremony in Sweden, the 2013 Dutch royal handover in Amsterdam, the Netherlands, and the 2014 Nuclear Security Summit in The Hague, the Netherlands.

Further, the NAEW&C fleets have consistently provided support to NATO summit meetings.

Structure

Multinational cooperation is the key characteristic of the NAEW&C Programme Management Organisation (NAPMO). Currently, the 16 full NAPMO nations are: Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Spain, Turkey and the United States.

The United Kingdom exercises limited participation as a NAPMO member, but its fleet of E-3D aircraft is an integral part of the NAEW&C Force. France has an observer role and maintains continual coordination to ensure its E-3F aircraft remain interoperable with the other E-3 fleets. France also often assists in coordinated operations with the NAEW&C Force.

The NAEW&C Force Headquarters is co-located with NAB Geilenkirchen and exercises operational control over the Force, consisting of two operational units:

- the E-3A Component based at NAB Geilenkirchen, which operates the 14 NATO-owned NATO E-3A aircraft (the squadrons are manned by integrated international crews from 16 nations); and
- the E-3D Component based at Royal Air Force (RAF) Waddington, United Kingdom, which operates its six Boeing E-3D aircraft (the component is manned by RAF personnel only).

The Force also maintains three forward-operating bases (FOBs) at Konya in Turkey, Aktion in Greece, Trapani in Italy, and a forward-operating location (FOL) at Ørland, Norway.

The AWACS programme, including execution of modernisation projects, is managed on a day-to-day basis by the NAEW&C Programme Management Agency (NAPMA), which is located in Brunssum, the Netherlands. The agency is staffed by military officers seconded to the agency and by civilian officials from the nations participating in the programme. In 2011, the NAPMA General Manager was assigned by the NAPMO nations as the Technical Airworthiness Authority (TAA) for the NATO E-3A fleet. Supported by a dedicated engineering office, the TAA shares responsibilities for airworthiness certification, together with the NAEW&C Force Commander, who is responsible for operations and support of the fleet.

History

During the 1960s, it became clear that military aircraft could no longer fly high enough to avoid surface-to-air missiles. To survive in an increasingly lethal air defence environment, aircraft were forced down to levels little higher than tree-top. By the 1970s, the requirement to detect high-speed combat aircraft with low-level penetration capability made it necessary to augment NATO’s system of ground-based radars with new means.

The NATO military authorities determined that an Airborne Early Warning (AEW) capability would provide the key to meeting the challenge. The operational requirement for the NATO AEW system stressed the
need to detect small, high-speed intruder aircraft at long range. The need to detect maritime surface targets (such as ships and boats) was also specified because of the geographical regions where the AEW aircraft would have to operate. The inherent mobility and flexibility of the system, especially for control function, were also foreseen by NATO planners as providing air, maritime, and land force commanders with an enhanced command and control (C2) capability. The creation of a NATO AEW Force was therefore designed to make a significant contribution to the Alliance’s deterrent posture.

In December 1978, the NATO Defence Planning Committee approved the joint acquisition of 18 aircraft based on the US Air Force (USAF) Airborne Warning and Control System (AWACS), to be operated as an Alliance-owned Airborne Early Warning System. In addition to the delivery of the 18 E-3A aircraft between February 1982 and May 1985, the NAEW&C programme included the upgrade of 40 NATO Air Defence Ground Environment (NADGE) sites and the establishment of a main operating base (MOB) at Geilenkirchen, Germany, along with three FOBs and an FOL.

Transformation and evolution

Originally designed as an elevated radar platform, the AWACS aircraft has constantly evolved to address the realities of geopolitical change and NATO’s new mission over the last 30 years. In emphasising the control aspect of the AEW&C, the AWACS aircraft has become an essential part of air battle management and has continued to remain operationally relevant through successive modernisation programmes involving state-of-the-art engineering and manufacturing developments. From the Initial NAEW&C Acquisition Programme through to the Final Lifetime Extension, the NAPMO nations have collectively spent/committed approximately USD 13 billion – prohibitively expensive for any single country, but realisable through the collective contribution of the NAPMO nations.

All AWACS aircraft undergo continuous modifications for modernisation and for operations and support. The last round of modernisation, known as the Follow-on Upgrade Programme (FUP), enhanced the systems to support the situational awareness of cooperating units (Mode 5/Enhanced Mode S), while replacing the analogue cockpit with modern, digital technology (known as a “glass” cockpit). In December 2018, the last upgraded aircraft was delivered to NATO by the prime contractor, ensuring the fleet’s compliance with current and foreseen air traffic management requirements. Communication systems which use Internet Protocol (IP) are also being developed and fielded to support text communications with other command and control (C2) assets.

NATO’s AWACS fleet is currently embarking upon a final modernisation effort to extend its service life to 2035. Valued at USD 1 billion and funded by the 16 Allies participating in the AWACS programme, this effort will provide AWACS with sophisticated new communications and networking capabilities, including upgrades to the NE-3A’s data link and voice communications capabilities, and enhanced Wide-Band Beyond Line-of-Sight airborne networking capability. The modernisation contract has been awarded to Boeing as prime contractor with contributions from other participating Allies’ industries.

Future

NATO’s E-3 AWACS fleet is predicted to retire around 2035. At the Warsaw Summit in 2016, Allies declared that “by 2035, the Alliance needs to have a follow-on capability to the E-3 AWACS. Based on high-level military requirements, we have decided to collectively start the process of defining options for future NATO surveillance and control capabilities.” This effort has since been carried forward as the Alliance Future Surveillance and Control (AFSC) initiative.

In February 2017, NATO defence ministers agreed to embark upon the AFSC Concept Stage, comprised of a series of studies to evaluate new technologies and explore a system-of-systems approach, including potential combinations of air, ground, space or unmanned systems networked together to collect and share information. These studies will eventually help to inform decisions by NATO, individual Allies or multinational groups to acquire new systems in the future. All 29 NATO Allies currently cooperate in the planning and resourcing of AFSC.

In December 2018, the North Atlantic Council declared the first phase of the AFSC Concept Stage complete on schedule and on budget, and agreed to advance into the second phase.
In the second phase now underway, NATO will tap into the expertise of Alliance industries. In 2019, a series of industrial competitions will be launched to propose the art of the possible to meet NATO’s requirements for 2035.
Ballistic missile defence

Proliferation of ballistic missiles poses an increasing threat to NATO populations, territory and forces. Many countries have ballistic missiles or are trying to develop or acquire them. NATO ballistic missile defence (BMD) is part of the Alliance’s response against the increasing threat and of its core task of collective defence.

Highlights

- In 2010, Allies decided to develop a territorial BMD capability to pursue NATO’s core task of collective defence.
- NATO has the responsibility to protect its European populations, territory and forces in light of the increasing proliferation of ballistic missiles and against threats emanating from outside the Euro-Atlantic area.
- NATO BMD is purely defensive; it is a long-term investment to address a long-term security threat.
- In July 2016, Allies declared Initial Operational Capability of NATO BMD, which offers a stronger capability to defend Alliance populations, territory and forces across southern NATO Europe against a potential ballistic missile attack.
- NATO BMD capability combines assets commonly funded by all Allies as well as voluntary contributions provided by individual Allies.
- Several Allies already offered their contributions or are undergoing development or acquisition of further BMD assets such as upgraded ships with BMD-capable radars, ground-based air and missile defence systems or advanced detection and alert capabilities.
More background information

Introduction and components

Introduction

At the Lisbon Summit in November 2010, NATO leaders decided to develop a territorial BMD capability. At that time, the Alliance decided to expand the scope of its already ongoing Active Layered Theatre Ballistic Missile Defence (ALTBMD) programme beyond the protection of NATO deployed forces to also provide territorial missile defence.

At the Chicago Summit in May 2012, the Alliance declared the achievement of the Interim NATO BMD capability. It provided an operationally significant first step and offered maximum coverage within the available means to defend populations, territory and forces across southern NATO Europe against a potential ballistic missile attack.

In July 2016, Allies declared the achievement of the Initial Operational Capability of NATO BMD, which offers a stronger capability to defend Alliance populations, territory and forces across southern NATO Europe against a potential ballistic missile attack.

The increasing threat posed by the proliferation of ballistic missiles in the vicinity of the south-east border of the Alliance has been, and remains a driver in NATO’s development and deployment of a ballistic missile defence system, which is configured to counter threats from outside the Euro-Atlantic area. The final aim of NATO BMD is to provide full coverage and protection for all NATO European populations, territory and forces against the increasing threats posed by the proliferation of ballistic missiles. This coverage is based on the principles of indivisibility of Allied security and NATO solidarity, equitable sharing of risks and burdens, as well as reasonable challenge. It also takes into account the level of threat, affordability and technical feasibility, and is in accordance with the latest common threat assessments agreed by the Alliance. Should international efforts reduce the threats posed by ballistic missile proliferation, NATO missile defence can, and will, adapt accordingly.

Components

NATO BMD is based on voluntary national contributions, including nationally funded interceptors and sensors, hosting arrangements and on the command and control backbone delivered through the NATO BMD Programme. Only these command and control systems are eligible for common funding.

The United States contributes to NATO BMD through its European Phased Adaptive Approach (EPAA). Turkey is hosting a US BMD radar at Küreçik; Romania is hosting a US Aegis Ashore site at Deveselu Air Base; Germany is hosting the command centre at Ramstein Air Base; and Poland will be hosting another Aegis Ashore site at the Redzikowo Military Base. Additionally, in the context of the EPAA, Spain is hosting four multi-mission BMD-capable Aegis ships at its naval base in Rota. All of these assets are voluntary national contributions and are integral parts of the NATO BMD capability.

Several Allies currently offer further ground-based air and missile defence systems (such as Patriot or SAMP/T) or complementary ships as a force protection of other BMD assets. Other Allies are also developing or acquiring BMD-capable assets that could eventually be made available for NATO BMD.

Mechanisms

The Defence Policy and Planning Committee on Missile Defence (DPPC MD) is the senior committee under the North Atlantic Council that oversees and coordinates all efforts at the political-military level to develop the NATO BMD capability. It also provides political-military advice on NATO BMD.

The Conference of National Armaments Directors (CNAD) is the senior committee responsible for steering the BMD programme aimed at developing the necessary technical functionalities for BMD planners and operators.

NATO Military Authorities are responsible for developing a military doctrinal framework for BMD and related operational planning, training and execution.
The Air and Missile Defence Committee (AMDC) is the senior committee responsible for overall policy aspects of NATO Integrated Air and Missile Defence (IAMD).

Several other NATO senior committees address NATO BMD in the context of broader topics, such as civil emergency planning or crisis management.

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**Evolution**

The key policy document providing the framework for NATO’s activities in the area of BMD is NATO’s 2010 Strategic Concept. In addition, BMD is an important aspect of the Deterrence and Defence Posture Review of 2012.

The Strategic Concept recognises, *inter alia*, that “the proliferation of nuclear weapons and other weapons of mass destruction and their delivery systems, threatens incalculable consequences for global stability and prosperity. During the next decade, proliferation will be most acute in some of the world’s most volatile regions”. “Therefore, NATO will develop the capability to defend our populations and territories against ballistic missile attack as a core element of our collective defence, which contributes to the indivisible security of our Alliance”. As a defensive capability, BMD will be one element of a broader response to the threat posed by the proliferation of ballistic missiles.

The Deterrence and Defence Posture Review of 2012 states that missile defence can complement the role of nuclear weapons in deterrence; it cannot substitute for them. It is a purely defensive capability and is being established in the light of threats from outside the Euro-Atlantic area. It is expected that NATO’s missile defence capabilities would complicate an adversary’s planning, and provide damage mitigation. Effective missile defence could also provide valuable decision space in times of crisis. Like other weapons systems, missile defence capabilities cannot promise complete and enduring effectiveness. NATO missile defence capability, along with effective nuclear and conventional forces, will signal our determination to deter and defend against any threat from outside the Euro-Atlantic area to the safety and security of our populations.

At the Lisbon Summit in 2010, Allied leaders agreed to address air and missile defence in a holistic way by developing a NATO Integrated Air and Missile Defence System (NATINAMDS). NATINAMDS is based on the previously existing NATO Integrated Air Defence System (NATINADS) enhanced by the new BMD elements.

Since 2003 NATO and Russia engaged in TBMD-related discussions and activities under the auspices of the NATO-Russia Council (NRC). From 2010 onwards, discussions and activities expanded from Theatre Ballistic Missile Defence (TBMD) towards territorial BMD. NATO and Russia examined possible areas for cooperation in this field. Progress, however, was difficult and, in October 2013, NATO-Russia BMD-related discussions were paused by Russia. In April 2014, NATO suspended all practical cooperation with Russia in response to its illegal and illegitimate annexation of Crimea.

**Key milestones**

**NATO**

**May 2001**
NATO launches two parallel feasibility studies for a future Alliance Theatre Ballistic Missile Defence (TBMD) system.

**November 2002**
At the Prague Summit, Allied leaders direct that a missile defence feasibility study be launched to examine options for protecting Alliance forces, territory and populations against the full range of ballistic missile threats.

**June 2004**
At the Istanbul Summit, Allied leaders direct that work on TBMD be taken forward expeditiously.
April 2006
The study concludes that ballistic missile defence is technically feasible within the limits and assumptions of the study. The results are approved by the CNAD.

2007
An update of a 2004 Alliance assessment of ballistic missile threat developments is completed.

April 2008
At the Bucharest Summit, Allied leaders agree that the planned deployment of European-based US BMD assets should be an integral part of any future NATO-wide missile defence architecture. They call for options for a comprehensive ballistic missile defence architecture to extend coverage to all Allied territory not otherwise covered by the US system to be prepared in time for NATO’s next Summit.

April 2009
At the Strasbourg/Kehl Summit, Allies recognise that a future US contribution of important architectural elements could enhance NATO elaboration of Alliance efforts and judge that ballistic missile threats should be addressed in a prioritised manner that includes consideration of the level of imminence of the threat and the level of acceptable risk.

September 2009
The United States announces its plan for the US European Phased Adaptive Approach (EPAA).

November 2010
At the Lisbon Summit, Allied leaders decide to develop a BMD capability to pursue its core task of collective defence. To this end, they decide that the scope of the existing TBMD programme will be expanded beyond the capability to protect forces to also include NATO European populations and territory. In this context, the EPAA and other national contributions are welcomed as valuable to the NATO BMD architecture.

June 2011
NATO defence ministers approve the NATO BMD Action Plan.

September 2011
Turkey announces a decision to host a US-owned missile defence radar as part of the NATO BMD capability.

September 2011
Romania and the United States sign an agreement to base a US Aegis Ashore system in Romania as part of NATO’s BMD capability.

September 2011
An agreement between Poland and the United States on basing a US Aegis Ashore system in Poland enters into force.

September 2011
The Netherlands announces plans to upgrade four air-defence frigates with extended long-range radar systems as its national contribution to NATO’s BMD capability.

October 2011
Spain and the United States announce an agreement to port US Aegis ships in Rota, Spain, as part of the US contribution to NATO’s ballistic missile defence capability.

February 2012
Germany announces a decision to offer its Patriot air- and missile defence systems as a national contribution to NATO’s BMD capability.

April 2012
NATO successfully installs and tests the command and control architecture for the soon to be announced Interim Capability at Allied Air Command in Ramstein, Germany.

May 2012
At the Chicago Summit, Allies declare the Interim NATO BMD Capability, which is an operationally
significant first step, offering the maximum coverage within available means to defend the populations, territory and forces across southern NATO Europe against a ballistic missile attack.

March 2013
The United States announces a revised EPAA.

October 2013
Ground-breaking ceremony for the US Aegis Ashore system in Deveselu, Romania.

2014
First US Aegis destroyer stationed in Rota, Spain in February; second US Aegis destroyer stationed in Rota in June.

August 2014
Denmark announces the decision to acquire a frigate-based radar system for NATO BMD.

September 2014
NATO Summit in Wales. Allies reiterate basic parameters for NATO BMD and note additional contributions offered or considered by Allies.

2015
Third US Aegis destroyer stationed in Rota in April; fourth US Aegis destroyer stationed in Rota in September.

November 2015
The United Kingdom announces it will invest in a ground-based BMD radar, which will enhance the coverage and effectiveness of the NATO BMD capability.

December 2015
The Aegis Ashore site in Deveselu, Romania is technically completed and handed over to military users.

May 2016
The Aegis Ashore site in Deveselu is declared operational.

July 2016
Allies declare Initial Operational Capability of NATO BMD, which offers a stronger capability to defend Alliance populations, territory and forces across southern NATO Europe against a potential ballistic missile attack.

July 2018
At the Brussels Summit, Allied leaders confirm that the next major milestone would be the completion of the core element of NATO BMD Command and Control, to further enhance planning and execution of BMD operations. They also acknowledge that further work would be required to reach the ultimate goal of Full Operational Capability

NATO-Russia Council

2003
A study is launched under the NATO-Russia Council (NRC) to assess possible levels of interoperability among TBMD systems of NATO Allies and Russia.

March 2004
An NRC theatre missile defence command post exercise is held in the United States.

March 2005
An NRC theatre missile defence command post exercise is held in the Netherlands.

October 2006
An NRC theatre missile defence command post exercise is held in Russia.

January 2008
An NRC theatre missile defence computer-assisted exercise takes place in Germany.
December 2010
First meeting of the NRC Missile Defence Working Group aimed at assessing decisions taken at the 2010 Lisbon Summit and exploring a possible way forward for cooperation on ballistic missile defence.

June 2011
NRC Defence Ministers take stock of the work on missile defence since the 2010 Lisbon Summit.

April 2012
A computer-assisted exercise takes place in Ottobrunn, Germany.

October 2013
Russia unilaterally pauses the discussions on missile defence in the NRC framework.

April 2014
In response to the illegal and illegitimate annexation of Crimea by Russia, NATO suspends all practical cooperation with Russia, including on missile defence.
Boosting NATO’s presence in the east and southeast

An important component of NATO’s strengthened deterrence and defence posture is military presence in the eastern and south-eastern parts of Alliance territory. Allies implemented the 2016 Warsaw Summit decisions to establish NATO’s forward presence in Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Poland and to develop a tailored forward presence in the Black Sea region.

Highlights

- NATO has enhanced its forward presence in the eastern part of the Alliance, with four multinational battalion-size battlegroups in Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Poland, on a rotational basis.
- These battlegroups, led by the United Kingdom, Canada, Germany and the United States respectively, are robust, multinational, combat-ready forces. They demonstrate the strength of the transatlantic bond and make clear that an attack on one Ally would be considered an attack on the whole Alliance.
- It is part of the biggest reinforcement of Alliance collective defence in a generation.
- NATO has also a forward presence tailored to the southeast of Alliance territory and in the Black Sea region. Allies are contributing forces and capabilities on land, at sea and in the air.
- The land element in the southeast of the Alliance is built around a multinational brigade, under Multinational Division Southeast in Romania and is coordinating multinational training through a Combined Joint Enhanced Training Initiative. In the air, several Allies have reinforced Romania’s and Bulgaria’s efforts to protect NATO airspace.
Enhanced forward presence

As part of NATO's strengthened deterrence and defence posture, Allies agreed at the 2016 Summit in Warsaw to enhance NATO’s military presence in the eastern part of the Alliance.

NATO’s enhanced forward presence is defensive, proportionate, and in line with international commitments. It represents a significant commitment by Allies and is a tangible reminder that an attack on one is an attack on all.

Fully deployed in June 2017, NATO’s enhanced forward presence comprises multinational forces provided by framework nations and other contributing Allies on a voluntary, fully sustainable and rotational basis.

They are based on four rotational battalion-size battle groups that operate in concert with national home defence forces and are present at all times in the host countries.

Canada, Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States are the framework nations for the robust multinational presence in Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia and Poland respectively.

Other Allies confirmed contributions to these forces: Albania, Czech Republic, Italy, Montenegro, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia and Spain contribute to the Canadian-led battle group in Latvia; Belgium, Czech Republic, Iceland, the Netherlands and Norway have joined the German-led battle group in Lithuania; Denmark, France and Iceland contribute to the UK-led battle group in Estonia; and Croatia, Romania and the United Kingdom have joined the US-led battle group in Poland.

Enhanced forward presence forces are complemented by the necessary logistics and infrastructure to support pre-positioning and to facilitate rapid reinforcement.

The four battle groups are under NATO command, through the Multinational Corps Northeast Headquarters in Szczecin, Poland. Multinational Division Northeast Headquarters (MND-NE) in Elblag, Poland coordinates and supervises training and preparation activities of the four battle groups.

Tailored forward presence

At the 2016 Summit in Warsaw, Allies also agreed to develop a tailored forward presence in the south-eastern part of Alliance territory. On land, this presence is built around the Romanian-led multinational brigade in Craiova. In the air, several Allies have reinforced Romania’s and Bulgaria’s efforts to protect NATO airspace.

In addition, Turkey strengthens security in the region with maritime patrol aircraft flights and support to NATO Airborne Warning & Control System (AWACS) aircraft. In the Black Sea, NATO is active with more ships and more naval exercises.

This means more NATO forces, and more exercises and training under Headquarters Multinational Division Southeast (in Romania), which became fully operational in June 2017.

Tailored forward presence contributes to the Alliance’s strengthened deterrence and defence posture, to Allies’ situational awareness, interoperability and responsiveness.

NATO is also developing a number of additional measures to increase its presence in the Black Sea region. Specific measures for a strengthened NATO maritime and air presence in the region are being implemented, with a number of Allies contributing forces and capabilities.

NATO’s rapid reinforcement strategy also ensures that forward presence forces will be reinforced by NATO’s Very High Readiness Joint Task Force, the broader NATO Response Force, Allies’ additional high readiness forces and NATO’s heavier follow-on forces, if necessary.
Evolution

Allies agreed at the Wales Summit in 2014 to implement the Readiness Action Plan (RAP) in order to respond swiftly to the fundamental changes in the security environment on NATO’s borders and further afield.

Building on the RAP, Allies took further decisions at the Warsaw Summit in 2016 to strengthen NATO’s deterrence and defence posture and to contribute to project stability and strengthening security outside of Alliance territory.

Together, these decisions are the biggest reinforcement of Alliance collective defence in a generation. Combined with the forces and capabilities required for rapid reinforcement by follow-on forces, these measures will enhance the security of all Allies and ensure protection of Alliance territory, populations, airspace and sea lines of communication, including across the Atlantic, against threats from wherever they arise.

At their meeting on 26 October 2016, Allied defence ministers confirmed troop contributions to the four battalion-size battlegroups: Albania, Italy, Poland and Slovenia will contribute to the Canadian-led battlegroup in Latvia; Belgium, Croatia, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Norway will join the German-led battlegroup in Lithuania; Denmark and France will contribute to the UK-led battlegroup in Estonia, and Romania and the United Kingdom will join the US-led battlegroup in Poland. Later on, Spain confirmed its contribution to the battlegroup in Latvia. Contributions will be made on a voluntary, sustainable and rotational basis.

Ministers also decided a number of tailored measures to increase NATO presence in the southeast of the Alliance on land, at sea and in the air with more multinational land training, combined joint enhanced training, more maritime activity and increased coordination.
Building Integrity

Transparent and accountable defence institutions under democratic control are fundamental to stability in the Euro-Atlantic area and beyond, and are essential for international security cooperation. Within the framework of the Building Integrity (BI) Policy and Action Plan, NATO works to support Allies and partner countries to promote good governance and implement the principles of integrity, transparency and accountability, in accordance with international norms and practices established for the defence and related security sector. NATO BI contributes to the three core NATO tasks: collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security.

- NATO BI contributes to NATO’s security as well as its efforts to project stability in the Euro-Atlantic area and beyond. It provides Allies and partner countries with diagnostic tools and tailored support to strengthen good governance principles and practices, and reduce the risk of corruption in the defence and related security sector.
- The NATO BI Policy was endorsed at the 2016 NATO Summit in Warsaw and a BI Action Plan covering NATO civilian, military structures and agencies was agreed in December 2016.
- NATO’s partners in the Euro-Atlantic area as well as Afghanistan, Australia and Colombia are associated with the NATO BI Policy.
- Implementation of the BI capacity-building activities is supported by voluntary financial contributions to a BI Trust Fund led by Bulgaria, Norway, Poland, Switzerland and the United Kingdom. Phase III will be completed in December 2018.
- NATO BI works closely with other international organisations, including the United Nations, World Bank and European Union to promote good practices, and is supported by a pool of experts drawn from the public and private sectors, including civil society.
- Work is underway to prepare BI 2019-2022. As part of the NATO-EU Declaration, the EU has announced its decision to make a financial contribution to the NATO BI Trust Fund.

More background information

NATO Building Integrity Policy

The NATO BI Policy reaffirms NATO’s role as a unique community of nations sharing common values, committed to the principles of individual liberty, democracy, human rights and the rule of law. The shared lessons learned from the almost 70 years of the Alliance recognise that corruption and poor governance complicate every security challenge confronting the Alliance and undermining peace, security, prosperity and operational effectiveness. The BI Policy endorsed at the Warsaw Summit reaffirms Allies’ conviction that transparent and accountable defence institutions under democratic control are fundamental to stability in the Euro-Atlantic area and essential for international security cooperation. BI is an integral part of NATO’s work and is being mainstreamed in NATO’s activities being taken forward by the NATO International Staff, International Military Staff, Military Commands and Agencies.

NATO Building Integrity Action Plan

The BI Action Plan sets the course for a strategic approach to BI and good governance in the defence and related security sector, and identifies concrete steps to make BI applicable across NATO’s political and military lines of activity. The plan aims at developing effective, transparent and accountable defence institutions which are responsive to unpredictable security challenges.
On request, BI provides tailored support to nations. This practical support is integrated in and aligned with national processes as well as NATO partnership mechanisms, including each partner’s individual programme of cooperation with NATO, the Defence Capacity Building Initiative, the Partnership for Peace Planning and Review Process and, for Afghanistan, the Enduring Partnership. BI supports NATO’s capacity-building efforts, including the Defence Education Enhancement Programme and professional development programmes for Georgia and Ukraine. The BI methodology and tools also support the implementation of the Women, Peace and Security agenda.

### Building Integrity toolkit

The Building Integrity toolkit provides a strategic approach to reducing the risk of corruption in the defence and related security sector with a view to strengthening good governance of defence establishments. It is demand-driven and tailored to meet national requirements.

The toolkit includes:

- **BI Self-Assessment Questionnaire (SAQ) and Peer Review Process:** Completing the voluntary SAQ is the first step in the process of developing a tailored programme. This diagnostic tool provides nations with a snapshot of their existing procedures and practices in key areas. Nations decide the pace of the process and how information will be shared. A Peer Review Report is prepared on the basis of the completed SAQ and consultations in capitals, identifying good practices as well as recommendations for improvement and action. As of September 2018, 20 countries (8 Allies and 12 partners) are engaged in the Self-Assessment/Peer Review Process: Afghanistan, Armenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Colombia, Croatia, Georgia, Hungary, Jordan, Kyrgyz Republic, Latvia, the Republic of Moldova, Montenegro, the Republic of North Macedonia, Norway, Poland, Serbia, Tunisia, the United Kingdom and Ukraine.

- **BI pool of subject matter experts:** NATO staff have considerable experience in strengthening integrity, transparency and accountability in the defence and related security sector. To meet demand, this expertise is reinforced by subject matter experts drawn from the public and private sectors from Allied and partner nations. The topics covered by the experts correspond to the areas identified in the SAQ and include management of risks as well as management of financial and personnel resources. The experts take part in the NATO-led Peer Review Process, contribute to peer-to-peer consultations, and capacity building activities including BI courses.

- **BI community of practice:** BI capacity building activities are implemented with the support of a growing number of institutional partners: international, regional and national organisations with an interest in promoting good governance in the defence and related security sector. This network includes civilian and military institutions located in Allied and partner nations as well as across NATO structures. Many are engaged in research, advocacy and mainstreaming work, and some conduct BI residential courses and support the development of BI as a NATO discipline. This network of partners is connected online through a dedicated BI website.

- **Peer-to-peer consultations:** Consultations between peers are at the heart of promoting good practices. BI provides a confidential platform for dialogue, the exchange of experiences and lessons learned on the challenges of managing change and strengthening transparency, accountability and integrity in the defence and related sector. Roundtables and seminars are conducted on a regular basis to promote good practices.

- **Tailored programmes to build capacity:** Tailored programmes are developed on the basis of a nation’s reply to the BI SAQ and regular consultations. The support offered may include peer-to-peer contacts, consultations with subject matter experts, and access to selected courses, and the sharing of best practices. This support is reviewed and calibrated on a regular basis. Many nations have used this process to develop national integrity plans. Under the auspices of the South Eastern Europe Defence Ministerial process, NATO BI continues to provide a tailored programme to meet the needs of countries in South Eastern Europe and to promote regional cooperation.

- **Education, training and exercises:** To help sustain change and produce long-term benefits, the BI Education and Training Plan was developed in cooperation with the NATO Military Authorities and...
agreed by the North Atlantic Council in 2012. Educational activities, open to Allies and partners, include residential, mobile and online courses (including a new Online BI awareness course). These activities may also be tailored to the special needs of an individual or group of nations. The BI Reference Curriculum, developed with the support of the BI community of practice is used by educators to revise and update existing courses. BI-certified courses are conducted on a global basis and delivered by the Alliance and the network of partners. The NATO BI flagship course on “Defence Leadership in Building Integrity” is conducted annually at the NATO School in Oberammergau, Germany.

Promoting good practice: The “Building Integrity and Reducing Corruption in Defence: a Compendium of Best Practices” provides a strategic approach to reducing corruption risks, focusing on the practicalities of designing and implementing integrity-building programmes in defence. Volume I was launched in 2010. A second volume linking good practices identified through Peer Reviews and the topics set out in the BI Reference Curriculum is under development. BI is also exploring building capacity through joint public-private endeavours and is working closely with interested stakeholders, including the International Forum on Business Ethical Conduct, to identify and promote good practices.

Working mechanism

Implementation of the NATO BI Policy and Action Plan is managed by NATO International Staff through a BI Task Force. This task force works closely with staff across NATO Headquarters, the NATO Military Authorities, including the NATO International Military Staff, Allied Command Transformation, Allied Command Operations and subordinate commands, as well as NATO Agencies.

Working in cooperation with Allied Command Transformation, the NATO International Staff defines the required BI-related capabilities and performance competencies. The Centre for Integrity in the Defence Sector (Norway) is responsible for translating operational requirements into education and training objectives with matching solutions.

Implementation is supported by a network of partners drawn from NATO and non-member countries: the BI community of practice (see above).

Milestones

- In November 2007, Building Integrity (BI) was established by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council with the aim to develop institutional capabilities in key areas elaborated in the Partnership Action Plan on Defence Institution Building, agreed at the 2004 Istanbul Summit.
- At the Chicago Summit in 2012, Building Integrity was established as a NATO Education and Training Discipline within the framework of the Allied Command Transformation Global Programming.
- The 2014 Wales Summit reaffirmed BI as an integral part of NATO’s Defence and Related Security Capacity Building Initiative.
- NATO’s BI Policy was endorsed at the NATO Summit in Warsaw in July 2016.
- Taking part in the 2017 BI Conference, the European Union announced its intentions to contribute to the BI Trust Fund, referring to NATO BI “as the partner of choice”.
- At the July 2018 Summit in Brussels, Allied leaders noted the 2017 Report on the Implementation of the NATO BI Policy.
NATO’s modern defence posture is based on an effective combination of two key pillars: cutting-edge weapons systems and platforms, and forces trained to work together seamlessly. As such, investing in the right capabilities is an essential part of investing in defence. NATO plays an important role in assessing what capabilities the Alliance needs; setting goals for national or collective development of capabilities; and facilitating national, multinational and collective capability development and innovation.

NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg visiting the AGS Global Hawk display

**Highlights**

- The Strategic Concept identifies collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security as NATO’s core tasks. Deterrence based on an appropriate mix of nuclear, conventional and ballistic missile defence capabilities, remains a core element of NATO’s overall strategy.

- Allies have agreed to develop and maintain the full range of capabilities necessary to deter and defend against potential adversaries, using multinational approaches and innovative solutions where appropriate. The NATO Defence Planning Process (NDPP) is the primary means to identify and prioritise the capabilities required for full-spectrum operations, and to promote their development and delivery.

- Developing and procuring capabilities through multinational cooperation helps generate economies of scale, reduces costs, and delivers interoperability by design. NATO actively supports Allies in the identification, launch and implementation of multinational cooperation.

- To acquire vital capabilities, the Alliance must work closely with industry; build a stronger defence industry among Allies; foster greater industrial and technological cooperation across the Atlantic and within Europe; and maintain a robust industrial base throughout Europe and North America.
Current objectives

As outlined in the 2010 Strategic Concept, Alliance leaders are committed to ensuring that NATO has the full range of capabilities necessary to deter and defend against any threat to the safety and security of Allies’ populations and territories. Therefore, the Alliance will:

- maintain an appropriate mix of nuclear, missile defence and conventional forces;
- maintain the ability to sustain concurrent major joint operations and several smaller operations for collective defence and crisis response, including at strategic distance;
- develop and maintain robust, mobile and deployable conventional forces to carry out both its Article 5 responsibilities and expeditionary operations, including with the NATO Response Force;
- carry out the necessary training, exercises, contingency planning and information exchange for assuring its defence against the full range of conventional and emerging security challenges, and provide appropriate visible assurance and reinforcement for all Allies;
- ensure the broadest possible participation of Allies in collective defence planning on nuclear roles, in peacetime basing of nuclear forces, and in consultation, command and control (C3) arrangements;
- develop the capability to defend NATO European populations, territories and forces against ballistic missile attack as a core element of its collective defence;
- further develop its capacity to defend against the threat of chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear weapons;
- further develop its ability to prevent, detect, defend against and recover from cyber attacks by using the NATO planning process to enhance and coordinate national cyber defence capabilities, by bringing all NATO bodies under centralised cyber protection, and by integrating NATO cyber awareness, warning and response capabilities with member countries;
- enhance collective capacity to contribute to the fight against terrorism, including through improved threat analysis, consultations with partners, and the development of appropriate military capabilities – including helping to train partner forces to fight terrorism themselves;
- ensure that NATO assesses the security impact of emerging technologies for inclusion in military planning;
- continue to review its overall posture in deterring and defending against the full range of threats to the Alliance, taking into account changes to the evolving international security environment.

Meeting immediate and long-term challenges

The Allies provided political guidance in 2015 that further refined the overarching aims and objectives of the 2010 Strategic Concept. This guidance established expectations for what the Alliance should be able to do in broad quantitative and qualitative terms, especially in the prevailing geo-strategic security environment. By setting related priorities, this guidance mandates the delivery of the required capabilities through the NATO Defence Planning Process. It will be reviewed in 2019.

NATO Defence Planning Process

The NATO Defence Planning Process (NDPP) aims to harmonise national and Alliance defence planning activities. It details how the aims and objectives of the Alliance, as set out in the political guidance, are to be met. By setting targets for implementation by Allies, either individually or collectively, it guides national, multinational and collective capability development and delivery.

By participating in the NDPP, Allies can harmonise their national defence plans with those of NATO without compromising their national sovereignty. This helps Allies identify, develop and deliver a fair share of the overall forces and capabilities needed for the Alliance to be able to undertake its full range of missions.

More information
NATO Response Force

The NATO Response Force (NRF) is a technologically advanced, multinational force made up of land, air, maritime and Special Operations Forces (SOF) components that the Alliance can deploy quickly to wherever it is needed. It has the overarching purpose of being able to provide a rapid military response to an emerging crisis, whether for collective defence purposes or for other crisis response operations. In light of the changing security environment to the east and south of Alliance borders, Allies decided to enhance the NRF by both enlarging it and creating a spearhead force within it. Known as the Very High Readiness Joint Task Force (VJTF), this spearhead force is able to begin deployment at very short notice, particularly on the periphery of NATO's territory.

Critical long-term enabling capabilities

Information superiority helps commanders in the battlespace make the best decisions, creating the circumstances for success at lower risk and greater speed. NATO will therefore continue to develop and acquire a range of networked information systems (Automated Information Systems) that support NATO’s Strategic Commands. These systems cover a number of domains – including land, air, maritime, intelligence and logistics – with a view to enabling more informed and effective holistic oversight, decision-making and command and control.

Joint Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance

The Alliance has long recognised the fundamental importance of Joint Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance (JISR) to its strategic preparedness and to the success of its operations and missions. The aim of this capability is to support the coordinated collection, processing and sharing within NATO of ISR material gathered by the future Alliance Ground Surveillance system (AGS), the current NATO Airborne Early Warning and Control Force (NAEW&C Force) and Allies’ own ISR assets.

In early 2016, NATO defence ministers declared an initial operational JISR capability centred on enhancing the situational awareness of NATO’s highest readiness forces. This initial operational capability was only the first milestone for the overall JISR initiative. Further work is ongoing to sustain these achievements and expand their scope, indeed the follow programme to the initial operational capability has just been completed in June 2018. Through incremental upgrades, NATO aims to have an enduring JISR capability to strengthen the Alliance’s 360 degree awareness.

Alliance Ground Surveillance

The Alliance Ground Surveillance (AGS) programme represents an excellent example of transatlantic cooperation, thanks to the multinational industrial cooperation on which the programme has been founded. The AGS system is an essential enabling capability for forces across the full spectrum of NATO’s current and future operations and missions. Using advanced radar sensors, it will be able to continuously detect and track moving objects (such as tanks, trucks or helicopters that are moving on or near the ground) in all weather conditions and provide radar imagery of areas of interest on the ground and at sea.

As such, AGS will complement the NATO Airborne Warning and Control System (AWACS), which already monitors Alliance airspace. The AGS Core will be an integrated system consisting of air, ground and support segments. The air segment includes five unmanned aircraft and is expected to be operational in the 2019/2020 timeframe.

NATO Airborne Warning & Control System

As one of the most visible and tangible examples of what cooperation between Allies can achieve, the NATO Airborne Warning & Control System (AWACS) provides NATO-owned and operated airborne command and control, air and maritime surveillance, and battlespace management capability. An iconic
capability, AWACS has continuously proven itself a critical asset over Libya and Afghanistan, and most recently safeguarding the Alliance’s eastern perimeter and providing support to the Global Coalition forces in their fight against ISIS.

AWACS aircraft will continue to be modernised and extended in service until 2035. The modernisation of NATO’s AWACS fleet is vital to ensuring the security of all Allies and will strengthen the Alliance’s awareness and capacity for strategic anticipation.

More information

Alliance Future Surveillance and Control capability

At the Warsaw Summit in 2016, NATO leaders launched the Alliance Future Surveillance and Control (AFSC) initiative in order to determine how NATO will maintain its situational awareness and command Allied forces after the retirement of NATO AWACS in 2035. NATO is now moving forward to redefine its means for surveillance and control in the future.

In cooperation with Allied experts from a range of communities and backgrounds – including military, industry, and science and technology – NATO is launching studies to evaluate new technologies. These studies will inform decisions by NATO, individual Allies or multinational groups to develop and acquire new systems in the future. These solutions could include combinations of interconnected air, ground, space or unmanned systems to collect and share information.

Ballistic Missile Defence

In the context of a broader response to the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and their delivery systems, NATO continues to develop Ballistic Missile Defence. Originally, this programme was launched in 2005 to protect deployed Allied forces against ballistic missile threats with ranges up to 3,000 kilometres. At the Lisbon Summit in 2010, NATO’s leaders decided to expand its scope to also protect NATO European civilian populations and territory. During the 2016 Warsaw Summit, Allies officially declared initial operational capability of NATO BMD, which offers a stronger capability to defend Alliance civilian populations, territory and forces across southern NATO Europe against a ballistic missile attack. The ultimate aim of NATO BMD is to achieve the full operational capability providing coverage and protection to all NATO Europe.

More information

Air command and control

NATO is implementing a fully interoperable Air Command and Control System (ACCS). This system will provide a fully integrated set of tools to support the conduct of all air operations in both real-time and non-real-time environments. The system is composed of static and deployable elements with equipment that will be used within the NATO Command Structure and by individual Allies. With the further inclusion of command and control functionality for Ballistic Missile Defence, ACCS will provide a fully integrated system for air and missile defence. At present, ACCS is scheduled to be fully fielded in the 2021-2024 timeframe. Ultimately, ACCS will make available the capability to plan, direct, task, coordinate, supervise, assess and report on the operation of all allocated air assets in peace, crisis and conflict situations.

More information

Federated Mission Networking

Federated Mission Networking (FMN) is a key contribution to the Connected Forces Initiative (CFI), helping Allied and partner forces to better communicate, train and operate together. The program aims to support command and control, as well as decision-making in future operations, by enabling improved information-sharing through common standards, protocols and procedures.

FMN is based on the lessons learned from the Afghanistan Mission Network (AMN) – particularly the need for harmonised operational processes and scalable supporting systems for all future coalition missions. The objectives of FMN are to ensure consultation, command and control (C3), interoperability and readiness. FMN will underpin the Alliance’s ability to connect its information systems and operate effectively, including together with partners, on training, exercises and operations.
Cyber defence

Cyber threats and attacks are becoming more common, sophisticated and damaging. The Alliance is faced with an evolving, complex threat environment. NATO and its Allies rely on strong and resilient cyber defences to fulfil the Alliance’s core tasks of collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security. NATO needs to be prepared to defend its networks and operational capabilities against the growing sophistication of the cyber threats and attacks it faces.

NATO’s main focus in cyber defence is to protect its own networks (including operations and missions) and to enhance resilience across the Alliance.

At the 2014 NATO Summit in Wales, Allies recognised that international law applies in cyberspace, and that the impact of cyber-attacks could be as harmful to our societies as a conventional attack. As a result, cyber defence was recognised a part of NATO’s core task of collective defence.

At the 2016 Warsaw Summit, Allies reaffirmed NATO’s defensive mandate and recognised cyberspace as a domain of operations in which NATO must defend itself as effectively as it does in the air, on land and at sea. Allies also pledged to strengthen and enhance the cyber defences of their national infrastructures and networks. The Cyber Defence Pledge aims to ensure that the Alliance keeps pace with the fast-evolving cyber threat landscape and that Allies are capable of defending themselves in cyberspace.

More information

Logistics

Logistics planning is an integral part of NATO’s defence planning process. In concrete terms, logistics planning is done through the force planning process and Partnership for Peace (PfP) Planning and Review Process (PARP). In consultation with participating countries, Strategic Commanders identify the logistic capabilities needed to deploy, sustain and redeploy Alliance forces.

Logistic capabilities can be called upon by NATO commanders as part of the operational planning process to be used in a NATO-led operation. National and NATO logistic plans must ensure that logistic resources of sufficient quantity and quality are available at the same readiness and deployability levels to support forces as needed.

More information

Delivering capabilities through multinational cooperation

NATO began to adapt its defensive posture in 2014 in response to the major changes in the security environment. Allies agreed at the 2016 Warsaw Summit to further strengthen the Alliance’s deterrence and defence posture in order to better protect their citizens, territories and forces and to enhance NATO’s efforts to project stability in its neighbourhood.

Multinational approaches

Many of the capabilities required to address today’s challenges can be very expensive when pursued by countries individually. Multinational approaches to capability delivery not only distribute the costs but can also generate economies of scale. For NATO, multinational cooperation remains an important means of delivering the capabilities that Allies need. Developing greater European military capabilities through multinational cooperation will continue to strengthen the transatlantic link, enhance the security of all Allies and foster an equitable sharing of the burdens, benefits and responsibilities of Alliance membership. In this context, NATO works closely with the European Union to ensure complementarity of efforts. Allies also contribute to maintaining a strong defence industry in Europe by making the fullest possible use of defence industrial cooperation across the Alliance.

Framework Nations Concept

In June 2014, NATO defence ministers agreed the Framework Nations Concept, which sees groups of countries coming together for two purposes. Firstly, the FNC aims to maintain current capabilities and to act as a foundation for the coherent development of new capabilities in the medium to long term. This builds on the notion of multinational development of capabilities. Secondly, the Framework Nations
Concept reinforces engagement between nations as a mechanism for collective training and exercises in order to prepare groupings of forces. For example, those Allies that maintain a broad spectrum of capabilities provide a framework for other Allies to “plug” into.

**Strategic and intra-theatre lift capabilities**

Strategic and intra-theatre lift capabilities are a key enabler for operations and allow forces and equipment to be deployed quickly to wherever they are needed. While there is significant procurement nationally, many Allies have pooled resources, including with partner countries, to acquire new capacities for additional transport to swiftly move troops, equipment and supplies across the globe.

*More information*

**Air-to-air-refuelling**

Air-to-air refuelling (AAR) tankers are a critical enabler for the projection of air power. In coalition operations AAR tankers are a pooled asset, which means that interoperability is essential. The modernisation of AAR tankers in Europe has been achieved through a multinational programme that will lead to a fleet of multi-role tanker transport to be delivered in the 2020-24 timeframe. Through close cooperation with the European Defence Agency and the Joint Air Power Competence Centre (a NATO Centre of Excellence located in Germany), NATO continues to develop the interoperability and training required to enable this capability.

**Provision of precision munitions**

The supply of sufficient inventories of precision munitions is necessary for enabling NATO operations. Groups of Allies have established frameworks in the air, land and maritime domains for aggregating their individual requirements. These efforts will enable them to achieve lower acquisition cost and save money by pursuing multinational warehousing solutions for storage. At the same time, technical and legal hurdles for sharing and exchanging munitions are being reduced, giving participating Allies greater flexibility for managing their munitions stockpiles. In the long run, Allies aim to further harmonise their munitions inventories to enable them to operate seamlessly and effectively together.

**Special Operations Forces**

Special Operations Forces are an important and highly versatile tool in NATO’s deterrence and defence toolbox. NATO recognised their importance with the establishment of its Special Operations Headquarters in Mons, Belgium in 2010. The increasingly multinational nature of their operations makes cooperation in this area particularly compelling. Within this context, several Allies have initiated a series of efforts to create deployable multinational command and control elements and to cooperate on the creation of aviation units for employing Special Operations Forces in NATO missions.

**Anti-submarine warfare**

Modern submarines constitute one of the most demanding challenges to the Alliance in the maritime domain. Delivering the right capabilities will be critical in order to adequately protect NATO assets and ensure freedom of navigation and a NATO Future ASW Vision has been developed. Groups of Allies have started to cooperate on various approaches – including the development of Maritime Multi Mission Aircraft capabilities the fielding of Maritime Unmanned Systems and networking underwater assets via digital communication – to increase their maritime situational awareness and ensure that they can effectively respond to threats in this area.

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**Supporting national capability development efforts**

The overwhelming majority of military capabilities available for NATO operations are provided by NATO members. While national capability development is a sovereign responsibility, NATO plays an important supporting role in facilitating national capability development and delivery. In accordance with the NATO Defence Planning Process, which aims to harmonise national and Alliance defence planning activities, there are a number of national capability development efforts undertaken with the strong leadership and support of NATO bodies and agencies.
Countering improvised explosive devices

As seen in Afghanistan and elsewhere, improvised explosive devices (IEDs) have proven to be the weapon of choice for non-conventional adversarial forces. NATO must be prepared to counter IEDs in any land or maritime operation involving asymmetrical threats, in which force protection will remain a paramount priority.

Institutionalising counter-IED lessons learned across the last two decades of operations, NATO’s ambitious Counter-IED Action Plan has increased its focus on capabilities for attacking threat networks behind these destructive devices. Although developed in the counter-IED context, such capabilities can also contribute to counter-piracy, counter-proliferation and counter-terrorism operations.

More information

21st century ground-based air defence

Modern air defence systems must be able to respond to a wide range of airborne threats, from hypersonic cruise missiles and fifth-generation fighters to threats from low-altitude, small-size and low-speed unmanned aerial vehicles as well as from rockets, artillery and mortar systems. NATO’s 21st century ground-based air defence initiative aims to harmonise national requirements and industrial capacity to respond to the current and next generation of air threats. Multinational cooperation in science and technology, procurement and increased industry engagement is critical to the initiative’s success.

Dismounted soldier systems

In NATO operations, all individuals deployed in the field – regardless of whether they are soldiers, marines, sailors or airmen/airwomen – are equipped with the appropriate gear to successfully carry out their missions. In order to maximise battlefield effectiveness and survivability, it is essential that everything soldiers are wearing, carrying and consuming is safe, interoperable and reliable. As such, the aim of dismounted soldier systems is the standardization and harmonisation of individual combat and support equipment for NATO and partner nations.

Deployable Air Base Concept

The NATO Deployable Air Base (NDAB) concept provides NATO with the capability to deliver a deployed air base, which in the worst-case scenario would be built up from a bare-base airfield. The NDAB is designed to support military operations 24/7 in all weathers. With the addition of Deployable Air Traffic services the NDAB could also be available for use by civil air traffic.

Digital acoustic underwater networks

Aimed at enhancing anti-submarine warfare capabilities, NATO has developed the first-ever standard for digital underwater acoustic communications. Based upon the JANUS protocol, this standard is a key enabler for interoperability of maritime underwater systems. The advanced capability provides NATO maritime forces with a key technological edge as part of its efforts to improve maritime engagement capabilities across the Alliance.

More information

Modular ship design

Modular ship design specifications are innovative implementations in shipbuilding that expand the range of achievable missions, extend the lifespan of maritime platforms and enable reduced fleet sizes without impacting operational capacity. They also promote interoperability between Allied maritime forces as NATO works to improve overall maritime engagement capabilities. Allied navies are cooperating on the development and implementation of standards to enable a ‘plug-and-play’ concept that will allow ship combat and support systems to be optimised to each specific mission and share capabilities, with only minimal disruption to readiness and availability. Modular ship design principles are expected to be implemented on all next-generation Allied surface vessels.
Other initiatives

Maritime security

Alliance maritime capabilities have an enduring value and provide an important cross-cutting contribution to Alliance security. In January 2011, NATO adopted the Alliance Maritime Strategy. Consistent with the 2010 Strategic Concept, the Strategy sets out ways in which NATO’s unique maritime power can be used to address critical security challenges and play a key role in deterrence and collective defence, crisis management, cooperative security and maritime security. In the current security context, the Alliance’s naval forces provide essential contributions to maritime situational awareness, assurance measures and current operations.

The Alliance continues to implement its maritime strategy through capability development, an enhanced programme of maritime exercises and training, and the enhancement of cooperation with non-NATO partners, including other international organisations such as the European Union. NATO’s naval forces contribute to helping address numerous security challenges, including NATO’s maritime role in the Mediterranean through Operation Sea Guardian (a broader non-Article 5 maritime security operation) as well as NATO’s activity in the Aegean Sea.

More information

Total system approach to aviation

The Alliance will continue to develop its capabilities to ensure appropriate access to airspace by addressing all aspects related to aviation – including air traffic management, aeronautical technologies, airfield capabilities, manned aircraft and remotely piloted air systems, airworthiness, licensing and training – in the context of global aviation developments in the civil and military domain. The success of Alliance air missions depends on a combination of technical, organisational, procedural and human factors – all working seamlessly towards the mitigation of hazards and risks – ensuring safety and security in order to strengthen support for training, exercises and operations in the air domain.

Engagement with industry

The majority of capabilities are produced, maintained and repaired, modernised and adapted, and retired by industry. Allies recognised the relevance of engaging closer, and earlier in the capability development process, with the defence and security industry. Allies also recognise the need to maintain a strong defence industrial base in Europe and across the Atlantic, including through small- and medium-sized enterprises. New challenges are dealt with through innovative capabilities. A sustainable, innovative and globally competitive industry is therefore critical to the Alliance’s success.

More information
Central Europe Pipeline System (CEPS)

The Central Europe Pipeline System (CEPS) is the largest of the NATO pipeline systems. It is designed and managed to meet operational requirements in Central Europe in peace, crisis and conflict.

Highlights

- The Central Europe Pipeline System (CEPS) is the largest petroleum pipeline system in NATO and crosses the host nations of Belgium, France, Germany, Luxemburg and the Netherlands.
- The CEPS can quickly provide military commanders with fuel for aircraft and ground vehicles, whenever and wherever required.
- The CEPS also delivers jet fuel to major civil airports such as Brussels, Frankfurt, Luxembourg, Schiphol and Zurich.
- The CEPS is a key element of military readiness for NATO and contributes to strengthening the Alliance’s deterrence and defence posture in line with the decisions made during the 2016 Warsaw Summit.
The CEPS can expeditiously provide military commanders with fuel for aircraft and ground vehicles, whenever and wherever required in light of the prevailing military situation. The non-military use of the CEPS was permitted by the North Atlantic Council in 1959 on condition that priority is given to military capability (the Military Priority Clause). While ensuring the necessary investments, one priority of the CEPS is to offer an optimal service for its military and non-military clients under all circumstances.

The CEPS Programme member nations are Belgium, France, Germany, Luxemburg, the Netherlands and the United States. Member nations with CEPS assets within their territory are called "host nations" and include Belgium, France, Germany, Luxemburg and the Netherlands.

It is one of the most complex and extensive networks of refined product pipelines in the world. It comes under the authority of the CEPS Programme Board, which is the governing body of the CEPS Programme and acts with regard to the collective interests of NATO and all member countries participating in the CEPS programme. The CEPS is managed, on a daily basis by the CEPS Programme Office (CEPS PO), which is the executive arm of the CEPS Programme and an integral part of the NATO Support and Procurement Agency (NSPA).

About the CEPS

The CEPS is a state-of-the-art, high-pressure pipeline network that transports different products across Central Europe including jet fuel, gasoline, diesel fuel and naphtha.

The pipeline network

The CEPS comprises some 5,300 km of pipeline with diameters ranging from 6 to 12 inches. This network of pipelines links 29 NATO depots and six depots for non-military use (offering a total storage capacity of 1.2 million cubic metres), military and civil airfields, refineries, civil depots and sea ports situated in the host nations.

Use of the CEPS in time of conflict

At the beginning of a military operation, military demands increase exponentially, which means that the CEPS is used to maximum capacity. The reserve stocks in the system and the connection to European refineries, civil depots and maritime entry points provide the flexibility in the CEPS to meet surges in requirements. Non-connected installations can be supplied by train or trucks loaded in one of the numerous truck- or train-loading stations belonging to the system.

Civilian use of the CEPS

Operating costs for the CEPS are shared by its member nations. In order to keep operational costs as low as possible and to increase the use of the pipeline, the system is also extensively used for the transport and storage of products for non-military clients. However, under all circumstances, the Military Priority Clause included in the commercial contracts guarantees the primacy of supply to military forces.

The delivery of jet fuel to major civil airports such as Brussels, Frankfurt, Luxembourg, Schiphol and Zurich represents an important part of the volume pumped. With approximately 12 million cubic metres delivered in 2016, the revenues from non-military activities considerably reduced the cost to the six CEPS countries.

Management of the CEPS

The CEPS is managed by the NATO Central Europe Pipeline System (CEPS) Programme which was established by the NATO Support Organisation Charter as from 1 July 2012.

The NATO Support Organisation (NSPO) was created by merging the former NATO Maintenance and Supply Organisation (NAMSO), the former NATO Airlift Management Organisation (NAMO) and the former Central Europe Pipeline Management Organisation (CEPMO). The former CEPMO became the CEPS Programme within the NSPO. The former Central European Pipeline Management Agency (CEPMA) became the CEPS Programme Office (CEPS PO) within the NATO Support Agency (NSPA). In
April 2015, the NATO Support Agency (NSPA) became the NATO Support and Procurement Agency, marking the expansion of its capabilities to include all aspects of systems procurement from initial acquisition throughout sustainment.

The CEPS Programme consists of the CEPS Programme Board, the CEPS Programme Office and the national organisations.

The CEPS Programme Board is the governing body acting with regard to the collective interests of NATO and all member countries participating in the CEPS programme. It is comprised of representatives from each of its member nations.

The CEPS Programme Office (Versailles, France) is responsible for the execution of the mission of the CEPS Programme and sets policy and technical standards to be used in the system. It coordinates and designs the planning of cross-border traffic, the use of storage capacities and manages product quality control. The CEPS Programme Office develops investment plans and is responsible for the development and execution of the CEPS Budget. Operations are run on a 24/7 basis, with the CEPS Programme Office serving as the intermediary between national organisations and NATO authorities, suppliers and clients.

The day-to-day pipeline operations and maintenance are executed by four national organisations and their respective dispatching centres. The CEPS Programme Office assures operational, technical, budgetary and administrative control of the CEPS in peace- and wartime in accordance with the NSPO Charter. According to the Charter, the national organisations that support the CEPS Programme are regarded as being part of the CEPS Programme, but are not part of NATO.

### Development of the CEPS over time

The CEPS was created to distribute fuels to NATO forces in the central region of Europe.

In 1958, the NATO Common Infrastructure Programme funded the construction of the CEPS. It was a joint project between NATO and nations for coordinating and interconnecting national facilities on the host nations’ territories. Before the creation of the CEPS, individual countries already possessed some pipelines, storage depots, ports, loading stations, airfield connections, pumping facilities and highly trained personnel. Within the CEPS, these systems were interconnected, extended and centrally managed.

**The end of the Cold War**

With the end of the Cold War, the former Central Europe Pipeline Management Organisation (CEPMO), established in 1997 and in place until 30 June 2012, carried out two major restructuring programmes to adapt the CEPS to the new strategic situation. A considerable number of installations, which had no further military relevance, were eliminated. This resulted in significant annual cost savings.

**Smart CEPS**

In 2011, a review of the current business model was initiated by the former CEPMO Board of Directors. Optimisation of the current business model and rationalisation of the layout of the system were important topics of this review. A new system layout was approved in 2012 with the aim of generating significant cost reductions over the next five years starting in 2013.

**Supporting NATO operations**

Since 1990, the CEPS has supported a number of large operations within and outside the European theatre. A prime example of the absolute necessity of the CEPS was provided during NATO operations in Kosovo in support of the major air campaign. The CEPS continues to support operations in a number of different theatres including Afghanistan. 2011 was marked by NATO’s commitment to Libya. The CEPS demonstrated once more its reliability as a key logistics asset in support of NATO operations. Deliveries to Istres Airbase (France) were increased in support of the French forces involved in Operation Unified Protector.
Today, the CEPS continues to be a key element of military readiness for NATO and contributes to strengthening the Alliance’s deterrence and defence posture in line with the decisions made during the 2016 Warsaw Summit.
Central Europe Pipeline System Programme Board

The Central Europe Pipeline System Programme Board (CEPS PB) is responsible for all policy decisions related to the management of the Central Europe Pipeline System (CEPS); it also approves the annual budgets and the long-term strategic plan. In sum, the Board establishes general policy, objectives, missions, and approves financial resources for the CEPS.

Highlights

- The Central Europe Pipeline System Programme Board is responsible for all policy decisions related to the management of the Central Europe Pipeline System (CEPS).
- It acts with regard to the collective interests of NATO and all countries participating in the CEPS Programme.
- Each participating country has representatives on the Board. Other representatives can participate, but not in the decision-making process.
Working mechanisms

The CEPS Programme Board is comprised of representatives from each member of the CEPS Programme.

Each representative on the Board may be assisted by national experts who may participate in the discussions at Board meetings.

Representatives of the NATO Military Authorities (NMAs), the NATO Office of Resources (NOR), the NATO Support and Procurement Agency (NSPA) General Manager, the Programme Manager of the CEPS Programme Office, and the NATO Defence Policy and Planning (DPP) Division’s Petroleum Logistics Office shall be invited to participate in all meetings of the CEPS Programme Board. Additionally, the Board can invite other parties to participate as appropriate.

The CEPS Programme Board meets three times a year, but shall meet as soon as possible in response to a specific request by any member of the CEPS Programme, the Chairperson of the Board, the Representatives of the NATO Military Authorities, Programme Manager of the Programme Office or the General Manager of the NATO Support and Procurement Agency (NSPA).

The CEPS Programme Board shall arrive at all decisions by consensus.

The CEPS Programme Office (CEPS PO) based in Versailles, France, implements the decisions of the CEPS Programme Board and manages the daily operation of the system.

Evolution of the Board

Changing institutions

When the CEPS was created more than 50 years ago, there were two governing bodies: the Central Europe Pipeline Office (CEPO) and the Central Europe Pipeline Policy Committee (CEPPC). The former was responsible for all decisions related to the operation of the network and the latter for the general policy and finances. The executive agency, named the Central Europe Operating Agency (CEOA), was created on 1 January 1958.

In 1997, the North Atlantic Council endorsed the new Central Europe Pipeline Management Organisation (CEPMO) Charter approved by the two directing bodies. The Charter defined the structure and responsibilities of the new management organisation of the CEPS: CEPMO, which comprised one single CEPMO Board of Directors (BoD) and the Agency (CEPMA).

On 1 July 2012, the NATO Support Organisation (NSPO) was created by merging the former NATO Maintenance and Supply Organisation (NAMSO), the former NATO Airlift Management Organisation (NAMO) and the former Central Europe Pipeline Management Organisation (CEPMO). The former CEPMO became the CEPS Programme within the NSPO. The former CEPMA became the CEPS Programme Office (CEPS PO) within the NATO Support Agency (NSPA).

In April 2015, the NATO Support Agency (NSPA) became the NATO Support and Procurement Agency, marking the expansion of its capabilities to include all aspects of systems procurement from initial acquisition throughout sustainment.

New challenges

In the post-Cold War period, the Board and the Agency were faced with the challenge of maintaining the necessary CEPS capability with reduced national defence budgets.

The Board decided to help reduce costs by closing down storage and pipeline systems that were no longer needed, and to augment revenues by increasing non-military activities. As a consequence, once military needs are satisfied, the CEPS provides fuel transport for civilian requirements in Central Europe. The military priority clause in all transport and storage contracts ensures that CEPS fulfils its primary role: responding to military needs. However, it has also become an important fuel transporter for civilian use.
The possibility of commercialisation was first authorised by the North Atlantic Council in 1959, but it only became a significant part of daily activities from 1994.

The CEPS is the only NATO programme that combines military and non-military logistics services and provides a very important NATO military capability.

**Smart CEPS**

In 2011, a review of the current business model was initiated by the former CEPMO Board of Directors. Optimisation of the current business model and rationalisation of the layout of the system were important topics of this review. A new system layout was approved in 2012 with the aim of generating significant cost reductions over the next five years starting in 2013.
Centres of Excellence

Centres of Excellence (COEs) are international military organisations that train and educate leaders and specialists from NATO member and partner countries. They assist in doctrine development, identify lessons learned, improve interoperability and capabilities, and test and validate concepts through experimentation. They offer recognised expertise and experience that is of benefit to the Alliance, and support the transformation of NATO, while avoiding the duplication of assets, resources and capabilities already present within the Alliance.

Highlights

- COEs cover a wide variety of areas such as civil-military operations, cyber defence, military medicine, energy security, naval mine warfare, defence against terrorism, cold weather operations, and counter-IED.
- Allied Command Transformation has overall responsibility for COEs and is in charge of the establishment, accreditation, preparation of candidates for approval, and periodic assessments of the centres.
- COEs are nationally or multi-nationally funded. NATO does not directly fund COEs nor are they part of the NATO Command Structure.
More background information

Role of the Centres of Excellence

COEs generally specialise in one functional area and act as subject-matter experts in their field. They distribute their in-depth knowledge through training, conferences, seminars, concepts, doctrine, lessons learned and papers.

In addition to giving NATO and partner country leaders and units the opportunity to augment their education and training, COEs also help the Alliance to expand interoperability, increase capabilities, aid in the development of doctrine and standards, conduct analyses, evaluate lessons learned and experiment in order to test and verify concepts.

COEs work alongside the Alliance even though NATO does not directly fund them and they are not part of the NATO Command Structure. They are nationally or multi-nationally funded and are part of a supporting network, encouraging internal and external information exchange to the benefit of the Alliance. The overall responsibility for COE coordination and utilisation within NATO lies with Allied Command Transformation (ACT), in coordination with the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR).

Currently, there are 25 COEs with NATO accreditation. The working language of COEs is generally English.

NATO-accredited Centres of Excellence

These include:
1. Analysis and Simulation for Air Operations
2. Civil-Military Cooperation
3. Cold Weather Operations
4. Combined Joint Operations from the Sea
5. Command and Control
6. Cooperative Cyber Defence
7. Counter-Improvised Explosive Devices
8. Counter Intelligence
9. Crisis Management and Disaster Response
10. Defence Against Terrorism
11. Energy Security
12. Explosive Ordnance Disposal
13. Human Intelligence
14. Joint Air Power
15. Joint Chemical, Biological, Radiological and Nuclear Defence
16. Military Engineering
17. Military Medicine
18. Military Police
19. Modelling and Simulation
20. Mountain Warfare
21. Naval Mine Warfare
22. Operations in Confined and Shallow Waters
23. Security Force Assistance
24. Stability Policing
25. Strategic Communications
Centre for Analysis and Simulation of Air Operations (CASPOA)
Location: Lyon, France
Expertise: command and control in joint and multinational air operations. The centre uses computer-assisted exercises (CAX) and command-post exercises (CPX) to achieve this objective. The COE also analyses lessons learned from both real operations and exercises to aid in training personnel and developing simulation tools.
Framework Nation: France
Accreditation: 2008

Civil-Military Cooperation (CIMIC) COE
Location: The Hague, the Netherlands
Expertise: improving civil-military interaction and cooperation between NATO, Sponsoring Nations and other military and civil groups by utilising the skills and expertise of CIMIC’s own staff. The centre is also open to other international organisations (European Union, non-governmental organisations and scientific institutions).
Framework Nations: Germany and the Netherlands
Accreditation: 2007

Cold Weather Operations (CWO) COE
Location: Bodø, Norway
Expertise: focuses on operations in the extreme cold and collaborates with other institutions, for instance the Mountain Warfare COE in Slovenia.
Framework Nation: Norway
Accreditation: 2007

Combined Joint Operations from the Sea (CJOS) COE
Location: Norfolk, Virginia, United States
Expertise: countering global security challenges by improving the ability of the Sponsoring Nations and NATO to conduct combined joint operations from the sea. It also advises the Alliance on how to improve multinational education, training, doctrine and interoperability on maritime operations.
Framework Nation: The United States
Accreditation: 2006

Command and Control (C2) COE
Location: Utrecht, the Netherlands
Expertise: providing expertise on all aspects of the Command and Control (C2) process with a focus on the operational environment. It also assists NATO with exercises and assessment processes and supports ACT Headquarters with policy, doctrine, strategy and concept development, and provides C2 training.
Framework Nation: The Netherlands
Accreditation: in 2008

Cooperative Cyber Defence (CCD) COE
Location: Tallinn, Estonia
Expertise: fostering cooperation, capabilities and information-sharing on cyber security between NATO countries using, for instance, exercises, law and policy workshops, technical courses and conferences to prepare NATO and Sponsoring Nations to detect and fight cyber attacks. It also conducts research and training in several areas of cyber warfare.
Framework Nation: Estonia
Accreditation: 2008
Counter-Improvised Explosive Devices (C-IED) COE
Location: Madrid, Spain
Expertise: enhancing the capabilities needed to counter, reduce and eliminate threats from improvised explosive devices (IEDs) by offering multinational courses for C-IED experts.
Framework Nation: Spain
Accreditation: 2010

Counter Intelligence (CI) COE
Location: Kraków, Poland
Expertise: helping to expand the capabilities of the Alliance, its member countries and partners by providing comprehensive expertise in the area of counter-intelligence. It aims to act as a catalyst for NATO adaptation and operations by supporting the development, promotion and implementation of new policies, concepts, strategies and doctrine that transform and enhance NATO counter-intelligence capabilities and interoperability.
Framework Nations: Poland and Slovakia
Accreditation: 2015

Crisis Management and Disaster Response (CMDR) COE
Location: Sofia, Bulgaria
Expertise: helping NATO, its members and partner countries in improving their capacity to deal with crises and disaster-response operations through collaborative partnerships.
Framework Nation: Bulgaria
Accreditation: 2015

Defence Against Terrorism (DAT) COE
Location: Ankara, Turkey
Expertise: defending against terrorism, providing training on counter-terrorism, assisting in the development of doctrine and helping to improve NATO’s capabilities and interoperability. It also publishes the Defence Against Terrorism Review twice a year.
Framework Nation: Turkey
Accreditation: 2006

Energy Security (ENSEC) COE
Location: Vilnius, Lithuania
Expertise: supporting NATO’s capability development process, mission effectiveness, and interoperability in the near, mid and long term by providing expertise on all aspects of energy security.
Framework Nation: Lithuania
Accreditation: 2012

Explosive Ordnance Disposal (EOD) COE
Location: Trencín, Slovakia
Expertise: supporting and enhancing NATO transformation and operational efforts in the EOD area, while improving relations, interoperability and practical cooperation with partners, NATO command elements, member countries and international organisations. The Centre also works with NATO in the areas of standardization, doctrine development and concept validation.
Framework Nation: Slovakia
Accreditation: 2011

Human Intelligence (HUMINT) COE
Location: Oradea, Romania
Expertise: human intelligence expertise for Strategic Commands and other NATO bodies to improve interoperability and standardization, and contribute to doctrine development through experimentation, testing and validation.
Framework Nation: Romania
Accreditation: 2010.
Joint Air Power Competence Centre (JAPCC)  
**Location:** Kalkar, Germany  
**Expertise:** improving the space, land and maritime air power operations of the Alliance by developing and advancing new ideas for the command, control and use of air assets from all service branches, while ensuring the implementation of those ideas. It also supports the Strategic Commands and Sponsoring Nations.  
**Framework Nation:** Germany  
**Accreditation:** 2005

Joint Chemical, Biological, Radiological and Nuclear Defence (JCBRN Defence) COE  
**Location:** Vyškov, Czech Republic  
**Expertise:** developing defence doctrines, standards and knowledge with the goal of improving interoperability and capabilities in the area of CBRN defence. It advises NATO, Sponsoring Nations and other international organisations and institutions and shares lessons learned. It also trains and certifies the CBRN Defence Task Force of the NATO Response Force.  
**Framework Nation:** The Czech Republic  
**Accreditation:** 2007

Military Engineering (MILENG) COE  
**Location:** Ingolstadt, Germany  
**Expertise:** joint and combined military engineering, with the aim of improving interoperability.  
**Framework Nation:** Germany  
**Accreditation:** 2010

Military Medicine (MILMED) COE  
**Location:** Budapest, Hungary  
**Expertise:** developing the provision of effective, sustainable and ethical full-spectrum health services at best value to the Allies. It focuses on medical training and evaluation, standards development and lessons learned, while striving to improve multinational medical capabilities and interoperability.  
**Framework Nations:** Hungary and Germany  
**Accreditation:** 2009

Military Police (MP) COE  
**Location:** Bydgoszcz, Poland  
**Expertise:** enhancing the capabilities of Military Police in NATO, fostering interoperability, and providing expertise on MP activities.  
**Framework Nation:** Poland  
**Accreditation:** 2014

Modelling and Simulation (M&S) COE  
**Location:** Rome, Italy  
**Expertise:** focus on education, training, knowledge management, lessons learned, analysis, concept development, experimentation, doctrine development and interoperability in the field of modelling and simulation.  
**Framework Nation:** Italy  
**Accreditation:** 2012

Mountain Warfare (MW) COE  
**Location:** Poljše, Slovenia  
**Expertise:** preparing both individuals and units for operations in mountainous and other difficult terrain, as well as in extreme weather conditions. More specifically, developing mountain warfare-specific doctrine and tactics; concept development and experimentation; mountain warfare lessons learned process; supporting capability development, and education and training.  
**Framework Nation:** Slovenia  
**Accreditation:** 2015
Naval Mine Warfare (NMW) COE  
Location: Oostende, Belgium  
Expertise: providing Naval Mine Countermeasures (NMCM) courses to naval personnel from Belgium and the Netherlands. It also acts as NMCM technical advisor to Allied Command Operations, assists NATO’s Operational Commands and offers courses to NATO, partner and other non-NATO countries.  
Framework Nations: Belgium and the Netherlands  
Accreditation: 2006

Operations in Confined and Shallow Waters (CSW) COE  
Location: Kiel, Germany  
Expertise: developing the Alliance’s confined and shallow-water war fighting capabilities.  
Framework Nation: Germany  
Accreditation: 2008

Security Force Assistance (SFA) COE  
Location: Rome, Italy  
Expertise: promoting stability and reconstruction efforts for conflict and post-conflict scenarios through related lessons learned, education and training analysis, development of concept and doctrine activities.  
Framework Nation: Italy  
Accreditation: 2018

Stability Policing (SP) COE  
Location: Vicenza, Italy  
Expertise: increasing contributions to the stability and reconstruction efforts of the Alliance in post-conflict scenarios.  
Framework Nation: Italy  
Accreditation: 2015

Strategic Communications (StratCom) COE  
Location: Riga, Latvia  
Expertise: developing improved strategic communications capabilities within the Alliance by helping to advance doctrine development and harmonisation, conducting research and experimentation, identifying lessons learned from applied StratCom during operations, and enhancing training and education. It also operates as a hub for debate within various StratCom disciplines: public diplomacy, public affairs, military public affairs, information operations and psychological operations.  
Framework Nation: Latvia  
Accreditation: 2014

Working mechanisms

Different types of participants

There are three different types of participants for COEs: “Framework Nations”, “Sponsoring Nations” and “Contributing Nations”. Generally, a Framework Nation agrees to take on the responsibility of developing the concept and implementation of the COE. In addition, it agrees to provide physical space for the operation of the COE, as well as personnel to run the institution. Sponsoring Nations contribute financially to the COE and also provide personnel, whose salary they cover. Contributing Nations may provide financial support or some other service that is of use to the functioning of the COE.

Receiving NATO accreditation

All COEs follow a set process to receive NATO accreditation. The Framework Nation(s) submit a proposal for the COE, which Allied Command Transformation (ACT) then considers. Next, the Framework Nation(s) coordinate with ACT to further flesh out the proposal before sending the official offer to establish a COE to the Supreme Allied Commander Transformation (SACT). If the proposal meets certain criteria, ACT formally welcomes the offer.
Afterwards, the Framework Nation(s) further develop the concept, draft an Operational MOU and present the COE offer to other countries. Those that are interested in joining the COE then engage in MOU negotiations before agreeing to the terms of the MOU. For COEs that did not have some sort of facility in place previously, the COE is physically established.

The Framework and Sponsoring Nations must also coordinate, draft, negotiate and agree to a Functional MOU with ACT. The COE then enters into the accreditation phase. ACT develops accreditation criteria, after which the Framework Nation or Nations request accreditation for the COE. A team from ACT then visits the COE and assesses it against the tailored list of points based on the Military Committee’s accreditation criteria for COEs.

All COEs must act as a catalyst for NATO transformation and open activities to all Alliance members. COEs must not duplicate nor compete with current NATO capabilities, but instead offer an area of expertise not already found within NATO. To this end, all COEs must have subject-matter experts in their field of specialisation. ACT periodically re-assesses COEs in order to ensure that they continue to meet those criteria and assure continued NATO accreditation status. Ultimately, the Military Committee and the North Atlantic Council must approve the initial accreditation of the COE.

### Evolution of the Centres of Excellence

COEs trace their roots back to the reorganisation of NATO’s military command structure following the Prague Summit in 2002. After the summit, Allied Command Atlantic became Allied Command Transformation (ACT). ACT became responsible for transforming the Alliance into a leaner, more efficient organisation.

Specifically, ACT ensures that the Alliance is able to face future challenges by enhancing training, conducting experiments to test new concepts and promoting interoperability within the Alliance. In line with this goal, ACT has used its links with various institutions to direct the transformation of the military structure, forces, capabilities and doctrine of the Alliance.

The Joint Air Power Competence Centre in Germany and the Defence Against Terrorism Centre of Excellence in Turkey became the first institutions to receive NATO COE accreditation in 2005 and 2006, respectively.
Chairman of the Military Committee

The Chairman of the Military Committee is NATO’s senior military officer, by virtue of being the principal military adviser to the Secretary General and the conduit through which consensus-based advice from NATO’s 29 Chiefs of Defence is brought forward to the political decision-making bodies of NATO.

Highlights

- The Chairman is NATO’s senior military officer and the senior military spokesman for the Alliance on all military matters.
- He is the principal military adviser to the Secretary General.
- He is the conduit through which advice from the Chiefs of Defence is presented to the political decision-making bodies and guidance and directives are issued to the Strategic Commanders (Supreme Allied Commander Europe and Supreme Allied Commander Transformation) and the Director General of the International Military Staff.
- He also directs the Military Committee (NATO’s highest military authority), acts on its behalf and is the Committee’s spokesman and representative.
- The current Chairman is Air Chief Marshal Sir Stuart Peach. He took up his functions on 29 June 2018.
Tasks and responsibilities

The Chairman’s authority stems from the Military Committee, to which he is responsible in the performance of his duties.

He chairs all meetings of the Military Committee and, in his absence, the Deputy Chairman of the Military Committee takes the chair.

The Chairman of the Military Committee is both its spokesman and representative. He acts on behalf of the Committee in issuing the necessary directives and guidance both to the Director General of the International Military Staff and to NATO’s Strategic Commanders. He represents the Military Committee at the North Atlantic Council (NATO’s highest political decision-making body), and other high-level political meetings, such as the Nuclear Planning Group, providing consensus-based advice on military matters when required.

By virtue of his appointment, the Chairman of the Committee also has an important public role and is the senior military spokesman for the Alliance. He undertakes official visits and representational duties on behalf of the Committee, meeting with government officials and senior military officers in both NATO countries and in countries with which NATO is developing closer contacts in the framework of formal partnerships, for instance the Partnership for Peace programme and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, and with non-NATO troop-contributing countries to NATO operations.

He is also the Chairman of the Academic Advisory Board of the NATO Defense College.

Selection process and mandate

The Chairman of the Military Committee is elected from among the NATO Chiefs of Defence and appointed for a three-year term of office. He must have served as Chief of defence – or an equivalent capacity – in his own country and is traditionally a non-US officer of four-star rank or national equivalent.
Civil Emergency Planning Committee (CEPC)

The Civil Emergency Planning Committee is the top NATO advisory body for the protection of civilian populations and the use of civil resources in support of NATO’s objectives.

Civil Emergency Planning provides NATO with essential civilian expertise and capabilities in the fields of terrorism preparedness and consequence management, humanitarian and disaster response and protecting critical infrastructure.

The CEPC coordinates planning in several areas, to ensure – when necessary - civil support for the Alliance’s military operations or support for national authorities in civil emergencies.

The committee has for example developed a plan for improving the civil preparedness of NATO and Partner countries against terrorist attacks. In September 2011, a team of civil experts visited Ukraine to advise on preparedness issues for the Euro 2012 football championship. The CEPC also supports the development of NATO cyber capabilities through the provision of advisory expertise and with support for training. The CEPC assists with issues related to energy security, in particular the protection of critical infrastructure, through the exchange of experience and best practice between nations. In the field of missile defence, the CEPC has addressed issues relating to the consequences of intercept for the protection of civil populations.

Main tasks and responsibilities

The CEPC reports directly to the North Atlantic Council, NATO’s principal decision-making body. It coordinates and provides direction and guidance for four specialised groups.

These bring together national government, industry experts and military representatives to coordinate emergency planning in areas such as: civil protection; transport; industrial resources and communications; public health, food and water. Their primary purpose is to develop procedures for use in crisis situations.

Together, NATO’s Civil Emergency Planning structures provide an interface to many different ministries across a broad range of sectors, thus providing a vast civil network going beyond NATO’s more traditional interlocutors in Ministries of Foreign Affairs and Defence.

The CEPC also oversees the activities of the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) at NATO Headquarters, which acts as the focal point for coordinating disaster relief efforts among NATO and partner countries, and in countries where NATO is engaged with military operations.

Work in practice

The CEPC meets twice a year in plenary session, at the level of the heads of the national civil emergency planning organisations from NATO and partner countries.

In addition, it meets on a weekly basis in permanent session, where countries are represented by their national delegations to NATO. Meetings alternate between those of NATO member countries only, and those open to Partner countries.

The Secretary General is Chairman of plenary sessions, but in practice these are chaired by the NATO Assistant Secretary General for Operations, while permanent sessions are chaired by the NATO Deputy Assistant Secretary General for Planning, Civil Emergency Planning and Exercises.
Evolution

The Civil Emergency Planning Committee was created when NATO first developed its Civil Emergency Planning programme in the 1950's.
Civil preparedness

The effective transportation of forces and military equipment relies on civil resources and infrastructure, such as railways, ports, airfields and grids. These assets are vulnerable to external attack and internal disruption. Civil preparedness means that basic government functions can continue during emergencies or disasters in peacetime or in periods of crisis. It also means that the civilian sector in Allied nations would be ready to provide support to a NATO military operation.

Highlights

- Under Article 3 of the North Atlantic Treaty, all Allies are committed to building resilience, which is the combination of civil preparedness and military capacity.
- Allies agreed baseline resilience requirements in seven strategic sectors – continuity of government, energy, population movements, food and water resources, mass casualties, civil communications and transport systems.
- To deter or counter potential threats or disruption to the civil sector, effective action requires clear plans and response measures, defined well ahead of time and exercised regularly.
- That is why there is a need to complement military efforts to defend Alliance territory and populations with robust civil preparedness.
Strategic areas

NATO civil preparedness is primarily concerned with aspects of national planning which affect the ability to contribute to Allied efforts in continuity of government, continuity of essential services to the population and civil support to military operations.

These three critical civilian functions have been translated into seven baseline resilience requirements and agreed by NATO in February 2016. Together with a package of resilience guidelines, assessment and a tailored toolbox, their objective is to support nations in achieving national resilience and provide benchmarks against which to assess the state of civil preparedness. These are:

1. Continuity of government and critical government services;
2. Energy supplies;
3. Ability to deal effectively with uncontrolled movement of people;
4. Food and water resources;
5. Ability to deal with mass casualties;
6. Telecommunications and cyber networks;
7. Transportation systems.

At the 2016 Summit in Warsaw, Allied leaders committed to continue enhancing NATO’s resilience and to further developing individual and collective capacity to resist any form of armed attack. Civil preparedness is a central piece of Allies’ resilience and a critical enabler for Alliance collective defence. NATO can support Allies in assessing and, upon request, enhancing their civil preparedness.

In 2017, Allies took further steps to implement their commitment. NATO provided nations with evaluation criteria to assist them in conducting national resilience self-assessments. In July 2017, NATO produced an Alliance-wide assessment of national resilience which generated an overview of the state of civil preparedness. This identified areas where further efforts are required to enhance resilience and deal with a wide range of threats, including terrorism.

Context

Why is civil preparedness essential to collective defence? In large operations, around 90 per cent of military transport uses civilian assets chartered or requisitioned from the commercial sector. The military medical system relies on the ability to evacuate casualties. Civilian medical infrastructure must be able to cope with both an increase in demand from civilian casualties as well as the military casualty treatment and evacuation chain.

Deployed NATO forces need access to host nations’ industrial infrastructure, access to the power grid, food, water and fuel supplies, access to civilian telecommunications infrastructure, and building materials. They also require local civilian expertise and manpower. On average, 75 per cent of host nation support to NATO operations is sourced from local commercial infrastructure and services.

These civil assets are often highly vulnerable because they have been designed to generate maximum profit as opposed to providing redundancy and resilience in times of crisis. In addition, hybrid threats are blurring the traditional divisions of war and peace, rendering government powers based on wartime emergency legislation increasingly impractical or even obsolete. In today’s security environment, resilience to such challenges requires a full range of capabilities, military and civilian, and active cooperation across government and the private sector. To train Allies’ responses to crisis situations, civil preparedness elements are being built into NATO’s military exercises, such as Trident Juncture 2018.

Enhancing resilience also requires continued engagement with partners and other international bodies, including the United Nations and particularly the European Union, as well as continuously updated situational awareness.
History

During the Cold War, many of the civil assets, such as railways, ports, airfields, grids or airspace were in state hands and easily transferred to NATO control in a crisis or wartime situation.

Following the fall of the Berlin wall, the significantly reduced threat meant that the likelihood of a direct attack on mainland Europe diminished. Consequently, attention to and investment in civil preparedness started to decline.

As threats from international terrorism and religious extremism became more prevalent, NATO assumed an expeditionary stance which demanded different capabilities and capacities than those developed during the Cold War. During this period, outsourcing of non-combat essential military tasks, requirements and capabilities became the norm and was also embraced by new NATO member countries. Although cost-effective, the result has been an incremental increase in military dependency on civilian resources and infrastructure. For example, in large-scale operations around 90 per cent of military transport is now provided by the commercial sector, as is 40 per cent of military satellite communications, while 75 per cent of all host nation support is dependent on the use of locally procured infrastructure and services.

Recent events, particularly the conflict in eastern Ukraine, have refocused attention on challenges closer to Alliance territory. As part of its response, the Alliance agreed and is implementing a set of assurance and adaptation measures known as the Readiness Action Plan (RAP). To be fully effective, the RAP must be complemented by civil preparedness.

Consequently, nations are re-evaluating their own vulnerabilities and preparedness to effectively deter and defend against contemporary security threats.
Civilian Intelligence Committee (CIC)

The Civilian Intelligence Committee (CIC) is the sole body that handles civilian intelligence issues at NATO. It reports directly to the North Atlantic Council and advises it on matters of espionage and terrorist or related threats, which may affect the Alliance.

Each NATO member country is represented on the Committee by its security and intelligence services. It is chaired on an annual rotational basis by the nations.

The CIC is supported in its day-to-day work by the International Staff’s NATO Office of Security.
Collective defence - Article 5

The principle of collective defence is at the very heart of NATO’s founding treaty. It remains a unique and enduring principle that binds its members together, committing them to protect each other and setting a spirit of solidarity within the Alliance.

Highlights
- Collective defence means that an attack against one Ally is considered as an attack against all Allies.
- The principle of collective defence is enshrined in Article 5 of the Washington Treaty.
- NATO invoked Article 5 for the first time in its history after the 9/11 terrorist attacks against the United States.
- NATO has taken collective defence measures on several occasions, for instance in response to the situation in Syria and in the wake of the Russia-Ukraine crisis.
- NATO has standing forces on active duty that contribute to the Alliance’s collective defence efforts on a permanent basis.

More background information

A cornerstone of the Alliance

Article 5

In 1949, the primary aim of the North Atlantic Treaty – NATO’s founding treaty – was to create a pact of mutual assistance to counter the risk that the Soviet Union would seek to extend its control of Eastern Europe to other parts of the continent.
Every participating country agreed that this form of solidarity was at the heart of the Treaty, effectively making Article 5 on collective defence a key component of the Alliance.

Article 5 provides that if a NATO Ally is the victim of an armed attack, each and every other member of the Alliance will consider this act of violence as an armed attack against all members and will take the actions it deems necessary to assist the Ally attacked.

**Article 5**

"The Parties agree that an armed attack against one or more of them in Europe or North America shall be considered an attack against them all and consequently they agree that, if such an armed attack occurs, each of them, in exercise of the right of individual or collective self-defence recognized by Article 51 of the Charter of the United Nations, will assist the Party or Parties so attacked by taking forthwith, individually and in concert with the other Parties, such action as it deems necessary, including the use of armed force, to restore and maintain the security of the North Atlantic area.

Any such armed attack and all measures taken as a result thereof shall immediately be reported to the Security Council. Such measures shall be terminated when the Security Council has taken the measures necessary to restore and maintain international peace and security."

**The “out-of-area” debate**

This article is complemented by Article 6, which stipulates:

**Article 6**

"For the purpose of Article 5, an armed attack on one or more of the Parties is deemed to include an armed attack:

- on the territory of any of the Parties in Europe or North America, on the Algerian Departments of France, on the territory of Turkey or on the Islands under the jurisdiction of any of the Parties in the North Atlantic area north of the Tropic of Cancer;

- on the forces, vessels, or aircraft of any of the Parties, when in or over these territories or any other area in Europe in which occupation forces of any of the Parties were stationed on the date when the Treaty entered into force or the Mediterranean Sea or the North Atlantic area north of the Tropic of Cancer."

According to one of the drafters of the Treaty, Theodore C. Achilles, there was no doubt in anybody’s mind that NATO operations could also be conducted south of the Tropic of Cancer. This was confirmed by NATO foreign ministers in Reykjavik in May 2002 in the context of the fight against terrorism: “To carry out the full range of its missions, NATO must be able to field forces that can move quickly to wherever they are needed, sustain operations over distance and time, and achieve their objectives”. (Extract from the Reykjavik communiqué).

**The principle of providing assistance**

With the invocation of Article 5, Allies can provide any form of assistance they deem necessary to respond to a situation. This is an individual obligation on each Ally and each Ally is responsible for determining what it deems necessary in the particular circumstances.

This assistance is taken forward in concert with other Allies. It is not necessarily military and depends on the material resources of each country. It is therefore left to the judgment of each individual member country to determine how it will contribute. Each country will consult with the other members, bearing in mind that the ultimate aim is to “to restore and maintain the security of the North Atlantic area”.

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1 Article 6 has been modified by Article 2 of the Protocol to the North Atlantic Treaty on the Accession of Greece and Turkey.
2 On January 16, 1963, the North Atlantic Council modified this Treaty in its decision C-R(63)2, point V, on the independence of the Algerian departments of France.
3 Documents on Canadian External Relations, Vol. 15, Ch. IV.
At the drafting of Article 5 in the late 1940s, there was consensus on the principle of mutual assistance, but fundamental disagreement on the modalities of implementing this commitment. The European participants wanted to ensure that the United States would automatically come to their assistance should one of the signatories come under attack; the United States did not want to make such a pledge and obtained that this be reflected in the wording of Article 5.

Invocation of Article 5

The 9/11 terrorist attacks

The United States was the object of brutal terrorist attacks on 11 September 2001. The Alliance’s 1999 Strategic Concept had already identified terrorism as one of the risks affecting NATO’s security. The Alliance’s response to 9/11, however, saw NATO engage actively in the fight against terrorism, launch its first operations outside the Euro-Atlantic area and begin a far-reaching transformation of its capabilities. Moreover, it led NATO to invoke Article 5 of the Washington Treaty for the very first time in its history.

An act of solidarity

On the evening of 12 September 2001, less than 24 hours after the attacks, the Allies invoked the principle of Article 5. Then NATO Secretary General Lord Robertson subsequently informed the Secretary-General of the United Nations of the Alliance’s decision.

The North Atlantic Council – NATO’s principal political decision-making body – agreed that if it determined that the attack was directed from abroad against the United States, it would be regarded as an action covered by Article 5. On 2 October, once the Council had been briefed on the results of investigations into the 9/11 attacks, it determined that they were regarded as an action covered by Article 5.

By invoking Article 5, NATO members showed their solidarity toward the United States and condemned, in the strongest possible way, the terrorist attacks against the United States.

Taking action

After 9/11, there were consultations among the Allies and collective action was decided by the Council. The United States could also carry out independent actions, consistent with its rights and obligations under the United Nations Charter.

On 4 October, once it had been determined that the attacks came from abroad, NATO agreed on a package of eight measures to support the United States. On the request of the United States, it launched its first ever anti-terror operation – Eagle Assist – from mid-October 2001 to mid-May 2002. It consisted in seven NATO AWACS radar aircraft that helped patrol the skies over the United States; in total 830 crew members from 13 NATO countries flew over 360 sorties. This was the first time that NATO military assets were deployed in support of an Article 5 operation.

On 26 October, the Alliance launched its second counter-terrorism operation in response to the attacks on the United States, Active Endeavour. Elements of NATO’s Standing Naval Forces were sent to patrol the Eastern Mediterranean and monitor shipping to detect and deter terrorist activity, including illegal trafficking. In March 2004, the operation was expanded to include the entire Mediterranean.

The eight measures to support the United States, as agreed by NATO were:

- to enhance intelligence-sharing and cooperation, both bilaterally and in appropriate NATO bodies, relating to the threats posed by terrorism and the actions to be taken against it;
- to provide, individually or collectively, as appropriate and according to their capabilities, assistance to Allies and other countries which are or may be subject to increased terrorist threats as a result of their support for the campaign against terrorism;
- to take necessary measures to provide increased security for facilities of the United States and other Allies on their territory;
to backfill selected Allied assets in NATO’s area of responsibility that are required to directly support operations against terrorism;

■ to provide blanket overflight clearances for the United States and other Allies’ aircraft, in accordance with the necessary air traffic arrangements and national procedures, for military flights related to operations against terrorism;

■ to provide access for the United States and other Allies to ports and airfields on the territory of NATO member countries for operations against terrorism, including for refuelling, in accordance with national procedures;

■ that the Alliance is ready to deploy elements of its Standing Naval Forces to the Eastern Mediterranean in order to provide a NATO presence and demonstrate resolve;

■ that the Alliance is similarly ready to deploy elements of its NATO Airborne Early Warning Force to support operations against terrorism.

Enhanced collective defence measures

On the request of Turkey, on three occasions, NATO has put collective defence measures in place: in 1991 with the deployment of Patriot missiles during the Gulf War, in 2003 with the agreement on a package of defensive measures and conduct of Operation Display Deterrence during the crisis in Iraq, and in 2012 in response to the situation in Syria with the deployment of Patriot missiles.

Since Russia's illegal annexation of Crimea in 2014 and the rise of security challenges from the south, including brutal attacks by ISIL and other terrorist groups across several continents, NATO has implemented the biggest increase in collective defence since the Cold War. For instance, it has tripled the size of the NATO Response Force, established a 5,000-strong Spearhead Force and deployed multinational battlegroups in Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Poland. NATO has also increased its presence in the southeast of the Alliance, centred on a multinational brigade in Romania. The Alliance has further stepped up air policing over the Baltic and Black Sea areas and continues to develop key military capabilities, such as Joint Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance. At the Warsaw Summit in July 2016, Allies recognised cyber defence as a new operational domain, to enable better protection of networks, missions and operations; and at the meeting of foreign ministers in November 2019, Allies agreed to recognise space as a new operational domain to “allow NATO planners to make requests for Allies to provide capabilities and services, such as hours of satellite communications.”

Standing forces

Collective defence measures are not solely event-driven. NATO has a number of standing forces on active duty that contribute to the Alliance’s collective defence efforts on a permanent basis. These include NATO’s standing maritime forces, which are ready to act when called upon. They perform different tasks ranging from exercises to operational missions, in peacetime and in periods of crisis and conflict.

Additionally, NATO has an integrated air defence system to protect against air attacks, which also comprises the Alliance’s ballistic missile defence system. NATO also conducts several air policing missions, which are collective peacetime missions that enable NATO to detect, track and identify all violations and infringements of its airspace and to take appropriate action. As part of such missions, Allied fighter jets patrol the airspace of Allies who do not have fighter jets of their own. They run on a 24/7 basis, 365 days a year.
Combined Joint Chemical, Biological, Radiological and Nuclear Defence Task Force

The Alliance’s multinational CBRN defence capability

NATO today faces a whole range of complex challenges and threats to its security. Current threats include the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction (WMD) and their delivery systems. Rapid advances in biological science and technology also continue to increase the bio-terrorism threat against NATO forces and populations. The Alliance needs to be prepared to prevent, protect and recover from WMD attacks or CBRN1 events.

Highlights

- The NATO Combined Joint CBRN Defence Task Force consists of the CBRN Joint Assessment Team (JAT) and the CBRN Defence Battalion
- The CBRN Defence Battalion is a NATO body specifically trained and equipped to deal with CBRN events and/or attacks against NATO populations, territory or forces.
- The Battalion trains not only for armed conflicts, but also for deployment in crisis situations such as natural disasters and industrial accidents.
- It falls under the authority of the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR).

1 Chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) material is used as an umbrella term for chemical, biological and radiological agents in any physical state and form, which can cause hazards to populations, territory and forces. It also refers to chemical weapons precursors and facilities, equipment or compounds that can be used for development or deployment of WMD, CBRN weapons or CBRN devices.
More background information

Combined Joint CBRN Defence Task Force

The NATO Combined Joint CBRN Defence Task Force, which consists of the CBRN Joint Assessment Team (JAT) and the CBRN Defence Battalion, is a NATO body specifically trained and equipped to deal with CBRN events and/or attacks against NATO populations, territory or forces.

The Battalion and the JAT, created in 2003 and declared operational the following year, are a multinational, multifunctional team, able to deploy quickly to participate in the full spectrum of NATO operations.

The Battalion trains not only for armed conflicts, but also for deployment in crisis situations such as natural disasters and industrial accidents, including those involving hazardous material. To maintain the Task Force’s specialised skill, NATO’s Defence Against Terrorism Programme of Work (DAT POW) supports training exercises.

Authority, tasks and responsibilities

The Combined Joint CBRN Defence Task Force benefits from two of the capability commitments made by Allies at the 2002 Prague Summit: a Prototype Deployable Nuclear, Biological and Chemical (NBC) Analytical Laboratory and a Prototype NBC Event Response Team. These capabilities greatly enhance the Alliance’s defence against WMD.

The CBRN Defence Battalion’s mission is to provide a rapidly deployable and credible CBRN defence capability in order to maintain NATO’s freedom of action and operational effectiveness in a CBRN threat environment.

The Battalion may be used to provide military assistance to civil authorities when authorised by the North Atlantic Council (NAC), the Alliance’s principal political decision-making body. For example, it played a key planning role during the 2004 Summer Olympics in Greece, and the 2004 Istanbul Summit, where it supported CBRN-related contingency operations.

The Battalion is capable of conducting the following tasks:
- CBRN reconnaissance and monitoring operations;
- Sampling and identification of biological, chemical, and radiological agents (SIBCRA);
- Biological detection and monitoring operations;
- Provision of CBRN assessments and advice to NATO commanders;
- CBRN hazard management operations, such as decontamination.

Contributors to the Combined Joint CBRN Defence Task Force

Some 21 NATO countries contribute to the Task Force on a voluntary basis. National commitments vary depending on the rotation, but there are usually between 8-10 countries involved per rotation.

In 2010, a non-NATO member country participated for the very first time. Ukraine contributed a decontamination platoon after having accomplished a NATO evaluation and certification process.

Working mechanisms

The CBRN Joint Assessment Team and CBRN Defence Battalion fall under the strategic command of the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR). Operational control is delegated to a subordinate command as required.
Allied Command Transformation (ACT) provides evaluation standards, supports training and determines future NBC defence requirements and develops capabilities.

The Battalion-level organisation is composed of personnel from a number of NATO countries, on stand-by for 12-month rotations. Like the NATO Response Force (NRF), dedicated personnel are based in their countries, coming together for training and deployment.

A voluntary lead country is identified for each rotation. The lead country hosts the CBRN Joint Assessment Team and Battalion headquarters, responsible for command and control arrangements, maintaining standard operational procedures, sustaining readiness levels and for planning and conducting training. Contributing countries supply functional capabilities. This includes providing requisite troops, equipment and logistical support in accordance with mission requirements. The Task Force consists of separate but complimentary components, which can be deployed in different stages and different combinations to suit each mission.

The components are:

- **Joint Assessment Team.** Specialists that provide CBRN-related advice and support;
- **Headquarters Command and Control.** Tailored command and control capabilities with a robust communications package to support assigned and attached organisations;
- **Reconnaissance.** Designed to provide route, area and point detection and identification of agents;
- **Decontamination.** Maintains the capability to decontaminate personnel and equipment;
- **Deployable Analytical NBC Laboratories.** Designed to provide expert sampling, analysis, and scientific advice to support operational commanders.

The Battalion has a close relationship with the NRF. While it can be deployed independently, it is consistent and in complementarity with the NRF. Its strength is included within the NRF force structure, and it can deploy within 5 to 30 days.

## Evolution

Following the agreement at the 2002 Prague Summit to enhance the Alliance's defence capabilities against WMD, the NAC, in June 2003, decided to form a multinational CBRN Defence Battalion and Joint Assessment Team.

The structure of the Battalion was established at a planning conference on 17-18 September 2003. On 28 October 2003, a force generation conference was held at Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE), Mons, Belgium. On 18-21 November 2003, a follow-up conference was held in the Czech Republic, the first volunteer lead country.

The Battalion reached its initial operational capability on 1 December 2003. Full operational capability was achieved on 28 June 2004 as declared by SACEUR at the Istanbul Summit, and responsibility was transferred to the strategic command of Allied Command Operations. From then on, the Battalion was included in the rotation system of the NRF. The concept of operations and capability requirements of the Battalion are currently being reviewed to incorporate lessons learned from previous NRF cycles and operational deployments.
Committee for Standardization (CS)

The Committee for Standardization (CS) is the senior NATO committee for Alliance standardization, composed primarily of representatives from all NATO countries. Operating under the authority of the North Atlantic Council (NAC), it issues policy and guidance for all NATO standardization activities. Its mission is to exert domain governance for standardization policy and management within the Alliance to contribute to Allies’ development of interoperable and cost-effective military forces and capabilities.

**Highlights**
- Created in 2001, the Committee for Standardization is responsible for standardization policy and management within the Alliance.
- The Committee contributes to interoperable and cost-effective capabilities.
- It reports directly to the North Atlantic Council.

**More background information**

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**Role and responsibilities**

As the senior body responsible for coordinating standardization activities across the Alliance, the Committee for Standardization steers the development of the NATO policy for standardization and monitors its implementation. It facilitates the development, maintenance, management and implementation of NATO standards.

The Committee provides coordinated advice on overall standardization matters to the NAC, the Alliance’s principal political decision-making body. It also provides standardization guidance and procedures to all NATO bodies as needed.

**Working mechanisms**

The Committee for Standardization, comprising delegates from 29 NATO countries and more than 30 partner countries, meets in full format at least twice a year. It reaches decisions on the basis of consensus among Allied representatives. If consensus among NATO nations cannot be reached, the issue in question can be referred to the NAC.

Annual reports to the NAC on progress made in NATO standardization are produced by the Committee, proposing actions as needed. It also presents its objectives for upcoming years.

The NATO Secretary General is Chairman of the Committee and is represented by two three-star level leaders, acting as permanent Co-Chairmen, namely the Assistant Secretary General for Defence Investment and the Deputy Chairman of the Military Committee. Partner countries, particularly those in the Interoperability Platform, are actively involved in the Committee’s activities. The Interoperability Platform brings together Allies with partners that have demonstrated their commitment to reinforce their interoperability with NATO.

**Evolution**

The NATO Standardization Agency evolved from the merger of two separate standardization bodies, one military and one civilian.
The Military Standardization Agency was established in London in 1951 and was renamed the Military Agency for Standardization later the same year. It moved to Brussels in 1970. In 1995, the Office of NATO Standardization was created by the NAC as part of the Alliance’s International Staff to address broader standardization issues.

After a review of NATO standardization between 1998 and 2000, the two bodies were merged into one, creating the NATO Standardization Agency as the staffing element of the new NATO Standardization Organization. The Committee for Standardization was created in 2001 to oversee the work of the NATO Standardization Organization.

In 2014, as part of the NATO Agencies reform to enhance efficiency and effectiveness, Allied defence ministers created the NATO Standardization Office with a Director elected by NATO’s Military Committee and appointed by the NATO Secretary General. In that decision, they dissolved the NATO Standardization Organization and the Agency. Accordingly, they directed the Committee for Standardization to propose new terms of reference. Those revised terms of reference were approved by the NAC in 2014.
The Committee on Proliferation (CP) is the senior advisory body to the North Atlantic Council on proliferation of weapons of mass destruction (WMD) and their associated delivery systems and chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) defence. The CP is responsible for information sharing, policy development and coordination on the issues of prevention of and response to proliferation, bringing together experts and officials with responsibilities in this field.

The CP was created following the June 2010 committee reform, replacing the Senior Politico-Military Group on Proliferation, the Senior Defence Group on Proliferation and the Joint Committee on Proliferation.

The CP meets in two formats: politico-military, under the chairmanship of the Assistant Secretary General for Emerging Security Challenges, and defence format, under national North-American and European co-chairmanship. The Committee addresses the threats and challenges stemming from WMD proliferation, as well as the international diplomatic responses to them. In its defence format, it also discusses the development of military capabilities needed to discourage WMD proliferation, to deter threats and use of such weapons, and to protect NATO populations, territory and forces. It cooperates with other NATO bodies with competencies in the area of WMD and CBRN defence.

It can meet in several ways: Plenary Sessions, Steering Group meetings, Points of Contact meetings, consultations with partners in 29+1 and 29+n formats.

Some of NATO’s largest outreach activities take place under the auspices of the CP: the Annual NATO Conference on WMD Arms Control, Disarmament and Non-Proliferation, organized by the Committee in politico-military format, which gathers a broad range of non-NATO countries, including a number of partners across the globe from Asia and the Pacific. On average, 150 participants from more than 50
countries attend this conference every year. For the Committee in defence format, the main annual activity of this kind is the International CBRN Defence Outreach event, which has the objective of increasing engagement, exchanging views and sharing best practices on CBRN defence with a wide variety of NATO's partners.
Committee on Public Diplomacy (CPD)

The Committee on Public Diplomacy (CPD) acts as an advisory body to the North Atlantic Council (NAC) on communication, media and public engagement issues. It makes recommendations to the NAC on how to encourage public understanding of, and support for, the aims of NATO. In this respect, the Committee is responsible for the planning, implementation and assessment of NATO’s public diplomacy strategy.

To support its objectives, members of the CPD share their experiences on national information and communication programmes and the perception of their respective publics regarding the Alliance and its activities. The CPD discusses, develops and makes recommendations regarding NATO’s public diplomacy strategy and activities, where appropriate, in conjunction with national information experts.

The CPD was created in 2004, succeeding the Committee on Information and Cultural Relations (CICR), which was one of the Organization’s first committees to be created. This reflected the importance given to information and awareness-raising by NATO’s founding members. A modest information service was created as early as 1950 and was supported in its efforts by the creation of the CICR in 1953.

Role of the Committee on Public Diplomacy

The Committee on Public Diplomacy (CPD) steers the planning, implementation and assessment of NATO’s public diplomacy strategy and advises the NAC on relevant issues. It analyses the current and long-term challenges in encouraging public understanding of, and support for, the aims of Alliance.

Members of the CPD discuss and exchange views and experiences on national information and communication programmes, in addition to sharing information regarding public perception of the Alliance. Together, they identify potential collective actions and, whenever needed, co-ordinate national actions to raise public awareness and understanding of NATO’s policies and objectives.

To improve and reinforce information dissemination in NATO partner countries, the CPD also designates Contact Point Embassies (CPEs). Within these non-NATO countries, the CPD agrees on an embassy from a NATO member country to act as the point of contact for information about the Alliance in the respective host country. Each CPE serves in this position on a rotational basis.

In addition to its role in forming the policies that determine the way in which the Alliance communicates with the public, the CPD also maintains a collaborative dialogue with non-governmental organisations such as the Atlantic Treaty Association.

Working mechanisms

Representatives from each of the NATO member countries constitute the CPD, with the Assistant Secretary General of the Public Diplomacy Division serving as the Chairman and the Public Information Advisor representing the Director of the International Military Staff.

For reinforced meetings, communication experts from the capitals of member countries or invited third parties also contribute to CPD discussions. During committee meetings, the CPD examines and approves an annual Public Diplomacy Action Plan or equivalent, which is used to implement the Public Diplomacy Strategy. The Committee may also make additional reports or recommendations to the Council as necessary.

The CPD meets regularly, based on a calendar of planned NATO activities, in addition to coming together as needed in response to unexpected events. As regular meetings are normally limited to member countries, the CPD also meets in the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) format in order to allow participation by representatives from Partner countries. Periodically, representatives from Contact Point Embassies in Partner country capitals also attend CPD meetings.
The CPD reports to the North Atlantic Council. It is supported by staff from the Public Diplomacy Division and does not have any subordinate committees under its remit.

## Evolution of the Committee on Public Diplomacy

The founding members of NATO understood the importance of informing public opinion. As early as August 1950, a modest NATO Information Service was set up and developed in the Autumn with the nomination of a Director. The service – similarly to the rest of the civilian organisation of the Alliance – did not receive a budget until July 1951 and effectively developed into an information service in 1952 with the establishment of an international staff headed by a Secretary General (March 1952), to which the information service was initially attached.

### The Committee on Information and Cultural Relations (CICR)

By that time, two entities existed: the Working Group on Information Policy and the Working Group on Social and Cultural Cooperation. These Working Groups were merged in 1953 to form the Committee on Information and Cultural Relations (CICR). The CICR was the precursor to the existing Committee on Public Diplomacy.

The role of this committee was to address the challenges of communicating the Alliance’s policies to the public. It held regular meetings with the NATO Information Service to exchange and share information on the development of NATO and national information and communication programmes. It was, nonetheless, made clear from the start that even if the NATO Information Service was later to develop into a coordinated service where programmes would be disseminated NATO-wide, it would never supersede national responsibilities and efforts in the information field. The CICR and the representatives’ respective countries would continue to work in tandem with the International Staff to raise public awareness and understanding of NATO’s policies and objectives.

### The Committee on Public Diplomacy (CPD)

The CICR changed its name to the Committee on Public Diplomacy in 2004 when the Office of Information and Press became the Public Diplomacy Division, therefore better reflecting its aims and objectives.

The CPD continues the functions of the CICR, giving advice on the methods and means used to communicate NATO policies and activities to a broad range of audiences with the goal of increasing the level of understanding and awareness of the Alliance.
Committees

NATO committees form an indispensable part of the Alliance’s decision-making process. They provide the framework within which member countries can exchange information on a variety of subjects, consult with each other and take decisions made on the basis of consensus and common accord.

Highlights

- NATO committees form an indispensable part of the decision-making process since they enable members to exchange information, consult with each other and take decisions.
- Each of the 29 member countries are represented at all levels of the committee structure in the fields of NATO activity in which they participate.
- Every day, national experts travel to NATO Headquarters in Brussels to attend committee meetings held with delegates from the national representations based at NATO Headquarters and with staff from the International Staff and the International Military Staff.
- NATO has an extensive network of committees, covering everything from political, to technical or operational issues. Some of the committees are supported by working groups.
- The principle of consensus decision-making is applied at each and every level of the committee structure, from the top political decision-making body to the most obscure working group.
- The North Atlantic Council is the principal political decision-making body within NATO and the only committee that was established by the founding treaty (Article 9).
The principal committees

The North Atlantic Council (Council or NAC) is the principal political decision-making body within NATO and the only committee that was established by the Alliance’s founding treaty. Under Article 9, the NAC is invested with the authority to set up “such subsidiary bodies as may be necessary” for the purposes of implementing the treaty. Over the years, the Council has established a network of committees to facilitate the Alliance’s work and deal with all subjects on its agenda.

The principal NATO committees are the NAC, the Nuclear Planning Group (NPG) and the Military Committee (MC). The Defence Planning Committee (DPC), which was also one of NATO’s top decision-making bodies, was dissolved under the June 2010 committee reform and its functions taken over by the NAC.

Committees reporting to the North Atlantic Council

In addition to the NAC, the NPG and the MC, there are also a number of committees that report directly to the Council. Some of these are themselves supported by working groups, especially in areas such as defence procurement.

As part of the NATO reform process initiated in June 2010, which focused on the NATO Command Structure and NATO Agencies, NATO Committees were also reviewed. As such, committees reporting to the NAC now include the following:

- Deputies Committee
- Political Committee
- Partnerships and Cooperative Security Committee
- Defence Policy and Planning Committee
- Committee on Proliferation
- C3 Board
- Operations Policy Committee
- High Level Task Force on Conventional Arms Control
- Verification Coordinating Committee
- Conference of National Armaments Directors
- Committee for Standardization
- Logistics Committee
- Resource Policy and Planning Board
- Air and Missile Defence Committee
- Aviation Committee
- Civil Emergency Planning Committee
- Committee on Public Diplomacy
- Council Operations and Exercises Committee
- Security Committee
- Civilian Intelligence Committee
- Archives Committee
Additionally, there are institutions of cooperation, partnership and dialogue that underpin relations between NATO and other countries.

- Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council
- NATO-Russia Council
- NATO-Ukraine Commission
- NATO-Georgia Commission

### Evolution

With the exception of the NAC, committees were gradually established after the signing of the Washington Treaty on 4 April 1949 (for further information on how the committee structure evolved, see “NATO: The first five years, 1949-1954”, by Lord Ismay).

From time to time, the NATO committee structure is reviewed and reorganised so as to make it more efficient, responsive and relevant to NATO’s current priorities. This includes eliminating obsolete committees and creating new bodies.

Since its creation in 1949, the Alliance has undergone three major committee restructurings. The first took place in 1990 after the end of the Cold War, and the second in 2002, in the wake of the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001 against the United States. The third and most recent committee review was initiated in June 2010 as part of a broader reform effort that touched on all of the Alliance’s structures: the military command structure and its Organisations and Agencies. The review aimed to help NATO respond more effectively to security concerns and to the need for more integrated, flexible working procedures.
Communications and public diplomacy

NATO communicates and develops programmes to help raise awareness and understanding of the Alliance and Alliance-related issues and, ultimately, to foster support for, and trust in, the Organization. Since NATO is an intergovernmental organisation, individual member governments are also responsible for explaining their national defence and security policies as well as their role as members of the Alliance to their respective publics.

Highlights

- NATO promotes public debate and understanding of the Alliance through direct engagement, both online and in person, while coordinating with NATO members on an ongoing basis.
- The Public Diplomacy Division at NATO Headquarters harmonises all public diplomacy activities and coordinates communication activities NATO-wide.
- The military commands and the International Military Staff also communicate on activities under their responsibility, in accordance with agreed NATO policies.
- Overall guidance and direction to NATO’s communications efforts and information activities is provided by the North Atlantic Council (NAC) and specific guidance and direction is given by the Secretary General.
More background information

Role of communications and public diplomacy

The overall aim of NATO’s communications activities is to promote dialogue and understanding, while contributing to the public’s knowledge of security issues and promoting public involvement in a continuous process of debate on security.

To do so, NATO engages with the media, develops communications and public diplomacy programmes for selected groups including opinion leaders, academic and parliamentary groups, youth and educational circles. It seeks to reach audiences worldwide via its various platforms and social media activities. It also disseminates materials and implements programmes and activities with external partners, while at the same time supporting the NATO Secretary General in his role as the principal spokesperson for the Alliance.

This drive to inform and engage with the public is reinforced by the knowledge that NATO is accountable to its member governments and their taxpayers who fund the Organization. As such, and in a spirit of transparency, it explains its policies, activities and functions.

Promoting security cooperation

Stimulating debate on NATO issues contributes to strengthening knowledge of the Alliance’s goals and objectives. Many of NATO’s information activities have an interactive, two-way nature, enabling the Organization to listen to and learn from the experience of its audiences, identify their concerns and fields of interest and respond to their questions. In Moscow and Kyiv for instance, NATO has set up information offices to increase the impact of its work and interact more frequently with its audiences. There are also information points in other partner countries and so-called “contact point embassies”, which are NATO member country embassies located in partner countries that enable NATO to engage with local audiences.

Types of activities

Today, the Alliance uses internet-based media and public engagement, in addition to traditional media, to build awareness of and support for NATO’s evolving role, objectives and missions. In short, the Alliance employs a multi-faceted and integrated approach in communicating and engaging with the wider public.

Over time, programmes and policy have adapted to changes in the political and security environment, as well as to the technical innovations that have a direct impact on communication work. The communications services provided by NATO itself have also been reformed and restructured on numerous occasions to adapt to the different needs of the constantly evolving information environment, as well as to the needs of the security environment.

Working mechanisms

The NAC and Secretary General are in charge of the overall direction of communications and public diplomacy programmes for both the civilian and military sides of the Alliance.

The NATO Deputies Committee guides overall strategic communications on behalf of the NAC. Issue-specific NATO committees provide more detailed guidance, commenting on issues ranging from NATO maritime strategy to operations.

The Committee on Public Diplomacy (CPD) acts as an advisory body to the NAC on communication, media and public engagement issues. It makes recommendations to the NAC regarding how to encourage public understanding of, and support for, the goals of the Alliance.

At NATO Headquarters, members of the Public Diplomacy Division, who run communications and public diplomacy programmes from within the International Staff, work closely with the International Military Staff and, more specifically, the Public Affairs and Strategic Communications Advisor to the Chairman of the Military Committee (MC). PDD also works with staff from the two strategic commands – Allied Command...
Operations (ACO) and Allied Command Transformation (ACT) – who communicate on operations, exercises and other activities under their purview. The interaction between the civilian and military side of the Alliance is key in ensuring a coherent and consistent approach to communications NATO-wide.

Evolution of communications

The founding members of NATO understood the importance of informing public opinion. On 18 May 1950, the NAC issued a resolution in which it committed itself to: “Promote and coordinate public information in furtherance of the objectives of the Treaty while leaving responsibility for national programs to each country...” As early as August 1950, a modest NATO Information Service was set up and developed in the autumn with the nomination of a director. The service – similarly to the rest of the civilian organisation of the Alliance – did not receive a budget until July 1951. It effectively developed into an information service in 1952, with the establishment of an International Staff headed by a Secretary General (March 1952), to which the information service was initially attached.

Later, in 1953, the Committee on Information and Cultural Relations (now the Committee on Public Diplomacy) was created. As such, from 1953, every mechanism was in place for the development of fully-fledged communications and information programmes.

In 1956, the Report of the Three Wise Men stressed the overall importance of non-military cooperation and the need to develop unity within the Alliance. Cooperation in the information field was identified as one of the areas the Alliance should reinforce, stating, “The people of the member countries must know about NATO if they are to support it.” To do so, it recommended, “The promotion of information about, and public understanding of NATO and the Atlantic Community should, in fact, be a joint endeavor by the Organization and its members”.

Communications and public diplomacy
A ’’comprehensive approach’’ to crises

Lessons learned from NATO operations show that addressing crisis situations calls for a comprehensive approach combining political, civilian and military instruments. Building on its unique capabilities and operational experience, including expertise in civilian-military interaction, NATO can contribute to the efforts of the international community for maintaining peace, security and stability, in full coordination with other actors. Military means, although essential, are not enough on their own to meet the many complex challenges to our security. The effective implementation of a comprehensive approach to crisis situations requires nations, international organisations and non-governmental organisations to contribute in a concerted effort.

Highlights

- Different actors contribute to a comprehensive approach based on a shared sense of responsibility, openness and determination, taking into account their respective strengths, mandates and roles, as well as their decision-making autonomy.
- In December 2017, NATO reviewed the tasks of its 2011 Comprehensive Approach Action Plan, validating the importance of civilian-military interaction and cooperation with other actors.
- These tasks are being implemented by a dedicated civilian-military task force that involves all relevant NATO bodies and commands.
- The Action Plan covers four key areas: planning and conduct of operations; lessons learned, training, education and exercises; cooperation with external actors; and strategic communications.
- Implementation of the comprehensive approach is integral to many recent and ongoing NATO activities, such as its contributions to the international community’s fight against terrorism and efforts to project stability, and its role in responding to hybrid threats.

More background information

Planning and conduct of operations

NATO takes full account of all military and non-military aspects of crisis management, and is working to improve practical cooperation at all levels with all relevant organisations and actors in the planning and conduct of operations. The Alliance promotes the clear definition of strategies and objectives among all relevant actors before launching an operation, as well as enhanced cooperative planning.

The Allies agree that, as a general rule, elements of stabilisation and reconstruction are best undertaken by those actors and organisations that have the relevant expertise, mandate and competence. However, there can be circumstances which may hamper other actors from undertaking these tasks, or undertaking them without support from NATO.

To improve NATO’s contribution to a comprehensive approach of the international community when addressing crises, NATO bodies as well as individual Allies follow the Comprehensive Approach Action Plan to promote integrated civil-military planning across NATO’s three core tasks (i.e. collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security). The principles of the comprehensive approach – coherence of actions, civil-military interaction and reaching out to external partners – are integral to the activities of the NATO Headquarters’ Crisis Management Task Force as well as the NATO Command and Force Structures.
The planning and conduct of NATO operations and missions now integrate perspectives from different priority areas including: gender; the Women, Peace and Security agenda; children and armed conflict; building integrity; cultural property protection; combating trafficking in human beings; and environmental protection.

### Lessons learned, training, education and exercises

Applying a comprehensive approach means a change of mindset. The Alliance therefore emphasises joint training of civilian and military personnel to promote the sharing of lessons learned and to build trust and confidence between NATO, its partners and other international and local actors.

In some cases, lessons learned are being developed at staff level, for example, with the United Nations, related to Libya. Another example is the NATO Defence Education Enhancement Programme, which, as a matter of principle, reaches out to external providers and enablers including international organisations and non-governmental organisations, addressing both civilian and military experts. And Sweden, a key NATO partner, designed its 2018 Viking exercise (involving 2,500 participants from 50 countries and 35 organisations) on comprehensive approach principles.

### Enhancing cooperation with external actors

Cooperation has become well established with the United Nations and its agencies, the European Union and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe, in particular, as well as with the World Bank, the International Committee of the Red Cross, the International Organization for Migration, the African Union, INTERPOL and the League of Arab States. Closer links are developed with non-governmental organisations as well.

The scope of cooperation ranges from political dialogue, including through regular staff talks, “NATO education days” and the yearly Comprehensive Approach Awareness Course, to practical cooperation during operations and missions. High-level officials from these organisations are regularly invited to meetings of the North Atlantic Council, including at the level of heads of states and governments, to discuss closer cooperation and issues of common interest.

The implementation of the comprehensive approach has helped to build mutual awareness with these organisations. This has allowed the Alliance to broaden the range of its external interlocutors, who are becoming more accustomed to work with NATO and better informed about the role of military in complex environments.

### Strategic communications

To be effective, a comprehensive approach to crisis management must be complemented by sustained and coherent public messages. NATO’s information campaigns are substantiated by systematic and updated information, documenting progress in relevant areas. Efforts are also being made to share communication strategies with international actors and to coordinate communications in theatre.
Conference of National Armaments Directors (CNAD)

The Conference of National Armaments Directors (CNAD) is the senior NATO committee responsible for promoting the cooperation between countries in the armaments field.

**Highlights**

- The CNAD brings together the top national officials responsible for defence procurement in NATO member and partner countries.
- It is tasked with identifying collaborative opportunities for research, development and production of military equipment and weapons systems.
- It reports directly to the North Atlantic Council.

**More background information**

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**The CNAD’s tasks**

The mission of the CNAD is to enable multinational cooperation on delivery of interoperable military capabilities to improve NATO forces’ effectiveness over the whole spectrum of current and future operations.

The CNAD reports directly to the North Atlantic Council – NATO’s principal political decision-making body. It is tasked with identifying collaborative opportunities for research, development and production of military equipment and weapons systems. It is responsible for a number of cooperative armaments
projects that aim to equip NATO forces with cutting-edge capabilities. Ongoing projects include Joint Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance (JISR) and ballistic missile defence. The CNAD also plays a key role in the promotion of essential battlefield interoperability and in the harmonisation of military requirements on an Alliance-wide basis. The CNAD identifies and pursues collaborative opportunities and promotes transatlantic defence industrial cooperation.

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**Working mechanisms**

The CNAD and its substructure meet in Allied format, with a significant number of groups also open to partners. The CNAD meets twice a year at the level of National Armaments Directors (NADs), under the chairmanship of the NATO Assistant Secretary General for Defence Investment. During these biannual meetings, the CNAD sets the direction of the Conference’s work and oversees that of the CNAD subordinate structure.

Overall guidance is provided through the CNAD Management Plan, which translates NATO’s strategic objectives into specific objectives for the armaments community and defines priorities for day-to-day cooperation.

Regular meetings at the level of the in-house Representatives of the National Armaments Directors (NADREPs) ensure the day-to-day implementation of the CNAD’s objectives.

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**The structure of the CNAD**

The work of the CNAD is prepared and supported by its subordinate committees.

The Army, Air Force and Naval Main Armaments Groups (MAGs) and their respective subgroups support the work of the Conference and are responsible to it for all activities in their respective fields. Assistance on industrial matters is provided by the NATO Industrial Advisory Group (NIAG), enabling the CNAD to benefit from industry’s advice on how to enhance the NATO-industry relationship. The NIAG also assists the Conference in exploring opportunities for international collaboration. Other groups under the CNAD are active in fields such as ammunition safety, system life cycle management, and codification.

The CNAD provides member, and in some cases partner, countries opportunities to cooperate on equipment and research projects. At the same time, it facilitates exchange of information on national programmes to the benefit of individual countries and to NATO as a whole.

In 1966, the CNAD was created to provide a flexible and open framework for armaments cooperation within the Alliance. In a changing security environment and in a time of financial austerity, the CNAD is proving its usefulness and adaptability as it continues to facilitate dialogue among nations and foster multinational cooperation in capability development, acquisition and delivery, among others in the framework of Smart Defence and with a view to filling critical capability gaps.
The Connected Forces Initiative (CFI) aims to enhance the high level of interconnectedness and interoperability Allied forces have achieved on operations and with partners. CFI combines a comprehensive education, training, exercise and evaluation programme with the use of cutting-edge technology to ensure that Allied forces remain prepared to engage cooperatively in the future.

**Highlights**

- CFI is a key enabler in developing the goal of NATO Forces 2020: a coherent set of deployable, interoperable and sustainable forces equipped, trained, exercised, commanded and able to operate together and with partners in any environment.
- The Initiative is essential in ensuring that the Alliance remains well prepared to undertake the full range of its missions, as well as to address future challenges wherever they may arise.
- In light of the current security environment, it is also a means to deliver the training and exercise elements of the Alliance’s Readiness Action Plan.
More background information

Key CFI elements

At the 2014 Wales Summit, NATO endorsed a CFI package demonstrating the continued cohesion and resolve of the Alliance. This package is made up of the following measures:

- **An updated NATO Education, Training, Exercise and Evaluation (ETEE) Policy**
  This policy provides ETEE direction and guidance to the Strategic Commands for application throughout NATO. It is a long-term document that reflects political guidance and provides the policy, *inter alia*, to educate, train, exercise and evaluate individuals, units, formations and headquarters in the NATO Force and Command Structures.
  It also addresses the process for linking national and NATO exercises and details for partner and non-NATO entity involvement. It helps ensure that those units, formations and headquarters can address the full range of Alliance missions and meet the NATO level of ambition.

- **A broader NATO Training Concept 2015-2020**
  This concept ensures that NATO maintains and further improves its readiness, interoperability and operational effectiveness. The central element is the use of education and training, including e-learning, resident courses, key leader training and multinational exercises.
  It also addresses three of the vehicles which help promote CFI, namely bolstering the NATO Response Force (NRF), enhancing Special Operations Forces (SOF), and enhancing linkages and interactions between the NATO Command Structure, the NATO Force Structure, and, where mutually beneficial and affordable, national headquarters.

- **High-visibility exercise**
  As the flagship event for CFI, the exercise called “Trident Juncture 2015” was hosted by Portugal, Spain and Italy. Based on a crisis-response scenario, it certified the 2016 NRF as operationally ready. The next such exercise will be hosted by Norway in 2018.

- **Major NATO Exercises from 2016 Onwards Programme**
  This Programme provides a conceptual framework to determine and lay out the exercise requirement to meet the NATO level of ambition and to train the follow-on forces required to reinforce Allies in times of crisis identified by the Readiness Action Plan. It assists in operationalising the NATO ETEE Policy in the very critical and visible domain of major NATO exercises.

- **Continued progress in implementing the technological aspects of CFI**
  Exploiting technology to help deliver interoperability is a key component of CFI. Delivering a Federated Mission Networking framework is the centrepiece of ongoing work, as its implementation will allow rapid interconnection within the Alliance, and with partners, in support of training, exercises and operations as well as day-to-day communications and activities.

- **A Special Operations Component Command headquarters capability under operational command of SACEUR**
  This deployable core headquarters achieved full operational capability in July 2014, providing a new capability for Special Operations Forces (SOF) command and control, coordination, interoperability and connectedness.
  This provides the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) with a capability for commanding SOF personnel on exercises and operations, with lead elements kept at very high readiness.

**Evolution**

*At the 2012 Chicago Summit*, NATO adopted the goal of NATO Forces 2020: a coherent set of deployable, interoperable and sustainable forces equipped, trained, exercised and commanded to operate together and with partners in any environment. Two key programmes support this goal: the Smart Defence initiative and CFI. The latter aims to enhance the high level of interconnectedness and interoperability which Allied forces have achieved on operations and with partners.
In February 2013, NATO defence ministers endorsed plans to revitalise NATO’s exercise programme. Allies are also encouraged to open national exercises to NATO participation, adding to the opportunities to improve interoperability. They also agreed that the NRF will become even more important post-ISAF and provide a vehicle both to demonstrate operational readiness and to serve as a “testbed” for Alliance transformation.

In November 2013, NATO conducted its largest live exercise since 2006 in a collective defence scenario. “Steadfast Jazz” brought together thousands of personnel from Allied and partner countries to train, test and certify the units serving in the 2014 NRF rotation. This exercise was conducted at sea, in the air and on the territories of Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Poland. It incorporated a headquarters component provided by Allied Joint Force Command Brunssum (The Netherlands) to test the new NATO Command Structure.

At the 2014 Wales Summit, in light of the Russia-Ukraine crisis and with growing instability and security challenges across the Middle East and North Africa and beyond, Allied leaders endorsed the Readiness Action Plan (RAP) to strengthen NATO’s collective defence and to ensure the Alliance is ready to deal with any challenges from wherever they may arise. They also agreed a package of six key CFI measures, including the high-visibility exercise “Trident Juncture 2015”; a broader and more demanding exercise programme from 2016 onwards; and a deployable Special Operations Component Command headquarters.

In June 2015, the Very High Readiness Joint Task Force (VJTF) took part in Exercise “Noble Jump” in Zagan, Poland involving over 2,100 troops from nine nations. Established to address the security challenges on NATO’s southern and eastern peripheries, the VJTF is the “spearhead” element of the NRF. Exercise “Noble Jump” was the first time that high-readiness units deployed and conducted tactical manoeuvres under the enhanced NRF framework.

In October and November 2015 Exercise “Trident Juncture” took place across Italy, Portugal, Spain, the Atlantic Ocean, the Mediterranean Sea and also Belgium, Canada, Germany, the Netherlands and Norway with about 36,000 personnel, 140 aircraft and 60 ships from over 30 Allied and partner nations. As the culminating training which certified the 2016 NRF, the exercise provided an opportunity to refine their operational capabilities. Air, land, maritime and SOF units participated simultaneously in several locations and from different headquarters to train in a complex environment to improve the Alliance’s full-spectrum capabilities. Allied Joint Force Command Brunssum was certified to lead the NRF, if activated, throughout 2016. More than 12 major international organisations, aid agencies and non-governmental organisations, such as the European Union and African Union participated in the exercise, demonstrating NATO’s commitment and contribution to a comprehensive approach.
Consensus decision-making at NATO

All NATO decisions are made by consensus, after discussion and consultation among member countries.

**Highlights**

- A decision reached by consensus is an agreement reached by common consent.
- When a “NATO decision” is announced, it is therefore the expression of the collective will of all the sovereign states that are members of the Alliance.
- This principle of consensus is applied at every committee level, which implies that all NATO decisions are collective decisions made by its member countries.

**More background information**

**Applying the principle of consensus decision-making**

Consensus decision-making is a fundamental principle which has been accepted as the sole basis for decision-making in NATO since the creation of the Alliance in 1949.

Consensus decision-making means that there is no voting at NATO. Consultations take place until a decision that is acceptable to all is reached. Sometimes member countries agree to disagree on an issue. In general, this negotiation process is rapid since members consult each other on a regular basis and therefore often know and understand each other’s positions in advance.
Facilitating the process of consultation and consensus decision-making is one of the NATO Secretary General's main tasks.

The principle of consensus decision-making applies throughout NATO.
Consultation, Command and Control Board (C3B)

NATO’s C3 Board is the senior multinational policy body in the area of Consultation, Command and Control (C3), reporting to and advising the North Atlantic Council and Defence Planning Committee on all C3 policy matters. C3 focus areas are information sharing and interoperability, which include issues such as cyber defence, information assurance and joint intelligence, surveillance and reconnaissance.

Background

Against a backdrop of fast-changing technology and the need to develop capabilities to better tackle emerging security threats, work in the area of Consultation, Command and Control (C3) is more important than ever. It provides NATO with cost-effective, interoperable and secure capabilities to ensure timely and high-level political consultation, and command and control of military forces.

For example, a number of communications and information systems link up NATO Headquarters in Brussels, the Military Command Structure headquarters, national capitals and national military commands. The system also provides for secure connection to facilitate consultation with NATO’s partner countries.

Role, responsibilities, main participants

The C3B is responsible for policy and technical advice on a wide variety of communications, information services and security matters. It is the senior multinational C3 policy body, acting on behalf of and advising
the North Atlantic Council and Defence Planning Committee on all C3 policy matters, including the interoperability of NATO and national C3 systems. The Board establishes and ensures the fulfillment of strategic objectives, policies, plans and programmes for an effective and secure NATO-wide C3 capability.

The Board also advises the Conference of National Armaments Directors (CNAD), which brings together the national officials of NATO and Partner countries responsible for defence procurement.

The C3B is composed of senior national representatives from capitals, representatives of NATO’s Military Committee and Strategic Commanders, and NATO committees with an interest in C3. It is chaired by NATO’s Deputy Secretary General and has a Permanent Chairman (the NATO Assistant Secretary General for Defence Investment) and two Co-Vice Chairmen (Director of the NATO HQ C3 Staff, and an elected individual from national nominees).

### Working mechanism

The C3B meets twice a year to set strategic objectives, evaluate progress and elaborate policy. National C3 Representatives (NC3REPs), which act on behalf of and with the delegated authority of the Board, meet regularly as the C3B in Permanent Session. In addition to their formal meetings, the NC3REPs gather in different formats, such as in Military Committee, Partnership and ISAF sessions, to elaborate C3 specific advice in these areas. The C3B in Permanent Session focuses on monitoring the fulfillment of the Board’s strategic objectives. It is also responsible for facilitating the C3B biannual meetings.

The NATO Headquarters C3 Staff (NHQC3S), which consists of about 80 staff members from NATO’s International Military Staff (IMS) and its International Staff (IS) (primarily the Defence Investment Division), also supports the work of the C3 Board. The NHQC3S advises the Military Committee on C3/communication and information system policy standards, products, analysis and capability packages.

The nations, the Assistant Secretary General of Defence Investment and the Director General of the IMS can task the Board to develop C3 related policies and provide recommendations on C3 programmes and requirements.

The C3 Board is supported by a subordinate structure consisting of the following four multinational panels, each focusing on a specialised C3 area:

- Communication and Information Services Capability Panel
- Navigation and Identification Capability Panel
- Civil/Military Spectrum Capability Panel
- Information Assurance and Cyber Defence Capability Panel

### Evolution

The North Atlantic Council created the C3 Board in 1996. It is not yet determined how the ongoing NATO reform may affect the work and responsibilities of the C3B.

As technology and security threats change, so do the C3 needs of the Alliance. At the Lisbon Summit in November 2010, nations agreed to focus on a critical set of capabilities that includes a number of C3 related areas.
The consultation process and Article 4

All NATO decisions are made by consensus, after discussion and consultation among member countries. Consultation between member states is therefore at the heart of NATO since Allies are able to exchange views and information, and discuss issues prior to reaching agreement and taking action.

Highlights

- Consultation is a key part of NATO’s decision-making process since all decisions are made by consensus.
- It takes place on all subjects of interest to the Alliance, including NATO’s day-to-day business, its core objectives and fundamental role.
- Consultation reinforces NATO’s political dimension by giving members the opportunity to voice opinions and official positions. It also gives NATO an active role in preventive diplomacy by providing the means to help avoid military conflict.
- In Article 4 of NATO’s founding treaty, members can bring any issue of concern, especially related to the security of a member country, to the table for discussion within the North Atlantic Council.
- Since the Alliance’s creation in 1949, Article 4 has been invoked several times, for instance by Turkey.

Different forms of consultation

Consultation takes many forms. At its most basic level it involves simply the exchange of information and opinions. At another level it covers the communication of actions or decisions, which governments have already taken or may be about to take. Finally, it can encompass discussion with the aim of reaching a consensus on policies to be adopted or actions to be taken.
In sum, consultation is continuous and takes place both on a formal and informal basis. It can happen quickly due to the fact that all member states have permanent delegations at NATO Headquarters in Brussels. Governments can come together at short notice whenever necessary, often with prior knowledge of their respective national preoccupations, in order to agree on common policies or take action on the basis of consensus. NATO’s network of committees facilitates consultation by enabling government officials, experts and administrators to come together on a daily basis to discuss a broad range issues.

The principle of consensus decision-making is applied throughout NATO, which means that all “NATO decisions” are the expression of the collective will of all sovereign states that are members of this inter-governmental organisation. While consensus decision-making can help a member country preserve national sovereignty in the area of defence and security, Article 4 can be an invitation for member countries to concede this right to the group or it can simply lead to a request for NATO support.

**Article 4**

Under Article 4 of NATO’s founding treaty, member countries can bring an issue to the attention of the North Atlantic Council (Council or NAC – NATO’s principal political decision-making body) and discuss it with Allies. The article states:

“The Parties will consult together whenever, in the opinion of any of them, the territorial integrity, political independence or security of any of the Parties is threatened.”

Any member country can formally invoke Article 4 of the North Atlantic Treaty. As soon as it is invoked, the issue is discussed and can potentially lead to some form of joint decision or action on behalf of the Alliance. Whatever the scenario, fellow members sitting around the Council table are encouraged to react to a situation brought to their attention by a member country.

Since the Alliance’s creation in 1949, Article 4 has been invoked several times. On 26 July 2015, Turkey requested that the NAC convene under Article 4 in view of the seriousness of the situation following heinous terrorist attacks, and to inform Allies of the measures it is taking. Poland invoked Article 4 on 3 March 2014 following increasing tensions in neighbouring Ukraine. On two occasions in 2012, Turkey requested a NAC meeting under Article 4: once on 22 June after one of its fighter jets was shot down by Syrian air defence forces and the second time on 3 October when five Turkish civilians were killed by Syrian shells. Following these incidents, on 21 November, Turkey requested the deployment of Patriot missiles. NATO agreed to this defensive measure so as to help Turkey defend its population and territory, and help de-escalate the crisis along the border.

Previously, on 10 February 2003, Turkey formally invoked Article 4, asking for consultations in the NAC on defensive assistance from NATO in the event of a threat to its population or territory resulting from armed conflict in neighbouring Iraq. NATO agreed a package of defensive measures and conducted Operation Display Deterrence from end February to early May 2003.

**The political dimension of NATO**

Encouraging members of an inter-governmental organisation who have not given up their right of free and independent judgment in international affairs to consult more systematically on an issue is a challenge – be it today or in the 1950s.

In the early 1950s, the NAC recognised NATO’s consultative deficiency on international issues and recommended that measures be taken to improve the process. In April 1954, a resolution on political consultation was adopted:

“... all member governments should bear constantly in mind the desirability of bringing to the attention of the Council information on international political developments whenever they are of concern to other members of the Council or to the Organization as a whole; and (...) the Council in permanent session should from time to time consider what specific subject might be suitable for political consultation at one of its subsequent meetings when its members should be in a position to express the views of their governments on the subject.” C-M(54)38.

The resolution, which was put forward by Canada and immediately approved, provoked nonetheless a reaction from the American representative:
“Mr. Dulles (United States) supported the Canadian resolution on the understanding that consultation would be limited within the bounds of common sense. Countries like his own with world-wide interests might find it difficult to consult other NATO governments in every case. For a sudden emergency, it was more important to take action than to discuss the emergency. In other words, consultation should be regarded as a means to an end, rather than an end in itself.” (C-R(54)18).

The reservations made by the United States, which no doubt were shared by other member countries, could still be voiced today. Building on this resolution, on 8 March 1956, the then Secretary General of NATO, Lord Ismay, made a statement which widened the debate by explaining the consequences of systemising political consultation within the Alliance:

“A direct method of bringing home to public opinion the importance of the habit of political consultation within NATO may be summed up in the proposition “NATO is a political as well as a military alliance”. The habitual use of this phraseology would be preferable to the current tendency to refer to NATO as a (purely) military alliance. It is also more accurate. To refer to NATO as a political alliance in no sense denies, depreciates or deprecates the fact that the alliance is also military.” (C-M(56)25-1956).

The same year, the “Three Wise Men” produced their report, which inter alia sought to improve consultation within the Alliance on issues of common concern (“Report of the Committee of Three on Non-Military Cooperation in NATO”). However, ironically it was published as the Suez crisis emerged. Suez severely divided the leading founding members of the Organization (France, the United Kingdom and the United States). The Suez crisis acted as a catalyst for NATO, leading it to put into practice something it knew was of vital importance for the unity and solidarity of the Alliance – political consultation.

“Animus in consulendo liber”

For its anecdotal value, it is worth noting that when NATO moved to its headquarters at the Porte Dauphine in Paris, in December 1959, the then Secretary General, M. Paul-Henri Spaak, enlisted the help of the Dean of the Council in finding a suitable Latin maxim which would capture the spirit of consultation between Allies to which he attached so much importance. The Dean, Belgian Ambassador André de Staercke, recalled a visit he had made to the Tuscan town of San Gimignano. There, in the Palazzo del Podestà, engraved on the back of the seat reserved for the man who presided over the destinies of the city, he had seen the motto: Animus in consulendo liber.

It seems that an entirely satisfactory translation of the phrase cannot be found, although a French version “l’esprit libre dans la consultation” comes close. Renderings in English have ranged from the cryptic “in discussion a free mind” to the more complex “Man’s mind ranges unrestrained in counsel”.

The motto adorned the conference area at the Porte de Dauphine for several years and, in 1967, was moved to NATO’s home in Brussels, where it graced the wall of the Council room, as it does now in the current headquarters (constructed across the road from the previous headquarters in Brussels).

Setting up a consultation system

As explained above, consultation and consensus were accepted as the basis for all NATO decisions when the Alliance was created in 1949.

However, it was only gradually that NATO set up a consultation system. In broad terms, this was done in three stages:

- 1949-1952: at the signing of the Treaty, NATO introduced the consultation process as a key principle in its working mechanisms. This was reinforced at the Lisbon Conference (1952) where the contours of today’s NATO were put into place: the NAC was made permanent and the position of Secretary General was created, together with an international staff that would support Council decisions on a permanent basis;

- 1952-1956: between 1952 and the publishing of the Committee of Three report on non-military cooperation, attempts had been made to encourage political consultation beyond the geographical limitations defined in the founding treaty, i.e. beyond the defined NATO area.
From 1956: the principles of the Report of the Committee of Three were further developed and implemented. The Committee recommended measures in the area of political cooperation with regard to foreign policies, the peaceful settlement of inter-member disputes, economic cooperation, scientific and technical cooperation, cultural cooperation and cooperation in the information field.

The Committee of Three left a lasting legacy by encouraging NATO members to reconcile differences within the Organization through productive consultation on matters of common concern, including issues outside the defined NATO area. The Suez crisis provided a first-hand example of why close political consultation and non-military cooperation are necessary.

### The fora for political consultation

The principal forum for political consultation is the North Atlantic Council. The NAC is NATO’s principal political decision-making committee. The Secretary General, by virtue of his chairmanship, plays an essential part in this process. Consultation also takes place on a regular basis in other fora, including NATO committees and working groups. All of these bodies derive their authority from the Council.
Contact Point Embassies in partner countries

Helping NATO to work closely with its partners

Since the early 1990s, NATO has developed a network of Contact Point Embassies (CPE) to support the Alliance’s partnership and public diplomacy activities in countries participating in the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC), Partnership for Peace (PfP), Mediterranean Dialogue (MD) and Istanbul Cooperation Initiative (ICI). Following the review of NATO’s partnerships policy in April 2011, the network of CPEs has also been extended to other partners across the globe.

CPEs are a valuable tool which contribute to NATO’s outreach efforts. In every partner country an embassy of one of the NATO member states serves as a contact point and operates as a channel for disseminating information about the role and policies of the Alliance. In addition to this public diplomacy role, the CPEs mandate has been extended to also include support – as required – for the implementation of other agreed activities with partners.

CPEs work closely with NATO’s Public Diplomacy Division to provide information on the purpose and activities of the Alliance in the host country while also supporting the Political Affairs and Security Policy Division with its management of EAPC, PfP, MD and ICI policy.

CPEs are not NATO’s diplomatic mission in the host country; however, they play an important role in disseminating information about the Alliance. CPEs identify key decision makers, opinion formers and public diplomacy opportunities within the country and coordinate with the Public Diplomacy Division on events. CPEs also inform individuals within the host country on how to apply for NATO fellowships and participate in scientific programmes.

CPEs offer advice to NATO Headquarters on various project proposals as well as on an array of NATO-related issues within the host country, such as political discussions, debates and concerns and changes in public opinion. CPEs also assist with logistical support, political advice and briefings on relevant developments in the host country in preparation for visits to the country by the Secretary General, NATO International Staff and NATO forces. They also regularly liaise with other NATO member nation embassies in the host country to inform about NATO’s agenda and involve them in NATO-related activities or events.

NATO’s member countries volunteer the services of their embassies in partner countries to assume the duties of CPE for a period of two years. The final decision on the assignment of CPEs is taken by consensus in the North Atlantic Council – the principal political decision-making body within NATO. PDD coordinates the CPE network and liaises closely with each CPE.
Cooperation with the African Union

Since 2005, NATO has been cooperating with the African Union (AU) – a regional organisation with 55 members created in 2002. The NATO-AU relationship started modestly with AU requests for logistics and airlift support for its mission in Sudan. The cooperation has evolved over time and, although primarily based on ad-hoc military-technical cooperation, NATO Allies have committed to expanding cooperation with the AU, with the aim of making it an integral part of NATO’s efforts to work more closely with its partners to tackle security challenges emanating from the south.

Highlights

- NATO has developed cooperation with the African Union principally in three areas: operational support; capacity-building support; and assistance in developing and sustaining the African Standby Force (ASF).
- Operational support includes strategic air- and sealift, as well as planning support for the AU Mission in Somalia (AMISOM).
- Capacity-building support includes inviting AU officers to attend courses at NATO training and education facilities and delivering courses through NATO’s Mobile Training Teams.
- Support for the development and sustainment of the ASF includes exercises and tailor-made training, as well as assistance in developing ASF-related concepts.
- NATO has also established a liaison office at AU headquarters in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. It is led by a Senior Military Liaison Officer and provides, at AU’s request, subject matter experts, who work in the AU’s Peace and Security Department alongside African counterparts.
- NATO coordinates its AU-related work with bilateral partners and other international organisations, including the European Union and the United Nations.
More background information

Context and principal areas of NATO-AU cooperation

NATO-AU cooperation has mainly been pragmatic and driven by requests from the African Union for support in very specific areas. The principal areas of cooperation are: operational support, capacity-building support and support for the development of the African Union Standby Force. However, at the Warsaw Summit in 2016, NATO leaders committed to increasing political and practical cooperation with the African Union. At the same time, Allies also approved NATO’s Framework for the South, which aims to integrate and streamline NATO’s approach to tackle challenges by focusing on improved capabilities, enhanced anticipation and response, as well as boosting NATO’s regional partnership and capacity-building efforts. Similarly, Allies agreed to the Projecting Stability initiative, a new vision to cooperate with partners beyond NATO territory, with an aim to develop a more strategic, coherent and effective approach to partnerships. More recently, in November 2019, NATO and the AU signed an agreement to strengthen political and practical partnership so as to better respond to common threats and challenges.

NATO’s cooperation with the African Union is an integral part of both NATO’s Framework for the South and the Alliance’s efforts in Projecting Stability. Since the Warsaw Summit, NATO has strengthened its approach to the south and its partnerships in the region, and is continuing to develop relations with the AU.

From a practical point of view, Allied Joint Force Command (JFC) Naples is the NATO operational headquarters designated to implement the Alliance’s practical cooperation with the AU.

JFC Naples is also the home of NATO’s Strategic Direction South Hub, which was inaugurated in September 2017 as a way to face the current and evolving security issues from NATO’s southern neighbourhood and enhance the Alliance’s relationships with partners from the south.

Operational support

Logistical support

In January 2007, the AU made a general request to all partners, including NATO, for financial and logistical support to AMISOM. It later made a specific request to NATO in May 2007, requesting strategic airlift support for AU member states willing to deploy in Somalia under AMISOM. In June 2007, the North Atlantic Council (NAC) agreed, in principle, to support this request and NATO’s support was initially authorised until August 2007. Strategic sealift support was requested at a later stage and agreed in principle by the NAC in September 2009.

The AU’s strategic airlift and sealift support requests for AMISOM have been renewed on an annual basis. The current NAC agreement to support the AU with strategic air- and sealift for AMISOM extends until January 2021.

Planning support

NATO provides subject matter experts for the AU Peace Support Operations Department. These experts have made significant contributions to AU priority areas. They have shared their knowledge and expertise in planning across various domains including maritime, finance, monitoring, procurement, air movement coordination, communications, information technology, logistics, human resources, military manpower management and contingencies. NATO’s contribution of subject matter experts responds to annual requests from the AU. The areas requested vary from year to year based on AU priorities. In this capacity, NATO experts work side-by-side with AU counterparts, offering expertise in specific domains for periods of six to twelve months, renewable at the AU’s request. The most recent request from the AU calls for support in strategic planning, as well as planning for movements and exercises.

Capacity-building support

Education and training

NATO offers opportunities for AU personnel to attend courses at the NATO School in Oberammergau, Germany, the NATO Defense College in Rome, and other NATO training facilities such as NATO-accredited Centres of Excellence in the respective sponsoring countries. These education and
training courses are offered based upon AU requirements and the availability of NATO training venues. On average, 20 AU students are sponsored at NATO training venues per year.

**Mobile training**

Since 2015 and in response to an AU request, NATO delivers dedicated training to African Union officers through Mobile Education and Training Teams (METT) that deliver tailored courses in Africa. NATO has progressively increased the number of courses delivered and, is providing three or more METT courses annually. The METT format allows for reach to a wider audience; participants are drawn from among AU staff, but also the Regional Economic Communities, which form the backbone of the development of Africa’s continental force, the African Stand-by Force. On average, 30 AU students participate in each training session.

**Support for the development of the African Standby Force**

NATO has been providing expert and training support to the African Standby Force (ASF) at the AU’s request. The ASF is intended to be deployed in Africa in times of crisis and is part of the AU’s efforts to develop long-term peacekeeping capabilities; it represents the AU’s vision for a continental, on-call security apparatus, and shares similarities with the NATO Response Force.

At the AU’s request, the Alliance offers capacity-building support through courses and training events. NATO has also organised certification/evaluation and training programmes for AU staff, which support the ASF’s operational readiness. For instance, NATO has trained AU officials participating in military exercises and provided military experts to assist in the evaluation and lessons learned procedures of an exercise. NATO has also supported various ASF preparatory workshops designed to develop ASF-related concepts. The Alliance is also specifically engaged in providing support to bringing the ASF’s Continental Logistics base in Douala, Cameroon to full operational capacity.

NATO experts were also involved in supporting the preparation phases of Exercise Amani Africa II (October-November 2015) in South Africa, and played an active role in the execution phase. This was the first field training exercise for the ASF that brought together regional standby brigades from across the continent. African military, police and civilians participated in testing the ASF’s rapid deployment capability and the ASF’s level of readiness for full operational capability.

**NATO representation in Addis Ababa**

**NATO liaison office**

NATO has a liaison office to the headquarters of the African Union. The liaison office is comprised of a Senior Military Liaison Officer, a Deputy and one support staff. The NATO Senior Military Liaison Officer is the primary coordinator for the Alliance’s activities with the AU. The size of NATO’s presence on the ground in Addis Ababa is based upon the requests from the AU and the availability of resources from Allies.

**NATO Contact Point Embassy**

The Royal Norwegian Embassy in Addis Ababa provides diplomatic support as the official NATO Contact Point Embassy to the African Union. The Ambassador regularly hosts other NATO Ambassadors and Defence Attachés based in Addis Ababa to share information on NATO activities with the African Union. Norway has extended its offer to serve as the NATO Contact Point Embassy until December 2020.

**Other staff-level engagements in Addis Ababa**

For work with the African Union, the NATO Senior Military Liaison Officer in Addis Ababa coordinates with Allied Defence Attachés, bilateral partners and other international organisations based in the capital, including the United Nations (UN) and the European Union (EU).

**Expanding areas of cooperation**

At the 2016 Summit in Warsaw, Allied leaders committed to expanding NATO’s political and practical partnership with the AU to address common challenges. This has helped fuel a new momentum in
NATO-AU relations to expand areas of cooperation. In April 2018, for instance, the NATO Defense College hosted a seminar in Rome, Italy, which convened senior officials from both NATO and the African Union in order to develop a series of pragmatic proposals to increase and enhance areas of cooperation. These include proposals in the areas of counter-terrorism, countering improvised explosive devices, the Women, Peace and Security agenda, building integrity, and support to AU peace-support operations.

### Milestones in NATO support to the AU

Starting in 2005 with the provision of NATO logistical support to the AU to expand its mission in Darfur, the NATO-AU relationship has developed over time.

- **2005** – NATO provides strategic airlift to the African Union Mission in Sudan.
- **2007** – Allies agree to provide strategic airlift to support the AU’s involvement in Somalia (AMISOM) and in 2009, agree to provide strategic sealift.
- **2011** – AU Commission Chairperson Jean Ping visits NATO twice in the context of Operation Unified Protector – the UN-mandated operation set up to protect civilians and civilian-populated areas, in Libya, under threat of attack.
- **2014** – AU Commissioner for Peace and Security Ambassador Smail Chergui visits NATO and signs the technical agreement on NATO-AU cooperation.
- **2015** - NATO opens its liaison office at AU headquarters in Addis Ababa.
- **2015** – NATO and the AU begin a programme of annual military-to-military staff talks.
- **2015** – NATO enhances the programme of mobile training solutions offered to AU officers.
- **2016** – NATO leaders agree to further strengthen and expand the Alliance’s political and practical cooperation with the AU at the Warsaw Summit.
- **2019** – A cooperation agreement is signed to strengthen partnership and bring NATO and the AU closer together.
The Council Operations and Exercise Committee (COEC) deals with the development and improvement of Alliance crisis management procedures to support the North Atlantic Council (NAC) consultative and decision-making roles in times of crises.

This includes the formulation, development and enhancement of NATO’s crisis response arrangements and procedures, in particular those related to operations planning, the education of staffs and consultation bodies at NATO HQ as well as across the Alliance and in partner countries. The COEC also takes the lead in organizing yearly crisis management exercises to test the Alliance’s decision-making process in reaction to a crisis situation.

All member countries are represented on the COEC. Its work is principally supported by the Operations Division and it can receive support from other bodies depending on the issue, including from all the International Staff Divisions, the International Military Staff and the Strategic Commands.
Countering terrorism

Terrorism in all its forms poses a direct threat to the security of the citizens of NATO countries, and to international stability and prosperity. It is a persistent global threat that knows no border, nationality or religion and is a challenge that the international community must tackle together. NATO will continue to fight this threat in all its forms and manifestations with determination and in full solidarity. NATO’s work on counter-terrorism focuses on improving awareness of the threat, developing capabilities to prepare and respond, and enhancing engagement with partner countries and other international actors.

Highlights

- NATO invoked its collective defence clause (Article 5) for the first and only time in response to the terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001 on the United States.
- NATO’s Counter-Terrorism Policy Guidelines focus Alliance efforts on three main areas: awareness, capabilities and engagement.
- A comprehensive Action Plan is being implemented to enhance NATO’s role in the international community’s fight against terrorism.
- NATO has a Terrorism Intelligence Cell at NATO Headquarters and a Coordinator oversees NATO’s efforts in the fight against terrorism.
- A regional Hub for the South, based at NATO’s Joint Force Command in Naples helps the Alliance anticipate and respond to crises arising in its southern neighbourhood.
- NATO is a member of the Global Coalition to Defeat ISIS and supports it through AWACS intelligence flights.
- NATO develops new capabilities and technologies to tackle the terrorist threat and to manage the consequences of a terrorist attack.
- NATO cooperates with partners and international organisations to leverage the full potential of each stakeholder engaged in the global counter-terrorism effort.
More background information

Awareness

In support of national authorities, NATO ensures shared awareness of the terrorist threat through consultations, enhanced intelligence-sharing and continuous strategic analysis and assessment.

Intelligence reporting at NATO is based on contributions from Allies’ intelligence services, both internal and external, civilian and military. The way NATO handles sensitive information has gradually evolved, based on successive summit decisions and continuing reform of intelligence structures since 2010. Since 2017, the Joint Intelligence and Security Division at NATO benefits from increased sharing of intelligence between member services and the Alliance, and produces strategic analytical reports relating to terrorism and its links with other transnational threats.

Intelligence-sharing between NATO and partner countries’ agencies continues through the Intelligence Liaison Unit at NATO Headquarters in Brussels, and an intelligence liaison cell at Allied Command Operations (ACO) in Mons, Belgium. An intelligence cell at NATO Headquarters improves how NATO shares intelligence, including on foreign fighters. NATO faces a range of threats arising from instability in the region to the south of the Alliance. NATO increases its understanding of these challenges and improves its ability to respond to them through the ‘Hub for the South’ based at NATO’s Joint Force Command in Naples, Italy. The Hub collects and analyses information, assesses potential threats and engages with partner nations and organisations.

Beyond the everyday consultations within the Alliance, experts from a range of backgrounds are invited to brief Allies on specific areas of counter-terrorism. Likewise, discussions with international organisations, including the United Nations (UN), the European Union (EU), the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) and the Global Counterterrorism Forum (GCTF), enhance Allies’ knowledge of international counter-terrorism efforts worldwide and help NATO refine the contribution that it makes to the global approach.

Capabilities

The Alliance strives to ensure that it has adequate capabilities to prevent, protect against and respond to terrorist threats. Capability development and work on innovative technologies are part of NATO’s core business, and methods that address asymmetric threats including terrorism and the use of non-conventional weapons, are of particular relevance. Much of this work is conducted through the Defence Against Terrorism Programme of Work (DAT POW), which aims to protect troops, civilians and critical infrastructure against attacks perpetrated by terrorists, such as suicide attacks, improvised explosive devices (IEDs), rocket attacks against aircraft and helicopters and attacks using chemical, biological or radiological material.

NATO’s Centres of Excellence are important contributors to many projects, providing expertise across a range of topics including military engineering for route clearance, countering IEDs, explosives disposal, cultural familiarisation, network analysis and modelling.

Defence Against Terrorism Programme of Work

The DAT POW was developed by the Conference of National Armaments Directors (CNAD) in 2004. Its primary focus was on technological solutions to mitigate the effects of terrorist attacks but the programme has since widened its scope to support comprehensive capability development. It now includes exercises, trials, development of prototypes and concepts, and interoperability demonstrations. Most projects under the programme focus on finding solutions that can be fielded in the short term and that respond to the military needs of the Alliance. The programme uses new or adapted technologies or methods to detect, disrupt and defeat asymmetric threats under three capability umbrellas: incident management, force protection/survivability, and network engagement.

Countering chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear threats

The spread and potential use of weapons of mass destruction (WMD) and their delivery systems together with the possibility that terrorists will acquire them, are acknowledged as priority threats to the Alliance.
Therefore, NATO places a high priority on preventing the proliferation of WMD to state and non-state actors and defending against chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) threats and hazards that may pose a threat to the safety and security of Allied populations. The NATO Combined Joint CBRN Defence Task Force is designed to respond to and manage the consequences of the use of CBRN agents. The NATO-certified Centre of Excellence on Joint CBRN Defence, in the Czech Republic, further enhances NATO’s capabilities.

**Countering terrorist misuse of technology**

Terrorists have sought to use and manipulate various technologies in their operations, including easily available off-the-shelf technology. Drones in particular have been identified as a threat. Therefore, in February 2019, defence ministers agreed a practical framework to counter unmanned aerial systems (UAS). A programme of work will be implemented over the next two years, helping to coordinate approaches and identify additional steps to address this threat.

**Operations**

Since 2017, NATO has been a member of the Global Coalition to Defeat ISIS. As a member of the Coalition, NATO has been playing a key role in the fight against international terrorism for many years, including through its long-standing operational engagement in Afghanistan, through intelligence-sharing, and through its work with partners with a view to projecting stability in the Euro-Atlantic area and beyond.

At the 2016 Summit in Warsaw, Allied leaders agreed to provide direct support to the Coalition through the provision of NATO AWACS surveillance aircraft. The first patrols of NATO AWACS aircraft, operating from Konya Airfield in Turkey, started in October 2016.

Moreover, the Alliance decided to launch a training and capacity-building activity to train, advise and assist Iraqi forces both in Iraq and Jordan. Finally, in December 2018, Allies updated an Action Plan to fight terrorism, which included NATO’s membership in the Coalition as well as more AWACS flight time and information-sharing. Following a request by the Iraqi government and the Coalition, Allies agreed in February 2018 on planning and direction for a NATO Training and Capacity Building Mission in Iraq, with the aim of making the Alliance’s efforts more sustainable and taking on additional tasks as required. At the 2018 Brussels Summit, Allies agreed to launch this non-combat training and capacity-building mission in Iraq.

Also in the summer of 2018, Allies agreed a new biometric data policy, consistent with applicable national and international law and subject to national requirements and restrictions. The policy enables biometric collection to support NATO operations, based upon a mandate from the North Atlantic Council. The policy is particularly relevant to the threat posed by foreign terrorist fighters. United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 2396 highlights the acute and growing threat posed by foreign terrorist fighters and “urges Member States to expeditiously exchange information, through bilateral or multilateral mechanisms and in accordance with domestic and international law, concerning the identity of Foreign Terrorist Fighters.” NATO works to maintain its military capacity for crisis management and humanitarian assistance operations. When force deployment is necessary, counter-terrorism considerations are often relevant. Lessons learned in operations, including by Special Operations Forces, must not be wasted. Interoperability is essential if members of future coalitions are to work together. Best practices are, therefore, incorporated into education, training and exercises.

In December 2019, Allied Leaders underlined their commitment to the fight against terrorism and agreed an updated Action Plan to step up the Alliance’s efforts in the fight against terrorism. Allies remain also committed to supporting the Global Coalition to Defeat ISIS as well as to NATO’s training missions in Iraq and Afghanistan.

NATO’s maritime operation Sea Guardian is a flexible maritime security operation that is able to perform the full range of maritime security tasks, including countering terrorism at sea if required. It succeeded operation “Active Endeavour”, which was launched in 2001 under Article 5 of NATO’s founding treaty as part of NATO's immediate response to the 9/11 terrorist attacks to deter, detect and, if necessary, disrupt the threat of terrorism in the Mediterranean Sea. Active Endeavour was terminated in October 2016.

Many other operations have had relevance to international counter-terrorism efforts. For example, the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) - the NATO-led operation in Afghanistan, which began in
2003 and came to an end in 2014 - helped the government expand its authority and implement security to prevent the country once again becoming a safe haven for international terrorism. Resolute Support Mission in Afghanistan, which followed ISAF and stood up in 2015, is a non-combat mission that builds capacity in the Afghan security forces.

**Crisis management**

NATO’s long-standing work on civil emergency planning, critical infrastructure protection and crisis management provides a resource that may serve both Allies and partners upon request. This field can relate directly to counter-terrorism, building resilience and ensuring appropriate planning and preparation for response to and recovery from terrorist acts.

**Protecting populations and critical infrastructure**

National authorities are primarily responsible for protecting their population and critical infrastructure against the consequences of terrorist attacks, CBRN incidents and natural disasters. NATO can assist nations by developing non-binding advice and minimum standards and act as a forum to exchange best practices and lessons learned to improve preparedness and national resilience. NATO has developed Guidelines for first response to a CBRN incident as well as for civil-military cooperation in case of a CBRN terrorist attack and organises ‘International Courses for Trainers of First Responders to CBRN Incidents’. NATO guidance can also advise national authorities on warning the general public and alerting emergency responders. NATO can call on an extensive network of civil experts, from government and industry, to help respond to requests for assistance. Its Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) coordinates responses to national requests for assistance following natural and man-made disasters including terrorist acts involving CBRN agents.

**Engagement**

As the global counter-terrorism effort requires a holistic approach, Allies have resolved to strengthen outreach to and cooperation with partner countries and international actors.

**With partners**

Increasingly, partners are taking advantage of partnership mechanisms for dialogue and practical cooperation relevant to counter-terrorism, including defence capacity building. Interested partners are encouraged to include a section on counter-terrorism in their individual cooperation agreements with NATO. Allies place particular emphasis on shared awareness, capacity building, civil emergency planning and crisis management to enable partners to identify and protect vulnerabilities and to prepare to fight terrorism more effectively. Countering improvised explosive devices, the promotion of a whole-of-government approach and military border security are among NATO’s areas of work with partners.

Counter-terrorism is one of the five priorities of the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme. The SPS Programme enhances cooperation and dialogue between scientists and experts from Allies and partners, contributing to a better understanding of the terrorist threat, the development of detection and response measures, and fostering a network of experts.

Activities include workshops, training courses and multi-year research and development projects that contribute to identifying: methods for the protection of critical infrastructure, supplies and personnel; human factors in defence against terrorism; technologies to detect explosive devices and illicit activities; and risk management, best practices, and use of new technologies in response to terrorism. The SPS Programme is flexible and able to respond to evolving priorities. As examples, in 2017 SPS issued a Call for Proposals to address human, social, cultural, scientific and technological advancements in the fight against terrorism. In 2018, NATO launched a new initiative to develop an integrated system of sensors and data fusion technologies capable to detect explosives and concealed weapons in real time and to secure mass transport infrastructures, such as airports, metro and railway stations. This initiative is constituted by a number of projects all working together to achieve a live demonstration in 2021.

On 1 April 2014, Allied foreign ministers condemned Russia’s illegal military intervention in Ukraine and Russia’s violation of Ukraine’s sovereignty and territorial integrity. Ministers underlined that NATO does
not recognise Russia’s illegal and illegitimate attempt to annex Crimea. As a result, ministers decided to suspend all practical civilian and military cooperation between NATO and Russia, including in the area of counter-terrorism, which had been among the main drivers behind the creation of the NATO-Russia Council in May 2002. This decision was reconfirmed by Allied leaders at the Wales Summit in September 2014 and to date, practical cooperation with Russia remains suspended.

With international actors

NATO cooperates in particular with the UN, the EU and the OSCE to ensure that views and information are shared and that appropriate action can be taken more effectively in the fight against terrorism. The UN Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy, international conventions and protocols against terrorism, together with relevant UN resolutions provide a common framework for efforts to combat terrorism.

NATO works closely with the UN Counter-Terrorism Committee and its Executive Directorate as well as with the Counter-Terrorism Implementation Task Force and many of its component organisations, including the UN Office on Drugs and Crime. NATO’s Centres of Excellence and education and training opportunities are often relevant to UN counter-terrorism priorities, as is the specific area of explosives management. More broadly, NATO works closely with the UN agencies that play a leading role in responding to international disasters and in consequence management, including the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, the Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons and the UN 1540 Committee. In March 2019, NATO and the UN launched a joint project to improve CBRN resilience in Jordan.

NATO and the European Union are committed to combatting terrorism and the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction. They exchange information regularly on counter-terrorism projects and on related activities such as work on the protection of civilian populations against chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) attacks. Relations with the European External Action Service’s Counter-terrorism section, with the Counter-terrorism Coordinator’s office and other parts of the EU help ensure mutual understanding and complementarity.

NATO maintains close relations with the OSCE’s Transnational Threats Department’s Action against Terrorism Unit and with field offices and the Border College in Dushanbe (Tajikistan), which works to create secure open borders through specialised training of senior officers from national border security agencies.

NATO is also working with other regional organisations to address the terrorism threat. In April 2019, NATO and the African Union held their first joint counter-terrorism training in Algiers.

The use of civilian aircraft as a weapon in the 9/11 terrorist attacks led to efforts to enhance aviation security. NATO contributed to improved civil-military coordination of air traffic control by working with EUROCONTROL, the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), the US Federal Aviation Administration, major national aviation and security authorities, airlines and pilot associations and the International Air Transport Association (IATA).

Education

NATO offers a range of training and education opportunities in the field of counter-terrorism to both Allies and partner countries. It can draw on a wide network that includes the NATO School in Oberammergau, Germany, mobile training courses run out of Joint Force Commands at Naples and Brunssum and the Centres of Excellence (COEs) that support the NATO Command Structure. There are more than 20 COEs fully accredited by NATO of which several have a link to the fight against terrorism. The Centre of Excellence for Defence Against Terrorism (COE-DAT) in Ankara, Turkey serves both as a location for meetings and as a catalyst for international dialogue and discussion on terrorism and counter-terrorism. The COE-DAT reaches out to over 50 countries and 40 organisations.
Milestones in NATO’s work on counter-terrorism

1999
The Alliance’s 1999 Strategic Concept identifies terrorism as one of the risks affecting NATO’s security.

11 September 2001
Four coordinated terrorist attacks are launched by the terrorist group al-Qaeda upon targets in the United States.

12 September 2001
Less than 24 hours after the 9/11 terrorist attacks – NATO Allies and partner countries, in a meeting of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, condemn the attacks, offering their support to the United States and pledging to “undertake all efforts to combat the scourge of terrorism”. Later that day, the Allies decide to invoke Article 5 of the Washington Treaty, the Alliance’s collective defence clause for the first time in NATO’s history, if it is determined that the attack had been directed from abroad against the United States.

13-14 September 2001
Declarations of solidarity and support are given by Russia and Ukraine.

2 October 2001
The North Atlantic Council is briefed by a high-level US official on the results of investigations into the 9/11 attacks – the Council determines that the attacks would be regarded as an action covered by Article 5 of the Washington Treaty.

4 October 2001
NATO agrees on eight measures to support the United States:

- to enhance intelligence-sharing and cooperation, both bilaterally and in appropriate NATO bodies, relating to the threats posed by terrorism and the actions to be taken against it;
- to provide, individually or collectively, as appropriate and according to their capabilities, assistance to Allies and other countries which are or may be subject to increased terrorist threats as a result of their support for the campaign against terrorism;
- to take necessary measures to provide increased security for facilities of the United States and other Allies on their territory;
- to backfill selected Allied assets in NATO’s area of responsibility that are required to directly support operations against terrorism;
- to provide blanket overflight clearances for the United States and other Allies’ aircraft, in accordance with the necessary air traffic arrangements and national procedures, for military flights related to operations against terrorism;
- to provide access for the United States and other Allies to ports and airfields on the territory of NATO member countries for operations against terrorism, including for refuelling, in accordance with national procedures;
- that the Alliance is ready to deploy elements of its Standing Naval Forces to the Eastern Mediterranean in order to provide a NATO presence and demonstrate resolve;
- that the Alliance is similarly ready to deploy elements of its NATO Airborne Early Warning Force to support operations against terrorism.

Mid-October 2001
NATO launches its first-ever operation against terrorism – Operation Eagle Assist: at the request of the United States, seven NATO AWACS radar aircraft are sent to help patrol the skies over the United States (the operation runs through to mid-May 2002 during which time 830 crewmembers from 13 NATO countries fly over 360 sorties). It is the first time that NATO military assets have been deployed in support of an Article 5 operation.

26 October 2001
NATO launches its second counter-terrorism operation in response to the attacks on the United States,
Operation Active Endeavour: elements of NATO’s Standing Naval Forces are sent to patrol the eastern Mediterranean and monitor shipping to detect and deter terrorist activity, including illegal trafficking.

May 2002
At their Reykjavik meeting, NATO foreign ministers decide that the Alliance would operate when and where necessary to fight terrorism. This landmark declaration effectively ends the debate on what constituted NATO’s area of operations and paves the way for the Alliance’s future engagement with the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan.

November 2002
At the Prague Summit, NATO leaders express their determination to deter, defend and protect their populations, territory and forces from any armed attack from abroad, including by terrorists. To this end, they adopt a Prague package, aimed at adapting NATO to the challenge of terrorism. It comprises:

- a Military Concept for Defence against Terrorism;
- a Partnership Action Plan against Terrorism (PAP-T);
- five nuclear, biological and chemical defence initiatives;
- protection of civilian populations, including a Civil Emergency Planning Action Plan;
- missile defence: Allies are examining options for addressing the increasing missile threat to Alliance populations, territory and forces in an effective and efficient way through an appropriate mix of political and defence efforts, along with deterrence;
- cyber defence;
- cooperation with other international organisations; and
- improved intelligence-sharing.

In addition, they decide to create the NATO Response Force, streamline the military command structure and launch the Prague Capabilities Commitment to better prepare NATO’s military forces to face new challenges, including terrorism.

10 March 2003
Operation Active Endeavour is expanded to include escorting civilian shipping through the Strait of Gibraltar. The remit is extended to the whole of the Mediterranean a year later.

11 August 2003
NATO takes lead of the UN-mandated International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan. ISAF’s primary objective was to enable the Afghan government to provide effective security across the country and develop new Afghan security forces to ensure Afghanistan would never again become a safe haven for terrorists.

2010
NATO’s Strategic Concept, adopted at the Lisbon Summit in November 2010, recognises that terrorism poses a direct threat to the security of the citizens of NATO countries, and to international stability and prosperity more broadly. It commits Allies to enhance the capacity to detect and defend against international terrorism, including through enhanced threat analysis, more consultations with NATO’s partners, and the development of appropriate military capabilities.

May 2012
At the Chicago Summit, NATO leaders endorse new policy guidelines for Alliance work on counter-terrorism, which focus on improved threat awareness, adequate capabilities and enhanced engagement with partner countries and other international actors. The Partnership Action Plan against Terrorism is subsumed into the overall NATO approach. The NATO Military Concept for Counter-Terrorism, reflecting the policy guidelines, became a public document in 2016.

2011-2014
Responsibility for security gradually transitioned from ISAF to the Afghan security forces in a phased approach. The Afghan forces assumed full security responsibility, and ISAF ended, by the end of 2014.
1 January 2015
NATO’s Resolute Support Mission is launched to provide further training, advising and assistance to Afghan security forces and institutions in order to help the Afghan National Unity Government to prevent Afghanistan from ever again becoming a safe haven for terrorism.

July 2016
At the Warsaw Summit, Allied leaders decide to provide support through NATO to the fight against ISIL. NATO AWACS aircraft will provide information to the Global Coalition to Counter ISIL. NATO will begin training and capacity building in Iraq, while continuing to train hundreds of Iraqi officers in Jordan. Allies will enhance ongoing cooperation with Jordan in areas such as cyber defence and countering roadside bombs. Allies also undertake to promote information-sharing through the optimised use of multilateral platforms and to continue to seek to enhance cooperation in exchanging information on returning foreign fighters.

October 2016
Operation Active Endeavour is terminated and succeeded by Sea Guardian, a broader maritime operation in the Mediterranean. Sea Guardian is a flexible maritime operation that is able to perform the full range of maritime security tasks, if so decided by the North Atlantic Council.

5 February 2017
NATO launches a new training programme in Iraq, teaching Iraqi security forces to counter improvised explosive devices (IEDs). This is particularly relevant for territory newly liberated from ISIL occupation.

16 February 2017
Defence ministers agreed to create a new regional ‘Hub for the South’, based at NATO’s Joint Force Command in Naples. It will be a focal point for increasing both the Alliance’s understanding of the challenges stemming from the region, and its ability to respond to them.

31 March 2017
Foreign ministers decided to step up their efforts inside Iraq, including with military medicine courses to train new paramedics, and with training to help maintain tanks and armoured fighting vehicles.

25 May 2017
At their meeting in Brussels, Allies agreed an action plan to do more in the international fight against terrorism with: more AWACS flight time, more information-sharing and air-to-air refuelling; NATO’s membership in the Global Coalition to Defeat ISIL; the establishment of a new terrorism intelligence cell at NATO Headquarters and the appointment of a coordinator to oversee NATO’s efforts in the fight against terrorism.

5-6 December 2017
At their meeting, foreign ministers underlined the continuing need to provide support to NATO’s southern partners in building counter-terrorism capabilities and institutions. They reaffirmed their full commitment to Allied efforts in training and assistance, building Iraq’s and Afghanistan’s security capacity, which is an important part of NATO’s contribution to the fight against terrorism. Ministers also noted that NATO’s role within the Global Coalition to Defeat ISIS would evolve as the Coalition moves from combat operations to stabilisation efforts.

NATO and the European Union agreed to boost their cooperation in the fight against terrorism, including by strengthening the exchange of information, coordinating their counter-terrorism support for partner countries and working to improve national resilience to terrorist attacks.

15 February 2018
At their meeting, defence ministers agreed to start planning for a NATO training mission in Iraq, at the request of the Iraqi government and the Global Coalition to Defeat ISIS.

11 July 2018
At the Brussels Summit, Allies decided to establish a training mission in Iraq and increase their assistance to the Afghan security forces, providing more trainers and extending financial support. They will continue to contribute to the Global Coalition to Defeat ISIS and will also increase their support to partners to further develop their capacities to tackle terrorism.
**4-5 December 2018**
Foreign ministers agreed an updated Action Plan on enhancing NATO’s role in the international community’s fight against terrorism. It consolidates NATO’s counter-terrorism activities related to awareness, preparedness, capability development and engagement with partners.

**14 February 2019**
Defence ministers endorsed a practical framework to counter unmanned aerial systems and a set of guidelines on civil-military cooperation in case of a potential CBRN terrorist attack.

**3-4 April 2019**
At their meeting on the occasion of NATO’s 70th anniversary, foreign ministers tasked a further review of NATO’s counter-terrorism Action Plan.

**4 December 2019**
At their meeting, Allied Leaders noted an updated Action Plan to enhance NATO’s role in the international community’s fight against terrorism. They also took stock of NATO’s role in the fight against terrorism, including the Alliance’s training missions in Iraq and Afghanistan, which continue to play a key role in preventing the resurgence of ISIS and other terrorist groups.
Counter-piracy operations (Archived)

High levels of piracy activity in the Gulf of Aden, off the Horn of Africa and in the Indian Ocean undermined international humanitarian efforts in Africa and the safety of one of the busiest and most important maritime routes in the world – the gateway in and out of the Suez Canal – for a long time. Between 2008 and 2016, NATO helped to deter and disrupt pirate attacks, while protecting vessels and helping to increase the general level of security in the region through different military operations.

Highlights
- In 2008, at the request of the United Nations, NATO started to support international efforts to combat piracy in the Gulf of Aden, off the Horn of Africa and in the Indian Ocean with Operation Allied Provider and Allied Protector.
- From August 2009, NATO then led Operation Ocean Shield, which helped to deter and disrupt pirate attacks, while protecting vessels and helping to increase the general level of security in the region.
- NATO worked in close cooperation with other actors in the region including the European Union’s Operation Atalanta, the US-led Combined Task Force 151 and individual country contributors.
- The very presence of this international naval force deterred pirates from pursuing their activities and contributed to the suppression of piracy in the region. The implementation of best management practices by the shipping industry, as well as the embarkation of armed security teams on board, also contributed to this trend.
- With no successful piracy attacks since 2012, NATO terminated Ocean Shield on 15 December 2016. However, NATO is remaining engaged in the fight against piracy by maintaining maritime situational awareness and continuing close links with other international counter-piracy actors.
- NATO is also maintaining its counter-piracy efforts at sea and ashore – by supporting countries in the region to build the capacity to fight piracy themselves.
Operation Ocean Shield (August 2009 – December 2016)

The mission, its objectives and scope

For a long time, piracy and armed robbery disrupted the delivery of humanitarian aid to Somalia, and threatened vital sea lines of communication (SLOC) and economic interests off the Horn of Africa, in the Gulf of Aden and the Indian Ocean.

Building on the two previous counter-piracy missions conducted by NATO, Operation Ocean Shield initially focused on at-sea counter-piracy activities. NATO vessels conducted, for instance, helicopter surveillance missions to trace and identify ships in the area; they also helped to prevent and disrupt hijackings and to suppress armed robbery. NATO also agreed, at the request of the UN, to escort the United Nations Support Office for AMISOM (UNSOA) supply vessels to the harbour entrance of Mogadishu, Somalia.

Over time, the operation evolved to respond to new piracy tactics: the March 2012 Strategic Assessment, for instance, highlighted the need to erode the pirates’ logistics and support-base by, among other things, disabling pirate vessels or skiffs, attaching tracking beacons to mother ships and allowing the use of force to disable or destroy suspected pirate or armed robber vessels. With Operation Ocean Shield, the Alliance also broadened its approach to combating piracy by offering, within means and capabilities to regional states that request it, assistance in developing their own capacity to combat piracy. In sum, NATO’s role was to prevent and stop piracy through direct actions against pirates, by providing naval escorts and deterrence, while increasing cooperation with other counter-piracy operations in the area in order to optimise efforts and tackle the evolving pirate trends and tactics.

Operation Ocean Shield was approved by the North Atlantic Council on 17 August 2009 and it was terminated on 15 December 2016.

Composition and command of NATO’s naval support

NATO worked hand in hand with the European Union’s Atalanta, the US-led Combined Task Force 151 and with independent deployers such as China, Japan and South Korea.

From January 2015 onwards, NATO ships contributed to counter-piracy efforts through a “focused presence”, in line with the decision taken at the 2014 Wales Summit. This meant that assets were primarily deployed during the inter-monsoon periods (spring or autumn) and at other times if needed. During the periods without surface ships, maritime patrol aircraft continued to fly sorties, and links to situational awareness systems and counter-piracy partners remained in place. In this effort, the NATO Shipping Centre played a key role.

Partner countries also contributed to Operation Ocean Shield, including Australia, Colombia, New Zealand and Ukraine.

Allied Maritime Command Headquarters Northwood (MARCOM), in the United Kingdom, provides command and control for the full spectrum of NATO’s joint maritime operations and tasks, including Operation Ocean Shield at the time. From its location in Northwood, it plans, conducts and supports joint maritime operations. It is also the Alliance’s principal maritime advisor and contributes to development and transformation, engagement and outreach within its area of expertise.

Previous rotations

From 2009 to end 2014, Standing NATO Maritime Group 1 (SNMG1) and Standing NATO Maritime Group 2 (SNMG2) alternated between each other for the six-month rotations of Operation Ocean Shield. They otherwise functioned according to the operational needs of the Alliance, therefore helping to maintain optimal flexibility. SNMGs are part of NATO’s rapid-response capacity.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Commander</th>
<th>Flagship/Countries</th>
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| **June – December 2014 – SNMG1** | Commodore Aage Buur Jensen (Denmark) | HDMS Absalon (flagship Denmark)  
ITS Mimbelli (Italy) |
| **January - June 2014 – SNMG2** | Rear Admiral Eugenio Diaz del Rio (Spain) | ESPS Cristobal Colon (initially ESPS Alvaro de Bazan) (flagship Spain)  
TCG Gökçeada (Turkey)  
HNLS Evertsen (The Netherlands)  
ITS Mimbelli (Italy)  
TCG Gelibolu (Turkey)*  
HMNZS Te Mana (New Zealand)*  
* Ships initially assigned to the rotation. |
| **January-June 2013 - SNMG2** | Rear Admiral Antonio Natale (Italy) | ITS San Marco (flagship, Italy)*  
USS Halyburton (United States)*  
FF Esben Snare (Denmark)*  
HNLS Van Speijk (The Netherlands)  
Frigate UPS Hetman Sagaidachny (Ukraine) |
| **June- December 2012 - SNMG1** | Rear Commodore Ben Bekkering (The Netherlands) | HNLMS Evertsen (flagship, The Netherlands)  
USS Taylor (United States)  
HNLS Bruinvis (submarine, The Netherlands) |
| **January-June 2012 - SNMG2** | Rear Admiral Sinan Tosun (Turkey) | TCG Giresun (flagship, Turkey)  
HDMS Absalon (Denmark)  
ITS Grecale (Italy)  
RFA Fort Victoria (United Kingdom)  
USS De Wert (United States)  
USS Carney (United States)*  
* Ships initially assigned to the rotation. |
| **June 2011-December 2011 - SNMG1** | Rear Admiral Gualtiero Mattesi (Italy) | ITS Andrea Doria (flagship, Italy)  
USS Carney (United States)  
USS De Wert (United States)  
NRP D. Francisco De Almeida (Portugal) |
| **December 2010- June 2011 - SNMG2** | Commodore Michiel Hijmans (The Netherlands) | HNLMS De Ruyter (flagship – The Netherlands)  
HDMS Esbern Snare (Denmark);  
TCG Gaziantep (Turkey)  
USS Laboon (United States) |
| **August – early December 2010 - SNMG1** | Commodore Christian Rune (Denmark) | HDMS Esbern Snare (flagship, Denmark)  
HMS Montrose and RFA Fort Victoria (United Kingdom)  
USS Kauffman and USS Laboon (United States)  
ITS Bersagliere (Italy)  
HNLS Zeeleeuw (submarine, The Netherlands) |
| **March-August 2010 - SNMG2** | 12 March-30 June: Commodore Steve Chick (United Kingdom) | HMS Chatham (flagship, United Kingdom)  
HS LIMNOS (Greece) - under national control from 30 May  
ITS SCIROCCO (Italy) - under national control from 5 June  
TCG Gelibolu (Turkey)  
USS Cole (United States) |
1st July-6 August:
Commodore Michiel Hijmans (The Netherlands)
HNLMS De Zeven Provinciën (flagship, The Netherlands)
TCG Gelibolu (Turkey)
USS Cole (United States)

November 2009-March 2010 - SNMG1
Commodore Christian Rune (succeeded Rear Admiral Jose Pereira de Cunha (Portugal) from 25 January 2010).
NRP Álvares Cabral (outgoing flagship, Portugal)
HDMS Absalon (incoming flagship, Denmark)
HMS Fredericton (Canada)
USS Boone (United States)
HMS Chatham (United Kingdom)

August – November 2009 - SNMG2
Commodore Steve Chick (United Kingdom)
HS Navarinon (Greece)
ITS Libeccio (Italy)
TCG Gediz (Turkey)
HMS Cornwall (United Kingdom)
USS Donald Cook (United States)

Standing NATO Maritime Groups

Among NATO’s Maritime Immediate Reaction Forces there are: the Standing NATO Maritime Groups (SNMGs) composed of SNMG1 and SNMG2; and the Standing NATO Mine Counter-Measure Groups (SNMCMG1 and SNMCMG2).

SNMGs are a multinational, integrated maritime force made up of vessels from various Allied countries. Their composition varies and usually comprises between six and ten ships. These vessels (including their helicopters) are permanently available to NATO to perform different tasks ranging from participating in exercises to actually intervening in operational missions. These groups provide NATO with a continuous maritime capability for operations and other activities in peacetime and in periods of crisis and conflict. They also help to establish Alliance presence, demonstrate solidarity, conduct routine diplomatic visits to different countries, support transformation and provide a variety of maritime military capabilities to ongoing missions.

SNMG1 and SNMG2 both come under the command of MARCOM, as do all Standing NATO Forces (i.e., SNMCMG1 and SNMCMG2) since the implementation of the new NATO Command Structure on 1 December 2012.

Operation Allied Protector (March-August 2009)

The mission, its objectives and scope

Operation Allied Protector helped to deter, defend against and disrupt pirate activities in the Gulf of Aden and off the Horn of Africa.

From 24 March until 29 June 2009, the operation was conducted by SNMG1 vessels. SNMG1 is usually employed in the Eastern Atlantic area, but it can deploy anywhere NATO requires. The first phase of Operation Allied Protector was undertaken as the force left for NATO's first ever deployment to South East Asia. It made a short visit to Karachi (Pakistan) on 26-27 April. However, with the increase in pirate attacks, on 24 April NATO had already decided to cancel the other two port visits to Singapore and Australia. As such, the second phase of the operation, which was meant to take place as SNMG1 made its return journey towards European waters end June, was brought forward to 1 May.

From 29 June 2009, SNMG2 took over responsibility from SNMG1. It had conducted NATO’s first counter-piracy operation – Operation Allied Provider (see below).
Composition and command of the naval force

24 March-29 June 2009 - SNMG1
Rear Admiral Jose Pereira de Cunha (Portugal)
NRP Corte Real (flagship, Portugal)
HMCS Winnipeg (Canada)
HNLMS De Zeven Provinciën (The Netherlands)
SPS Blas de Lezo (Spain)
USS Halyburton (United States)

29 June-August 2009 - SNMG2
Commodore Steve Chick (United Kingdom)
ITS Libeccio (frigate, Italy)
HS Navarinon (frigate F461, Greece)
TCG Gediz (frigate F495, Turkey)
HMS Cornwall (frigate F99, United Kingdom)
USS Laboon (destroyer DDG58, United States)

Operation Allied Provider (October-December 2008)

The mission, its objectives and scope
Operation Allied Provider was responsible for naval escorts to World Food Programme (WFP) vessels and, more generally, patrolled the waters around Somalia. Alliance presence also helped to deter acts of piracy that threatened the region.

While providing close protection for WFP vessels and patrolling routes most susceptible to criminal acts against merchant vessels, NATO ships could use force pursuant to the authorised Rules of Engagement and in compliance with relevant international and national law.

Allied Provider was a temporary operation that was requested by UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon on 25 September 2008. NATO provided this counter-piracy capacity in support of UN Security Council Resolutions 1814, 1816 and 1838, and in coordination with other international actors, including the European Union.

NATO Defence Ministers agreed to respond positively to the UN’s request on 9 October, during an informal meeting held in Budapest, Hungary. Following this decision, planning started to redirect assets of SNMG2 to conduct counter-piracy duties.

SNMG2 was already scheduled to conduct a series of Gulf port visits in Bahrain, Kuwait, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates within the framework of the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative (ICI). As such, it started to transit the Suez Canal on 15 October to conduct both duties at the same time.

Composition and command of the naval force
At the time of the operation, SNMG2 comprised seven ships from Germany, Greece, Italy, Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States, of which three were assigned to Operation Allied Provider:
- ITS Durand de la Penne (flagship, destroyer D560, Italy);
- HS Temistokles (frigate F465, Greece);
- HMS Cumberland (frigate F85, United Kingdom).

The other four ships (FGS Karlsruhe-Germany; FGS Rhön-Germany; TCG Gokova-Turkey; and USS The Sullivans-USA) continued deployment to ICI countries. This was the first time a NATO-flagged force deployed to the Gulf.

At the time of the operation, SNMG2 was commanded by Rear Admiral Giovanni Gumiero, Italian Navy, who was appointed to this post in July 2008. He reported to the Commander of Allied Component Command Maritime (CC-Mar) Naples. CC Mar Naples was one of the three Component Commands of Allied Joint Force Command Naples.
Crisis management

Crisis management is one of NATO’s fundamental security tasks. It can involve military and non-military measures to address the full spectrum of crises – before, during and after conflicts – as outlined in the 2010 Strategic Concept. It is one of NATO’s strengths based on experience, tried and tested crisis management procedures and an integrated military command structure.

Highlights

- Crisis management is one of NATO’s core tasks for which it employs an appropriate mix of political and military tools to manage crises in an increasingly complex security environment.
- NATO’s robust crisis management capabilities allow it to deal with a wide range of crises which could pose a threat to the security of the Alliance’s territory and populations. These crises can be political, military or humanitarian and can also arise from a natural disaster or as a consequence of technological disruptions.
- NATO provides the framework within which members can work and train together in order to plan and conduct multinational crisis management operations, often at short notice.
- It can also train and operate with other actors where appropriate, for combined crisis management operations and missions.
- Allies decide whether to engage in a crisis management operation on a case-by-case basis and by consensus.
- NATO recognises that the military alone cannot resolve a crisis or conflict, and lessons learned from previous operations make it clear that a comprehensive political, civilian and military approach is necessary for effective crisis management.
NATO’s role in crisis management

The manner of dealing with a crisis depends on its nature, scale and seriousness. In some cases, crises can be prevented through diplomacy or other measures, while other situations may require more robust measures, including the use of military force. In this regard, NATO has a holistic approach to crisis management, envisaging involvement at all stages of a crisis and considering a broad range of tools to be effective across the crisis management spectrum. To ensure effectiveness and resilience, these instruments are continuously adapted to the evolving security context.

Many crisis management operations have their own objectives and end-state depending on the nature of the crisis, which will define the scope and scale of the response. NATO has had the capacity to deal with crisis management and, more specifically, collective defence and disaster relief operations for a long time. Only at a later stage, during the 1990s, did it become involved in non-Article 5 operations, that is, those that are mainly conducted in non-NATO member countries.

Prepared for Article 5 operations

Since its creation in 1949, the primary role and the greatest responsibility of the Alliance is to protect and defend Allied territory and populations against attack. Collective defence is at the heart of the Washington Treaty and is enshrined in Article 5. Article 5 provides that if a NATO Ally is the victim of an armed attack, each and every other member of the Alliance will consider this as an armed attack against all members and will take the actions it deems necessary to assist the Ally attacked.

NATO did not conduct any operations – Article 5 or other – during the Cold War. The Alliance’s focus during this time was ensuring the effective defence of NATO’s territory through readiness, planning, preparations, and conducting exercises for possible Article 5 contingencies.

Invocation of Article 5

Article 5 was invoked for the very first time following the Al-Qaeda terrorist attack on the United States on September 11, 2001. Once it had been proved that the attack had come from abroad, the North Atlantic Council (NAC) considered it to be an act covered by Article 5. Several measures were put into place by NATO to help prevent further attacks, including Operation Active Endeavour in the Mediterranean to help detect, deter and protect against terrorist activity in the area.

Engaging in non-Article 5 crisis response operations

As soon as the Soviet Union collapsed and satellite countries regained independence in the 1990s, past tensions resurfaced and conflicts started among ethnic groups.

From the former Yugoslavia to today’s operations and missions

One of the first major conflicts following the end of the Cold War broke out in the former Yugoslavia in 1992. NATO initially provided air- and sea-based support to the United Nations (UN) – enforcing economic sanctions, an arms embargo and a no-flight zone in Bosnia and Herzegovina – and with detailed military contingency planning concerning safe areas and the implementation of a peace plan.

The measures proved inadequate to bring an end to the war. In the summer of 1995, after violations of exclusion zones, the shelling of UN-designated safe areas and the taking of UN hostages, NATO member countries agreed to take military action in support of UN efforts to bring an end to the war in Bosnia. NATO launched a two-week air campaign against Bosnian Serb forces and, over the following months, a series of other military measures at the request of the UN force commanders. This helped pave the way for the signing of the Dayton Peace Accord on 14 December 1995. The Alliance immediately proceeded to deploy peacekeeping forces to the country, in accordance with the terms of a UN mandate, giving NATO responsibility for the implementation of the military aspects of the peace accord.

This was the first time that NATO became involved in a non-Article 5 crisis management operation. Other non-Article 5 crisis management operations have followed - in Kosovo, North Macedonia (previously known as the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia), Afghanistan, the Mediterranean, off the Horn of Africa, over Libya and in support of the African Union.
**NATO’s Strategic Concepts**

Provision for crisis management measures had already been made in the Alliance’s 1991 Strategic Concept for “the management of crises affecting the security of its members”. It was reiterated in the 1999 Strategic Concept, which states that NATO stands ready to contribute to effective conflict prevention and to engage actively in crisis management. In addition, the 1999 document states that these crisis management operations would include non-Article 5 operations.

The 2010 Strategic Concept broadened NATO’s thinking on crisis management, envisaging NATO’s involvement at all stages of a crisis: “NATO will therefore engage, where possible and when necessary, to prevent crises, manage crises, stabilise post-conflict situations and support reconstruction.” It also recognised the imperative for a greater number of actors to participate and coordinate their efforts and considered a broader range of tools to be used. More generally, it adopted a comprehensive, all-encompassing approach to crisis management that goes hand-in-hand with greater emphasis on training, developing local forces, enhancing civil-military planning and interaction, and greater interoperability between NATO and partner forces.

**NATO and disaster relief operations**

Crisis management is a broad concept that goes beyond military operations to include, for instance, the protection of populations. NATO began developing civil protection measures in the event of a nuclear attack as early as the 1950s. NATO member countries soon realised that these capabilities could be used effectively against the effects of disasters induced by floods, earthquakes or technological incidents, and against humanitarian disasters.

In 1953, the first disaster assistance scheme was implemented following devastating flooding in northern Europe and, in 1958, NATO established detailed procedures for the coordination of assistance between NATO member countries in case of disasters. These procedures remained in place and provided the basis for NATO to conduct work in this field in subsequent years. They were comprehensively reviewed in 1995 when they became applicable to partner countries in addition to NATO member countries.

In 1998, NATO established the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) to coordinate aid provided by different member and partner countries to a disaster-stricken area in a member or partner country. The Alliance also established the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Unit, which is a non-standing, multinational mix of national civil and military elements that have been volunteered by member or partner countries for deployment to the area of concern.

The EADRCC has coordinated assistance in flood-devastated countries including Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Romania and Ukraine. It supported the UN High Commissioner for Refugees in Kosovo; helped coordinate aid, which was sent to earthquake-stricken Turkey and Pakistan; helped to fight fires in North Macedonia and in Portugal; and supported Ukraine and Moldova after extreme weather conditions had destroyed power transmission capabilities. The EADRCC also conducts consequence management field exercises on an annual basis, bringing together civil and military first response teams to practise interoperability.

**The tools to tackle crises**

**Crisis decision-making at NATO**

When a crisis occurs, no decisions on planning, deployment or employment of military forces are taken without political authorisation. Decisions are taken by the governments of each NATO member country collectively and may include political, military or civil emergency measures, depending on the nature of the crisis.

In addition to the regular consultations that take place to move ongoing activities forward, at any given time, Article 4 of the Washington Treaty gives each Ally the right to bring issues to the table for consultation and discussion with other fellow members: “The Parties will consult together whenever, in the opinion of any of them, the territorial integrity, political independence or security of any of the Parties is threatened.” Article 4 is critical to NATO’s crisis management process, since consultation is at the basis of collective action.
NATO has different mechanisms in place to deal with crises. The principal political decision-making body is the North Atlantic Council (Council or NAC), which exchanges intelligence, information and other data, compares different perceptions and approaches, harmonises its views and takes decisions by consensus, as do all NATO committees. It is the NAC that decides on a case-by-case basis and by consensus whether to engage in a crisis response operation.

In the field of crisis management, the Council is supported by the Operations Policy Committee, the Political Committee, the Military Committee and the Civil Emergency Planning Committee.

Additionally, NATO communication systems, including a “Situation Centre” (SITCEN), receive, exchange and disseminate political, economic and military intelligence and information around the clock, every single day of the year.

The overarching NATO Crisis Response System (NCRS) is a process within which a number of elements are geared to addressing different aspects of NATO’s response to crises in a complementary manner. These include: the NATO Crisis Management Process (NCMP), the NATO Intelligence and Warning System (NIWS), NATO’s Operational Planning Process and NATO Civil Emergency Planning Crisis Management Arrangements, which together underpin NATO’s crisis management role and its ability to respond to crises.

Internal coordination and tools

NATO is one of few international organisations that have the experience as well as the tools to conduct crisis management operations.

- The NCRS is effectively a guide to aid decision-making within the field of crisis management. Its role is to coordinate efforts between the national representatives at NATO Headquarters, capitals and the Strategic Commands. It does this by providing the Alliance with a comprehensive set of options and measures to prepare for, manage and respond to crises. It complements other processes such as operations planning, civil emergency planning and others, which exist within the Organization to address crises. It was first approved in 2005 and is revised annually.

- One of the core components of the NCRS is the NCMP. The NCMP breaks down a crisis situation into different phases, providing a structure against which military and non-military crisis response planning processes should be designed. It is flexible and adaptable to different crisis situations.

- NATO periodically exercises procedures through scheduled crisis management exercises (CMX) in which the Headquarters (civilian and military) and capitals participate, including partners and other bodies who may be involved in a real-life crisis.

- Standardization: countries need to share a common set of standards, especially among military forces, to carry out multinational operations. By helping to achieve interoperability – the ability of diverse systems and organisations to work together – among NATO’s forces, as well as with those of its partners, standardization allows for more efficient use of resources. It therefore greatly increases the effectiveness of the Alliance’s defence capabilities. Through its standardization bodies, NATO develops and implements concepts, doctrines and procedures to achieve and maintain the required levels of compatibility, interchangeability or commonality needed to achieve interoperability. For instance, in the field, standard procedures allow for the transfer of supplies between ships at sea and interoperable material such as fuel connections at airfields. It enables the many NATO and partner countries to work together, preventing duplication and promoting better use of economic resources.

- Logistics: this is the bridge between the deployed forces and the industrial base that produces the material and weapons that forces need to accomplish their mission. It comprises the identification of requirements as well as both the building up of stocks and capabilities, and the sustainment of weapons and forces. As such, the scope of logistics is huge. Among the core functions conducted by NATO are: supply, maintenance, movement and transportation, petroleum support, infrastructure and medical support.
The Alliance’s overarching function is to coordinate national efforts and encourage the highest degree possible of multinational responses to operational needs, therefore reducing the number of individual supply chains. While NATO has this responsibility, each state is responsible for ensuring that – individually or through cooperative arrangements – their own forces receive the required logistic resources.

Coordinating with other international players

Increasingly, NATO contributes to efforts by the wider international community to preserve or restore peace and prevent conflict. It is committed to a comprehensive political, civilian and military approach to crisis management. As a consequence, it is building closer partnerships with civilian actors – including non-governmental organisations and local authorities – and is focusing on several key areas of work including cooperation with external actors; planning and conduct of operations; lessons learned, training, education and exercises; and public messaging. In this context, the record of NATO’s sustained cooperation with the UN, the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) and the European Union (EU) in the Balkans stands as a precedent.

NATO’s partnerships are and will continue to be essential to the way NATO works. Partners have served with NATO in Afghanistan, Kosovo and other operations, as well as in combating terrorism and piracy. NATO has built a broad and cooperative security network that involves countries participating in the Partnership for Peace programme, the Mediterranean Dialogue and the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative, as well as with partners across the globe and troop-contributing countries, which do not work with NATO through a formal partnership framework.

Civil preparedness of member countries

Military forces, and especially deployed troops in times of war, depend on the civilian sector for transport, communications or basic supplies such as food and water, to fulfil their missions. However, these assets are vulnerable to external attack and internal disruption.

Civil preparedness means that basic government functions can continue during emergencies or disasters in peacetime or in periods of crisis. It also means that the civilian sector in Allied countries would be ready to provide support to a NATO military operation. The combination of civil preparedness and military capacity constitute resilience. Resilience is a society’s ability to resist and recover easily and quickly from shocks, combining civilian, economic, commercial and military factors.

The individual commitment of each and every member to maintaining and strengthening its resilience reduces the vulnerability of the Organization as a whole. Members can develop resilience through the development of home defence and niche skills such as cyber defence or medical support. When Allies are well prepared, they are less likely to be attacked, making NATO as a whole stronger and better equipped to tackle crises.

A wide range of crisis management operations - definitions

Depending on the nature of a crisis, different types of crisis management operations may be required.

Article 5 - Collective defence

Referred to as “Article 5 operations”, collective defence implies that the decision has been taken collectively by NATO members to consider an attack or act of aggression against one or more members as an attack against all. NATO invoked Article 5 for the first time in its history in September 2001 following the terrorist attacks against the United States.

Non-Article 5 crisis response operations

Crisis response operations cover all military operations conducted by NATO in a non-Article 5 situation.

A “crisis response” or “peace-support operation” are generic terms that may include conflict prevention, peacekeeping, peacemaking, peace building, peace enforcement and humanitarian operations. These are multi-functional operations conducted in support of a UN/OSCE mandate or at the invitation of a
sovereign government involving military forces and diplomatic and humanitarian agencies and are designed to achieve long-term political settlement or other conditions specified in the mandate.

- Conflict prevention: activities aimed at conflict prevention are normally conducted under Chapter VI of the UN Charter. They range from diplomatic initiatives to preventive deployments of forces intended to prevent disputes from escalating into armed conflicts or from spreading. Conflict prevention can also include fact-finding missions, consultations, warnings, inspections and monitoring. NATO makes full use of partnership, cooperation and dialogue and its links to other organisations to contribute to preventing crises and, should they arise, defusing them at an early stage.

- A preventive deployment within the framework of conflict prevention is the deployment of operational forces possessing sufficient deterrent capabilities to prevent an outbreak of hostilities.

- Peacekeeping: peacekeeping operations are generally undertaken under Chapter VI of the UN Charter and are conducted with the consent of all Parties to a conflict to monitor and facilitate implementation of a peace agreement.

- Peacemaking: this covers diplomatic activities conducted after the commencement of a conflict aimed at establishing a cease-fire or a rapid peaceful settlement. They can include the provision of good offices, mediation, conciliation and such actions as diplomatic pressure, isolation or sanction.

- Peace building: peace building covers actions which support political, economic, social, and military measures and structures aiming to strengthen and solidify political settlements in order to redress the causes of a conflict. This includes mechanisms to identify and support structures, which can play a role in consolidating peace, advance a sense of confidence and well-being and supporting economic reconstruction.

- Peace enforcement: these operations are undertaken under Chapter VII of the UN Charter. They are coercive in nature and are conducted when the consent of all Parties to a conflict has not been achieved or might be uncertain. They are designed to maintain or re-establish peace or enforce the terms specified in the mandate.

- Humanitarian operations: these operations are conducted to alleviate human suffering. Humanitarian operations may precede or accompany humanitarian activities provided by specialised civilian organisations.

**Natural, technological or humanitarian disaster operations**

Operations to assist member and partner countries that are affected by disasters also fall under the scope of crisis management. In 2005, NATO assisted Pakistan when it was hit by a devastating earthquake that claimed the lives of an estimated 80,000 people. NATO also regularly responds to requests for assistance following natural disasters such as hurricanes, heavy flooding and forest fires.
Cultural property protection

The profound and devastating effects of armed conflict on cultural heritage are well documented: the bombing of the Old Town in Dubrovnik, Croatia – a UNESCO World Heritage Site; the shelling of the Old Bridge in Mostar, Bosnia and Herzegovina; and the destruction of the two giant Buddha statues in Bamyan province in Afghanistan by the Taliban. The preamble of NATO’s founding treaty states that “the parties to this Treaty are determined to safeguard the freedom, common heritage and civilisation of their peoples”. Cultural property is a vital part of people’s identity and of all humanity. NATO intends to, whenever possible and appropriate, protect and safeguard cultural property, which is part of the planning, conduct and after-action review of its operations and missions.

In Kosovo, part of NATO’s mandate is to protect the Visoki Monastery in Decani.

Highlights

- Recent NATO operations in Afghanistan, Libya or earlier in the Balkans bear evidence to the increasing prominent and complex role of cultural property protection in armed conflict.
- People’s identity is often connected to symbols that are reflected in cultural property, such as buildings, monuments, artefacts or architecture. Destroying such symbols can shatter links to the past, thus erasing an identity from historical memory.
- The 1954 Hague Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict and its protocols provide the regulatory instruments, complemented by human rights law and international criminal law as well as UNESCO conventions.
- Cultural property protection is an essential part of the military environment and plays a specific role in NATO’s tactical, operational and strategic considerations.
- It contributes to post-conflict stabilisation efforts and aims to strengthen trust and cooperation with local populations.
More background information

The rationale for cultural property protection

Cultural property protection (CPP) in armed conflicts is part of international humanitarian law (also known as the Law of Armed Conflict/LOAC).

It is – with a few exceptions where provisions have to be observed even during peacetime – only applicable in the case of armed conflict and in the case of military occupation of foreign territory.

Due to the complexity of conflicts, CPP has shifted from the cultural sector to the defence sector. It has evolved to an important topic of international security measures, incorporating military and civilian resources, cooperation among states, as well as national and international organisations.

In recent years, cultural property is increasingly becoming a target of both armed attack and intentional destruction by belligerent actors, while at the same time emerging as a focus of political attention and elaborate protection initiatives by the international community.

In the military context, the protection of cultural property in armed conflict is imperative. Avoidable destruction of, damage to or misappropriation of cultural property by military forces endangers mission success. It stirs up the hostility of local populations and offers the adversary a potent propaganda weapon. It can undermine support of the civilian populations of all parties to a conflict. Furthermore, it makes post-conflict stabilisation and reconciliation efforts more difficult.

On the other hand, looting and illegal trafficking of cultural property is a way in which criminal groups fund their activities. Prevention of looting can therefore curtail funding for criminal groups.

The protection of cultural property is an integral part of NATO’s sustainable strategy to build peace and security.

Cultural property protection in NATO operations

During a NATO-led operation, NATO member states are committed to taking all possible measures to avoid any kind of harm or damage to objects of cultural value, in particular those linked to the values and cultural identity of a population.

Military commanders bear operational responsibility for ensuring that military forces abide by the rules of LOAC and adopt best practices in protecting cultural property in armed conflict.

The 1954 Hague Convention obligates its States Parties, within their armed forces, to take measures on CPP in peacetime (training, exercises, implementation of guidelines, directives, manuals, etc.) and to cooperate with the civilian authorities who are primarily responsible for safeguarding cultural property.

The NATO-accredited Civil-Military Cooperation Centre of Excellence, based in the Netherlands, recommends two forms of pre-deployment training in the field of CPP. The first one is a generic training regarding the importance of cultural property and CPP, including associated legal obligations, offered to all personnel prior to deployment. The second one is a country-specific cultural property pre-deployment training, in advance of a known mission at a given location.

This training requirement for all military forces helps them to identify cultural sites and provides guidance on actions to be taken if cultural property is encountered when deployed. Before deployment, in accordance with operational regulations and procedures, Allied military personnel liaise with academia and host nations’ cultural experts, and acquire detailed maps, imagery and any other types of spatial or intelligence products that provide information on known cultural property in the deployment area.

Once deployed, NATO forces intend to, whenever possible and appropriate, protect and safeguard cultural property. In Kosovo, for instance, part of NATO’s mandate is to protect and support the protection of cultural sites such as monasteries. In Afghanistan, NATO forces participated in initiatives and projects on an ad hoc basis, such as offering cultural heritage courses, building temporary facilities to store archaeological finds, rebuilding the National Museum of Afghanistan and protecting cultural heritage in Ghazni.
During Operation Unified Protector in Libya, NATO used the data provided by several sources, such as UNESCO and academia, in order to integrate cultural property protection in the planning of NATO airstrikes.
Cyber threats to the security of the Alliance are becoming more frequent, complex, destructive and coercive. NATO will continue to adapt to the evolving cyber threat landscape. NATO and its Allies rely on strong and resilient cyber defences to fulfil the Alliance’s core tasks of collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security. The Alliance needs to be prepared to defend its networks and operations against the growing sophistication of the cyber threats and attacks it faces.

**Cyber defence**

Cyber defence is part of NATO’s core task of collective defence.

- NATO has affirmed that international law applies in cyberspace.
- NATO’s main focus in cyber defence is to protect its own networks (including operations and missions) and enhance resilience across the Alliance.
- In July 2016, Allies reaffirmed NATO’s defensive mandate and recognised cyberspace as a domain of operations in which NATO must defend itself as effectively as it does in the air, on land and at sea.
- Allies also made a Cyber Defence Pledge in July 2016 to enhance their cyber defences, as a matter of priority. Since then, all Allies have upgraded their cyber defences.
- NATO reinforces its capabilities for cyber education, training and exercises.
Allies are committed to enhancing information-sharing and mutual assistance in preventing, mitigating and recovering from cyber attacks.

NATO Cyber Rapid Reaction teams are on standby to assist Allies, 24 hours a day, if requested and approved.

At the Brussels Summit in 2018, Allies agreed to set up a new Cyberspace Operations Centre as part of NATO’s strengthened Command Structure. They also agreed that NATO can draw on national cyber capabilities for its missions and operations.

In February 2019, Allies endorsed a NATO guide that sets out a number of tools to further strengthen NATO’s ability to respond to significant malicious cyber activities.

NATO and the European Union (EU) are cooperating through a Technical Arrangement on Cyber Defence, which was signed in February 2016. In light of common challenges, NATO and the EU are strengthening their cooperation on cyber defence, notably in the areas of information exchange, training, research and exercises.

NATO is intensifying its cooperation with industry through the NATO Industry Cyber Partnership.

NATO recognises that its Allies stand to benefit from a norms-based, predictable and secure cyberspace.

More background information

Principal cyber defence activities

NATO Policy on Cyber Defence

To keep pace with the rapidly changing threat landscape and maintain robust cyber defences, NATO adopted an enhanced policy and action plan, which were endorsed by Allies at the Wales Summit in September 2014. An updated action plan has since been endorsed by Allies in February 2017. The policy establishes that cyber defence is part of the Alliance’s core task of collective defence, confirms that international law applies in cyberspace, seeks to further develop NATO’s and Allies’ capabilities, and intensifies NATO’s cooperation with industry. The top priority is the protection of the networks owned and operated by the Alliance.

The policy also reflects Allied decisions on issues such as streamlined cyber defence governance, procedures for assistance to Allied countries, and the integration of cyber defence into operational planning (including civil preparedness). In addition, the policy defines ways to take forward awareness, education, training and exercise activities, and encourages further progress in various cooperation initiatives, including those with partner countries and international organisations. It also foresees boosting NATO’s cooperation with industry, including on information-sharing and the exchange of best practices. Allies have also committed to enhancing information-sharing and mutual assistance in preventing, mitigating and recovering from cyber attacks.

NATO’s cyber defence policy is complemented by an action plan with concrete objectives and implementation timelines on a range of topics from capability development, education, training and exercises, and partnerships.

At the Warsaw Summit in 2016, Allies reaffirmed NATO’s defensive mandate and recognised cyberspace as a domain of operations in which NATO must defend itself as effectively as it does in the air, on land and at sea. As most crises and conflicts today have a cyber dimension, treating cyberspace as a domain enables NATO to better protect and conduct its missions and operations.

At Warsaw, Allies also pledged to strengthen and enhance the cyber defences of national networks and infrastructures, as a matter of priority. Together with the continuous adaptation of NATO’s cyber defence capabilities, as part of NATO’s long-term adaptation, this will reinforce the cyber defence and overall resilience of the Alliance.
Developing the NATO cyber defence capability

The NATO Computer Incident Response Capability (NCIRC) based at SHAPE in Mons, Belgium, protects NATO’s own networks by providing centralised and round-the-clock cyber defence support. This capability is expected to evolve on a continual basis and maintain pace with the rapidly changing threat and technology environment.

To facilitate an Alliance-wide and common approach to cyber defence capability development, NATO also defines targets for Allied countries’ implementation of national cyber defence capabilities via the NATO Defence Planning Process.

Cyber defence has also been integrated into NATO’s Smart Defence initiatives. Smart Defence enables countries to work together to develop and maintain capabilities they could not afford to develop or procure alone, and to free resources for developing other capabilities. The Smart Defence projects in cyber defence include the Malware Information Sharing Platform (MISP) and the Smart Defence Multinational Cyber Defence Capability Development (MN CD2) project. The Multinational Cyber Defence Education and Training (MN CD E&T) project recently concluded its work.

NATO is also helping its Allies by sharing information and best practices, and by conducting cyber defence exercises to help develop national expertise. Similarly, individual Allied countries may, on a voluntary basis and facilitated by NATO, assist other Allies to develop their national cyber defence capabilities.

Increasing NATO cyber defence capacity

Recognising that cyber defence is as much about people as it is about technology, NATO continues to improve the state of its cyber defence education, training and exercises.

NATO conducts regular exercises, such as the annual Cyber Coalition Exercise, and aims to integrate cyber defence elements and considerations into the entire range of Alliance exercises, including the Crisis Management Exercise (CMX). NATO is also enhancing its capabilities for cyber education, training and exercises, including the NATO Cyber Range, which is based at a facility provided by Estonia.

To enhance situational awareness, an updated Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) on Cyber Defence was developed in 2015. This updated MOU is being concluded between NATO and the national cyber defence authorities of each of the 29 Allies. It sets out arrangements for the exchange of a variety of cyber defence-related information and assistance to improve cyber incident prevention, resilience and response capabilities.

The NATO Cooperative Cyber Defence Centre of Excellence (CCD CoE) in Tallinn, Estonia is a NATO-accredited research and training facility dealing with cyber defence education, consultation, lessons learned, research and development. Although it is not part of the NATO Command Structure, the CCD CoE offers recognised expertise and experience.

The NATO Communications and Information Systems School (NCISS) in Latina, Italy provides training to personnel from Allied (as well as non-NATO) nations relating to the operation and maintenance of NATO communications and information systems. NCISS is relocating to Portugal, where it will provide greater emphasis on cyber defence training and education.

The NATO School in Oberammergau, Germany conducts cyber defence-related education and training to support Alliance operations, strategy, policy, doctrine and procedures. The NATO Defense College in Rome, Italy fosters strategic thinking on political-military matters, including on cyber defence issues.

Cooperating with partners

Because cyber threats defy state borders and organisational boundaries, NATO engages with a number of partner countries and other international organisations to enhance international security.

Engagement with partner countries is based on shared values and common approaches to cyber defence. Requests for cooperation with the Alliance are handled on a case-by-case basis founded on mutual interest.

NATO also works with, among others, the European Union (EU), the United Nations (UN) and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE).
Cyber defence is one of the areas of strengthened cooperation between NATO and the EU, as part of the two organisations’ increasingly coordinated efforts to counter hybrid threats. NATO and the EU share information between cyber crisis response teams and exchange best practices. Cooperation is also being enhanced on training, research and exercises.

Cooperating with industry

The private sector is a key player in cyberspace, and technological innovations and expertise from the private sector are crucial to enable NATO and Allied countries to effectively respond to cyber threats.

Through the NATO Industry Cyber Partnership (NICP), NATO and its Allies are working to reinforce their relationships with industry. This partnership includes NATO entities, national Computer Emergency Response Teams (CERTs) and NATO member countries’ industry representatives. Information-sharing activities, exercises, training and education, and multinational Smart Defence projects are just a few examples of areas in which NATO and industry have been working together.

Governance

The NATO Policy on Cyber Defence is implemented by NATO’s political, military and technical authorities, as well as by individual Allies. The North Atlantic Council (NAC) provides high-level political oversight on all aspects of implementation. The NAC is apprised of major cyber incidents and it exercises principal authority in cyber defence-related crisis management.

The Cyber Defence Committee, subordinate to the NAC, is the lead committee for political governance and cyber defence policy in general. At the working level, the NATO Cyber Defence Management Board (CDMB) is responsible for coordinating cyber defence throughout NATO civilian and military bodies. The CDMB comprises the leaders of the policy, military, operational and technical bodies in NATO with responsibilities for cyber defence.

The NATO Consultation, Control and Command (NC3) Board constitutes the main committee for consultation on technical and implementation aspects of cyber defence. The NATO Military Authorities (NMA) and the NATO Communications and Information Agency (NCIA) bear the specific responsibilities for identifying the statement of operational requirements, acquisition, implementation and operating of NATO’s cyber defence capabilities. Allied Command Transformation (ACT) is responsible for the planning and conduct of the annual Cyber Coalition Exercise.

NCIA, through its NCIRC Technical Centre in Mons, Belgium, is responsible for the provision of technical cyber security services throughout NATO. The NCIRC Technical Centre has a key role in responding to any cyber incidents affecting NATO. It handles and reports incidents, and disseminates important incident-related information to system/security management and users. The NCIRC Coordination Centre is a staff element responsible for the coordination of cyber defence activities within NATO and with member countries, and for staff support to the CDMB.

Evolution

Although NATO has always protected its communications and information systems, the 2002 Prague Summit first placed cyber defence on the Alliance’s political agenda. Allied leaders reiterated the need to provide additional protection to these information systems at the Riga Summit in 2006.

Following the cyber attacks against Estonia’s public and private institutions in 2007, Allied defence ministers agreed that urgent work was needed in this area. As a result, NATO approved its first Policy on Cyber Defence in January 2008.

In the summer of 2008, the conflict between Russia and Georgia demonstrated that cyber attacks have the potential to become a major component of conventional warfare.

NATO adopted a new Strategic Concept at the Lisbon Summit in 2010, during which the North Atlantic Council (NAC) was tasked to develop an in-depth NATO cyber defence policy and to prepare an action plan for its implementation.
In June 2011, NATO defence ministers approved the second NATO Policy on Cyber Defence, which set out a vision for coordinated efforts in cyber defence throughout the Alliance within the context of the rapidly evolving threat and technology environment. This was accompanied by an action plan for implementation.

In April 2012, cyber defence was introduced into the NATO Defence Planning Process. Relevant cyber defence requirements are identified and prioritised through the defence planning process.

At the Chicago Summit in May 2012, Allied leaders reaffirmed their commitment to improving the Alliance’s cyber defences by bringing all of NATO’s networks under centralised protection and implementing a series of upgrades to the NCIRC – NATO’s cyber defence capability.

In July 2012, as part of the reform of NATO’s agencies, the NATO Communications and Information Agency (NCIA) was established.

In February 2014, Allied defence ministers tasked NATO to develop a new, enhanced cyber defence policy regarding collective defence, assistance to Allies, streamlined governance, legal considerations and relations with industry.

In April 2014, the NAC agreed to rename the Defence Policy and Planning Committee/ Cyber Defence as the Cyber Defence Committee.

At the Wales Summit in September 2014, Allies endorsed a new cyber defence policy and approved an action plan that, along with the policy, contributes to the fulfilment of the Alliance’s core tasks. Cyber defence was recognised as part of NATO’s core task of collective defence, and Allies agreed that international law applies in cyberspace.

On 17 September 2014, NATO launched an initiative to boost cooperation with the private sector on cyber threats and challenges. Endorsed by Allied leaders at the Wales Summit, the NATO Industry Cyber Partnership (NICP) was presented at a two-day cyber conference held in Mons, Belgium, where 1,500 industry leaders and policy makers gathered to discuss cyber collaboration. The NICP recognises the importance of working with industry partners to enable the Alliance to achieve its cyber defence policy’s objectives.

On 10 February 2016, NATO and the EU concluded a Technical Arrangement on Cyber Defence to help both organisations better prevent and respond to cyber attacks. This Technical Arrangement between NCIRC and the Computer Emergency Response Team of the EU (CERT-EU) provides a framework for exchanging information and sharing best practices between emergency response teams.

On 14 June 2016, Allied defence ministers agreed to recognise cyberspace as a domain at the NATO Summit in Warsaw in July. This recognition does not change NATO’s mission or mandate, which is defensive. As in all areas of action, NATO will exercise restraint and act in accordance with international law. The Alliance also welcomed efforts undertaken in other international fora to develop norms of responsible state behaviour and confidence-building measures to foster a more transparent and stable cyberspace.

At the Warsaw Summit in July 2016, Allied Heads of State and Government reaffirmed NATO’s defensive mandate and recognised cyberspace as a domain of operations in which NATO must defend itself as effectively as it does in the air, on land and at sea. This improved NATO’s ability to protect and conduct its missions and operations.

Allies also committed through a Cyber Defence Pledge to enhancing the cyber defences of their national networks and infrastructures, as a matter of priority. Each Ally will honour its responsibility to improve its resilience and ability to respond quickly and effectively to cyber attacks, including as part of hybrid campaigns.

On 6 December 2016, NATO and the EU agreed on a series of more than 40 measures to advance how the two organisations work together – including on countering hybrid threats, cyber defence, and making their common neighbourhood more stable and secure. On cyber defence, NATO and the EU will strengthen their mutual participation in exercises, and foster research, training and information-sharing.
On 16 February 2017, Allied defence ministers approved an updated Cyber Defence Action Plan, as well as a roadmap to implement cyberspace as a domain of operations. This increased Allies’ ability to work together, develop capabilities and share information.

Also on 16 February 2017, NATO and Finland stepped up their engagement with the signing of a Political Framework Arrangement on cyber defence cooperation. The arrangement allows NATO and Finland to better protect and improve the resilience of their networks.

On 8 November 2017, NATO defence ministers expressed their agreement in principle on the creation of a new Cyberspace Operations Centre as part of the outline design for the adapted NATO Command Structure. The aim is to strengthen NATO’s cyber defences and help integrate cyber into NATO planning and operations at all levels. Ministers also agreed to allow the integration of Allies’ national cyber contributions into Alliance operations and missions. Allies will maintain full ownership of those contributions, just as Allies own the tanks, ships and aircraft in NATO missions.

On 5 December 2017, NATO and EU ministers agreed to step up cooperation between the two organisations in a number of areas, including cyber security and defence. Analysis of cyber threats and collaboration between incident response teams is one area of further cooperation; another is the exchange of good practices concerning the cyber aspects and implications of crisis management.

At the Brussels Summit in 2018, Allied leaders agreed to set up a new Cyberspace Operations Centre as part of NATO’s strengthened Command Structure. The Centre will provide situational awareness and coordination of NATO operational activity within cyberspace. Allies also agreed that NATO can draw on national cyber capabilities for its missions and operations. Allies also took stock of their progress to enhance national resilience through the Cyber Defence Pledge.

In February 2019, NATO defence ministers endorsed a NATO guide that sets out a number of tools to further strengthen NATO’s ability to respond to significant malicious cyber activities. NATO needs to use all the tools at its disposal, including political, diplomatic and military, to tackle the cyber threats that it faces. The response options outlined in the NATO guide will help NATO and its Allies to enhance their situational awareness about what is happening in cyberspace, boost their resilience, and work together with partners to deter, defend against and counter the full spectrum of cyber threats.
NATO is developing new, cutting-edge technologies and capabilities to protect troops and civilians against terrorist attacks. The aim of the Alliance’s Defence Against Terrorism Programme of Work (DAT POW) is to prevent non-conventional attacks, such as suicide attacks with improvised explosive devices (IEDs), and mitigate other challenges, such as attacks on critical infrastructure.

**Highlights**

- The DAT POW aims to develop technologies and measures against terrorism and other asymmetric threats to mitigate Allied critical shortfalls.
- The programme is based on common funding - member countries pool resources within a NATO framework - with projects being led by one NATO nation or body and supported by others.
- Projects cover topics such as the protection of forces, infrastructure and harbours with a view to enhancing NATO interoperability.
- Successful projects include technologies to defend against mortar attacks, precision air drop technologies and protection of harbours and ports, to name a few.
More background information

A unique initiative by lead nations

The DAT POW is a unique programme built on the principle of common funding. It is a fast route to capability development. Under the DAT POW, individual NATO countries, with support and contributions from other member countries and NATO bodies, lead projects to develop advanced technologies or counter-measures which meet the most urgent security needs in the face of terrorism.

This programme was approved by NATO leaders at the 2004 Istanbul Summit to strengthen the Alliance’s contribution to combating terrorism by enhancing capability development, supporting operations and fostering partnerships.

The DAT POW development is driven by the latest political guidance, including the 2010 Strategic concept, NATO’s 2012 counter-terrorism policy guidelines and guidance on NATO’s enhanced role in the international fight against terrorism endorsed by NATO’s leaders at their May 2017 meeting.

Three capability umbrellas to engage DAT POW stakeholders

The DAT POW projects are rationalised under three capability umbrellas:

- Incident management
- Force protection and survivability
- Network engagement.

1) Incident management

This umbrella covers training and development initiatives to improve organisation and coordination capabilities in the event of an attack.

Protection of harbours and ports

The safe and uninterrupted functioning of ports and harbours is critical to the global economy and it is essential that maritime assets be made as secure as possible. To enhance maritime protection, various technologies are explored. To date, these have included sensor nets, electro-optical detectors, rapid-reaction capabilities, underwater magnetic barriers and unmanned underwater vehicles. A maritime mission planning tool was developed under the leadership of Portugal and additional trials, experimentation and exercises are being organised by Iceland and the NATO Centre for Maritime Research and Experimentation on protection of ports, civilian/military cooperation and protection against improvised explosive devices (IEDs). In 2018, under the leadership of France, DAT POW supported “CUT AWAY”, a multinational harbour exploration and clearance exercise.

2) Force protection and survivability

This umbrella covers training and development initiatives “to minimise the vulnerability of personnel, facilities, equipment and operations to any threat and in all situations”.

Reducing the vulnerability of wide-body civilian and military aircraft to potential threats such as man-portable air defence systems (MANPADs)

A range of infrared and electronic counter-measures is under development. These have been applied to large aircraft, helicopters and fast jets. Every year, exercises and tests are organised to improve the systems and equipment. The United Kingdom is the lead nation for this initiative and the NATO Air Force Armaments Group (NAFAG) has provided critical expertise and support to the annual field trials.

Preventing the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and defending against chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) threats

Ideally, terrorists will be prevented from acquiring and using CBRN weapons. Should prevention fail, NATO is committed to protecting its forces, territory and populations against their effects and to supporting
recovery efforts. DAT POW supports the Alliance’s overall capability to meet these commitments through projects covering detection, identification and monitoring of CBRN substances, CBRN information management, physical protection, hazard management and CBRN medical countermeasures. DAT POW also supports training exercises, including those conducted with live agents.

DAT POW has also supported the Joint CBRN Defence Centre of Excellence, in Vyskov, Czech Republic, in establishing and enhancing its CBRN Reach back capability, i.e. ensuring CBRN expertise is available to the NATO Command Structure and Allied forces in theatres of operations.

Countering improvised explosive devices

This effort is led by several NATO bodies including the Counter Improvised Explosive Devices (C-IED) Centre of Excellence in Madrid, Spain. Various technologies to defeat IEDs have been explored, in particular stand-off detection. C-IED information management solutions across the Alliance are being assessed. DAT POW supports the annual “Northern Challenge” event, led by Iceland, which exercises counter-IED and IED disposal abilities.

Explosive ordnance disposal and consequence management

Here the objective is to improve NATO’s capabilities, through the training of explosive ordnance disposal (EOD) teams and optimised management of the consequences of an explosion. DAT POW supports NATO EOD demonstrations and trials, led by the NATO EOD Centre of Excellence in Trencin, Slovakia. With DAT POW support, the demining community is trialling integrated exoskeletons. The strong community of interest includes experts from partner countries, such as the Irish Defence Forces’ ordnance school.

Developing non-lethal capabilities

The NATO operational community has stressed the need for better response capabilities to minimise collateral damage. If forces can only respond in a lethal manner, civilians and military alike are endangered, and mission failure or political fallout may result. Building on previous work led by Canada and Belgium, the United States is currently leading an activity to demonstrate the use of non-lethal weapons to counter low, slow, small unmanned aerial systems (LSS UAS). These capabilities include radio frequency counter-measures, directed energy systems and nets.

3) Network engagement

This capability umbrella covers training and development to improve identification and targeting of key nodes of threat networks.

Technologies and concept development for intelligence, surveillance, reconnaissance (ISR) and target acquisition

The goal is to develop improved tools for early warning and identification of terrorists and their activities. To build on the improved intelligence/information-sharing achieved over the last decade in common operations and to capture these developments for the future, DAT POW has supported the “Unified Vision” series. Simulating a real-world operational environment, these trials challenge participants’ ability to analyse threat information, to identify and track threats to form a cohesive intelligence picture, and to share this intelligence product. DAT POW has also supported the NATO Human Intelligence (HUMINT) Centre of Excellence in Oradea, Romania, in improving technical interoperability within the NATO HUMINT community and in analysing human aspects of the operational environment where NATO forces operate.

Biometrics

Biometrics data are essential to protect forces in theatre, allowing them to identify known or suspected insurgents. NATO’s Strategic Commands have recognised that developing and improving this area is a military requirement. NATO’s biometrics programme of work and action plan cover all the areas required for a full capability (doctrine, concept, standards, equipment, etc.). The DAT POW community also supports an initiative to develop a biometrics capability in a maritime environment.
Special Operations Forces community

Recognised as one of the lead entities in the fight against terrorism, Special Operations Forces (SOF) are a crucial component of the DAT POW. NATO Special Operations Headquarters (NSHQ) receive DAT POW support for their development of a SOF Aviation Implementation Roadmap to contribute to the enhancement of Allied SOF Air domain. DAT POW also supports field training for interoperability of Allies’ and partners’ SOF.
The Defence and Related Security Capacity Building (DCB) Initiative reinforces NATO’s commitment to partners and helps project stability by providing support to nations requesting assistance from NATO. DCB helps partners improve their defence and related security capacities, as well as their resilience, and, therefore, contributes to the security of the Alliance. It can include various types of support, ranging from strategic advice on defence and security sector reform and institution-building, to development of local forces through education and training, or advice and assistance in specialised areas such as logistics or cyber defence.

The DCB Initiative was launched in September 2014 at the NATO Summit in Wales.

The Initiative is demand-driven and tailored to the needs of the recipient nations by providing support which reinforces and exceeds what is offered through other existing programmes.

The Initiative builds on NATO’s extensive track record and expertise in advising, assisting, training and mentoring countries that require defence and related security capacity building support. It uses NATO’s unique defence expertise to provide and coordinate practical specialised support.

Good progress continues on the DCB packages for Georgia, Iraq, Jordan and the Republic of Moldova.

At the Brussels Summit in July 2018, Allies approved a DCB package for Tunisia.

The packages are implemented with the support of Allies and partners, who provide advisors, trainers and coordinators to work with the recipient countries, and help fund projects. A dedicated DCB Trust Fund is in place, since 2015, to provide financial support to the Initiative.

NATO has also received a request for DCB support from Libya.
More background information

Cooperation with DCB partners

NATO has been providing capacity-building through a number of partnership programmes and also as part of its operations and missions. The DCB Initiative enhances this role by allowing NATO to undertake DCB activities in support of partner nations, other non-partner nations or other international organisations. Any NATO assistance is provided following a specific request by the recipient country – which is then thoroughly assessed and considered by the North Atlantic Council – and relies on mutual political commitment and local ownership. If existing programmes cannot accommodate the request, then the Alliance may consider offering a tailored set of assistance measures – a specific “DCB package”. Five DCB packages have been launched thus far. Additionally, NATO has received a request for DCB support from Libya.

Georgia

The DCB package for Georgia was agreed in 2014 at the Wales Summit and intensified in 2016 at the Warsaw Summit.

It is provided through the Substantial NATO-Georgia Package (SNGP), which includes support in a wide range of areas: the Joint Training and Evaluation Centre, the Defence Institution Building School, a logistics capability, acquisitions, Special Operations Forces, intelligence-sharing and secure communications, military police, cyber defence, maritime security, aviation, air defence, strategic communications, crisis management and counter-mobility. The package also includes support and contributions to NATO exercises in Georgia that are open to partners.

Since 2014, many projects and advisory activities have been launched in support of the SNGP initiatives. One of the highlights was the inauguration of the NATO-Georgia Joint Training and Evaluation Centre in August 2015 by Georgian leaders and the NATO Secretary General. The centre is tasked with strengthening the capacities of the Georgian Armed Forces, as well as improving the interoperability of Georgian and Allied forces and contributing to regional security cooperation. It has conducted many activities since its establishment, and it will play an important role in the upcoming 2019 NATO-Georgia exercise. Another flagship initiative of the SNGP, the Defence Institution Building School, also continues to produce results, running specialised courses. Other SNGP initiatives also make progress. The strategic and operational planning initiative was completed in 2017.

At the Brussels Summit in July 2018, the Allies and Georgia declared they would further enhance cooperation, including through the next NATO-Georgia exercise in March 2019, which Allies will support with broad participation. NATO is moving ahead with the establishment of secure communications with Georgia and stepping up support in the area of counter-mobility. Dialogue is ongoing on hybrid threats and resilience, and cooperation in cyber defence may be enhanced to further strengthen interoperability.

The SNGP is currently supported by all Allies and two partners, who all together provide more than 40 experts, resident or frequently traveling to Georgia. A three-person Core Team in Tbilisi coordinates the implementation of the package.

Iraq

The DCB package for Iraq was agreed in July 2015 following a request from the Iraqi Prime Minister. At the 2016 NATO Summit in Warsaw, NATO agreed to transfer the training and capacity-building activities inside Iraq based on the request of the Iraqi Prime Minister. The NATO Training and Capacity Building activity in Iraq currently conduct activities in the following areas: counter-improvised explosive devices (C-IED), explosive ordnance disposal and demining; civil-military planning support to operations; reform of the Iraqi security institutions; technical training on the maintenance of Soviet-era armoured vehicles; military medicine and medical assistance; advice on security sector reform (SSR); and civil-military planning support to operations.

In-country training started in January 2017 with a “train-the-trainer” focus, aiming primarily to increase the training capacity of Iraq. The activities conducted range from multiple workshops on civilian-military
cooperation, train-the-trainer courses to Iraqi instructors, to senior leader’s seminars on C-IED. In the SSR area, NATO is providing advice to the Iraqi authorities on the transformation and good governance of the defence sector.

One of the key principles of NATO’s capacity-building activities is to seek complementarity with other international actors. As such, NATO works closely with the Global Coalition to Defeat ISIL, the European Union, the United Nations and individual nations providing support to Iraq. One such example of this are the combined workshops conducted by the international community assisting Iraq's SSR, which was supported by NATO experts.

Responding to a request from the Government of Iraq for additional support in its efforts to stabilize the country and fight terrorism, at the Brussels Summit in July 2018, Allies decided to intensify the level of support for Iraq by launching a non-combat and capacity building mission in Iraq. Building on current training activities, the NATO Training Mission Iraq will advise relevant Iraqi officials, primarily in the Ministry of Defence and the Office of the National Security Advisor, and train and advise instructors at professional military education institutions to help Iraq develop its capacity to build more effective national security structures and professional military education institutions.

Jordan

The DCB assistance for Jordan builds upon the already extensive level of cooperation between NATO and Jordan through various partnership tools. The initial DCB package agreed in 2014 at the Wales Summit was revised and approved in 2017 reflecting the progress made and addressing the evolving security needs of the Jordanian Armed Forces.

The package focuses on the areas of information protection, cyber defence, military exercises, C-IED, strategic defence review, personnel management, logistics system, civil preparedness/crisis management and border security.

Activities are underway in elements of the package, ranging from courses for Jordanian personnel on C-IED to advice on strategy and capability development in other areas. The support provided on C-IED, cyber defence and exercises has been particularly fruitful. A Computer Emergency Response Team has been established for the Jordanian Armed Forces, which has a nation-wide responsibility. Jordan hosted successfully the NATO Regional Exercise 2017 (REGEX 2017), the first NATO exercise held in a Mediterranean Dialogue country. The implementation of the package is supported, inter alia, by NATO’s Science for Peace and Security Programme in the areas of C-IED, cyber defence and border security, as well as the DCB Trust Fund projects, particularly in the areas of logistics (codification) and civil preparedness/crisis management.

Republic of Moldova

Following the commitment made at the 2014 Wales Summit, the DCB package for the Republic of Moldova was launched in June 2015.

The package will be delivered in two phases. In phase one, which is currently underway, NATO is advising and assisting in the establishment of a national security strategy, national defence strategy, a military strategy and a force structure for Moldova. NATO brings defence reform experts to Moldova on a frequent basis to assist Moldovan authorities as they develop these key political and strategic-level directions and guidance for the defence sector and the development of the armed forces. In parallel to the defence sector reform, NATO has been providing support to Moldova in several specific areas, such as cyber defence, defence education, building integrity and the implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security.

In phase two, NATO will continue to provide advice and will assist with specific elements of the transformation of Moldova’s armed forces and relevant institutions.

Tunisia

At the Brussels Summit in July 2018, in response to a request from the Tunisian authorities, Allies approved new DCB assistance measures designed to help further develop their defence capacities in the areas of cyber defence, countering improvised explosive devices, and promoting transparency in
resource management. This DCB package will be implemented mainly through education and training activities and the exchange of expertise and best practices, in line with NATO standards.

### DCB Trust Fund

The DCB Trust Fund was established in 2015 to provide financial support and resources to implement the DCB Initiatives. The Trust Fund allows Allies and partners to contribute, on a voluntary basis, to the implementation of projects developed in support of the packages. It has proven to be an important enabler to kick-start DCB activities. Since the establishment of the DCB Trust Fund, 17 Allies and two partners have contributed to the DCB Trust Fund, which has facilitated 15 projects and is currently supporting another seven projects.
The Defence Education Enhancement Programme (DEEP) is a vehicle for reform, providing tailored practical support to individual countries in developing and reforming their professional military education institutions. Through faculty development, curriculum development and peer-to-peer consultations, DEEP fosters defence capacity and institution building. By enhancing democratic institutions, it makes an important contribution to NATO’s efforts to project stability in the Euro-Atlantic area and beyond.
The DEEP Programme is demand-driven to meet national needs in support of objectives which are laid out in bilateral partnership cooperation programmes between NATO and individual nations. Expert advice is offered to defence education institutions seeking to become intellectually interoperable with the Alliance.

With the support of more than 350 experts from approximately 75 defence education institutions in NATO member states and partner countries, DEEP assists host countries to respond to the most pressing requirements for modernisation and reform. Currently, DEEP initiatives are ongoing in Afghanistan, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Iraq (as part of the NATO Mission in Iraq), Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Mauritania, the Republic of Moldova, Mongolia, Morocco, North Macedonia, Serbia, Tunisia, and Ukraine.

The foundation of DEEP

At the NATO Summit in Istanbul in 2004, Allies launched the Partnership Action Plan on Defence Institution Building (PAP-DIB), which was endorsed by leaders from partner countries in a meeting of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC). PAP-DIB reflects common views on modern and democratically responsible defence institutions. It provides a definition of defence reform and a framework for common reflection and exchange of experience on related problems. It aims to assist interested partners to reform and restructure their defence institutions to meet their needs and international commitments.

To support the implementation of the defence education component of PAP-DIB, in February 2006, Allies launched the Education and Training for Defence Reform Initiative. Its aim is to create an EAPC-wide collaborative mechanism and tools to help implement PAP-DIB by supporting education of civilian and military personnel in efficient and effective management of national defence institutions under civil and democratic control. This led to the development of the Defence Education Enhancement Programme by NATO together with the Partnership for Peace Consortium of Defense Academies and Security Studies Institutes (PfP Consortium).

Support for defence education, training and capacity-building was reaffirmed in a new Policy for an Active Engagement in Cooperative Security: a More Efficient and Flexible Partnership Policy agreed by NATO Foreign Ministers in April 2011.

At successive NATO Summits – most recently, at the Brussels Summit in July 2018 – Allies have declared their commitment to strengthening cooperation with partners, upon request, to build stronger defence institutions, improve good governance, enhance their resilience, provide for their own security, and more effectively contribute to the fight against terrorism. This investment in partners’ security contributes to Alliance security.

The relevance of defence education

There is a clear role for defence education in developing stable defence and military institutions. The defence and related security sector require an integrated strategic approach. Joint training and joint planning with partners and representatives from international organisations and civil society are especially important. Defence education cultivates an aspiration to excellence and contributes to NATO’s efforts to project stability and build defence capacity in the region.

Building up a good defence education system takes time. Modernising defence training and education provides an important opportunity to respond to the prevailing deficits in global governance. To get military education right, armed forces must have a clear and comprehensive vision of the military education and training system for officers – from the cadet course training lieutenants to the colonels’ course to educate strategists. Research and education must be tied together. To maintain a sound education system, curricula ought to be developed by education professionals in dialogue with defence staffs and respective institutions.
What is the DEEP Programme?

DEEP works with partner nations to help identify the needs and gaps of education institutions in the defence and military domain. The two main components – curriculum development and faculty development – are bolstered by dialogue between institutions in partner and NATO countries as well as peer-to-peer consultations among subject-matter experts.

Institutional adaptation

DEEP helps partners to modernise and professionalise the organisational structure of professional military education institutions and provides solutions to build quality assurance processes within the system.

Curriculum development – what to teach

The DEEP Programme works closely with professional military education institutions to assist in the development of specific curricula on virtually any subject requested by the partner nation. To support this work, NATO and the PfP Consortium have produced five reference curricula on Defence Institution Building, on Professional Military Education for Officers, on Professional Military Education for Non-Commissioned Officers, on Cyber Security and on Counter-Insurgency. New curricula is currently being developed on Counter-Terrorism.

Faculty development – how to teach

DEEP features specialised engagement on pedagogy to provide institutions and instructors with access to the latest teaching methods and to support their efforts to foster critical thinking in the classroom.

Relying on voluntary contributions, NATO steers policy and the PfP Consortium leads on academic support facilitating the network of institutions and individual academics and practitioners who contribute through the PfP Consortium’s Education Development Working Group.

Policy

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Annual Clearing House on Defence Education

NATO draws on an ad-hoc network of contributors who offer their services through an annual Clearing House on Defence Education that serves as a forum for Allies and partners to coordinate efforts and inform institutions and countries about the status of the various DEEP programmes. Led by Bulgaria, Canada, the Czech Republic, France, Italy, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Spain, Switzerland and the United States, with the support of the PfP Consortium, the annual Clearing House is an effective tool to identify partner requirements and align them with donor expertise.

- See DEEP Infographic
- See our DEEP Factsheet
- See our DEEP Brochure

How does the DEEP Programme work?

Any NATO partner country that has an individual bilateral cooperation plan with the Alliance can request the development of a DEEP programme. When a country requests a DEEP programme, a multinational DEEP assessment team visits the country to scope out the potential programme with their interlocutors. Based on the assessment visit, the DEEP team creates a proposed action plan, usually with a three-year duration. Once the partner approves the action plan and funding is identified, the DEEP academic lead assembles and allocates the appropriate expertise from a vast transatlantic network of experts that is managed jointly by NATO and the PfP Consortium’s Education Development Working Group.
Measures of effectiveness

The level of progress and transformation depends on how much effort education institutions make to operationalise change derived from the conduct of DEEP activities, particularly in the areas of faculty development and curriculum development. Categories of measure of effectiveness vary from country to country and the following are identified as the most relevant:

- Adoption of modern professional military education academic structures and degree requirements;
- Adoption of modern teaching methodologies by professional military education faculty;
- Inclusion of new subject matter in existing course curricula and development of new courses;
- Adoption of Non-Commissioned Officers' Education;
- Support of Senior Partner Nation and Defence Education Institution Leadership for DEEP programmes;
- Contribution of Partner Nation Educators and NCO Experts (Military and Civilian) in DEEP programmes.

DEEP objectives are met when the partner’s professional military education institution is self-sufficient and no longer requires external assistance, its curriculum satisfies all course needs, and a process exists to ensure a continuous curriculum review. The professional military education institution faculty should be able to teach all classes using modern teaching techniques and have an internal sustainment capability to train their new faculty in modern teaching methodology.

DEEP in numbers

2013: 85 events, 162 Allied experts, 245 partner country instructors
2014: 165 events, 309 Allied experts, 352 partner country instructors
2015: 186 events, 324 Allied experts, 566 partner country instructors
2016: 211 events, 390 Allied experts, 355 partner country instructors
2017: 198 events, 426 Allied experts, 331 partner country instructors
2018: 250 events, 491 Allied experts, 431 partner country instructors
NATO Defence Planning Process

The aim of the NATO Defence Planning Process (NDPP) is to provide a framework within which national and Alliance defence planning activities can be harmonised to enable Allies to provide the required forces and capabilities in the most effective way. It should facilitate the timely identification, development and delivery of the necessary range of forces that are interoperable and adequately prepared, equipped, trained and supported, as well as the associated military and non-military capabilities, to undertake the Alliance’s full spectrum of missions.

Highlights

- Through the NDPP, NATO identifies the capabilities that it requires, and promotes their development and acquisition by Allies.
- The NDPP provides a framework within which Allies harmonise their national defence plans with those of NATO, without compromising their national sovereignty.
- The NDPP apportions requirements to each Ally as Capability Targets on the basis of a fair share of the overall requirement, facilitates their implementation and regularly assesses progress.
- NATO defence planning encompasses 14 different planning domains, each of which is involved in capability development. The NDPP aims to provide a common framework that can minimise duplication and maximise coherence across the various planning domains.
The NATO Defence Planning Process’ five steps

Key characteristics

The NDPP is the primary means to facilitate the identification, development and delivery of NATO’s present and future capability requirements. It apportions those requirements to each Ally as Capability Targets, facilitates their implementation and regularly assesses progress. It achieves this by providing a framework for the harmonisation of national and Alliance defence planning activities that is aimed at the timely development and delivery of the capabilities, both military and non-military, needed to meet the agreed security and defence objectives inherent to the Strategic Concept.

The key characteristics of the NDPP are:

- It is a coherent and integrated process in which Allies undertake to deliver the required capabilities in the short and medium term (up to 20 years into the future).
- It takes a threat/risk-informed, capability-based approach that provides sufficient detail to enable Allies to develop the forces and capabilities necessary to undertake the full range of NATO missions and tasks.
- It is sufficiently flexible to respond to the circumstances of both individual Allies and the overall Alliance; it informs and guides national defence plans, provides transparency, promotes multinational approaches and offers opportunities to capitalise on best practices.

The NDPP provides a common framework for the integration and rationalisation of capability development across all NATO structures. Fourteen different planning domains have been identified, each of which is engaged in capability development to some extent. These planning domains are: air and missile defence; aviation planning; armaments; civil emergency planning; consultation, command and control; cyber defence; force planning; intelligence; logistics; medical; nuclear deterrence; resources; science and technology; and standardization and interoperability.

The NDPP methodology is not static, and it continues to evolve. In 2009, initiatives were taken to improve the harmonisation of the various planning domains, and Allies were encouraged to integrate their national defence planning activities to complement NATO efforts. In 2016, the NDPP was considerably enhanced. This included an updated methodology to address the derivation of requirements in Step 2 (see below). The four-year NDPP cycle remained, but the planning period was amended and divided into the short term (0-6 years), the medium term (7-19 years) and the long term (20+ years). The NDPP focuses on the short and medium term.

The five steps

The NDPP consists of five steps conducted over a period of four years. Although the five steps are generally carried out sequentially, Step 4 (facilitate implementation) is a continuing activity, and Step 5 (review results) is carried out twice within each four-year cycle.

Step 1 - Establish political guidance

A single, unified political guidance document for defence planning sets out the overall aims and objectives to be met by the Alliance. It translates guidance from higher strategic policy documents, such as the Strategic Concept, in sufficient detail to direct the defence planning efforts of the planning domains in order to determine the capabilities required.

Political guidance includes a definition of the number, scale and nature of the operations the Alliance should be able to conduct in the future (commonly referred to as NATO’s Level of Ambition). It also defines the qualitative capability requirements to support this ambition. In doing this, it steers capability development efforts within the Allies and NATO. It defines associated priorities and timelines for use by the planning domains.

Political guidance is normally reviewed every four years, by the Defence Policy and Planning Committee ‘Reinforced’. The DPPC(R) is responsible for the development of defence planning-related policy, and the overall coordination and direction of NDPP activities.
**Step 2 - Determine requirements**

NATO’s capability requirements are consolidated into a single list called the Minimum Capability Requirements. These requirements are identified by the two Strategic Commands (Allied Command Operations (ACO) and Allied Command Transformation (ACT)), supported by the planning domains. ACT has the lead in determining the requirements. The process is structured, comprehensive, transparent and traceable and uses analytical tools coupled with relevant NATO expert analysis. This is done once every four years, although out-of-cycle activity for particular capabilities can be undertaken as circumstances dictate.

**Step 3 - Apportion requirements and set targets**

The target setting process apportions the Minimum Capability Requirements to the Allies (either individually, multinationally or collectively) in the form of target packages. The Strategic Commands (with ACT in the lead, and supported by the NATO International Staff) develop a target package for each Ally for existing and future capabilities, with associated priorities and timelines. Targets are expressed in capability terms and are flexible enough to allow innovative solutions to be developed rather than replacing ‘like with like’. The apportionment process applies the political principles of fair burden-sharing and reasonable challenge in determining the Capability Target package of each Ally.

Following a round of consultations with Allies on the Capability Target packages, the lead passes from the Strategic Commands to the NATO International Staff. Allies review the Capability Target packages during a series of Multilateral Examinations and agree the target package for each Ally on the basis of “consensus minus one”, meaning that an individual Ally cannot veto what otherwise would be a unanimous decision on its own Capability Target package.

Agreed Capability Target packages are subsequently forwarded to the North Atlantic Council for submission to defence ministers for adoption. Defence ministers agree to take the assigned Capability Target packages into their own national defence planning process. A Capability Target Summary Report is also prepared for defence ministers, this includes an assessment by the Military Committee of the potential risk and possible impact caused by the removal of targets from packages on the delivery of the Alliance’s Level of Ambition.

**Step 4 - Facilitate implementation**

Step 4 assists national measures, facilitates multinational initiatives and directs NATO efforts to fulfil agreed targets and priorities in a coherent and timely manner. Unlike other steps in the process, this step – or function - is continuous in nature.

**Step 5 - Review results**

Step 5 of the NDPP seeks to examine the degree to which NATO’s political objectives, ambitions and associated Capability Targets are being met and to offer feedback and direction for the next cycle of the defence planning process. Step 5 provides an overall assessment of the degree to which the Alliance’s forces and capabilities are able to meet the political guidance, including the NATO Level of Ambition. It is carried out by a Defence Planning Capability Review, led by the NATO International Staff with support from the Strategic Commands. The Capability Review scrutinises and assesses Allies’ defence policies and plans, including their financial plans, with a particular emphasis on capability development and the implementation of NATO Capability Targets.

Every two years, Allies complete a Defence Planning Capability Survey, which seeks data on Allies’ national plans and policies, including efforts (national, multinational and collective) to address their NATO Capability Targets. The survey also seeks information on the national inventory of military forces and associated capabilities, any relevant non-military capabilities potentially available for Alliance operations, and national plans for defence expenditure, including the breakdown of spending between personnel, operating costs and investment in major equipment and associated research and development.

Assessments are produced by the International Staff, supported by the Strategic Commands and the planning domains, for each Ally. The assessments comprise a detailed Staff Analysis, produced for the information of Allies, and a shorter Overview, drawn from the Staff Analysis. The Staff Analyses constitute a comprehensive analysis of national plans and capabilities, including force structures, specific
circumstances and priorities. The Staff Analysis includes a statement by the Strategic Commands regarding the impact each country’s plans have on the ability of Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) to conduct NATO’s current and expected missions and tasks.

The assessments are submitted for examination to the DPPC(R) for review during a series of multilateral examinations, which use the same ‘consensus minus one’ approach as used in Step 3.

As part of Step 5, the Strategic Commands produce a Suitability and Risk Assessment, which provides the basis for the Military Committee to develop a Suitability and Risk Assessment. This includes an assessment of the risks posed by any shortfalls in NATO’s forces and capabilities, as well as an assessment of the suitability of Allies’ plans to enable NATO to meet its Level of Ambition, and a list of any Main Shortfall Areas.

Utilising the assessments of individual Allies’ capabilities and plans, the DPPC(R) prepares a NATO Capability Report, highlighting individual and collective progress on capability development as it relates to NATO’s Level of Ambition. The Capability Report, incorporating the approved Overviews of the assessments in respect of each Ally, is passed to the North Atlantic Council for agreement, and then to Allied Defence Ministers for endorsement (normally in the month of June of even years).

### Support structures

The Defence Policy and Planning Committee (DPPC) is the senior committee for defence planning. It is responsible for the development of defence planning-related policy and the overall coordination of NDPP activities.

The DPPC is the central body that oversees the work of the NATO bodies and committees responsible for the defence planning domains on behalf of the North Atlantic Council. It can provide feedback and defence planning-related direction to them. The DPPC will often meet with appropriate subject matter experts invited to reinforce the regular representatives. When meeting in this format, the DPPC is referred to as the DPPC ‘Reinforced’, or DPPC(R).
The Defence Policy and Planning Committee (DPPC) is the senior advisory body to the North Atlantic Council on defence matters concerning all member countries and it also has the lead on defence aspects of Partnership.

It is a key committee bringing together defence counsellors from all national delegations. It deals with a broad range of issues such as transformation, defence capabilities, agency reform, common-funded acquisition and missile defence, and in Reinforced format (DPPC(R)) it manages the NATO Defence Planning Process.

Chairmanship is flexible depending on the topics being discussed, but the DPPC’s permanent Chairman is the Assistant Secretary General for Defence Policy and Planning; in Reinforced format it is chaired by the Deputy Secretary General of NATO. The deputy chairman is the Deputy Assistant Secretary General of the Defence Policy and Planning Division.

This committee has been called the DPPC since the June 2010 committee reform. It replaced both the Executive Working Group and the Defence Review Committee. It has no subordinate committees under its remit.
Deputies Committee

The Deputies Committee (DPRC) deals with cross-cutting issues ranging from strategic and political oversight of areas, such as changes in the international security situation and implications for NATO, to HR policy and committee reform. It also acts as “trouble-shooting committee” for those issues on which no consensus can be achieved in the competent committee. The DPRC reports directly to the North Atlantic Council.

As its name indicates, it is composed of the Deputy Permanent Representatives of each member country and is chaired, according to the topic under discussion, by the Assistant Secretary General of the relevant Division or his/her Deputy of NATO’s International Staff. The Deputies Committee is supported by the Political Affairs and Security Policy Division, which has overall coordinating responsibility of its activities.

It was created in 2010 in the framework of the NATO Committee Review, as a successor to the Senior Political Committee.
Deterrence and defence

NATO is a political and military alliance, whose principal task is to ensure the protection of its citizens and to promote security and stability in the North Atlantic area. The Alliance must be able to address the full spectrum of current and future challenges and threats from any direction, simultaneously. The Alliance has been strengthening its deterrence and defence posture in light of the changed and evolving security environment.

Highlights

- Today, the security environment is more complex and demanding than at any time since the end of the Cold War, reinforcing the need for NATO to ensure that its deterrence and defence posture is credible and effective.
- NATO faces challenges and threats that originate from the east and from the south; from state and non-state actors; from military forces and from terrorist, cyber and hybrid attacks.
- The Readiness Action Plan (RAP) launched in 2014 has significantly reinforced NATO’s collective defence.
- In 2016, NATO leaders approved a strengthened deterrence and defence posture, which led, most visibly, to the deployment of multinational Forward Presence battalions in Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Poland.
- In 2018, NATO leaders adopted a Readiness Initiative to ensure that more high-quality, combat-capable national forces at high readiness can be made available to NATO.
- NATO is committed to arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation, which also makes an essential contribution to achieving the Alliance’s security objectives and ensuring strategic stability and collective security.
Towards a strengthened deterrence and defence posture

Collective defence remains the Alliance’s greatest responsibility and deterrence is a core element of NATO’s overall strategy – preventing conflict and war, protecting Allies, maintaining freedom of decision and action, and upholding the principles and values it stands for – individual liberty, democracy, human rights and the rule of law. NATO’s capacity to deter and defend is supported by an appropriate mix of capabilities. Nuclear, conventional and missile defence capabilities complement each other. NATO also maintains the freedom of action and flexibility to respond to the full spectrum of challenges with an appropriate and tailored approach, at the minimum level of force.

Russia has become more assertive with the illegal annexation of Crimea in 2014 and the destabilisation of eastern Ukraine, as well as its military build-up close to NATO’s borders. In parallel, to the south, the security situation in the Middle East and Africa has deteriorated due to a combination of factors that are causing loss of life, fuelling large-scale migration flows and inspiring terrorist attacks in Allied countries and elsewhere.

The Readiness Action Plan (RAP), launched at the Wales Summit in 2014, was a major driver for change in the Alliance’s deterrence and defence posture. The RAP was initiated to ensure the Alliance is ready to respond swiftly and firmly to new security challenges from the east and from the south. Building on the RAP, NATO Heads of State and Government approved a strengthened deterrence and defence posture at the Warsaw Summit in July 2016. It is providing the Alliance with a broad range of options to be able to respond to any threats from wherever they arise to protect Alliance territory, population, airspace and sea lines of communication. For instance, four battlegroups were deployed in Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Poland, and measures have been taken to reinforce security in the south-eastern region of the Alliance. Furthermore, a number of measures have been undertaken to adapt the Alliance to the challenges emanating from the south.

NATO leaders reiterated their resolve, at the 2018 Brussels Summit, by adopting a Readiness Initiative to enhance the Alliance’s rapid-response capability, either for reinforcement of Allies in support of deterrence or collective defence, including for high-intensity warfighting, or for rapid military crisis intervention, if required. With the Readiness Initiative or the so-called “four thirties”, Allies committed to forming – by 2020 – 30 mechanised battalions, 30 air squadrons and 30 battleships ready to use within 30 days or less. They will be able to respond to threats coming from any direction and will further strengthen NATO’s deterrence and defence posture.

The adaptation of NATO’s Command Structure, coupled with logistical enablement of NATO European territory, will help ensure NATO troops and equipment can deploy across Europe without delay both for exercises and for reinforcements in an emerging crisis. Moreover, the creation of a new Cyber Operations Centre in Belgium and the formation of hybrid support teams to assist Allies in need will also boost the Alliance’s deterrence efforts, especially since NATO has recognised “cyber” as a domain of operations in which it must defend itself as it does in the air, on land and at sea (more recently, Allies have also recognised space as an operational domain).

The Alliance’s actions are defensive in nature, proportionate and in line with international commitments given the threats in the changed and evolving security environment, and the Alliance’s right to self-defence. NATO also remains fully committed to non-proliferation, disarmament, arms control and confidence- and security-building measures to increase security and reduce military tensions. For instance, all NATO Allies are seriously concerned by Russia’s deployment of a nuclear-capable missile system, which violates the Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces (INF) Treaty and poses a significant risk to security. However, in response NATO Allies do not intend to deploy new land-based nuclear missiles in Europe nor enter into a new arms race. NATO will continue to maintain a credible and effective deterrence and defence, while remaining committed to effective arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation.

Exercises are an integral part of NATO’s deterrence and defence since military training is an essential requirement to maintain the Alliance’s readiness levels and flexibility. Allies go beyond the letter of the Vienna Document and other transparency measures in planning and conducting NATO exercises. The Vienna Document is a politically binding agreement, initiated by the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe, which is designed to promote mutual trust and transparency about a state’s military forces and activities.
More specifically, NATO’s strengthened deterrence and defence posture entails efforts in areas such as conventional forces, forward presence, joint air power and maritime forces, as well as cyber defence, civil preparedness and countering hybrid threats, including in cooperation with the European Union (EU). Reinforced relations with the EU include increased cooperation, as well as complementary and interoperable capability development to avoid duplication and contribute to transatlantic burden-sharing.

The Defence Investment Pledge, adopted by NATO leaders in 2014, called for all Allies to stop cuts to defence budgets and meet the NATO-agreed guideline of spending 2% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) on defence within a decade. Allies also agreed, in that same timeframe, to move towards spending at least 20% of annual defence expenditure on major new equipment, including related research and development. Finally, the Pledge committed Allies to ensuring that their land, air and maritime forces meet NATO-agreed guidelines for deployability, sustainability and other agreed metrics, and that their armed forces can operate together effectively, including through the implementation of NATO standards and doctrines. Since 2014, Allies have made considerable progress in increasing defence spending and investing in major equipment. Allies are not just delivering more of the heavier, high-end capabilities NATO needs; they are also improving the readiness, deployability, sustainability and interoperability of their forces.

### Projecting stability

While renewed emphasis is being placed on deterrence and collective defence, NATO also retains its ability to respond to crises beyond its borders and remain actively engaged in supporting partners and working with other international organisations, in particular the European Union. All this is part of NATO’s contribution to the international community’s efforts in projecting stability. NATO’s deterrence and defence is not pursued in isolation. It is part of a broader response of the wider transatlantic community to the changed and evolving security environment. Deterrence and defence are complementary concepts that have mutually supporting effects for safeguarding Alliance security in a 360-degree approach.

Projecting stability consists in strengthening NATO’s ability to train, advise and assist local forces. NATO has a long history in this area of expertise – through operations in Afghanistan and the Balkans – and capacity-building with over 40 partners worldwide. It is increasing its efforts, for instance, by enhancing situational awareness, reinforcing the Alliance’s maritime dimension and developing a more strategic approach to partnerships.

Projecting stability is also about contributing to the fight against terrorism. NATO is a member of the Global Coalition to Defeat ISIS and is building local counter-terrorism capacity where possible. It has a non-combat mission in Afghanistan, which provides training, advice and assistance to Afghan security forces and institutions; it has launched a training mission in Iraq to help prevent the re-emergence of ISIS; and it is providing capacity-building support to Jordan and Tunisia. NATO has also created a “Hub for the South”, a headquarters in Naples, Italy, from where regional threats are monitored and Allied efforts coordinated.

In view of today’s reality as well as the scale and complexity of the challenges and threats around NATO’s periphery, the Alliance will continue to strengthen its role in contributing to security across its three core tasks – collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security.
Education and training

In order to safeguard the freedom and security of its members, the Alliance must maintain the capabilities to prevent, detect, deter and defend against any threat of aggression. For this reason, NATO conducts education and training programmes to increase cohesion, effectiveness and readiness of its multinational forces. Furthermore, NATO shares its expertise with partner countries in their education and training reform efforts.

Highlights

- Since its inception in 1949, NATO has engaged in education and training activities, which have expanded geographically and institutionally over time.
- The creation of Allied Command Transformation (ACT) in 2002 is testimony of NATO’s resolve to boost education and training. ACT is entirely dedicated to leading the transformation of NATO’s military structure, forces, capabilities and doctrine, including through exercise and training design and management.
- ACT has a holistic approach to education and training: it provides unity of effort and helps identify gaps and avoid duplication, while ensuring greater effectiveness and efficiency through global programming. These efforts are complementary to national programmes.
- Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR), at the head of Allied Command Operations (ACO), provides strategic-level guidance and sets the priorities and requirements for NATO Education, Training, Exercises and Evaluation (ETEE).
- NATO’s education and training programmes help to improve “interoperability” of multinational forces, i.e. their ability to work together.
- The Alliance is also committed to effective cooperation and coordination with partner countries and international organisations, such as the United Nations, the European Union and the African Union.
Transformation through education and training

Through the constant adaptation of its courses, training events, exercises and the introduction of new concepts and capabilities, NATO ensures it is able to respond to emerging security challenges. There are four core dimensions to this transformation process:

- Education programmes: they aim to enhance individual knowledge and skills, and develop competencies to confront a variety of challenges;
- Individual training: this focuses on the development of skills needed to perform specific tasks and duties;
- Collective training: the knowledge acquired during individual training is further developed through practical application during collective training;
- Exercises: they take training a step further by testing acquired knowledge during scenario-based live or computer-assisted simulations, often involving participants from different countries. Exercising is paramount for maintaining, testing and evaluating the readiness and interoperability of Allies, partners and non-NATO entities.

Allies and partner countries are also committed to supporting the implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 and related Resolutions and take actions to promote the Women, Peace and Security agenda, also through education and training.

1. Organisation of training in NATO

NATO forces have been conducting joint training to strengthen their ability to practise collective defence since 1949. The outbreak of the Korean War helped the Allies quickly understand the importance of an integrated force under centralised command. Over time, training has expanded both geographically and institutionally to become an integral part of NATO’s ability to provide security. As a priority, NATO ensures its commands and multinational forces remain ready, responsive, adaptable and interoperable, despite differences in tactics, doctrine, training, structures and language.

NATO’s two Strategic Commands – Allied Command Operations (ACO) and Allied Command Transformation (ACT) – manage the education, training, exercise and evaluation process. There are a number of organisations through which NATO education and training is implemented; some operate under the direction of the Alliance and others are external but complementary to Alliance structures.

Allied Command Operations

ACO, located at Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE) in Mons, Belgium, plays an important role in the field of education and training. It develops and maintains forces standards; provides guidance on exercise programmes and their evaluation; and identifies requirements related to training and force development capabilities.

Allied Command Transformation

Located in Norfolk, Virginia, United States, ACT holds lead responsibility for directing NATO schools as well as for the development of joint education, individual training, and associated policy and doctrine between NATO and Partnership Training and Education Centres. Since July 2012, ACT has also been given the responsibility of managing collective training and exercises based on ACOs’ requirements. It identifies and develops the most appropriate education and training solution for every discipline while annual conferences keep the disciplines aligned with evolving requirements, and guarantee responsive and flexible education and training cycles. Once the solutions are defined, delivery of courses, training and exercises is synchronised with all stakeholders.

NATO education and training facilities

Seven education and training facilities are currently in place. The last three are under the direct control of ACT:

- The NATO Defense College (NDC) in Rome, Italy, is NATO’s primary strategic-level educational facility and includes, for instance, the study of trends in the international security environment and their potential effects on member countries. It provides training for senior commanders.
The NATO School in Oberammergau (NSO), Germany, is the primary operational-level training centre for students. Operational-level training focuses on joint planning of NATO operations, operations planning, defence planning, logistics, communications, civil emergency planning, and civil-military cooperation.

The NATO Maritime Interdiction Operational Training Centre (NMIOTC) in Souda Bay, Greece, conducts theoretical and practical training, including simulation, for NATO forces in surface, sub-surface, aerial surveillance, and special operations activities.

The NATO Communications and Information Systems School (NCISS) in Latina, Italy, provides cost-effective, highly developed formal training to personnel (military and civilian) from NATO and non-NATO countries for the efficient operation and maintenance of NATO communications and information systems.

The Joint Warfare Centre (JWC) in Stavanger, Norway, principally focuses on training forces at the operational level to ensure they remain interoperable and fully integrated.

The Joint Force Training Centre (JFTC) in Bydgoszcz, Poland, supports training for NATO and partner forces to improve joint and combined\(^1\) tactical interoperability. The JFTC conducts joint training for tactical-level command posts and staffs in support of tactical-level commanders.

The Joint Analysis and Lessons Learned Centre (JALLC) in Lisbon, Portugal is NATO's lead agency for the analysis of operations, training and experiments, and for the collection and dissemination of lessons learned. The JALLC deploys project teamsworldwide, delivering analysis support to NATO at the strategic and operational levels.

NATO education and training providers

These entities have a relationship with NATO, but are administered by sponsor countries, national authorities or civil organisations. They are open to personnel from member and partner countries, and sometimes welcome individuals from other organisations.

Centres of Excellence

The Centres of Excellence are nationally or multinationally sponsored entities that provide high-quality expertise and experience to the benefit of the Alliance, especially in support of transformation. They provide opportunities to enhance training and education, assist in doctrine development, identify lessons learned, improve interoperability and capabilities, and test and validate concepts through experimentation. There are 25 Centres of Excellence that offer specialised courses to military and civilian personnel within their field of expertise.

Partnership Training and Education Centres

Partnership Training and Education Centres (PTECs) are a global network of educational and training establishments that promote collaborative initiatives and high-quality instruction to enhance capacity-building, interoperability and a comprehensive understanding of wider security issues.

Partnership for Peace Consortium of Defense Academies and Security Studies Institutes

The PfP Consortium – an Austrian-German-Swiss-US initiative – was established in 1999 to help promote education in security-related topics by facilitating cooperation between both civilian and military institutions in NATO and partner countries in support of the Organization’s priorities such as defence institution building and defence reform.

Other education and training facilities

Organisations that are not directly related to NATO support the Alliance in its education and training activities. These facilities can come from national, multinational and non-governmental organisations, such as military schools and universities.

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\(^1\) Joint training means forces from two or more military departments working under a single command and combined forces are forces from different countries working under a single command.
2. Education and training in NATO-led operations

NATO’s efforts help to increase stability in crisis areas go beyond deploying troops. They include education and training to help partners develop security institutions and provide for their own security.

Afghanistan

NATO is currently conducting Resolute Support, a non-combat mission that provides training, advice and assistance to Afghan security forces and institutions. Resolute Support was launched on 1 January 2015 and its key functions include supporting planning, programming and budgeting; assuring transparency, accountability and oversight; supporting the adherence to the principles of rule of law and good governance; and supporting the establishment and sustainment of processes such as force generation, recruiting, training, managing and development of personnel.

An important aspect of NATO’s engagement in Afghanistan is assisting the country in developing its security institutions and forces. The Alliance deploys Tactical Advice and Assistance Teams to Afghan National Defence and Security Forces units at various levels of command.

On 20 November 2010, NATO and the Government of the Islamic Republic of Afghanistan signed a Declaration on an Enduring Partnership. This Enduring Partnership is intended to provide long-term political and practical support to Afghanistan as it rebuilds its security institutions and assumes full responsibility for its own security. It includes a series of agreed programmes and activities undertaken as part of the ongoing cooperation between NATO and Afghanistan. This includes the Professional Military Education Programme for Afghanistan, which aims to further develop Afghan institutions, as well as other initiatives such as a counter-narcotics training pilot project.

Iraq

NATO launched a non-combat training and capacity-building mission – “NATO Mission Iraq” – in July 2018, at the request of the Iraqi government and in coordination with the Global Coalition to Defeat ISIS. NATO trainers are helping Iraqi forces secure their country and the wider region against terrorism, and prevent the re-emergence of ISIS. The mission will also help to set up military schools and sustain more effective, transparent and inclusive national security structures and institutions.

From 2004 to 2011, NATO conducted a relatively small but important support operation in Iraq that consisted of training, mentoring and assisting the Iraqi Security Forces. It was known as the “NATO Training Mission in Iraq”. In 2011, Iraq was granted partner status by NATO and signed a jointly agreed Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme in September 2012. This was followed by a Defence and Related Security Capacity Building Package for Iraq in 2015, which involved, for instance, a “train-the-trainers’ course. NATO’s support to Iraq was boosted in January 2017 by a small core team of NATO civilian and military personnel, based in Baghdad that coordinates training and capacity-building activities.

Stepping up cooperation with partners

Initially, NATO’s education and training programmes focused on increasing interoperability between NATO and partner forces. They were later expanded to provide the means for members and partners to collaborate on how to build, develop and reform educational institutions in the security, defence and military domains. The Alliance has also developed partnerships with international organisations to give more coherent and effective responses to complex security challenges.

Education and training programmes in the framework of structured partnerships

- Partnership for Peace programme

When NATO invited former Warsaw Pact countries, former Soviet Republics and non-member western European countries to join the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme in 1994, participating countries committed themselves to increasing interoperability with NATO forces. This opened the way for joint training and marked the beginning of NATO’s support for defence reform. NATO training institutions soon
followed suit. The first officers’ course for partner countries was conducted in October 1994 at the NATO Communications and Information Systems School. Similarly, the NATO Defense College integrated PfP issues into its Senior Course.

**Mediterranean Dialogue**

The Mediterranean Dialogue (MD) was created in 1994, initially as a forum for political dialogue. In 1997, at a meeting in Sintra, Portugal, the Alliance decided to open selected military training activities to countries participating in this initiative (currently seven countries: Algeria, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Mauritania, Morocco and Tunisia). In 2004, Allied leaders elevated the MD initiative to a genuine partnership to include increased participation in exercises and individual training at NATO institutions.

**Istanbul Cooperation Initiative**

The Istanbul Cooperation Initiative (ICI) was launched during the Istanbul Summit in 2004, as a means of engaging in practical security cooperation activities with countries throughout the broader Middle East region. To date, four countries have joined the initiative: Bahrain, Kuwait, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates. The ICI offers both cooperation with interested countries in training and education activities and participation in NATO exercises, as well as in other areas. In January 2017, the NATO-ICI Regional Centre in Kuwait was inaugurated as the hub for training, education and other cooperative activities between NATO and its ICI partners in the Gulf.

**African Union**

NATO continues to support the African Union (AU) in its peacekeeping missions on the African continent. Since June 2007, NATO has assisted the AU Mission in Somalia (AMISOM) by providing capacity-building support, as well as expert training support to the African Standby Forces (ASF), all at the AU’s request.

**Tailor-made defence education**

The Defence Education Enhancement Programme (DEEP) is a vehicle for reform, providing tailored, practical support to individual countries in developing and reforming their professional military education institutions. Through faculty development, teaching curricula development and peer-to-peer consultations, DEEP provides a platform to foster defence capacity building, cooperative capability development and standardization, and promotes interoperability of processes and methodologies to enhance democratic institutions.

A vast network of institutions and individuals support these projects on a voluntary basis, for instance the NATO Defense College, the NATO School Oberammergau, the US Army War College, the Canadian Defence Academy, the National Defence University of Poland, the National Defence University of Romania, the Czech University of Defence, the Slovak Armed Forces Academy, the Geneva Centre for Security Policy, the George C. Marshall Center in Garmisch-Partenkirchen (Germany) and the Partnership for Peace Consortium of Defense Academies and Security Studies Institutes.

**Advice and expertise**

NATO shares its expertise in the field of defence capabilities with partners. It does this through the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP), a voluntary mechanism that helps identify partner forces and capabilities and assesses the implementation of defence-related objectives, established on a case-by-case basis under different cooperation packages.

Additional mechanisms exist for partners that have a special relationship with NATO. For instance, the NATO-Ukraine Joint Working Group on Defence Reform provides a forum through which consultation can take place on initiatives as diverse as civil-military relations, defence planning, policy, strategy and national security concepts; in other instances, NATO-led multinational teams of experts can visit partner countries to address the education and training requirements listed in the Individual Partnership Action Plans of the countries concerned.

**Initiatives for the Mediterranean and the Middle East**

A dedicated Middle East Faculty has been established at the NATO Defense College in Rome. The Faculty has a unique nature, being focused on curriculum development, academic programme delivery...
and outreach activities. It also conducts research on the international security environment and on strategic issues, with an emphasis on the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region.

### Education and training: a key activity since 1949

Since 1949, collective education and training has expanded to become an integral part of NATO’s ability to provide security. It has expanded geographically, with NATO working with many countries, and institutionally, with the creation of ACT, a strategic command entirely dedicated to leading transformation throughout the Alliance.

#### Interoperability

In the early years of the Alliance, NATO forces conducted joint training to strengthen their ability to practise collective defence. In other words, education and training was conducted to ensure that forces were prepared in the case of an attack.

*An integrated force under centralised command*

An integrated force under centralised command was called for as early as September 1950, following the outbreak of the Korean War in June 1950. The first Supreme Allied Commander Europe, US General Dwight D. Eisenhower, was appointed in December 1950. Following this appointment, national forces were put under centralised command.

*The Alliance’s first exercises*

The Alliance’s first exercises were held in the autumn of 1951. During 1953, there were approximately 100 exercises of various kinds conducted by NATO. From this point on, NATO forces began to gain cohesion.

#### Education for individuals

Individual education soon followed. The need for a specialised setting to explore issues unique to the Alliance was first recognised by General Eisenhower in April 1951. The NATO Defense College was inaugurated later that year, on 19 November, and was transferred from Paris, France to Rome, Italy in 1966, where it is still located.

The NATO Communications and Information Systems School was established in 1959, when a civil contractor began to train a small number of NATO personnel on what would become NATO’s “ACE HIGH Communications System”. On 2 May of the same year, the NATO Undersea Research Centre in La Spezia, Italy was commissioned. During the 2002 reform process, this centre was moved to the agency structure of the Alliance as an organisational element linked to research. In 1971, the Military Committee established the NATO Training Group. This Group met for many years in joint session with the Euro-training sub-group, which was set up to improve multinational training arrangements between European countries (Its responsibilities were passed on to NATO in 1993). The NATO Training Group was formally transferred from the Military Committee to ACT in 2004. Its principal aim is to improve interoperability among Allies and between the forces of partner countries.

In 1975, the NATO School in Oberammergau, Germany received its charter and present name. Its principal focus was on issues relating to collective defence. More recently in 2003, the NATO Maritime Interdiction Operational Training Centre was established in Souda Bay, Greece to conduct training for NATO forces in surface, sub-surface, aerial surveillance and Special Operations activities.

#### NATO training opens to partners

While the PfP programme and the MD initiative had been set up in 1994, NATO decided to increase cooperation with all its partners.

In 1998, the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council approved the creation of the Partnership for Peace Consortium, and at the 1999 Washington Summit NATO leaders approved plans for an “Enhanced and more Operational Partnership”. In addition, with the revision of the NATO Strategic Concept in 1999, the role of the NATO School was fundamentally altered to include cooperation and dialogue with civilian personnel from non-NATO countries.
In May 2002, the Joint Analysis and Lessons Learned Centre in Monsanto (Lisbon), Portugal was established. This facility’s mission is to perform joint analysis and experimentation of operations, training and exercises – also with partners.

In February 2005, the North Atlantic Council started developing the Education and Training for Defence Reform (EfR) initiative. EfR helps educators incorporate principles linked to defence institution building into their curricula. Since the courses are aimed at civil servants and other persons participating in defence institution building, they contribute indirectly to improving defence reform.

At the 2014 Wales Summit, Allies endorsed the Partnership Interoperability Initiative, launching the Interoperability Platform. This widened opportunities for partner participation in NATO exercises, with the aim of increasing interoperability and preparedness for crisis management situations.

Recognising the importance of a strengthened strategic partnership, European Union members and NATO Allies – at the 2016 Warsaw Summit – decided to find ways to better provide security in Europe and beyond. In this regard, the Joint Declaration by the President of the European Council, the President of the European Commission and the Secretary General of NATO underlines the importance of stepping up coordination on exercises.

**Education and training as transformation tools**

With the creation of the two new strategic commands in 2002 and the introduction of global programming, the coordination and coherence of NATO education and training activities has been greatly increased. From 2002, ACT was able to look holistically at education and training and was supported in its efforts by the creation of a Joint Warfare Centre in Stavanger, Norway (inaugurated on 23 October 2003) and the Joint Training Centre in Bydgoszcz, Poland (31 March 2004).

At the 2004 Istanbul Summit, education and training were not only offered to a broader range of countries (participants in the Mediterranean Dialogue and the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative), but the Summit also made provision for partners to engage in joint training to combat terrorism and to train jointly with the NATO Response Force, NATO’s rapid-reaction force.

At the Chicago Summit in 2012, NATO leaders stressed the importance of expanding education and training, especially within the context of the Connected Forces Initiative (CFI). CFI seeks to make greater use of education, training and exercises to reinforce links between the forces of NATO member countries and maintain the level of interoperability needed for future operations. At the most basic level, this implies individuals understanding each other and, at a higher level, the use of common doctrines, concepts and procedures, as well as interoperable equipment. Forces also need to increasingly practise working together through joint and combined training and exercising, after which they need to standardize skills and make better use of technology.

**Enhancing capabilities**

Shortly after Russia’s illegal annexation of Crimea in 2014, at the NATO Summit in Wales, Allies committed to enhancing capabilities and agreed to a Defence Planning Package that included, inter alia, reinforcing training and exercises. Training was also identified as a key area of activity in the cyber defence domain and in NATO’s relations with other international organisations such as the United Nations, the European Union and the African Union.

At the Warsaw Summit two years later in 2016, Allies took stock of the eight multinational NATO Force Integration Units established on Allied territory in the eastern part of the Alliance to assist in training forces and in the reception of reinforcements when needed. They also agreed to develop a tailored forward presence in the southeast part of Alliance territory, which will include an initiative to help improve integrated training of Allied units in the Black Sea region as part of NATO’s strengthened deterrence and defence posture.

Other training initiatives comprise the Transatlantic Capability Enhancement and Training (TACET) Initiative, which promote capability development, interoperability and training, and enhance NATO resilience in response to the challenges in the Baltic region. Additionally, the Combined Joint Enhanced Training (CJET) Initiative provides similar engagement with Bulgaria and Romania.
Education and training continue to be a priority for NATO, as reiterated by NATO leaders at the 2018 Summit in Brussels. For instance, they launched a non-combat and capacity-building training mission in Iraq and stressed the importance of training and exercises for an effective deterrence and defence posture.
Electronic warfare (EW) capabilities are a key factor in the protection of military forces and in monitoring compliance with international agreements. They are essential for the full spectrum of operations and other tasks undertaken by the Alliance.

The purpose of EW is to deny the opponent the advantage of, and ensure friendly unimpeded access to the electromagnetic spectrum. EW can be applied from air, sea, land and space, and target communication and radar systems. It involves the use of the electromagnetic energy to provide improved understanding of the operational environment as well as to achieve specific effects on the modern battlefield.

The need for military forces to have unimpeded access to and use of the electromagnetic environment creates challenges and opportunities for EW in support of military operations.

**Structure**

The NATO Electronic Warfare Advisory Committee (NEWAC) is responsible for overseeing the development of NATO’s EW policy, doctrine, and command and control concepts as well as monitoring EW support to NATO operations. It also assists in introducing NATO’s EW concepts to partner countries within the framework of the Partnership for Peace programme.

The NEWAC is composed of representatives of each NATO country and of the Strategic Commands. Members are senior officials in national electronic warfare organisations. The Chairman and the Secretary of the committee are permanently assigned to the International Military Staff at NATO.
Headquarters, Brussels. There are a number of subordinate groups dealing with electronic warfare database support, training and doctrine.

**Evolution**

The NEWAC and its subgroups were introduced in 1966 to support the Military Committee, the NATO Strategic Commanders and the member countries in this sphere and to promote effective NATO EW capability. The NEWAC has met on an annual or semi-annual basis in plenary conferences, to bring together national subject matter experts in the field, since this time.

EW policy is covered under MC 0064, the NATO Policy for EW. This policy has been revised a total of 10 times in order to keep pace with changes in the electromagnetic and operational environment, the NATO Command Structure, and the threats facing the Alliance. This policy is agreed to by all Allies and provides the overarching guidance required to formulate common doctrine and interoperability standards.
NATO’s door remains open to any European country in a position to undertake the commitments and obligations of membership, and contribute to security in the Euro-Atlantic area. Since 1949, NATO’s membership has increased from 12 to 29 countries through seven rounds of enlargement. Currently, four partner countries have declared their aspirations to NATO membership: Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, the Republic of North Macedonia and Ukraine.

Montenegro became the latest country to join the Alliance on 5 June 2017

NATO’s “open door policy” is based on Article 10 of its founding treaty. Any decision to invite a country to join the Alliance is taken by the North Atlantic Council on the basis of consensus among all Allies. No third country has a say in such deliberations.

NATO’s ongoing enlargement process poses no threat to any country. It is aimed at promoting stability and cooperation, at building a Europe whole and free, united in peace, democracy and common values.

Having been invited to start accession talks to join the Alliance in December 2015, Montenegro became the newest member of NATO on 5 June 2017.

At the Brussels Summit in July 2018, Allies welcomed the historic agreement between Athens and Skopje on the solution of the name issue and invited the government in Skopje to begin accession talks to join NATO. Following the signature by the Allies, on 6 February 2019, of the Accession Protocol of the Republic of North Macedonia, it now has to be ratified by each of the 29 Allies according to national procedures. Allies have also urged further progress on important reforms before and after the accession process.

Bosnia and Herzegovina was invited to join the Membership Action Plan (MAP) in April 2010 but its participation is pending the resolution of a key issue concerning immovable defence property.

At the 2008 Bucharest Summit, the Allies agreed that Georgia and Ukraine will become members of NATO in future.
More background information

Aspirant countries

Countries that have declared an interest in joining the Alliance are initially invited to engage in an Intensified Dialogue with NATO about their membership aspirations and related reforms.

Aspirant countries may then be invited to participate in the MAP to prepare for potential membership and demonstrate their ability to meet the obligations and commitments of possible future membership. Participation in the MAP does not guarantee membership, but it constitutes a key preparation mechanism.

Countries aspiring to join NATO have to demonstrate that they are in a position to further the principles of the 1949 Washington Treaty and contribute to security in the Euro-Atlantic area. They are also expected to meet certain political, economic and military criteria, which are laid out in the 1995 Study on NATO Enlargement.

1995 Study on Enlargement

In 1995, the Alliance published the results of a Study on NATO Enlargement that considered the merits of admitting new members and how they should be brought in. It concluded that the end of the Cold War provided a unique opportunity to build improved security in the entire Euro-Atlantic area and that NATO enlargement would contribute to enhanced stability and security for all. It would do so, the Study further concluded, by encouraging and supporting democratic reforms, including the establishment of civilian and democratic control over military forces; fostering patterns and habits of cooperation, consultation and consensus-building characteristic of relations among members of the Alliance; and promoting good-neighbourly relations.

It would increase transparency in defence planning and military budgets, thereby reinforcing confidence among states, and would reinforce the overall tendency toward closer integration and cooperation in Europe. The Study also concluded that enlargement would strengthen the Alliance’s ability to contribute to European and international security and strengthen and broaden the transatlantic partnership.

According to the Study, countries seeking NATO membership would have to be able to demonstrate that they have fulfilled certain requirements. These include:

- A functioning democratic political system based on a market economy;
- The fair treatment of minority populations;
- A commitment to the peaceful resolution of conflicts;
- The ability and willingness to make a military contribution to NATO operations; and
- A commitment to democratic civil-military relations and institutional structures.

Once admitted, new members would enjoy all the rights and assume all the obligations of membership. This would include acceptance at the time that they join of all the principles, policies and procedures previously adopted by Alliance members.

Accession process

Once the Allies have decided to invite a country to become a member of NATO, they officially invite the country to begin accession talks with the Alliance. This is the first step in the accession process on the way to formal membership. The major steps in the process are:

1. Accession talks with a NATO team

These talks take place at NATO Headquarters in Brussels and bring together teams of NATO experts and representatives of the individual invitees. Their aim is to obtain formal confirmation from the invitees of their willingness and ability to meet the political, legal and military obligations and commitments of NATO membership, as laid out in the Washington Treaty and in the Study on NATO Enlargement.
The talks take place in two sessions with each invitee. In the first session, political and defence or military issues are discussed, essentially providing the opportunity to establish that the preconditions for membership have been met. The second session is more technical and includes discussion of resources, security, and legal issues as well as the contribution of each new member country to NATO’s common budget. This is determined on a proportional basis, according to the size of their economies in relation to those of other Alliance member countries.

Invitees are also required to implement measures to ensure the protection of NATO classified information, and prepare their security and intelligence services to work with the NATO Office of Security.

The end product of these discussions is a timetable to be submitted by each invitee for the completion of necessary reforms, which may continue even after these countries have become NATO members.

2. Invitees send letters of intent to NATO, along with timetables for completion of reforms

In the second step of the accession process, each invitee country provides confirmation of its acceptance of the obligations and commitments of membership in the form of a letter of intent from each foreign minister addressed to the NATO Secretary General. Together with this letter they also formally submit their individual reform timetables.

3. Accession protocols are signed by NATO countries

NATO then prepares Accession Protocols to the Washington Treaty for each invitee. These protocols are in effect amendments or additions to the Treaty, which once signed and ratified by Allies, become an integral part of the Treaty itself and permit the invited countries to become parties to the Treaty.

4. Accession protocols are ratified by NATO countries

The governments of NATO member states ratify the protocols, according to their national requirements and procedures. The ratification procedure varies from country to country. For example, the United States requires a two-thirds majority to pass the required legislation in the Senate. Elsewhere, for example in the United Kingdom, no formal parliamentary vote is required.

5. The Secretary General invites the potential new members to accede to the North Atlantic Treaty

Once all NATO member countries notify the Government of the United States of America, the depository of the Washington Treaty, of their acceptance of the protocols to the North Atlantic Treaty on the accession of the potential new members, the Secretary General invites the new countries to accede to the Treaty.

6. Invitees accede to the North Atlantic Treaty in accordance with their national procedures

Upon depositing their instruments of accession with the US State Department, invitees formally become NATO members.

Evolution of NATO’s “open door policy”

NATO’s “open door policy” is based upon Article 10 of the Washington Treaty, which states that membership is open to any “European State in a position to further the principles of this Treaty and to contribute to the security of the North Atlantic area”.

The enlargement of the Alliance is an ongoing and dynamic process. Since the Alliance was created in 1949, its membership has grown from the 12 founding members to today’s 29 members through seven rounds of enlargement in 1952, 1955, 1982, 1999, 2004, 2009 and 2017.

The first three rounds of enlargement – which brought in Greece and Turkey (1952), West Germany (1955) and Spain (1982) – took place during the Cold War, when strategic considerations were at the forefront of decision-making.

The fall of the Berlin Wall in November 1989 signalled the end of the Cold War and was followed by the dissolution of the Warsaw Pact and the breakup of the Soviet Union. The reunification of Germany in October 1990 brought the territory of the former East Germany into the Alliance. The new democracies of Central and Eastern Europe were eager to guarantee their freedom by becoming integrated into Euro-Atlantic institutions.
NATO enlargement was the subject of lively debate in the early 1990s. Many political analysts were unsure of the benefits that enlargement would bring. Some were concerned about the possible impact on Alliance cohesion and solidarity, as well as on relations with other states, notably Russia. It is in this context that the Alliance carried out a Study on NATO Enlargement in 1995 (see above).

Post-Cold War enlargement

Based on the findings of the Study on Enlargement, the Alliance invited the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland to begin accession talks at the Alliance’s Madrid Summit in 1997. These three countries became the first former members of the Warsaw Pact to join NATO in 1999.

At the 1999 Washington Summit, the Membership Action Plan was launched to help other aspirant countries prepare for possible membership.

Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia were invited to begin accession talks at the Alliance’s Prague Summit in 2002 and joined NATO in 2004. All seven countries had participated in the MAP.

At the Bucharest Summit in April 2008, Allied leaders took a number of steps related to the future enlargement of the Alliance. Several decisions concerned countries in the Western Balkans (see Milestones below). The Allies see the closer integration of Western Balkan countries into Euro-Atlantic institutions as essential to ensuring long-term self-sustaining stability in this region, where NATO has been heavily engaged in peace-support operations since the mid 1990s.

Allied leaders also agreed at Bucharest that Georgia and Ukraine, which were already engaged in Intensified Dialogues with NATO, will one day become members. In December 2008, Allied foreign ministers decided to enhance opportunities for assisting the two countries in efforts to meet membership requirements by making use of the framework of the existing NATO-Ukraine Commission and NATO-Georgia Commission – without prejudice to further decisions which may be taken about their applications to join the MAP. (For further information on NATO’s cooperation with Georgia and Ukraine see pages on Relations with Georgia and Relations with Ukraine.)

Milestones

4 April 1949: Signature of the North Atlantic Treaty by 12 founding members: Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, the United Kingdom and the United States. Article 10 of the Treaty provides the basis for NATO’s “open door policy”.

18 February 1952: Accession of Greece and Turkey.


30 May 1982: Spain joins the Alliance (and the integrated military structure in 1998).

October 1990: With the reunification of Germany, the new German Länder in the East become part of NATO.

January 1994: At the Brussels Summit, Allied leaders reaffirm that NATO remains open to the membership of other European countries.


8-9 July 1997: At the Madrid Summit, three partner countries – the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland – are invited to start accession talks.

12 March 1999: Accession of the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland, bringing the Alliance to 19 members.

23-25 April 1999: Launch of the Membership Action Plan (MAP) at the Washington Summit. (Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia join the MAP.)

14 May 2002: NATO foreign ministers officially announce the participation of Croatia in the MAP at their meeting in Reykjavik, Iceland.
May 2002: President Leonid Kuchma announces Ukraine’s goal of eventual NATO membership.

21-22 November 2002: At the Prague Summit, seven partner countries – Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia – are invited to start accession talks.

26 March 2003: Signing ceremony of the Accession Protocols of the seven invitees.


21 April 2005: Launch of the Intensified Dialogue on Ukraine’s aspirations to NATO membership and related reforms, at an informal meeting of foreign ministers in Vilnius, Lithuania.

21 September 2006: NATO foreign ministers in New York announce the decision to offer an Intensified Dialogue to Georgia.

28-29 November 2006: At the Riga Summit, Allied leaders state that invitations will be extended to MAP countries that fulfil certain conditions.

2-4 April 2008: At the Bucharest Summit, Allied leaders invite Albania and Croatia to start accession talks; assure the country known at the time as the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia that it will be invited once a solution to the issue of the country’s name has been reached with Greece; invite Bosnia and Herzegovina and Montenegro to start Intensified Dialogues; and agree that Georgia and Ukraine will become members in future.

9 July 2008: Accession Protocols for Albania and Croatia are signed. Allied foreign ministers agree that Georgia should develop an Annual National Programme under the auspices of the NATO-Georgia Commission.

1 April 2009: Accession of Albania and Croatia.

4 December 2009: NATO foreign ministers invite Montenegro to join the MAP.

2 December 2015: NATO foreign ministers meeting in Brussels invite Montenegro to start accession talks to join the Alliance, while encouraging further progress on reforms, especially in the area of rule of law. In a statement on NATO’s “open door” policy, ministers encourage Bosnia and Herzegovina to undertake the reforms necessary for the country to realise its Euro-Atlantic aspirations and to activate its participation in MAP. Ministers also reiterate their decisions at Bucharest and subsequent decisions concerning Georgia, welcoming the progress the country has made in coming closer to the Alliance and expressing their determination to intensify support for Georgia.

19 May 2016: Allied ministers sign the Accession Protocol, following which Montenegro has ‘Invitee’ status and starts attending North Atlantic Council and other NATO meetings.

5 June 2017: Accession of Montenegro

11 July 2018: At the Brussels Summit, following the historic agreement between Athens and Skopje on the solution of the name issue, Allied leaders invite the government in Skopje to begin accession talks to join NATO. Full implementation of the agreement on the solution of the name issue is a condition for a successful conclusion of the accession process.

5 December 2018: Allied foreign ministers decide that NATO is ready to accept the submission of Bosnia and Herzegovina’s first Annual National Programme under the MAP. The registration of immovable defence property to the state remains essential.

6 February 2019: The Allies sign the Accession Protocol of the Republic of North Macedonia, following which the country can take part in NATO activities as an invitee.

15 February 2019: The Republic of North Macedonia is officially recognised by its constitutional name, following the full implementation of the agreement between Athens and Skopje.
Environment – NATO’s stake

NATO recognises that it faces many environmental challenges. In particular, the Alliance is working to reduce the environmental effects of military activities and to respond to security challenges emanating from the environment.

The Alliance first recognised the natural environmental challenges facing the international community in 1969, when it established the Committee on the Challenges of Modern Society (CCMS). Until its merger with the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme in 2006, the CCMS provided a unique forum for NATO and its partner countries to share knowledge and experience on social, health and environmental matters, both in the civilian and military sectors.

Over the years, Allied countries have established several NATO groups to address environmental challenges from various angles.

NATO’s current activities related to the natural environment include:

- protecting the environment from damaging effects of military operations;
- promoting environmentally friendly management practices in training areas and during operations;
- adapting military assets to a hostile physical environment;
- preparing for and responding to natural and man-made disasters;
addressing the impact of climate change;
- educating NATO’s officers on all aspects of environmental challenges;
- supporting partner countries in building local capabilities;
- enhancing energy efficiency and fossil fuel independence; and
- building environmentally friendly infrastructures.

All these activities fall under two broad categories:

- **Environmental protection**: Protecting the physical and natural environment from the harmful and detrimental impact of military activities.
- **Environmental security**: Addressing security challenges emanating from the physical and natural environment.

### Environmental protection

Military activities often have an adverse effect on the environments in which they occur. Damage to the environment from these activities can threaten livelihoods and habitats, and thus breed instability. Part of NATO’s responsibility is to protect the physical and natural environments where operations and training take place.

Since the 1960s environmental experts have argued that the military should adopt measures to protect the physical and natural environment from harmful and detrimental effects of its activities. Environmental degradation can cause social and economic instability and new tensions, whereas the preservation of the environment during a military operation can enhance stabilisation and foster lasting security. Hence, minimising environmental damage during training and military operations is of great importance for the overall success of the mission.

NATO member countries are aware of the environmental challenges during military operations and they have adopted rules and regulations to protect the environment. NATO’s measures range from safeguarding hazardous materials (including fuels and oils), treating waste water, reducing fossil fuel consumption and managing waste to putting environmental management systems in place during NATO-led activities. In line with these objectives, NATO has been facilitating the integration of environmental protection measures into all NATO-led military activities.

### Policy and standards (including evolution and mechanisms paragraph)

NATO started to develop its environmental protection policy in the late 1970s when NATO expert groups and processes were established to address environmental challenges, resulting in a number of guidelines and standards. At this time, NATO’s policy states that NATO-led forces “must strive to respect environmental principles and policies under all conditions”.

Currently, two dedicated NATO groups are addressing environmental protection while promoting cooperation and standardization among NATO and partner countries, as well as among different NATO bodies and international organizations that regularly attend as observers:

- the **Environmental Protection Working Group (EPWG)** (under the Military Committee Joint Standardization Board that reports to the Military Committee)
- The **Specialist Team on Energy Efficiency and Environmental Protection (STEEEP)** (under the Maritime Capability Group “Ship Design and Maritime Mobility” that reports through the NATO Naval Armaments Group to the Conference of National Armament Directors).

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1 NATO defines environment as “the surroundings in which an organization operates, including air, water, land, natural resources, flora, fauna, humans, and their interrelations” (NTMS- NATO agreed 31 Oct 2013).
The EPWG aims to reduce possible harmful impacts of military activities on the environment by developing NATO policies, standardization documents, guidelines and best practices in the planning and implementation of operations and exercises.

The ST/EEEP aims to integrate environmental protection and energy efficiency regulations into technical requirements and specifications for armaments, equipment and materials on ships, and for the ship to shore interface in the Allied and partner nations’ naval forces.

Two decades of activities by expert groups have paved the way for the overarching policy document MC 469 on “NATO Military Principles and Policies for Environmental Protection,” of which the first version was agreed by the NATO Military Committee in 2003, and an updated version was agreed upon in October 2011. This document describes the responsibilities of military commanders for environmental protection during the preparation and execution of military activities. Further, it recognizes the need for “a harmonization of environmental principles and policies for all NATO-led military activities.” It also instructs NATO commanders to apply “best practicable and feasible environmental protection measures,” thus aiming at reducing the environmental impact caused by military activity. The MC 469 has been complemented with several other NATO EP Standardization Documents (STANAG) and Allied Joint Environmental Protection Publications (AJEPP), all focused on protection the environment during NATO-led military activities. These include the following:

- STANAG 7141 Joint NATO Doctrine for Environmental Protection During NATO-led Military Activities (AJEPP-4)
- STANAG 2510 Joint NATO Waste Management Requirements During NATO-led Military Activities (AJEPP-5)
- STANAG 2582 Environmental Protection Best Practices and Standards for Military Camps in NATO-led Military Activities (AJEPP-2)
- STANAG 2583 Environmental Management System in NATO Operations (AJEPP-3)
- STANAG 6500 NATO Camp Environmental File During NATO-led Operations
- STANAG 2594 Best Environmental Protection Practices for Sustainability of Military Training Areas (AJEPP-7)

Training

In order to ensure compliance with such standards, forces must receive appropriate environmental protection training. While such training is primarily a national responsibility, it is NATO’s ambition to provide common environmental protection and energy efficiency education to Allies’ forces. It is necessary to embed environmental protection awareness into the daily routine of military personnel and increase their personal responsibility in this field. To advance this objective, NATO has designated staff officers for the implementation of environmental protection at strategic, operational and tactical levels. As well, NATO School Oberammergau and the Military Engineering Center of Excellence (MILENG COE) provide environmental protection courses and instruction as part of their curriculum.

Research and Development

NATO’s Science and Technology Organisation (STO) promotes and conducts scientific research on military-specific technical challenges, some of which are related to environmental issues. To this end, STO technical/scientific sub-committees, composed of experts from NATO and nations, look for “greener solutions” by conducting studies and research resulting in scientific reports. STO’s activities include noise reduction and “greener ammunition.” The STO’s Centre for Maritime Research and Experimentation (CMRE) located in La Spezia, Italy, conducts research to quantify the impact of the environment on operations, and vice versa. One extensive CMRE study resulted in a better understanding on how marine mammals can be affected by sonar systems. Based on the results, NATO developed the “Code of Conduct for the Use of Active Sonar to Ensure the Protection of Marine Mammals within the Framework of Alliance Maritime Activities” (MC-0547). STO’s Collaborative Network is supported by the Collaboration Support Office, located in Paris, France. More information can be found at www.sto.nato.int, www.cso.nato.int and www.cmre.nato.int.
Within the context of NATO’s Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme, environmental protection experts across NATO and partner nations have been active in the development of policy and technical solutions to the reduction of the environmental and energy footprint on NATO-led activities. One such advanced research workshop consisted of the development of a NATO Camp Closure Handbook and a Sustainable Camp Model. The model enables operational planners to better understand the impact of operations on water, waste and energy consumption and provides technical solutions aimed at a reduction in the environmental and energy footprint of operations.

**Collaborative Approach**

NATO’s Environmental community has been active in their cooperative efforts with other international organizations, to include the UN and EU. This collaborative approach also includes discussions with industry, academia and governmental agencies.

**Environmental security**

Based on a broad definition of security that recognizes the importance of political, economic, social and environmental factors, NATO is addressing security challenges emanating from the environment. This includes extreme weather conditions, depletion of natural resources, pollution and so on – factors that can ultimately lead to disasters, regional tensions and violence.

The Alliance is looking closely at how to best address environmental risks to security in general as well as those that directly impact military activities. For example, environmental factors can affect energy supplies to both populations and military operations, making energy security a major topic of concern. Helping partner countries clean up ageing and dangerous stockpiles of weapons, ammunition and unexploded remnants of war that pose a risk to people and the environment is yet another area of work.

NATO is currently conducting these initiatives via its Science for Peace and Security (SPS) programme, the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) and Partnership for Peace Trust Fund projects. It is considering enhancing its efforts in this area, with a focus on civil emergencies, energy efficiency and renewable power, and on consulting with relevant international organizations and experts on NATO’s stake in climate change.

**Building international cooperation**

Since 1969, NATO’s SPS Programme has supported cooperative activities that tackle environmental security issues, including those that are related to defence, in NATO countries. Since the SPS Programme opened up to partner countries in the 1990s, partners listed environmental security as a top priority, requesting NATO’s support for cooperative activities to address those issues that threaten the security of their country and beyond.

In order to better coordinate its activities, NATO joined in 2004 five other international agencies under the Environment and Security (ENVSEC) Initiative to address environmental issues that threaten security in four vulnerable regions. The regions are South east Europe, Eastern Europe, South Caucasus and Central Asia. As a first step, ENVSEC facilitated regional meetings with relevant stakeholders (experts, non-governmental organizations authorities, governmental authorities and international donors) to consult and agree on regional maps highlighting priority issues that are a threat to security. As a second step ENVSEC raised fund to address the identified issues. The SPS programme mainly support capability building through projects that helped partner countries with equipment, consumables, travel, training and stipends. (For more information visit www.envsec.int)

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2 The ENVSEC Initiative was established in 2003 by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE). NATO became an associate member in 2004, through its Public Diplomacy Division. Recently, the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) and the Regional Environment Center for Central and Eastern Europe (REC) joined.
Boosting emergency response

The Alliance is also actively engaged in coordinating civil emergency planning and response to environmental disasters. It does this principally through the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EARDCC) that was launched following the earthquake disaster in Turkey and Greece at the end of the 1990s.

Talking at the UN Climate Change Conference in Copenhagen, NATO’s former Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen highlighted that, with the growing impact of climate change, the demand upon the military as “first responder to natural disasters” was likely to grow. He urged Allies to consider how to optimize the Alliance’s contribution in that area. With the aim to increase the understanding, NATO organised consultations and scenario building exercises involving military and civilian experts, partly supported by the SPS Programme. Consequently, under NATO’s current Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg the dialogue with other international organizations has been enhanced with a focus on how NATO and its armed forces could better adapt to the challenge of an increasing number of natural disasters.

Energy security – Critical Energy Infrastructure Protection

With increasingly unpredictable natural disasters, such as earthquakes, severe floods and storms that causes disruptions to infrastructure, environmental factors have a growing potential to affect energy security, a challenge NATO is becoming aware of. Most NATO members and partners rely on energy supplies from abroad, sent through pipelines and cables that cross many borders. Allies and partners, therefore, need to work together to develop ways of reducing the threat of disruptions, including those caused by environmental events.

At the Strasbourg/Kehl Summit in April 2009, Allies said they will "consult on the most immediate risks in the field of energy security". They said they would continue to implement the recommendations proposed at the 2008 Bucharest Summit, namely to share information, advance international and regional cooperation, develop consequence management, and help protect critical infrastructure. (For more please visit the topical page “Energy Security”.)

Projects that focus on the link between energy infrastructure and environmental security have been supported by the SPS Programme since early 2000. An example is the multi-year project “Chernobyl Dust Model” that is helping Ukraine to develop a realistic 3D model of the radioactive dust that is leaking from the damaged sarcophagus at the Chernobyl Nuclear Power site. This will not only increase the safety of the workers of the New Safety Confinement, but also helps international experts understand the challenges of measurements and monitoring of contaminated areas.

Energy efficiency in the military (Smart Energy)

Recognizing the increasing need of fuel in operations, causing security issues for fuel convoys and armed forces, NATO started in 2011 a Smart Energy initiative bringing together NATO stakeholders and national experts from the public and private sector. Heads of State and Government declared in Wales in 2014 that NATO will “[...] continue to work towards significantly improving the energy efficiency of our military forces, and in this regard we note the Green Defence Framework.” For more information on “Smart Energy” please visit the NATO LibGuide on Smart Energy.

Helping partners reduce environmental hazards through disarmament

Through NATO’s Partnership for Peace Trust Fund projects, the Alliance helps partner countries reduce their aging weapon stockpiles, clean up deteriorating rocket fuel, clear land contaminated by unexploded remnants of war and safely store ammunition. While the central aim is to help post-Soviet countries disarm and reform their militaries, these projects also reduce the risks posed by these dangerous materials to the environment and the people in surrounding areas.
Raising awareness and information-sharing

Communicating the security implications of environmental issues to political leaders and decision-makers is another area where the Alliance plays a major role. For instance, it makes sure that members and partners alike have the knowledge and skills needed to mitigate climate change and adapt to its effects.
The Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) is NATO’s principal civil emergency response mechanism in the Euro-Atlantic area. It is active all year round, operational on a 24/7 basis, and involves NATO’s 29 Allies and all partner countries. The Centre functions as a clearing-house system for coordinating both requests and offers of assistance mainly in case of natural and man-made disasters.

**Highlights**

- The EADRCC is NATO’s principal civil emergency response mechanism in the Euro-Atlantic area.
- The Centre functions as a clearing-house system for coordinating both requests and offers of assistance mainly in case of natural and man-made disasters.
- It is active all year round, operational on a 24/7 basis, and involves NATO’s 29 Allies and all partner countries.
- The EADRCC’s tasks are performed in close cooperation with the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, which retains the primary role in the coordination of international disaster relief operations.
More background information

Main tasks

In its coordinating role for the response of NATO and partner countries, the EADRCC not only guides consequence management efforts, but also serves as an information-sharing tool on disaster assistance through the organisation of seminars to discuss lessons learnt from NATO-coordinated disaster response operations and exercises.

In addition to its day-to-day activities and the immediate response to emergencies, the EADRCC conducts annual large-scale field exercises with realistic scenarios to improve interaction between NATO and partner countries. Regular major disaster exercises have been organised in different participating countries to practise procedures, provide training for local and international participants, build up interoperability skills and capabilities and harness the experience and lessons learned for future operations.

Since 2000, the EADRCC has conducted on average one large consequence-management field exercise every year and started in 2016 a new line of exercises using virtual reality technology. Virtual reality is a big part of the future and NATO is using it to complement its conventional table-top and field exercises.

All of the EADRCC’s tasks are performed in close cooperation with the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UN OCHA), which retains the primary role in the coordination of international disaster relief operations. The Centre is designed as a regional coordination mechanism, supporting and complementing the UN efforts. Furthermore, its principal function is coordination rather than direction. In the case of a disaster requiring international assistance, it is up to individual NATO Allies and partners to decide whether to provide assistance, based on information received from the EADRCC.

Support for national authorities in civil emergencies

The EADRCC forwards assistance requests to NATO and partner countries, which in turn respond by communicating their offers of assistance to the EADRCC and/or the affected country. The Centre keeps track of the assistance offered (including assistance from other international organisations and actors), assistance accepted by the stricken country, delivery dates and assistance still required (or updates to the assistance requested), as well as the situation on the ground. This information is circulated to NATO and partner countries in the form of situation reports, and is also published on the EADRCC website (http://www.nato.int/eadrcc).

A multinational team of experts

The Centre is located at NATO Headquarters in Brussels, Belgium. It is staffed by secondees from NATO and partner countries and members of the International Staff. The Centre liaises closely with UN OCHA, NATO Military Authorities (NMAs) and other relevant international organisations. During an actual disaster, the EADRCC can temporarily be augmented with additional personnel from NATO and partner delegations to NATO, or NATO’s international civilian and military staff. In addition, the EADRCC has access to national civil experts that can be called upon to provide the Centre with expert advice in specific areas in the event of a major disaster.

Historical background

Based on a Russian proposal, the EADRCC was established in 1998 by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) as a partnership tool of NATO’s civil emergency planning and as one of the two basic elements of the EAPC policy on cooperation in the field of international disaster relief. The other, complementary element is the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Unit, a non-standing, multinational force of civil and military elements, deployable in the event of major natural or man-made disasters in an EAPC country.

Initially, the EADRCC was extensively involved in coordinating the humanitarian assistance effort from EAPC countries that supported refugees during the Kosovo war in the late 1990s. Since then, however,
the Centre has responded to many requests for assistance received mainly from states stricken by natural disasters but also to help with the consequences of chemical, biological, radiological or nuclear (CBRN) incidents, which includes terrorist attacks (see details on the EADRCC website).

In January 2004, the North Atlantic Council, NATO’s principal political decision-making body, widened the EADRCC’s mandate to respond to assistance requests from the Afghan government in the case of natural disasters. Three years later, that mandate was extended to all areas where NATO is involved militarily. In 2009, the countries of the Mediterranean Dialogue¹ (MD) and those of the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative² (ICI) were given direct access to the Centre, followed by other partners across the globe³ in December 2011.

¹ Algeria, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Mauritania, Morocco and Tunisia.
² Six countries of the Gulf Cooperation Council were initially invited to participate. To date, four of these -- Bahrain, Qatar, Kuwait and the United Arab Emirates -- have joined. Saudi Arabia and Oman have also shown an interest in the Initiative. Based on the principle of inclusiveness, the Initiative is, however, open to all interested countries of the broader Middle East region who subscribe to its aims and content.
³ Afghanistan, Australia, Colombia, Iraq, Japan, the Republic of Korea, Mongolia, New Zealand and Pakistan.
Euro-Atlantic Partnership

The Alliance seeks to foster security, stability and democratic transformation across the Euro-Atlantic area by engaging in partnership through dialogue and cooperation with non-member countries in Europe, the Caucasus and Central Asia. The Euro-Atlantic Partnership is underpinned by two key mechanisms: the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) and the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme.

Highlights

- The Euro-Atlantic Partnership brings together Allies and partner countries from Europe, the Caucasus and Central Asia for dialogue and consultation.
- The 50-nation Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) is a multilateral forum for dialogue and consultation, and provides the overall political framework for cooperation between the 29 NATO members and 21 partner countries.
- The Partnership for Peace (PfP), launched in 1994, facilitates practical bilateral cooperation between individual partner countries and NATO, tailored according to the specific ambitions, needs and abilities of each partner.
- NATO’s 2010 Strategic Concept identifies the EAPC and PfP as central to the Allies’ vision of a Europe whole, free and at peace.
- As early as 1991, NATO had set up a forum to institutionalise relations with countries of the former Soviet Union and Warsaw Pact, called the North Atlantic Cooperation Council (replaced by the EAPC in 1997).
More background information

Fostering substantive dialogue and cooperation

NATO’s new Strategic Concept, which was approved at the Lisbon Summit in November 2010, states that the EAPC and the PfP programme are central to the Allies’ vision of a Europe whole, free and at peace. Three priorities underpin cooperation with partners:

- Dialogue and consultations;
- Building capabilities and strengthening interoperability; and
- Supporting reform.

Activities under the EAPC and PfP are set out in the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Work Plan. This is a catalogue of around 1600 activities covering over 30 areas of cooperation, ranging from arms control, through language training, foreign and security policy, and military geography.

The EAPC and the PfP programme have steadily developed their own dynamic, as successive steps have been taken by NATO and its partner countries to extend security cooperation, building on the partnership arrangements they have created.

As NATO has transformed over the years to meet the new challenges of the evolving security environment, partnership has developed along with it. Today, partner countries are engaged with NATO in tackling 21st century security challenges, including terrorism and the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction.

The ways and means of cooperation developed under NATO’s Euro-Atlantic Partnership have proven to be of mutual benefit to Allies and partners, and have helped promote stability. The mechanisms and programmes for cooperation developed under EAPC/PfP are also being used as the basis to extend cooperation to other non-member countries beyond the Euro-Atlantic area.

Partners are expected to fund their own participation in cooperation programmes. However, NATO supports the cost of individual participation of some nations in specific events, and may also support the hosting of events in some partner countries.

Values and commitments

The Euro-Atlantic Partnership is about more than practical cooperation – it is also about values.

Each partner country signs the PfP Framework Document. In doing so, partners commit to:

- respect international law, the United Nations Charter, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the Helsinki Final Act, and international disarmament and arms control agreements;
- refrain from the threat or use of force against other states;
- settle disputes peacefully.

The Framework Document also enshrines a commitment by the Allies to consult with any partner country that perceives a direct threat to its territorial integrity, political independence or security – a mechanism which, for example, Albania and the Republic of North Macedonia made use of during the Kosovo crisis. This commitment was also included as a provision in the 2009 Declaration to Complement the NATO-Ukraine Charter – in March 2014, with its independence and territorial integrity under threat, Ukraine invoked the provision and requested a meeting with Allies in the format of the NATO-Ukraine Commission.
The diversity of partners

Over the years, 34 countries have joined the Euro-Atlantic Partnership. A number of these have since become NATO member states, through four rounds of NATO enlargement. This has changed the balance between Allies and partners in the EAPC/PfP: since March 2004, there have been more Allies than partners.

The remaining partners are a very diverse group, with different goals and ambitions with regard to their cooperation with NATO. They include Eastern and South-eastern European countries, the countries of the South Caucasus and Central Asia, and Western European states.

Some partners are in the process of reforming their defence structures and capabilities. Others are able to contribute significant forces to NATO-led operations and wish to further strengthen interoperability, and can also offer fellow partner countries advice, training and assistance in various areas. Other partners are interested in using their cooperation with NATO in order to prepare for membership in the Alliance.

Facilitating dialogue and consultation

The Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council meets at various levels and many partner countries have established diplomatic representation and liaison arrangements at NATO Headquarters and NATO Commands. Dialogue and consultation is also facilitated by various other means.

Representatives of partner countries may take up assignments as PfP interns in NATO’s International Staff and various agencies. Military staff from partner countries may also take up posts in military commands, as so-called PfP Staff Elements.

NATO has also established Contact Point Embassies in partner countries to facilitate liaison and support public diplomacy efforts. The Secretary General has appointed a Special Representative for the Caucasus and Central Asia and a Senior Civilian Representative has been appointed for Afghanistan. NATO also has liaison and information offices in Georgia, Moldova, Russia and Ukraine.

Evolution of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership

November 1989 saw the fall of the Berlin Wall, signalling the end of the Cold War. Within a short period, the remarkable pace of change in Central and Eastern Europe left NATO faced with a new and very different set of security challenges.

Allied leaders responded at their summit meeting in London, in July 1990, by extending a “hand of friendship” across the old East-West divide and proposing a new cooperative relationship with all the countries of Central and Eastern Europe.

This sea-change in attitudes was enshrined in a new strategic concept for the Alliance, issued in November 1991, which adopted a broader approach to security. Dialogue and cooperation would be essential parts of the approach required to manage the diversity of challenges facing the Alliance. The key goals were now to reduce the risk of conflict arising out of misunderstanding or design and to better manage crises affecting the security of the Allies; to increase mutual understanding and confidence among all European states; and to expand the opportunities for genuine partnership in dealing with common security problems.

The scene was set for the establishment in December 1991 of the North Atlantic Cooperation Council (NACC), a forum to bring together NATO and its new partner countries to discuss issues of common concern.

NACC consultations focused on residual Cold War security concerns such as the withdrawal of Russian troops from the Baltic States. Political cooperation was also launched on a number of security and defence-related issues.

The NACC broke new ground in many ways. However, it focused on multilateral, political dialogue and lacked the possibility of each partner country developing individual cooperative relations with NATO.
Deepening partnership

This changed in 1994 with the launch of the Partnership for Peace (PfP), a major programme of practical bilateral cooperation between NATO and individual partner countries, which represented a significant leap forward in the cooperative process.

And, in 1997, the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) was created to replace the NACC and to build on its achievements, paving the way for the development of an enhanced and more operational partnership.

The EAPC and the PfP programme have steadily developed their own dynamic, as successive steps have been taken by NATO and its partner countries to extend security cooperation, building on the partnership arrangements they have created.

Further initiatives have been taken to deepen cooperation between Allies and PfP partners at successive summit meetings in Madrid (1997), Washington (1999), Prague (2002), Istanbul (2004), Riga (2006), Bucharest (2008) and Lisbon (2010). The 2010 Strategic Concept, adopted at Lisbon, stresses that “The Alliance will engage actively to enhance international security, through partnership with relevant countries and other international organisations (...)”. It also refers specifically to the EAPC and PfP as “central to our vision of Europe whole, free and in peace.”

In 2011, when NATO foreign ministers met in Berlin, they approved a more efficient and flexible partnership policy, designed to streamline NATO’s partnership tools in order to open all cooperative activities and exercises to all partners and to harmonise NATO’s partnership programmes. Because of this, PfP activities have been opened up to other partnership frameworks and – vice-versa – PfP partners have been able to participate in activities hosted by the other cooperative frameworks.

### Milestones

**July 1990:** Allies extend a “hand of friendship” across the old East-West divide and propose a new cooperative relationship with all the countries of Central and Eastern Europe.

**November 1991:** The Alliance issues a new Strategic Concept for NATO, which adopts a broader approach to security, emphasising partnership, dialogue and cooperation.

**December 1991:** The North Atlantic Cooperation Council (NACC) is established as a forum for security dialogue between NATO and its new partners.

**1994:** The Partnership for Peace (PfP), a major programme of practical bilateral cooperation between NATO and individual partner countries, is launched. Partner missions to NATO are established. A Partnership Coordination Cell is set up at Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE) to help coordinate PfP training and exercises.

**1995:** An International Coordination Cell is established at SHAPE to provide briefing and planning facilities for all non-NATO countries contributing troops to NATO-led peacekeeping operations.

**1996:** A number of partner countries deploy to Bosnia and Herzegovina as part of a NATO-led peacekeeping force.

**1997:** The Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) is created to replace the NACC.

**July 1997:** The operational role of the PfP is enhanced at the Madrid Summit.

**1998:** Creation of the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre and Disaster Response Unit.

**1999:** Three partners – the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland – join NATO.

**April 1999:** At the Washington Summit, dialogue and cooperation are included as fundamental security tasks in the Alliance’s new Strategic Concept. Moreover, the PfP is further enhanced and its operational role strengthened, including the introduction of:

- the Operational Capabilities Concept to improve the ability of Alliance and partner forces to operate together in NATO-led operations;
- the Political-Military Framework for partner involvement in political consultations and decision-making, in operational planning and in command arrangements;
- a Training and Education Enhancement Programme to help reinforce the operational capabilities of partner countries.

1999: Several partner countries deploy peacekeepers as part of the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Kosovo (KFOR).

12 September 2001: The EAPC meets the day after the 9/11 terrorist attacks on the United States and pledges to combat the scourge of terrorism.

2002: The Partnership Trust Fund policy is launched to assist partner countries in the safe destruction of stockpiled anti-personnel mines and other munitions.

November 2002: At the Prague Summit, partnerships are further enhanced including:
- a Comprehensive Review to strengthen political dialogue with partners and enhance their involvement in the planning, conduct and oversight of activities in which they participate;
- a Partnership Action Plan against Terrorism (PAP-T);
- Individual Partnership Action Plans, allowing the Alliance to tailor its assistance to interested partners seeking more structured support for domestic reforms, particularly in the defence and security sector.


2004: Seven partners – Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia – join NATO.

June 2004: At the Istanbul Summit, further steps are taken to strengthen partnership, including:
- a Partnership Action Plan for Defence Institution Building (PAP-DIB) to encourage and support partners in building effective and democratically responsible defence institutions;
- an enhanced Operational Capabilities Concept and partners are offered representation at Allied Command Transformation to help promote greater military interoperability between NATO and partner country forces;
- a special focus on the Caucasus and Central Asia.

2006: Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro and Serbia become partners.

April 2008: At the Bucharest Summit, Malta returns to the Partnership for Peace (PfP) and joins the EAPC (Malta first joined the PfP programme in April 1995 but suspended its participation in October 1996). Also, priority is given to working with partners on building integrity in defence institutions and the important role of women in conflict resolution (as outlined in United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325).

2009: Two partners – Albania and Croatia – become members of NATO.

November 2010: At the Lisbon Summit, Allies reiterate their commitment to the EAPC and the PfP programme, described in NATO’s new Strategic Concept as being central to the Allies’ vision of a Europe whole, free and at peace. They agree to streamline NATO’s partnership tools in order to open all cooperative activities and exercises to all partners and to harmonise partnership. They also decide to review the Political-Military Framework for NATO-led PfP operations to update the way NATO works together with partner countries and shapes decisions on the operations and missions to which they contribute.

April 2011: Following up on the Lisbon Summit decisions, Allied foreign ministers meeting in Berlin approve a new, more efficient and flexible partnership policy. The revised Political-Military Framework for partner involvement in NATO-led operations is also noted by ministers.

2014: January 2014 marks the 20th anniversary of the PfP programme.
July 2016: At NATO’s summit in Warsaw, Allied leaders underline that – against the background of an increasingly unstable, global security environment, and based on a broad and strengthened deterrence and defence posture – NATO will seek to contribute more to the efforts of the international community in projecting stability and strengthening security outside NATO territory, thereby contributing to Alliance security overall. As part of these efforts NATO will develop a more strategic, more coherent, and more effective approach to partnerships.

June 2017: Partner country Montenegro becomes a member of NATO.
Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council

The 50-nation Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) is a multilateral forum for dialogue and consultation on political and security-related issues among Allies and partner countries. It provides the overall political framework for NATO's cooperation with partner countries in the Euro-Atlantic area, and for the bilateral relationships developed between NATO and individual partner countries under the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme.

EAPC members regularly exchange views on current political and security-related issues, including the evolving security situations in Kosovo and Afghanistan, where peacekeepers from Allied and partner countries are deployed together. Longer-term consultation and cooperation also takes place in a wide range of areas.

Established in 1997, the EAPC succeeded the North Atlantic Cooperation Council (NACC), which was set up in 1991 just after the end of the Cold War. This decision reflected NATO's desire to build a security forum better suited for a more enhanced and operational partnership, matching the increasingly sophisticated relationships being developed with partner countries.

Participation

The EAPC brings together the 29 Allies and 21 partner countries.

Meetings of the EAPC are held monthly at the level of ambassadors, annually at the level of foreign or defence ministers and chiefs of defence, as well as occasionally at summit level.
The work of the EAPC

Longer-term consultation and cooperation takes place in a wide range of areas within the framework of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Work Programme (EAPWP).

These areas include crisis-management and peace-support operations; regional issues; arms control and issues related to the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction; international terrorism; defence issues such as planning, budgeting, policy and strategy; civil emergency planning and disaster preparedness; armaments cooperation; nuclear safety; civil-military coordination of air traffic management; and scientific cooperation.

The EAPC has also taken initiatives to promote and coordinate practical cooperation and the exchange of expertise in key areas. These include combating terrorism, border security, and other issues related to the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and small arms and light weapons.

NATO/EAPC policies have also been agreed to support international efforts in support of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on women, peace and security, as well as to combat trafficking in human beings.
Exercises

Exercises are important tools through which the Alliance tests and validates its concepts, procedures, systems and tactics. More broadly, they enable militaries and civilian organisations deployed in theatres of operation to test capabilities and practise working together efficiently in a demanding crisis situation.

Highlights

- Exercises allow NATO to test and validate concepts, procedures, systems and tactics.
- They enable militaries and civilian organisations deployed on the ground to work together to identify “best practices” (what works) and “lessons learned” (what needs improving).
- Exercises also contribute to improved interoperability and defence reform.
- NATO has recently boosted its exercise programme in light of the changed security environment.
- Exercises are planned in advance and vary in scope, duration and form – ranging between live exercises in the field to computer-assisted exercises that take place in a classroom.
- To foster and support interoperability, NATO exercises are as open as possible to all formal partner countries.
- The Alliance has been conducting exercises since 1951.
More background information

The aim of NATO exercises

The rationale for planning and executing military exercises is to prepare commands and forces for operations in times of peace, crisis and conflict. Their aims and objectives must therefore mirror current operational requirements and priorities. The exercises are executed in three forms: a live exercise (LIVEX) in which forces actually participate; a command-post exercise (CPX), which is a headquarters exercise involving commanders and their staffs, and communications within and between participating headquarters; and an exercise study, which may take the form of a map exercise, a war game, a series of lectures, a discussion group or an operational analysis.

Exercises serve a number of specific purposes:

- **Training and experience**

  Exercises allow forces to build on previous training in a practical way, thereby heightening forces' level of proficiency in a given area. Exercises have varying levels of complexity but most assume that basic training is complete and that a sufficient number of trained personnel are available.

- **Testing and validating structures**

  Exercises are designed to practise the efficiency of structures as well as personnel. This is particularly true when periodically the NATO military command structure is reformed and new headquarters need to test their ability to fulfil new responsibilities. A structure consists of many components – concepts, doctrine, procedures, systems and tactics – that must function together. Supply structures, for instance, require specialised training, equipment and operating procedures, which must be combined to effectively support a mission’s objectives. Putting these structures into practice allows them to be tested and, if need be, refined.

- **Interoperability**

  NATO-led forces must be able to work together effectively despite differences in doctrine, language, structures, tactics and training. Interoperability is built, in part, through routine inter-forces training between NATO member states and through practical cooperation between personnel from Allied and partner countries. Exercises are as open as possible to all formal partners, either as observers or as participants, and in some cases even as hosts of an exercise. Endorsement by the Military Committee and approval by the North Atlantic Council are, however, required before a partner can observe or participate in an exercise.

- **Defence reform**

  Participation in NATO exercises is one of the options available to help with defence reform. They provide the possibility for NATO member countries to test reforms implemented nationally and give partner countries the opportunity to be involved in and observe the structures and mechanisms that Alliance members have in place.

The making of an exercise

Exercise scenarios

During an exercise, forces are asked to respond to a fictitious scenario that resembles what might occur in real life. Exercises cover the full range of military operations, from combat to humanitarian relief and from stabilisation to reconstruction. They can last from a day to several weeks and can vary in scope from a few officers working on an isolated problem, to full-scale combat scenarios involving aircraft, navy ships, artillery pieces, armoured vehicles and thousands of troops.

Alliance exercises are supported by NATO countries and, as appropriate, by partner countries, which provide national commitments in the form of troops, equipment or other types of support. The participating countries are normally responsible for funding any form of national contribution.
Each exercise has pre-specified training objectives which drive the selection of activities. Objectives may be to build skills and knowledge, practise coordination mechanisms, or validate procedures.

At the conclusion of an exercise, commanders and, in many cases, troops collectively review their performance. This process allows them to identify areas that work well (“best practices”) and areas that can be improved (“lessons learned”). In this way, exercises facilitate continuous improvement of interoperability, efficiency and performance.

Military Training and Exercise Programme

Events and activities related to NATO training and exercises are developed by NATO’s two strategic commands – Allied Command Operations (ACO) and Allied Command Transformation (ACT). This process culminates with the publication of the annual Military Training and Exercise Programme (MTEP). Since July 2012, ACO is responsible for setting the training requirements and conducting NATO’s evaluations, while ACT is responsible for managing the MTEP and executing the exercise programme.

The MTEP provides detailed information on training, exercises and related activities scheduled for the next five calendar years. The detailed specifications of an exercise are developed one or two years prior to the start of the exercise.

The document is based on the priorities and intent of the Strategic Commanders. The areas typically included are current and future operations, the NATO Response Force, transformational experimentation and NATO’s military cooperation programmes.

NATO exercise requirements are coordinated during MTEP Programming Board Meetings (which are open to representatives from partner countries) starting at least 18 months before the beginning of the next cycle. Preliminary planning culminates in the NATO Training and Exercise Conference, where NATO Commands, NATO member and partner countries, and other invitees conduct final exercise coordination and provide support to the annual MTEP.

Political exercises

Exercises are organised in both the military and civilian structures of the Alliance. NATO holds exercises based on its political arrangements, concepts and procedures so as to refine consultations and decision-making architecture and capabilities. Political exercises also aim to ensure that primary advisers – non-elected senior political officials and military commanders in capitals and within the NATO structures – are provided with opportunities to maintain their awareness of how complex, multinational organisations such as NATO work. In some instances, partners engaged in NATO-led operations are able to participate in certain aspects of these exercises.

Transparency

NATO, and more specifically Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE), publishes its annual exercise programme online. In the spirit of the Vienna Document on ensuring military transparency, NATO also adheres to the following rules: when an exercise exceeds 9,000 personnel, it is subject to notification (at least 42 days in advance); when it exceeds 13,000 personnel, observers are allowed to follow the exercise. The naming convention explained below is also a source of information and, therefore of transparency.

Every year within the framework of the Vienna Document and as part of an important confidence- and security-building measure, officials from the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) meet to exchange information on their armed forces, military organisation, manpower and major weapon and equipment systems. They also share information on their defence planning and budgets during the year.
What is in an exercise name?

At the present time, NATO exercises are identified by two words. The first letter of the first word denotes the NATO command responsible for scheduling the exercise.

- **S** Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe
- **T** Allied Command Transformation
- **B** Allied Joint Force Command Brunssum
- **N** Allied Joint Force Command Naples

The first letter of the second word denotes the element(s) concerned.

- **A** Air
- **L** Land
- **M** Maritime
- **J** Joint
- **S** Special Operations Forces

For instance, Brilliant Jump is a joint exercise conducted by JFC Brunssum.

The strategic commands in the lead

ACO and ACT work closely together on NATO military exercises. Both are assisted by the Alliance’s network of education, training, and assessment institutions, as well as national structures.

Since July 2012, ACO has been given the main responsibility for setting collective training requirements and conducting the evaluation of headquarters and formations. ACT has been given the responsibility of managing collective training and exercises, based on ACO’s requirements. ACT also holds lead responsibility for NATO and Partnership for Peace (PfP) joint education, individual training and associated policy and doctrine development, as well as for directing NATO schools (NATO’s PfP is a major programme of bilateral cooperation with countries from Central and Eastern Europe, Central Asia and the Caucasus).

Exercises through time

NATO has been conducting Alliance-level exercises since 1951. In the early years of the Alliance, NATO forces conducted exercises to strengthen their ability to practise collective defence. In other words, they were conducted to ensure that forces were prepared in the case of an attack.

The outbreak of the Korean War in June 1950 helped the Allies quickly understand the importance of an integrated force under centralised command. By December 1950, the first Supreme Allied Commander Europe, US General Dwight D. Eisenhower, was appointed and following this appointment, national forces were put under centralised command.

The Alliance’s first exercises were held in the autumn of 1951. During 1953, there were approximately 100 exercises of various kinds conducted by NATO commanders. From this point on, NATO forces were no longer a collection of national units, but were beginning to gain cohesion. A year after Allied Command Europe became operational, General Eisenhower reported that “the combat readiness of our troops has improved markedly”.

During the ‘70s and the ‘80s, NATO maintained a very active exercise programme to train forces in as many demanding scenarios as possible. Exercises were considered an essential part of the Alliance’s deterrence posture and helped to ensure that forces were prepared for a potential aggression throughout the Cold War.
In 1994, the Alliance launched the Partnership for Peace (PfP) initiative. One of the initiative’s objectives is to promote closer military cooperation and interoperability between NATO and non-NATO countries in the Euro-Atlantic area. From that time on, PfP members were able to participate in peacekeeping field exercises.

In 2002, the NATO Response Force (NRF) was created. It is a highly ready and technologically advanced multinational force that the Alliance can deploy quickly, wherever needed. The original NRF concept was revised in 2009 and since then, the emphasis has been placed on exercises conducted in support of the NRF. This training is intended to ensure that the NRF is able to deploy quickly and operate effectively in a variety of situations.

At the 2004 Istanbul Summit, Alliance leaders elevated the Mediterranean Dialogue initiative to a genuine partnership to include increased participation in exercises and individual training at NATO institutions. At the same time, the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative was introduced, paving the way for cooperation between NATO and countries from the broader Middle East in areas such as education and training, and made provision for partners to engage in joint training for terrorism. Since the Lisbon Summit in November 2010 and the introduction of the 2010 Strategic Concept and the new partnerships policy, NATO exercises have been open to all partners.

At the Chicago Summit in 2012, NATO leaders started talking about “expanding education, training and exercises” and introduced the Connected Forces Initiative (CFI), which aimed to ensure that the high level of interoperability Allied forces gained during their operational experience in Afghanistan, Libya, the Horn of Africa and the Balkans, was maintained. It was in February 2013 that NATO defence ministers endorsed plans to revitalise NATO’s exercise programme. These plans set the course for a more rigorous multi-year training schedule to ensure NATO and partner forces retain the ability to work efficiently together. Following Russia’s illegal “annexation” of Crimea in March 2014, the number of exercises undertaken that year was increased and at their 2014 Summit in Wales, NATO leaders made a pledge to increase the focus on collective defence scenarios. Since then, NATO leaders have agreed on a strengthened deterrence and defence posture that draws upon all the tools at NATO’s disposal, including military exercises. Exercises continue to ensure that Allies are able to meet NATO’s level of ambition, and to demonstrate that capability for deterrence purposes.
The foundations of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) were officially laid down on 4 April 1949 with the signing of the North Atlantic Treaty, more popularly known as the Washington Treaty.

**Highlights**

- The Treaty was signed in Washington D.C. on 4 April 1949 by 12 founding members.
- The Treaty derives its authority from Article 51 of the United Nations Charter, which reaffirms the inherent right of independent states to individual or collective defence.
- Collective defence is at the heart of the Treaty and is enshrined in Article 5. It commits members to protect each other and sets a spirit of solidarity within the Alliance.
- The Treaty is short – containing only 14 articles – and provides for in-built flexibility on all fronts.
- Despite the changing security environment, the original Treaty has never had to be modified and each Ally has the possibility to implement the text in accordance with its capabilities and circumstances.
More background information

The Treaty and its fundamental values and principles

Only 14 articles long, the Treaty is one of the shortest documents of its kind. The carefully crafted articles were the subject of several months of discussion and negotiations before the Treaty could actually be signed.

However, once Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, the United Kingdom and the United States had discussed these issues, they agreed on a document that would establish the North Atlantic Alliance.

On 4 April 1949, the 12 countries signed the North Atlantic Treaty at the Departmental Auditorium in Washington D.C., the city which lends its name to the Treaty.

The Treaty committed each member to share the risk, responsibilities and benefits of collective defence – a concept at the very heart of the Alliance. In 1949, the primary aim of the Treaty was to create a pact of mutual assistance to counter the risk that the Soviet Union would seek to extend its control of Eastern Europe to other parts of the continent. The Treaty also required members not to enter into any international commitments that conflicted with the Treaty and committed them to the purposes and principles of the Charter of the United Nations (UN). Moreover, it stated that NATO members formed a unique community of values committed to the principles of individual liberty, democracy, human rights and the rule of law.

In addition to collective defence and key values, the principle of consensus decision-making and the importance of consultation define the spirit of the Organization, together with its defensive nature and its flexibility.

The signing of the Treaty led to the creation of the Alliance and, only later, did a fully-fledged organisation develop. Strictly speaking, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) provides the structure which enables the goals of the Alliance to be implemented. To date, those goals have not fundamentally changed nor the Treaty been rewritten. The only so-called “amendments” made so far stem from the series of accession protocols which have been added as new members join, illustrating the foresight of its drafters and their ability to marry international concerns and objectives with national interests.

Political context of the Alliance’s birth

The hostilities that had characterised relations between Soviet and Western powers since 1917 gradually re-emerged at the end of the Second World War. This “East-West” divide was fuelled by conflicting interests and political ideologies. There were clashes over peace agreements and reparations, and tensions were exacerbated by events such as the Berlin blockade in April 1948, the June 1948 coup in Czechoslovakia and direct threats to the sovereignty of Norway, Greece and Turkey.

As the power of the Soviet Union spread to several Eastern European countries, there was concern among Western European countries that Moscow would impose its ideology and authority across Europe. From the end of the Second World War in 1945, Western governments started reducing their defence establishments and demobilising their forces. In January 1948, however, British Foreign Secretary Ernest Bevin spoke of the need for a “treaty of alliance and mutual assistance”, a defensive alliance and a regional grouping within the framework of the UN Charter.

The United States would only agree to provide military support for Europe if it were united. In response, Belgium, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom signed the Brussels Treaty in March 1948, creating the Western Union. Designed to strengthen ties between the signatories while providing for a common defence system, the Brussels Treaty ultimately became the basis for the Washington Treaty.

In the meantime, the US Senate adopted the Vandenberg Resolution – a resolution that would change the course of American foreign policy since it allowed the United States to constitutionally participate in a mutual defence system in times of peace.

The ground was set for negotiations to start on a transatlantic treaty.
Negotiating and drafting the Treaty

The talks on what would become the Washington Treaty took place between the powers of the Brussels Treaty (except Luxembourg, which was represented by Belgium) plus the United States and Canada. Representatives from Canada, the United Kingdom and the United States constituted the core drafting team, but participants from other countries also contributed to the initial discussions, with the assistance of a working group. What has been coined as the “six-power talks” gave birth to the Washington Paper, issued on 9 September 1948, which contained an outline of possible future articles for the Treaty.

Formal public treaty negotiations began on 10 December 1948 with the Ambassadors Committee in Washington, D.C. For these talks, Luxembourg sent its own representative. Denmark, Iceland, Italy, Norway and Portugal were later invited to the final sessions of negotiations, which began on 8 March 1949. Although the participating countries agreed that collective defence would be at the heart of the new Alliance, several other issues were still not resolved and needed to be worked out before the formation of the Alliance could become a reality.

Collective defence

Views on the implementation of Article 5 differed. The United States had previously taken a stance of officially avoiding foreign entanglements. Because of this, it was concerned that Article 5 would draw the country into a conflict through treaty obligations. Something had to be put in place to allow for the US to send aid to attacked countries without having to declare war.

The European countries, on the other hand, wanted to ensure that the United States would come to their aid if one of the signatories came under attack. The United States refused to make this pledge and believed US public opinion would not follow so they proposed an option that would allow each country to assist other signatories “as it deems necessary”. In other words, there would be no automatic declaration of war or obligation to commit militarily on the part of member countries; the action to be taken would be up to each individual member country. Ultimately, the American viewpoint on collective defence won out.

Political and military cooperation

Some drafters wanted more than just military cooperation between signatories. They wanted to expand cooperation to social and economic cooperation, but there were differing views on how to treat non-military issues. Ultimately, Article 2 went through, and now forms the basis of the Alliance’s political and non-military work.

Article 2 is reinforced by Article 4, which encourages the Allies to “consult together” whenever they consider it necessary, therefore facilitating consensus-building. The practice of regularly exchanging information and consulting together strengthens the links between governments and knowledge of their respective preoccupations so that they can agree on common policies or take action more easily.

Geographical scope of the Alliance

The geographical scope of the Alliance in terms of area of responsibility was yet another topic on which the negotiators had a difference of opinion. The United States and the United Kingdom saw NATO as a regional organisation while other countries, such as France, felt it should take on a more global role.

Article 6 of the Washington Treaty details what is understood by the North Atlantic area, along with the caveat that in certain conditions the Alliance’s responsibility could be extended as far south as the Tropic of Cancer to encompass any islands, vessels or aircraft attacked in that area.1

However, according to one of the original drafters, Theodore C. Achilles, there was no doubt in anybody’s minds that NATO operations could also be conducted south of the Tropic of Cancer and basically, worldwide. This interpretation of the Treaty was reaffirmed by NATO foreign ministers in Reykjavik in May 2002 in the context of the fight against terrorism: “To carry out the full range of its missions, NATO must be able to field forces that can move quickly to wherever they are needed, sustain operations over distance and time, and achieve their objectives.”

1 Article 6, as drafted at the signing of the Treaty in 1949, was modified by Article II of the Protocol to the North Atlantic Treaty on the Accession of Greece and Turkey in 1952.
Membership of the Alliance

In terms of whom to invite to join the Alliance, again the drafters held diverging views. The United Kingdom wanted to keep the Alliance small and strong, avoiding commitments to peripheral countries, while the United States advocated inviting weaker countries or countries that were more likely to fall to Soviet aggression. France, on the other hand, was mainly concerned with protecting its colonial territories. Of concern to all three countries was Germany, whose membership was not immediately considered due to the complexity of its situation.

The drafters also discussed inviting Italy, Greece, Turkey, Portugal, Iceland and the Scandinavian countries, essentially for their strategic value. Italy, Portugal and Iceland were among the founding members and ultimately Greece and Turkey joined the Alliance in 1952. Iceland linked its membership to that of Denmark and Norway, which were also among the founding members in 1949; Sweden, on the other hand, categorically refused to have any links with NATO because of its strong commitment to neutrality.

Consideration was also given to offering membership to Ireland, Iran, Austria and Spain, but the idea was dropped largely due to internal conditions in each country.

Colonial territories

The status of colonial territories was one of the biggest bones of contention in the drafting of the Washington Treaty. France insisted on including Algeria, while Belgium requested the Congo's inclusion. However, the United States and Canada wanted to exclude all colonial territory, the main concern being that NATO would end up having to resolve problems stemming from the native population of overseas territories.

Ultimately, the drafters granted France's request to include Algeria, which had been fully integrated into the French political and administrative organisation as a French department, but rejected Belgium's request regarding the Congo.

Duration of the Treaty

The negotiating countries disagreed on how long the Treaty should last. Some countries favoured a long-term agreement that would set the initial duration at 20 years, while others feared that anything beyond 10 years would be seen as an unnecessary extension of the war effort. Finally, at the insistence of Portugal, the Treaty was made valid for a 10-year period, after which the Treaty could be reviewed (Article 12); and only after the Treaty had been in force for 20 years could a member withdraw from the Organization (Article 13). To date, these two provisions have never been used, i.e., the Treaty has never been reviewed nor a member withdrawn from the Organization.

2 The Article dealing with French Algeria no longer became applicable from 3 July 1962, following the independence of Algeria.
Funding NATO

Member countries make direct and indirect contributions to the costs of running NATO and implementing its policies and activities.

**Highlights**

- Indirect – or national – contributions are the largest and come, for instance, when a member volunteers equipment or troops to a military operation and bears the costs of the decision to do so.
- Direct contributions are made to finance requirements of the Alliance that serve the interests of all 29 members and are not the responsibility of any single member such as NATO-wide air defence or command and control systems. Costs are borne collectively, often using the principle of common funding.
- Within the principle of common funding, all 29 members contribute according to an agreed cost-share formula, based on Gross National Income, which represents a small percentage of each member’s defence budget.
- Common funding arrangements are used to finance NATO’s principal budgets: the civil budget (NATO HQ running costs), the military budget (costs of the integrated Command Structure) and the NATO Security Investment Programme (military capabilities).
- Projects can also be jointly funded, which means that the participating countries can identify the requirements, the priorities and the funding arrangements, but NATO provides political and financial oversight. The funding process is overseen by the North Atlantic Council, managed by the Resource Policy and Planning Board, and implemented by the Budget Committee and the Investment Committee.

**Indirect funding of NATO**

When the North Atlantic Council (NAC) unanimously decides to engage in an operation, there is no obligation for each and every country to contribute to the operation unless it is an Article 5 collective defence operation, in which case expectations are different. In all cases, contributions are voluntary and vary in form and scale, from for instance a few soldiers to thousands of troops, and from armoured vehicles, naval vessels or helicopters to all forms of equipment or support, medical or other. These voluntary contributions are offered by individual Allies and are taken from their overall defence capability to form a combined Alliance capability.

**The 2% defence investment guideline**

In 2006, NATO Defence Ministers agreed to commit a minimum of two per cent of their Gross Domestic Product (GDP) to spending on defence. This guideline principally serves as an indicator of a country’s political will to contribute to the Alliance’s common defence efforts. Some Allies may need to spend more than this to develop the capabilities that the Alliance asks of them. Additionally, the defence capacity of each member country has an important impact on the overall perception of the Alliance’s credibility as a politico-military organisation.

The combined wealth of the non-US Allies, measured in GDP, exceeds that of the United States. However, non-US Allies together spend less than half of what the United States spends on defence. This imbalance has been a constant, with variations, throughout the history of the Alliance and more so since the tragic events of 11 September 2001, after which the United States significantly increased its defence spending. The gap between defence spending in the United States compared to Canada and European members combined has therefore increased.
Today, the volume of the US defence expenditure effectively represents some 67 per cent of the defence spending of the Alliance as a whole in real terms¹. This does not mean that the United States covers 67 per cent of the costs involved in the operational running of NATO as an organisation, including its headquarters in Brussels and its subordinate military commands, but it does mean that there is an over-reliance by the Alliance as a whole on the United States for the provision of essential capabilities, including for instance, in regard to intelligence, surveillance and reconnaissance; air-to-air refuelling; ballistic missile defence; and airborne electronic warfare.

The effects of the financial crisis and the declining share of resources devoted to defence in many Allied countries, up to 2014, have exacerbated this imbalance and also revealed growing asymmetries in capability among European Allies. France, Germany and the United Kingdom together represent more than 50 per cent of the non-US Allies defence spending, which creates another kind of over-reliance within Europe on a few capable European Allies. Furthermore, their defence spending is under increasing pressure, as is that of the United States, to meet deficit and indebtedness reduction targets. At the Wales Summit in 2014, NATO leaders agreed to reverse the trend of declining defence budgets and decided:

- Allies currently meeting the 2% guideline on defence spending will aim to continue to do so;
- Allies whose current proportion of GDP spent on defence is below this level will: halt any decline; aim to increase defence expenditure in real terms as GDP grows; and aim to move towards the 2% guideline within a decade with a view to meeting their NATO Capability Targets and filling NATO’s capability shortfalls.

While the 2% of GDP guideline alone is no guarantee that money will be spent in the most effective and efficient way to acquire and deploy modern capabilities, it remains, nonetheless, an important indicator of the political resolve of individual Allies to devote to defence a relatively small, but still significant, level of resources at a time of considerable international uncertainty and economic adversity. In 2014, three Allies spent 2 per cent of GDP or more on defence; this went up to seven in 2018 and a majority of Allies have national plans in place to meet this target by 2024.

The major equipment spending guideline

National defence budgets cover essentially three categories of expenditures: personnel expenses and pensions; research, development and procurement of defence equipment; and, lastly, operations, exercises and maintenance. Budget allocation is a national, sovereign decision, but NATO Allies have agreed that at least 20 per cent of defence expenditures should be devoted to major equipment spending, including the associated research and development, perceived as a crucial indicator for the scale and pace of modernisation.

Where expenditures fail to meet the 20% guideline, there is an increasing risk of obsolescence of equipment, growing capability and interoperability gaps among Allies, and a weakening of Europe’s defence industrial and technological base.

In September 2014, at the Wales Summit, NATO leaders agreed that within a decade Allies who are spending less than 20 per cent of their annual defence spending on major equipment will aim, to increase their annual investments to 20 per cent or more of total defence expenditures. According to 2018 national plans, 24 Allies will meet the objective.

All Allies will ensure that their land, air and maritime forces meet NATO-agreed guidelines for deployability and sustainability and other agreed output metrics; and they will ensure that their armed forces can operate together effectively, including through the implementation of agreed NATO standards and doctrines.

Even though all Allies may not contribute forces to an operation, Allies have agreed that the funding for the deployment of the NATO part of a NATO-led operation would be commonly funded.

¹ Using 2010 prices and exchange rates.
Direct funding of NATO

Direct financial contributions to NATO come principally in two different forms: common funding and joint funding. They can also come in the form of trust funds, contributions in kind, ad hoc sharing arrangements and donations.

Several factors influence the choice of funding source to address a given priority. These include the required level of integration or interoperability, affordability at the national level, the complexity of the system involved, and the potential for economies of scale. Often, a combination of funding sources is used.

The principle of common funding

When a need for expenditure has been identified, countries in the Resource Policy and Planning Board discuss whether the principle of common funding should be applied – in other words whether the requirement serves the interests of all the contributing countries and should therefore be borne collectively.

The criteria for common funding are held under constant review and changes may be introduced as a result of changing circumstances, for instance, the need to support critical requirements in support of Alliance operations and missions.

Common-funding arrangements principally include the NATO civil and military budgets, as well as the NATO Security Investment Programme (NSIP). These are the only funds where NATO authorities identify the requirements and set the priorities in line with overarching Alliance objectives and priorities.

Where military common funding is concerned – the military budget and the NSIP – the guiding principle for eligibility is the “over and above” rule:

“Common funding will focus on the provision of requirements which are over and above those which could reasonably be expected to be made available from national resources.”

Member countries contribute to NATO in accordance with an agreed cost-sharing formula based on Gross National Income.
The civil budget

The civil budget provides funds for personnel expenses, operating costs, and capital and programme expenditure of the International Staff at NATO Headquarters. It is financed from national foreign ministry budgets (in most countries), supervised by the Budget Committee and implemented by the International Staff. The civil budget for 2019 is €236.8 million.

The civil budget is formulated on an objective-based framework, which establishes clear links between NATO’s strategic objectives and the resources required to achieve them. There are four frontline objectives and four support objectives. The frontline objectives comprise support for: active operations; Alliance capabilities; consultation and cooperation with partners; and public relations. The four support objectives consist in: providing support to the consultation process with Allies; maintaining the facilities and site of NATO Headquarters (Headquarters operational environment); governance and regulation through the monitoring of business policies, processes and procedures; and Headquarters security.

The military budget

This budget covers the operating and maintenance costs of the NATO Command Structure. It is composed of over 35 separate sub-budgets, which are financed with contributions from Allies’ national defence budgets (in most countries) according to agreed cost-shares. It is supervised by the Budget Committee (with representatives from all NATO member countries) and implemented by the individual budget holders. In all cases, the provision of military staff remains a nationally-funded responsibility. The military budget for 2019 is €1431.9 million.

NATO COMMON-FUNDED BUDGETS & PROGRAMMES
COST SHARE ARRANGEMENTS VALID FROM 01/01/2018 TO 31/12/2019

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The civil budget

The civil budget provides funds for personnel expenses, operating costs, and capital and programme expenditure of the International Staff at NATO Headquarters. It is financed from national foreign ministry budgets (in most countries), supervised by the Budget Committee and implemented by the International Staff. The civil budget for 2019 is €236.8 million.

The civil budget is formulated on an objective-based framework, which establishes clear links between NATO’s strategic objectives and the resources required to achieve them. There are four frontline objectives and four support objectives. The frontline objectives comprise support for: active operations; Alliance capabilities; consultation and cooperation with partners; and public relations. The four support objectives consist in: providing support to the consultation process with Allies; maintaining the facilities and site of NATO Headquarters (Headquarters operational environment); governance and regulation through the monitoring of business policies, processes and procedures; and Headquarters security.

The military budget

This budget covers the operating and maintenance costs of the NATO Command Structure. It is composed of over 35 separate sub-budgets, which are financed with contributions from Allies’ national defence budgets (in most countries) according to agreed cost-shares. It is supervised by the Budget Committee (with representatives from all NATO member countries) and implemented by the individual budget holders. In all cases, the provision of military staff remains a nationally-funded responsibility. The military budget for 2019 is €1431.9 million.
The military budget effectively provides funds for the International Military Staff, the Strategic Commanders, the NATO Airborne Early Warning and Control (NAEW&C) Force, the common-funded portions of the Alliance’s operations and missions, and more specifically for:

- the Military Committee, the International Military Staff and military agencies;
- the two Strategic Commands and associated command, control and information systems;
- theatre headquarters for deployed operations;
- the NATO static and deployable Combined Air Operations Centres, deployable ARS and radar systems, and deployable HQ communication systems;
- the Joint Warfare Centre (Norway), the Joint Force Training Centre (Poland), the Joint Analysis & Lessons Learned Centre (Portugal), the NATO Defense College (Italy) and the Communications and Information Systems School;
- the NATO Standardization Office, the NATO Communications and Information (NCI) Agency (Belgium) via its customers, Allied Command Transformation experimentation funds, the NATO Science and Technology Organization (Belgium) and the Centre for Maritime Research and Experimentation (Italy);
- limited partnership support activities and part of the Military Liaison Offices in Moscow and Kyiv.

During a crisis-management operation, when an operational decision with financial implications is taken by the North Atlantic Council, the Resource Policy and Planning Board (RPPB) is immediately consulted for the availability of funds. Effectively, this means that in the throes of a crisis, the RPPB can at times be in quasi-permanent session, as was sometimes the case for instance during the Libya operation (March-October 2011).

**The NATO Security Investment Programme**

The NATO Security Investment Programme (NSIP) covers major construction and command and control system investments, which are beyond the national defence requirements of individual member countries. It supports the roles of the NATO Strategic Commands by providing installations and facilities such as air defence communication and information systems, military headquarters for the integrated structure and for deployed operations, and critical airfield, fuel systems and harbour facilities needed in support of deployed forces.

The NSIP is financed by the ministries of defence of each member country and is supervised by the Investment Committee. Projects are implemented either by individual host countries or by different NATO agencies and Strategic Commands, according to their area of expertise. The 2019 ceiling for the NSIP is €700 million.

**Joint funding**

Joint funding arrangements are structured forms of multinational funding within the terms of an agreed NATO charter. The participating countries still identify the requirements, the priorities and the funding arrangements, but NATO has visibility and provides political and financial oversight.

Joint funding arrangements typically lead to the setting-up of a management organisation within a NATO agency. NATO agency activities range from the development and production of fighter aircraft or helicopters to the provision of logistics support or air defence communication and information systems. NATO agencies also coordinate research and development activities or are active in the fields of standardization and intelligence-sharing.

Jointly funded programmes vary in the number of participating countries, cost-share arrangements and management structures.

**Other forms of funding**

In addition to common funding and joint funding, some projects can take the form of trust fund arrangements, contributions in kind, *ad hoc* sharing arrangements and donations.
Management and control

Financial management within NATO is structured to ensure that the ultimate control of expenditure rests with the member countries supporting the cost of a defined activity, and is subject to consensus among them. Under the overall authority of the NAC, various bodies exercise managerial control over all four of the principal elements of the Organization’s financial structure:

- the International Staff, financed by the civil budget;
- the international military structure, financed by the military budget;
- the NSIP; and
- NATO agencies.

When cooperative activities do not involve all member countries, they are, for the most part, managed by NATO production and logistics programmes within NATO agencies. They have their own supervisory boards and boards of directors, as well as finance committees and distinct sources of financing within national treasuries.

Financial regulations applied at NATO provide basic unifying principles around which the overall financial structure is articulated. They are approved by the NAC and are complemented by rules and procedures adapting them to specific NATO bodies and programmes. In September 2014, NATO leaders decided, *inter alia*, to reform governance, transparency and accountability, especially in the management of NATO’s financial resources. This new drive for transparency and accountability aims to improve insight into how NATO manages, spends and reports on the use of taxpayer funds.

Financial management of the civil and military budgets

The civil and military budgets are annual, coinciding with the calendar year. Each budget is prepared under the authority of the head of the respective NATO body and is reviewed by the Budget Committee composed of representatives of contributing member countries, and approved for execution by the NAC.

Failure to achieve consensus before the start of the financial year entails non-approval of the budget and the financing of operations, under the supervision of the Budget Committee, through provisional allocations limited to the level of the budget approved for the preceding year. This regime may last for six months, after which the NAC is required to decide either to approve the budget or to authorise continuation of interim financing.

When the budget has been approved, the head of the NATO body has discretion to execute it through the commitment and expenditure of funds for the purposes authorised. This discretion is limited by different levels of constraint prescribed by the Organization’s financial regulations regarding such matters as recourse to competitive bidding for contracts for the supply of goods and services, or transfers of credits to correct over- or under-estimates of the funding required.

Financial management of the NATO Security Investment Programme

Implementation of the NSIP starts from capability packages. These packages identify the assets available to and required by NATO military commanders to fulfil specified tasks. They assess common-funded supplements (in terms of capital investment and recurrent operating and maintenance costs) as well as the civilian and military manpower required to accomplish the task. They are reviewed by the RPPB and then approved by the NAC.

Once they are approved, authorisation for individual projects can move forward under the responsibility of the Investment Committee. The “host nation” (a term which refers to either the country on whose territory the project is to be implemented, or a NATO agency or Strategic Command responsible for implementing a project) prepares an authorisation request. Once the Committee has agreed to the project, the host nation can proceed with its final design, contract award and implementation. Unless otherwise agreed by the Investment Committee, the bidding process is conducted among firms from those countries contributing to the project.

The financial management system which applies to the NSIP is based on an international financial clearing process. Host nations report on the expenditure foreseen on authorised projects within their
responsibility. Following agreement of the forecasts by the Investment Committee, the International Staff calculates the amounts to be paid by each country and to be received by each host nation. Further calculations determine the payment amounts, currencies and which country or NATO agency will receive the funds.

Once a project has been completed, it is subject to a joint final acceptance inspection to ensure that the work undertaken is in accordance with the scope of work authorised. As soon as this report is accepted by the Investment Committee, it is added to the NATO inventory.

**Financial control**

With respect to the military and civil budgets, the head of the NATO body is ultimately responsible for the correct preparation and execution of the budget. The administrative support for this task is largely entrusted to the Financial Controller of the agency or NATO body.

Each Financial Controller has final recourse to the Budget Committee in the case of persistent disagreement with the head of the respective NATO body regarding an intended transaction. The Financial Controller is charged with ensuring that all aspects of execution of the budget conform to expenditure authorisations, to any special controls imposed by the Budget Committee, and to the financial regulations and their associated implementing rules and procedures. He may also, in response to internal auditing, institute such additional controls and procedures as he deems necessary for maintaining accountability.

**The International Board of Auditors**

The independent International Board of Auditors for NATO (IBAN) is responsible for auditing the accounts of the different NATO bodies. Its principal task is to provide the NAC and member governments with the assurance that joint and common funds are properly used for the settlement of authorised expenditure and that expenditure is within the physical and financial authorisations granted.

The Board’s mandate includes not only financial but also performance audits, which extend its role beyond safeguarding accountability to the review of management practices in general. IBAN is composed of officials normally drawn from the national audit bodies of member countries. These officials are appointed by and responsible to the NAC.

**Bodies involved**

The NAC approves NATO budgets and investments, and exercises oversight over NATO financial management. It takes into account resource considerations in its decision-making. The RPPB advises the NAC on resource policy and allocation. For example, when the NAC decided to undertake the Libya operation, it did so with the benefit of a full evaluation of the costs from Allied Command Operations and the RPPB. The Budget Committee and the Investment Committee, which report to the RPPB, also review and approve planned expenditures.

The NATO Office of Resources brings together all members of the NATO International Staff working on resource issues. The office provides integrated policy and technical advice to the NAC and the Secretary General, NATO resource committees, and other NATO bodies. The office facilitates agreements on resource matters among member countries.

**Resource Policy and Planning Board**

The Resource Policy and Planning Board (RPPB) is the senior advisory body to the NAC on the management of all NATO resources. It has responsibility for the overall management of NATO’s civil and military budgets, as well as the NSIP and manpower. Both the Budget Committee and the Investment Committee report to the RPPB.

**Budget Committee**

The Budget Committee is responsible to the RPPB for NATO’s civil and military budgets. The civil budget covers all costs related to NATO’s International Staff at NATO Headquarters in Brussels; the military budget covers all costs related to the International Military Staff at NATO Headquarters, the strategic commands and the NATO Airborne Early Warning and Control (NAEW&C) Force.
Investment Committee

The Investment Committee is responsible to the RPPB for the implementation of the NSIP.

The NSIP finances the provision of the installations and facilities needed to support the roles of the two Strategic Commands – Allied Command Operations and Allied Command Transformation – recognised as exceeding the national defence requirements of individual member countries.
Gender balance and diversity in NATO

NATO is an equal opportunities employer committed to valuing everyone as an individual. Gender balance and diversity efforts have been mainstreamed in NATO Headquarters (HQ) policies and practices since 2002. They aim at addressing issues such as imbalance in gender, age and national representation in the International Secretariat (IS) of NATO.

Recognizing diversity means respecting and appreciating those who are different from ourselves. Today, there are approximately 1200 civilian IS members in NATO HQ. Another hundred civilians serve in the International Military Staff (IMS). They all operate under Civilian Personnel Regulations, which provide that members of staff shall treat their colleagues and others, with whom they come into contact in the course of their duties, with respect and courtesy at all times. They shall not discriminate against them on the grounds of gender, race or ethnic origin, religion or belief, disability, age or sexual orientation.

Principles and priorities of gender and diversity at NATO HQ

During the Prague Summit in November 2002, member countries tasked the IS to form a Task Force that would recommend to Council ways of improving gender balance and diversity in the NATO IS and civilian IMS workforce.

Under the direction of the Deputy Secretary General, the Task Force started work in February 2003. The first report proposed an Action Plan, which was noted by Foreign Ministers on 2nd June 2003. In consultation with national delegations, the IS and the IMS, the Task Force defined four guiding principles for actively pursuing a diversity policy at NATO HQ:
Ensuring fairness in recruitment and promotion;
Ensuring the high quality of NATO personnel;
Respecting the diversity of all Alliance members; and
Agreeing only to set goals and use methods that embody a reasonable challenge.

The Task Force therefore recommended a pragmatic approach with achievable goals. It focused on diversity issues that could be objectively defined and started its work by addressing the question of gender balance. It agreed no quotas would be set since recruitment in NATO is merit-based, and proposed the following objectives:

- To increase the overall number of women employed in the IS;
- To increase the overall number of women applying (especially to A and C Grade positions);
- To increase the overall number of women in managerial positions.

### Framework, monitoring and reporting

**A NATO-wide policy**

To substantiate the above-mentioned decisions, NATO adopted a NATO-wide Equal Opportunities and Diversity Policy in 2003, applicable to the IS and civilian personnel in the IMS, as well as civilians in all NATO bodies and agencies.

Separate policies against discrimination and harassment at work exist in NATO and several NATO bodies. Annual Progress Reports and Monitoring Reports are produced to outline achievements and trends and to put forward recommendations.

### Some numbers

Currently¹ 1178 people serve in the NATO IS of which 37.2% are women. Female personnel represent 31% of the A-grade staff and 22.5% of the senior management in NATO. Of the civilian personnel in the IMS, 43.9% are women. The PDF Library on this page provides a more detailed breakdown of gender, age and national representation in the NATO HQ’s civilian workforce.

### Mainstreaming diversity

A series of practical initiatives have been implemented in-house and continue to constitute a priority for NATO’s services: the NATO Organizational Development and Recruitment services reviewed all job descriptions and vacancy announcements in order to ensure gender neutrality in their formulation. In addition, for senior posts at grade A.5 and above, an external assessment centre may be used, which guarantees an additional level of culture-neutral professional assessment in line with NATO’s merit-based recruitment principles.

The Talent Management services work constantly on the personal and professional development of the NATO HQ workforce and provide specific training opportunities for women, as well as awareness-raising events for the entire IS. The team in the Personnel Support services is responsible for the general well-being of the NATO IS, whose health and balanced lifestyle are their priority.

In 2004 the NATO Internship Programme was established, allowing young graduates to bring to NATO HQ their share of diversity and enthusiasm. The success of the programme led, in 2009, to its extension to all NATO bodies and agencies.

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¹ The numbers above are as of 30 January 2012.
Action Plans

Bearing in mind the current demographic trends in NATO member states, and the vast number of international public and private institutions competing for quality candidates, it is crucial for the Organization to position itself well in order to remain, and for some to become, an employer of choice.

As the Organization changes in line with evolving political requirements and tasks, it is essential that NATO diversify qualifications and competencies of its workforce. The key to triggering sustained institutional change is mainstreaming the process of change, i.e., to fully weave it into the very fabric of the organization. This is why, for instance, the first Action Plan covering the period 2007-2010 identified the three following objectives: to establish and maintain a NATO Diversity Framework and Policy; to improve the NATO work environment; and to promote and improve NATO’s image as an employer of choice. For each one of these objectives, annual targets were set within the Action Plan and the Progress Reports monitor developments each year.

The next Action Plan should aim to shift work and efforts from diversity to inclusion. Diversity can be measured in numbers, but should not limit efforts to achieving balanced statistics. Rather, the aim would be to mainstream inclusion, which effectively means that efforts will be made to ensure that the diverse workforce will work well together.
Gender perspectives in NATO Armed Forces

Military operations in today’s world require a diversity of qualifications and resources to ensure that peace and security are achieved and maintained. The complementary skills of both male and female personnel are essential for the effectiveness of NATO operations. The International Military Staff Office of the Gender Advisor and the NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives work to integrate a gender perspective into all aspects of NATO operations.

More background information

IMS Office of the Gender Advisor

The IMS Office of the Gender Advisor (IMS GENAD) reports directly to the Director General of the International Military Staff (DGIMS) and provides information and advice on gender issues, including the effective implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 and related Resolutions. It also serves as the Secretariat for the NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (NCGP).

Among its responsibilities, IMS GENAD collects and disseminates information on the national policies relating to gender and the implementation of UNSCR 1325 and related Resolutions in NATO member and partner nations’ armed forces. Additionally, the Office facilitates dialogue with partner countries on relevant gender issues and liaises with international organisations and agencies concerned with the integration of a gender perspective into military operations.

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NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives

Role and responsibilities

The NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (NCGP) promotes gender mainstreaming as a strategy for making the concerns and experiences of both women and men an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies, programmes and military operations.

By advising NATO’s political and military leadership, as well as member nations, on gender-related issues and the implementation of UNSCR 1325 and related Resolutions, the NCGP contributes to operational effectiveness in line with Alliance objectives and priorities.

Other responsibilities of the NCGP include facilitating the exchange of information among NATO members on gender-related policies and gender mainstreaming, ensuring appropriate coordination on gender issues with the NATO Command Structure and NATO Headquarters, and collaborating with international organisations and agencies concerned with the integration of a gender perspective into military operations.

Working mechanism

The NCGP is governed by an Executive Committee and supported by IMS GENAD. The Executive Committee is comprised of the Chair, the Chair-Elect, three Deputy Chairs and the IMS Gender Advisor, and must have at least one member of each gender. Both the Executive Committee and the Military Committee (NATO’s senior military authority) can task the NCGP on specific gender-related issues.

Each NATO member and partner nation is entitled to designate one active duty officer of senior rank (or civilian equivalent) as a delegate to the NCGP. Delegates should be familiar with the latest national developments in gender approaches and tools for gender mainstreaming. They should also have knowledge of NATO and national policies relating to the implementation of UNSCR 1325 and related Resolutions.

Non-NATO nations may be invited to contribute to the activities of the NCGP.

Milestones

- In 1961, the first NATO Conference of Female Senior Officers of the Alliance took place in Copenhagen with delegates from Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway, the United Kingdom and the United States. The delegates completed the Copenhagen Conference by adopting a resolution agreeing to hold future conferences at regular intervals. Since then, NATO female senior officers have organised conferences on an ad-hoc basis to discuss the status, organisation, conditions of employment and career possibilities of women in the armed forces of the Alliance.

- In 1973, an ad hoc Committee on Women in the NATO Forces was formed during the NATO Conference of Female Senior Officers held in Brussels. The delegates adopted a resolution agreeing that women should have the opportunity to serve in all job specialities with the exception of combat where their employment should be determined by national policy.

- In 1976, the MC endorsed formal recognition of the Committee on Women in the NATO Forces (CWINF).

- In 1985, 57 representatives from 13 NATO countries attended the CWINF Conference. The delegates completed the revision of the TOR and modified a resolution on the employment of women in the NATO Forces.
- In 1998, the Office on Women in the NATO Forces (OWINF) was established within the International Military Staff (IMS).

- In 2000, the MC confirmed the permanent establishment of the OWINF within the IMS structure with two office positions, Chief and Admin Assistant.

- Since 2002 there has been active co-operation between the CWINF and the 27 “Partnership for Peace” (PfP) nations. In 2003, they were invited for the first time to the Annual Conference in Brussels.

- In 2009, the CWINF Executive Committee (EC) decided to revise MC 249/1 including the existing TORs of the Committee and the Office in order to expand the CWINF’s mandate to support the integration of a gender perspective into NATO’s operations, and to support the implementation of UNSCR 1325 - Women, Peace and Security as well as future related UNSCRs. Since then, the Committee and the Office were renamed the “NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives” (NCGP) and “NATO Office on Gender Perspectives” (NOGP).

- In 2014, a new version of the TORs (MC 0249/3) was issued and the NOGP’s title was changed to the International Military Staff Office of the Gender Advisor (IMS GENAD Office).

- 2016 marks the 40th anniversary of the NCGP and 55 years since the first conference of NATO female senior officers was held in Copenhagen, Denmark.

- 2018 marked the 20th Anniversary of the IMS GENAD Office which was highlighted at the 2018 NCGP Annual Conference.
The 1967 “Report of the Council on the Future Tasks of the Alliance”, also known as the Harmel Report, was a seminal document in NATO’s history. It reasserted NATO’s basic principles and effectively introduced the notion of deterrence and détente, setting the scene for NATO’s first steps toward a more cooperative approach to security issues that would emerge in 1991.

**Highlights**

- The 1967 “Report of the Council on the Future Tasks of the Alliance” was initiated by Belgian Foreign Minister Pierre Harmel at a time when the existence of the Alliance was put into question.
- Recognising the international environment had changed since 1949, the Report reaffirmed the aims and purpose of the Alliance and its twin functions – political and military – and set out a programme of work for the Organization.
- It also advocated the adoption of a dual-track policy for NATO: deterrence and détente, i.e., maintaining adequate defence while promoting political détente.
- Politically, the Report made a plea for balanced force reductions in the East and West, as well as a solution to the underlying political problems dividing Europe in general and Germany in particular; militarily, it spoke of examining “exposed areas”, citing in particular the Mediterranean.
- It is considered as a key political and strategic think piece, which communicated to the public the spirit of the classified strategic documents adopted in 1967.
- The Report had a lasting impact on the Alliance’s strategic thinking: building on the Report of the Three Wise Men (1956), it broadened NATO’s approach to security and anticipated the breakdown of the deadlock between East and West.
Aim and political context

Climate of change and fundamental questioning

With the publication of the “Report of the Committee of Three on Non-Military Cooperation” in 1956, efforts had been made to introduce a more cooperative approach to security issues in order to broaden the strategic framework within which the Alliance operated. The Report reinforced NATO’s political role at a time when the Organization was hardening its military and strategic stance, advocating massive retaliation as a key element of its new strategy. NATO continued to advocate massive retaliation for a decade before it adopted a strategy of flexible response in December 1967. Up to then, Kennedy’s assassination and the US plight in Vietnam had slowed down any new thinking on NATO strategy; the Berlin crises had been a reality check for NATO’s strategy of massive retaliation; and France’s withdrawal from NATO’s integrated military structure in 1966 was a shock to Alliance solidarity.

1966 and 1967 were therefore pivotal years for the Organization. The world was in flux and there were unjustified fears - but fears nonetheless - that three years on, NATO would no longer exist. Article 13 of the Washington Treaty stated:

“After the Treaty has been in force for twenty years, any Party may cease to be a Party one year after its notice of denunciation has been given to the Government of the United States of America, which will inform the Governments of the other Parties of the deposit of each notice of denunciation.”

The article only gave the possibility for member countries to renounce their membership of the Alliance, no more. Should a member take up this provision, it would not put into question the existence of the Alliance as such.

Harmel and time for adjustment

Recognising that the Organization needed to adjust to remain relevant and united, the Report’s namesake and Belgian Foreign Minister at the time, Pierre Harmel, made a proposal at the 16 December 1966 ministerial meeting for the Alliance “to undertake a broad analysis of international developments since the signing of the North Atlantic Treaty in 1949”. The purpose of this was “to determine the influence of such developments on the Alliance and to identify the tasks which lie before it, in order to strengthen the Alliance as a factor of durable peace.”

Work on the “Future Tasks of the Alliance” was undertaken in parallel with the drafting of a new strategy for the Organization, which was published in December 1967. MC 14/3 and its accompanying military document (MC 48/3) were so inherently flexible, in substance and interpretation, that they remained valid until the end of the Cold War. The Harmel Report reflected this philosophy and was to be considered as a key political and strategic think piece. It effectively communicated to the public (it was not a classified document) the spirit of the classified strategic documents (MC 14/3 and MC 48/3).

Methodology

The top political authority of the Organization – the North Atlantic Council (NAC) - tasked Harmel, as a member of a group of special representatives, to undertake the drafting of the Report. It evolved in two principal phases: first with the setting up of Special Groups in February 1967 and second, with the political stage when the findings of each group were compared.

The first stage – the formation of special groups

A Special Group of Representatives was set up under the chairmanship of the Secretary General Manlio Brosio on 22 February 1967. The Special Group then established broad sub-groups, each one chaired by a rapporteur named by member governments:

- East-West relations, chaired by J.H.A. Watson from the British Foreign Ministry and Karl Schutz from the West German Foreign Ministry;
- interallied relations, chaired by former NATO Secretary General Paul-Henri Spaak;
- general defence policy, chaired by US Deputy Under Secretary of State Foy D. Kohler; and
relations with other countries, chaired by C.L. Patijn, a professor of international relations at the University of Utrecht, Netherlands.

These groups began work in April 1967.

The second stage – consultations and negotiations

The second and political stage of the process took place in October 1967. The rapporteurs met for the last time on 11 October at Ditchley Park in the United Kingdom. Here, each sub-group’s findings were compared.

The Secretary General, Manlio Brosio, consulted members directly, often to mediate on standoffs for instance between the United States, which was unwilling to be forced into something by France; and the United Kingdom, along with other members, who wanted a report more acceptable to the French authorities.

The methods used by the groups’ rapporteurs varied, sometimes causing complaints among some member countries that the groups’ methods were chaotic. Two of the four rapporteurs were criticised for their “highly personal manner”, while others such as Paul-Henri Spaak, were criticised for addressing issues in a more theoretical, than realistic way. Additionally, there were inevitable disagreements over substance, considering that 15 member countries had to discuss such a broad range of issues. For instance, on the key issue of East-West relations, views differed, with the United Kingdom’s more optimistic outlook on détente being confronted with the scepticism of the Federal Republic of Germany. Eventually, the conclusion was that NATO and a policy of détente were not contradictory and that US presence in Europe was important to peaceful order.

The four reports formed the basis of the summary report – known as the Harmel Report – drafted by the International Staff early December 1967. It was presented to foreign ministers and further debated. Following amendments, the final report was approved by ministers on 14 December 1967 and issued as an annex to the final communiqué.

The Report’s findings and programme of work

The Harmel Report is a very short document, consisting of 17 paragraphs. It highlights two main tasks for the Alliance and several other key issues.

Two main tasks for the Alliance
- “to maintain adequate military strength and political solidarity to deter aggression and other forms of pressure and to defend the territory of member countries if aggression should occur”;
- “to pursue the search for progress towards a more stable relationship in which the underlying political issues can be solved.”

And the text continues:

“Military security and a policy of détente are not contradictory. Collective defence is a stabilising factor in world politics. It is the necessary condition for effective policies directed towards a greater relaxation of tensions. The way to peace and stability in Europe rests in particular on the use of the Alliance constructively in the interest of détente. The participation of the USSR and the USA will be necessary to achieve a settlement of the political problems in Europe.”

Key concerns

- Adaptability: The Alliance is capable of adapting itself to changing circumstances within the terms of the Treaty and continuing to help maintain peace within a very different international security environment to that of 1949;
- Stability: Alliance members share ideals and interests. NATO’s cohesion generates stability in the Atlantic area;
- Détente: Allies are not obliged to submit their policies to collective decision, but consultations should be improved with a view to seeking common ground in pursuing the divisive issue of détente with the Soviet Union and the countries of Eastern Europe;
German reunification: détente or the “relaxation of tensions” was not the ultimate goal, but Allies were aware that if they wanted to reach a “lasting peaceful order”, the German question had to be resolved;

Disarmament: arms control or balanced force reductions play an important role in working toward an effective détente with the East;

Exposed areas: these have to be examined, in particular the Southeastern flank and the Mediterranean.

Conclusion

The Report concluded that the Alliance had a very important role to play in promoting détente and strengthening peace. As such, it advocated the adoption of a dual-track approach to defence where “Military security and a policy of détente are not contradictory but complementary”, or as US Deputy Under Secretary of State Kohler described it in his sub-group’s report, it advocated a two-pillar security strategy.

The entire process of self-examination not only served to reassert Alliance unity and cohesion but it clearly laid out its concerns and principal objectives. Additionally, the inclusion of language on defence in the final report provided an opportunity to gain support for the Alliance’s new military strategy published the same year.
High-Level Task Force on Conventional Arms Control

The High-Level Task Force on Conventional Arms Control (HLTF) is the consultative and advisory body that brings together government experts to channel advice on conventional arms control issues to ministers of foreign affairs and defence.

Effectively, it is the forum within which Alliance arms control policy is determined, while the coordination of Alliance efforts regarding implementation and verification of arms control agreements fall under the purview of the Verification Coordination Committee.

All member countries are represented and send senior officials from capitals to meetings of the Task Force.

It was created in 1986 and is chaired by the Deputy Secretary General. The acting chairman is the Assistant Secretary General for Political Affairs and Security Policy (PASP) of NATO’s International Staff.

The HLTF is supported by a group of HLTF Deputies from NATO delegations in Brussels. The work of the HLTF is supported by the Arms Control and Coordination Section in PASP.
An improvised explosive device (IED) is a type of unconventional explosive weapon that can take any form and be activated in a variety of ways. They target soldiers and civilians alike. In today’s conflicts, IEDs play an increasingly important role and will continue to be part of the operating environment for future NATO military operations. NATO must remain prepared to counter IEDs in any land or maritime operation involving asymmetrical threats, in which force protection will remain a paramount priority.

**Highlights**

- An IED is a type of unconventional explosive weapon that can take any form and be activated in a variety of ways. It kills soldiers and civilians alike.
- NATO developed an action plan to detect and neutralise IEDs, to identify and disrupt the networks supporting this threat and to prepare and protect forces.
- Current projects cover issues from detection capabilities to neutralisation, to minimising effect through protection of soldiers, platforms and installation devices.
Counter-Improvised Explosive Devices (C-IED) Action Plan

In 2010, NATO developed a C-IED Action Plan with three main focus areas: defeating the device (DtD) itself, attacking the network (AtN) and preparing the forces (PtF). With DtD, various branches within NATO look at how to detect and neutralise IEDs, exploit the IEDs as a source of information, prepare and train soldiers for an IED environment, develop technology to prevent IED attacks and protect soldiers and civilians.

Neutralisation of IED may be the most visible part of the C-IED effort but in order for it to be truly effective, it must be preceded by efforts to identify and disrupt the networks emplacing, building and procuring IEDs. The Alliance focuses on reducing the frequency and severity of IED attacks, while also attacking the networks (AtN) that facilitate them. Understanding the various threat networks at the tactical to strategic levels is vital to success in current and future operations where battle lines are no longer linear.

The C-IED Action Plan guides the Alliance's efforts to reduce the effects of IEDs and acts as an umbrella for the coordination of the various actors involved in C-IED. It covers all levels of C-IED, from the strategic to the tactical.

It is built around several different areas, including information-sharing, closer cooperation with other international organisations and law enforcement agencies. It also includes specialised training for troops deployed to areas where IEDs are widely used and improving equipment used to detect IEDs and protect troops.

A revised version of the Action Plan was approved by NATO in October 2013. The new Action Plan emphasises the need to institutionalise C-IED in the NATO Command and Force structures and to support nations' efforts in doing the same. It also recognises the need to improve understanding and intelligence to support the main effort of the AtN pillar of C-IED capability in support of NATO operations. In this context, the use of biometric information is seen as a key element in countering threat anonymity.

ACT has the overall responsibility for monitoring the implementation of different aspects of the Action Plan and leverages the NATO C-IED Steering Group to coordinate and synchronise efforts across NATO Headquarters, Strategic Commands and other NATO bodies.

Equipment and technology

IEDs can be hidden anywhere: on animals, planted in roads or strapped to a person. They can be detonated via cell phones or trip wires, among other methods. They can be deployed everywhere: in a combat environment or in the middle of a busy city. The adaptability of IEDs to almost any situation makes them difficult to detect and stop, which is why NATO members and partners are using several methods to increase counter IED capabilities.

In line with the NATO Secretary General's goal of promoting multinational cooperation in defence spending, the Conference of National Armaments Directors (CNAD) has identified 19 initiatives for multinational armaments cooperation in the fight against IEDs. These initiatives, such as joint acquisition of equipment, joint testing of new technology, technological research cooperation and development of common equipment standards, have been grouped into a C-IED Materiel Roadmap.

The expert communities within NATO’s Air Force, Army and Naval Armaments Groups have a multitude of studies covering diverse issues from detection capabilities to neutralisation, to minimising effect through protection of soldiers, platforms and installation devices. These studies prompt information-sharing among Allies and partners, standards for effective C-IED in a coordinated and interoperable manner throughout operations, and many cooperative activities including Smart Defence initiatives. These efforts are closely supported by the NATO Industrial Advisory Group (NIAG) studies as well as work ongoing under the Science and Technology Organization (S&TO).
The CNAD has also developed a Voluntary National Contribution Fund (VNCF) to support multinational projects in the C-IED Action Plan, such as pre-deployment training of Weapon Intelligence Teams. NATO members also have access to a Clearing House database, established to facilitate information-sharing on current and future C-IED equipment programmes and to help identify possible areas of cooperation.

Additionally, NATO has several capability development projects within the Defence Against Terrorism Programme of Work (DAT POW) that focus on developing sensors and information technology to detect IEDs. The DAT POW, a programme designed to identify and deliver short-term capability solutions, specifically includes a C-IED initiative. Among various actors supporting this initiative, the NATO Communications and Information Agency (NCI Agency) is taking the lead in testing various stand-off detection technologies. The C-IED Centre of Excellence in Spain is concentrating on collecting and sharing lessons learned, as well as researching explosively formed projectiles—this kind of IED allows insurgents to hit and destroy both light and heavy armoured vehicles at low cost and with poorly designed penetrators.

For its part, the EOD Centre of Excellence in Slovakia is focusing on activities, technologies and procedures for IED “Render-Safe” operations in line with the explosive ordnance disposal (EOD) initiative.

Additional DAT POW C-IED projects focus on route clearance, building a NATO C-IED information-management tool or conducting table-top and live exercises to train troops in a high-threat IED environment. One such exercise is Northern Challenge, led by the Icelandic Coast Guard. The aim of the exercise is to provide a unique training opportunity for IED teams serving in, or being deployed to, international missions.

NATO, in cooperation with NCI Agency, helps to coordinate and execute the joint acquisition of C-IED capabilities through a common-funded system or nationally provided funds. NCI Agency analyses emerging technology in an operational environment and conducts research and experimentation in response to the Alliance’s urgent requirements.

Information-sharing and intelligence

NATO’s initial C-IED efforts were on detecting and neutralising IEDs. They focused on protecting troops against the device by adapting equipment and personal protection, which also led to changes in pre-mission training to include IED disposal. However, C-IED work is not just about detection and neutralisation, but also about addressing the networks behind the IEDs. In line with this, NATO utilises both military and civilian means in the fight against IEDs.

Information-sharing between international and national law enforcement agencies, as well as border and customs agencies, is instrumental in mapping adversary networks. NATO also trains its troops on how to interact with civilians during deployment. The information provided by civilians who know the area can be instrumental in preventing IED attacks.

Education and training

NATO forces undergo pre-deployment training to prepare them for operations in an IED environment. They also receive further instruction in-theatre to update their training and deal with regional challenges. NATO, with Allied Command Transformation (ACT) in the lead, also focuses on decreasing the gaps between countries in training, standardization and doctrine development regarding C-IED.

One of the most important aspects of C-IED training is being able to stop networks before emplacement of IEDs, recognise IEDs and safely disable them before they injure or kill troops and civilians. In line with this, several C-IED training programmes are offered by the C-IED Center of Excellence, including a Staff Officer Awareness Course, an Attack the Network Tactical Awareness Course, a Weapons Intelligence Team Course and a C-IED Train the Trainer Course.

Several Centres of Excellence (COEs) also offer specialised courses and training useful for an IED environment. The C-IED COE in Madrid, Spain offers multinational courses for C-IED experts to help countries counter, reduce and eliminate threats from IEDs. The Centre can also provide a wide range of
subject-matter experts to train and educate national and international forces to conduct C-IED operations. The C-IED COE, in cooperation with the private sector, also focuses on AtN.

The Explosive Ordnance Disposal (EOD) COE in Trenčín, Slovakia concentrates on DtD. Centre It improves the capabilities of EOD specialists called upon to neutralise IEDs by providing training and expertise in the field of explosive ordnance detection, neutralisation and disposal. In addition to training, the EOD COE also focuses on standardization and doctrine development and developing capabilities for EOD and IED technology improvements.

Due to their related fields of specialisations, the EOD COE and the C-IED COE cooperate closely. The COEs also have close links with others that specialise in areas that add to the field of countering IEDs, including the Military Engineering (MILENG) COE in Ingolstadt, Germany, the Defence Against Terrorism (DAT) COE in Ankara, Turkey, the Military Medical (MILMED) COE in Budapest, Hungary, and the Human Intelligence (HUMINT) COE in Oradea, Romania.
Individual Partnership Action Plans

Individual Partnership Action Plans (IPAPs) are open to countries that have the political will and ability to deepen their relationship with NATO. They are designed to bring together all the various cooperation mechanisms through which a partner country interacts with the Alliance, sharpening the focus of activities to better support their domestic reform efforts.

An IPAP should clearly set out the cooperation objectives and priorities of the individual partner country, and ensure that the various mechanisms in use correspond directly to these priorities. It is a partnership tool that allows NATO to provide focused country-specific advice on defence and security-related domestic reform and, when appropriate, on larger policy and institutional reform. Partners can also support or contribute to another partner’s IPAP.

Intensified political dialogue on relevant issues may be an integral part of an IPAP process.

Furthermore, IPAPs also make it easier to coordinate bilateral assistance provided by individual Allies and partner countries, as well as coordinate efforts with other relevant international institutions.

Objectives covered fall into the general categories of political and security issues; defence, security and military issues; public information; science and environment; civil emergency planning; and administrative, protective security and resource issues.

IPAPs were launched at the Prague Summit in November 2002. On 29 October 2004, Georgia became the first country to agree an IPAP with NATO. Azerbaijan agreed its first IPAP on 27 May 2005 and Armenia on 16 December 2005. On 31 January 2006, Kazakhstan also agreed an IPAP with NATO. Moldova on 19 May 2006 and two Balkan countries in 2008: Montenegro in June and Bosnia and Herzegovina in September.
Partners periodically review their IPAPs with NATO. However, Georgia and Montenegro later moved from this mechanism as they pursued their membership aspirations through development of Annual National Programmes. (Montenegro eventually became a member of NATO in June 2017.)
Information on defence expenditures

NATO publishes an annual compendium of financial, personnel and economic data for all member countries. Since 1963, this report has formed a consistent basis of comparison of the defence effort of Alliance members based on a common definition of defence expenditure. Through the links below, you can find data covering the years from 1949 to the present.

Working mechanism

The figures represent payments actually made or to be made during the course of the fiscal year. They are based on the NATO definition of defence expenditure. In view of the differences between this and national definitions, the figures shown may diverge considerably from those which are quoted by national authorities or given in national budgets.

Evolution

Each year, updated tables with nations’ defence expenditures are published on the NATO website in PDF and Excel format. The latest version of the compendium provides tables covering key indicators on the financial and economic aspects of NATO defence, including:

- Total defence expenditures
- Defence expenditure and GDP growth rates
- Defence expenditures as a percentage of GDP
- Defence expenditures and GDP per capita
- Defence expenditures by category
- Armed forces personnel strength

Archive of tables

|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------------|----------|------|
NATO Integrated Air and Missle Defence

NATO Integrated Air and Missile Defence (NATO IAMD) is an essential, continuous mission in peacetime, crisis and conflict, safeguarding and protecting Alliance territory, populations and forces against air and missile threat and attack. It contributes to deterrence and to indivisible security and freedom of action of the Alliance.

Highlights

- NATO IAMD is the defensive part of the Alliance’s Joint Air Power, which aims to ensure the stability and security of NATO airspace by coordinating, controlling and exploiting the air domain.
- It incorporates all measures to deter and defend against any air and missile threat or to nullify or reduce the effectiveness of hostile air action.
- NATO IAMD can address threats from the air, on land or at sea, which may include chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear, as well as electromagnetic and cyber threats.
- NATO IAMD provides a highly responsive, robust, time-critical and persistent capability in order to achieve a desired level of control of the air, wherein the Alliance is able to conduct the full range of its missions.
- NATO IAMD is implemented through the NATO Integrated Air and Missile Defence System (NATINAMDS), a network of interconnected national and NATO systems comprised of sensors, command and control facilities and weapons systems.
- NATINAMDS comes under the authority of NATO’s Supreme Allied Commander Europe.
Missions

Currently, there are two peacetime missions within the framework of NATO IAMD: NATO Air Policing and NATO Ballistic Missile Defence (BMD).

NATO Air Policing preserves the security of Alliance airspace. It is a collective task and involves the continuous presence – 24 hours a day, 365 days a year – of fighter interceptor aircraft, which are ready to react quickly to airspace violations and infringements.

NATO’s BMD defends populations, territory and forces in NATO Europe against the increasing threat posed by the proliferation of ballistic missiles from outside the Euro-Atlantic area. It represents a long-term investment against a long-term threat, and is purely defensive.

In times of crisis, NATO IAMD contributes to dissuading aggression and demonstrating Alliance resolve and readiness to counter hostile actions. NATO IAMD is an integral part of NATO’s crisis response system.

A NATO IAMD mission in crisis and conflict depends on the specific nature of the threat. However, it can be subdivided into five specific subordinate missions:

- Air Defence;
- Ballistic Missile Defence;
- Theatre Ballistic Missile Defence;
- Cruise Missile Defence;
- Counter Rockets, Mortar and Artillery;
- Counter Unmanned Aircraft Systems.

A multi-layered NATO IAMD is delivered through a mix of airborne and surface-based capabilities providing multiple engagement opportunities against any form of air or missile threat.

Integration is an essential requirement for IAMD, as it provides coordination and synchronisation of all available air and missile defence capabilities. A key pre-requisite for integration is interoperability (procedural, technical and human interoperability).

Mechanisms

The Air and Missile Defence Committee (AMDC) is the senior policy committee responsible for all elements of NATO’s Integrated Air and Missile Defence, and relevant air power aspects. It reports to the North Atlantic Council, the Alliance’s principal political decision-making body.

The Military Committee Working Group for Air and Missile Defence is responsible for reviewing, advising and making recommendations on military aspects of air and missile defence issues to NATO’s Military Committee, the senior military authority in NATO.

Other groups dealing with air and missile defence-related issues include NATO’s Defence Policy and Planning Committee (Reinforced) for Missile Defence and the Conference of National Armaments Directors, NATO’s senior committee responsible for promoting cooperation between countries in the armaments field.

AMDC and cooperation with partners

Since 1994, the AMDC has maintained a dialogue with NATO partner countries to promote mutual understanding, transparency and confidence in air and missile defence matters of common interest.

This programme of cooperation includes meetings of air and missile defence experts, seminars and workshops, visits to air-related facilities and installations, and a programme for the exchange of air situation data.
Evolution

Historically, NATO IAMD is an evolution of the concept of NATO Integrated Air Defence. The original concept was implemented in 1961 through the use of the NATO Integrated Air Defence System (NATINADS) under the command and control of Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR).

During the Cold War, NATINADS was a largely static system arrayed in belts against a uni-directional and well-defined threat of manned aircraft.

Over a period of more than 50 years, NATINADS has evolved into the NATO Integrated Air and Missile Defence System (NATINAMDS), which meets the challenges of today’s less predictable environment and which can deploy and address the full range of air and missile threats. It is responsive, cohesive and remains a cornerstone of Alliance solidarity and cohesion.
Inteqal: Transition to Afghan lead

Inteqal – the Dari and Pashtu word for transition – is the process by which the lead responsibility for security in Afghanistan was gradually transitioned from the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) to the Afghan National Security Forces (ANSF). Launched in 2011, the transition process was completed by the end of 2014, when ISAF completed its mission. This target was set at the 2010 NATO Summit in Lisbon and confirmed by Allied leaders at the Chicago Summit in May 2012. Following the end of ISAF’s mission, support for the further development of the ANSF is continuing under a new, smaller non-combat NATO-led mission (“Resolute Support”).

Transition Tranches

Transition Tranche 1

On 22 March 2011, President Karzai announced the first set of Afghan provinces and districts to start transition. This decision was based upon operational, political and economic considerations, drawing on the assessment and recommendations of the Afghan government and NATO/ISAF through the Joint Afghan-NATO Inteqal Board (JANIB).
Transition Tranche 2
On 27 November 2011, following the decision-making process above, President Karzai announced the second set of Afghan provinces, districts and cities for transition implementation.

Transition Tranche 3
On 13 May 2012, President Karzai announced the third set of areas to enter the transition process, covering over 75 per cent of the Afghan population. This decision marked the beginning of transition in every one of the 34 provinces of Afghanistan, including every provincial capital, covering almost two-thirds of the country’s districts.

Transition Tranche 4
On 31 December 2012, President Karzai announced the fourth group of Afghan provinces, cities and districts to enter the transition process. With this decision, 23 provinces out of 34 have fully entered transition and 87 per cent of the population now lives in areas where ANSF is in the lead for security.

Transition Tranche 5
On 18 June 2013, President Karzai announced the launch of the fifth and final tranche of transition. Once this decision has been fully implemented, the 11 remaining provinces will fully enter into transition and Afghan forces will be in the lead for security across the whole country.
Transition Process explained

Transition draws on the JANIB’s recommendations, which are based on a thorough assessment of the security, governance and development situation on the ground.

The following elements are taken into consideration as part of the decision-making process:

- the capability of the Afghan National Security Forces (ANSF) to shoulder additional security tasks with less assistance from ISAF;
- the level of security allowing the population to pursue routine daily activities;
- the degree of development of local governance, so that security will not be undermined as ISAF assistance is reduced; and
- whether ISAF force level and posture are readjusted as ANSF capabilities increase and threat levels diminish.

For transition to be successful, the Afghan National Security Forces, under effective Afghan civilian control, need to assume their security responsibility on a sustainable and irreversible basis – albeit with some level of continued support from ISAF.

The transition implementation can take up to 18 months for each area, depending on conditions on the ground.

ISAF principles for transition

At the NATO Lisbon Summit in November 2010, ISAF Heads of State and Government agreed a list of principles which guide ISAF’s gradual shift from a combat to an increasingly supporting role.

These principles, which have since been fully incorporated in the transition implementation process, include:

- ensuring a better alignment of NATO/ISAF assistance with Afghan national priority programmes;
- working through increasingly capable Afghan institutions;
- adjusting ISAF’s troop profile and configuration with the view to meeting critical security, training and mentoring needs;
- further strengthening Afghan National Security Forces capacity; and
- supporting the evolution of the international civilian effort, including that of the ISAF Provincial Reconstruction Teams (PRTs), to enable greater Afghan capacity and leadership.

Evolution of Provincial Reconstruction Teams

In June 2011, Provincial Reconstruction Team (PRT) nations agreed a set of principles for the evolution and ultimate dissolution of their PRTs. PRTs have evolved, shifting their efforts from direct delivery to providing technical assistance and building the capacity of provincial and district governments to provide essential services to the Afghan people. By the time transition is completed, all PRTs will have handed over their functions to the Afghan government, traditional development actors, non-governmental organisations and the private sector, and will have phased out.

Key Dates

28 August 2008
Lead security responsibility for Kabul city transferred to Afghan forces.

19 November 2009
President Karzai, having won a second presidential term, expresses his ambition to see the Afghan National Security Forces take the lead security responsibility across Afghanistan by the end of 2014.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>20 July 2010</td>
<td>Kabul Conference; the Joint Afghan-NATO Inteqal Board (JANIB) is established as</td>
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<td>the mechanism to assess districts and provinces for transition.</td>
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<td>20 November 2010</td>
<td>NATO Lisbon Summit; the Inteqal process is agreed between the Afghan government</td>
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<td>and NATO.</td>
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<td>22 March 2011</td>
<td>Afghan New Year; President Karzai announces the first set of Afghan provinces and</td>
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<td>districts to start the transition process.</td>
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<td>17 July 2011</td>
<td>First transition ceremony takes place in Bamiyan Province.</td>
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<tr>
<td>27 November 2011</td>
<td>President Karzai announces the second set of Afghan provinces, districts and cities</td>
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<td>to start the transition process.</td>
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<td>13 May 2012</td>
<td>President Karzai announces the third tranche of transition.</td>
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<td>to start the transition process.</td>
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<tr>
<td>18 June 2013</td>
<td>Official ceremony during which President Karzai announces the fifth and final</td>
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<td>tranche of transition.</td>
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<tr>
<td>28 December 2014</td>
<td>A formal ceremony in Kabul marks the end of ISAF's mission, leaving full</td>
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<td>responsibility for security across the country with the 350,000-strong Afghan</td>
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International Board of Auditors for NATO (IBAN)

The International Board of Auditors for NATO (IBAN) is the independent, external audit body of NATO. Its main mandate is to provide the North Atlantic Council and the governments of NATO member countries with assurance that common funds have been properly used for the settlement of authorised expenditure.

IBAN Board Members (from left to right) Mr Amipal Manchanda (Canada), Dr Georgia Kontogeorga (Greece), Dr Hans Leijtens (Netherlands), Dr Daniela Morgante (Chairman, Italy), Mr Azmi Es (Turkey), Dr José María Cordero (Spain)

Guided by three core values - independence, integrity and professionalism - the IBAN strives to be the respected voice of accountability within NATO.

Tasks and responsibilities

The IBAN is responsible for auditing the expenditure incurred by NATO. The IBAN conducts several types of audits:

- Financial audits of NATO bodies result in an audit opinion on the presentation of the financial statements and on the compliance with budgetary authorisations and applicable regulations.
- Performance audits are carried out to evaluate the economy, efficiency and effectiveness of the activities and operations of NATO bodies.
- NATO Security Investment Programme (NSIP) audits cover the expenditure made by NATO bodies and member countries under the NISP. The audit results in the certification of the final amount charged to NATO.

Working mechanisms

The IBAN is composed of six Board Members, appointed by Council for a four-year, non-renewable term. Board Members are usually members of their respective national audit institution or government officials with audit experience. They have independent status and report only to the Council.

The Chairman of the Board is appointed by the Council for a two-year term. The Board is assisted by auditors and secretarial staff with NATO International Staff status.

The IBAN was established in 1953, just four years after the signing of NATO’s founding treaty and has since been restructured to adapt to the demands of the environment in which it functions.
International Military Staff

The International Military Staff (IMS) is the executive body of the Military Committee (MC), NATO’s senior military authority.

**Highlights**

- The IMS consists of a staff of approximately 500, composed solely of military and civilian personnel from NATO member countries, working from NATO Headquarters in Brussels.
- It provides strategic and military advice and staff support for the Military Committee, which advises the North Atlantic Council on military aspects of policy, operations and transformation within the Alliance.
- The IMS also ensures that NATO decisions and policies on military matters are implemented by the appropriate NATO military bodies.
- It is headed by a Director General and is comprised of five divisions.

**Role and responsibilities**

The IMS is the essential link between the political decision-making bodies of the Alliance and NATO’s Strategic Commanders (the Supreme Allied Commander Europe – SACEUR – and the Supreme Allied Commander Transformation – SACT) and their staffs. Its strength lies in exchanging information and views with the staffs of the Military Representatives, the civilian International Staff (IS), the Strategic Commanders, the multinational Working Groups and NATO Agencies, ensuring effective and efficient staff work.

The role of the IMS is to provide the best possible strategic military advice and staff support for the Military Committee (MC). It is responsible for preparing assessments, studies on NATO military issues identifying...
areas of strategic and operational interest, and proposing courses of action. Its work enables the Military Representatives of the Alliance’s 29 member countries to deal with issues rapidly and effectively, ensuring that the MC provides the North Atlantic Council (NAC) – NATO’s principal political decision-making body – with consensus-based advice on all military aspects of policy, operations and transformation within the Alliance.

Working mechanism

The IMS is headed by a Director General, at the level of a three star general or flag officer, assisted by 12 general/flag officers who head the divisions and administrative support offices within the IMS. It is able to move swiftly into a 24/7 crisis mode for a limited period of time without additional personnel.

Several key positions are located within or attached to the Office of the Director General of the IMS:

- Office of the Executive Coordinator (EXCO): EXCO manages staff activities and controls the flow of information and communication, both within the IMS as well as between the IMS and other parts of NATO Headquarters. EXCO is the Secretary to the Military Committee, directly answerable to the Chairman and also prepares MC visits and provides secretarial support to the MC;

- Office of the Public Affairs and Strategic Communications Advisor (PASCAD): PASCAD advises the Chairman and Deputy Chairman of the MC, and the Director General of the IMS on strategic communications and public affairs matters. The Advisor works closely with the office of the Chairman of the Military Committee, acting as military spokesperson for the Chairman, and as the main source of information for all MC matters and activities;

- Office of the Financial Controller (FC): the FC advises key officials on all IMS financial and fiscal matters;

- Office of the Legal Officer (LEGAD): LEGAD provides guidance on all legal issues to the Chairman and Deputy Chairman of the MC, the Director General of the IMS and all organizations under the authority of this office, and the MC.

- Office of the Gender Advisor (GENAD): GENAD provides advice and support to the IMS on gender issues. It is the permanent focal point for collecting, providing and sharing information regarding national programmes, policies and procedures on these issues, including the implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolutions on Women, Peace and Security (UNSCRs 1325 and 1820). It maintains close liaison with the NATO Secretary General’s Special Representative on Women, Peace and Security, the Strategic Commands, International Staff and international organisations concerned with the integration of a gender perspective into military operations, as well as with gender-related issues.

The IMS divisions

The IMS’ key role is to support the MC, and to do this it is organised into functional divisions responsible for the following:

The Operations and Plans (O&P) Division closely monitors NATO operations, manages all Advance Plans, follows exercises and training, and provides advice on all related ongoing and unfolding military operations. It also follows the implementation of decisions taken by the MC with regard to NATO operations. The Division’s core activities are: NATO and NATO-led current and unfolding military operations; advance plans and crisis management procedures / arrangements; NATO Education, Training, Exercises and Evaluation (ETEE) events and/or systems; NATO military responsibilities in the fields of Hybrid Warfare, Maritime Warfare, Air Defence, Ballistic Missile Defence, Air Traffic Management, Electronic Warfare, Information Operations as well as Meteorological and Oceanographic (METOC) services.

The Policy and Capabilities (P&C) Division has the military lead within the International Military Staff for all matters related to Alliance defence policy and analysis. P&C Division is responsible for transformation issues and strategic military policy of specific interest to the Military Committee (MC). This includes developing, staffing and representing the views of the MC on strategic military policy. This Division provides strategic military advice across three broad areas: Strategic Policy and Concepts; Nuclear
Deterrence Policy and Chemical, Biological, Radiological and Nuclear (CBRN) Defence Policy; and Defence Planning, Capability Development and Delivery including Armaments as well as Science and Technology aspects.

The **Cooperative Security (CS)** Division develops and implements military Cooperative Security policy and is responsible for the military contacts and coordination of NATO’s military cooperation with established partners and other non-partner countries interested in conducting military activities with the Alliance. In addition, the Division is also responsible for the coordination of NATO’s interactions with international and non-governmental organisations, such as the United Nations, the European Union, the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe, the African Union, the Gulf Cooperation Council, the International Committee of the Red Cross, and others.

The **Logistics and Resources (L&R)** Division develops and defines policies and principles, plans and concepts on all matters concerning logistics, medical, civil preparedness, military manpower and civilian personnel functions, NATO medals and NATO common-funded resources. In addition, the Division is the IMS’ focal point for the three resource pillars: NATO infrastructure investment, military budget and manpower. The L&R Division acts as a facilitator with nations in the Logistics, Medical and Resource Committees.

**Joint IS/IMS Bodies:**

The **Joint Intelligence and Security Division (JISD)** provides intelligence support to all NATO Headquarters (HQ) elements, NATO member states and NATO Commands. It also provides strategic warning and situational awareness to all NATO HQ elements. The Division’s core activities are: developing a NATO Intelligence framework, architecture and intelligence capabilities; providing customer-oriented policies and NATO Agreed Intelligence Assessments; advising on intelligence-sharing matters and conducting intelligence liaison activities.

The **NATO Headquarters C3 Staff (NHQC3S)** supports the development of policy standards and provides analysis and advice to NATO in the Consultation, Command and Control (C3) domain. This Division has an integrated staff (IS/IMS) and reports to both the Director General of the IMS and the Assistant Secretary General for Defence Investment while advising the NAC through the C3 Board and the MC on C3. The NHQC3S also works closely with the Assistant Secretary General for Emerging Security Challenges and the Cyber Defence Committee in support of the Alliance in all cyber defence matters and provides the MC advice on its military aspects. Additionally, the NHQC3S supports the C3 domain in the coordination and the planning of C3 capabilities.

The **NATO Situation Centre (SITCEN)** is designed to provide situational awareness and alerting to the NAC and the MC in fulfilling their respective functions during peace, in periods of tension and crisis and for high-level exercises. This is achieved through the receipt, exchange and dissemination of information from all available internal and external sources. SITCEN also acts as the link with similar facilities of member countries and the Strategic Commands, including the SHAPE Comprehensive Crisis and Operations Management Centre (CCOMC), as well as selected international organisations, as appropriate.

The **NATO Standardization Office (NSO)** is a single, integrated body, composed of military and civilian staff with the authority to initiate, coordinate, support and administer standardization activities conducted under the authority of the Committee for Standardization. The NSO is the Military Committee’s lead agent for the development, coordination and assessment of operational standardization.
International Staff

The primary role of the International Staff (IS) is to provide advice, guidance and administrative support to the national delegations at NATO Headquarters. The IS helps to implement decisions taken at different committee levels and, in doing so, supports the process of consensus building and decision-making within the Alliance.

Highlights

- Some 1,000 civilians work within NATO’s IS, which is composed solely of nationals from NATO member countries.
- The IS provides advice, guidance and administrative support to the national delegations at NATO Headquarters.
- It helps implement all decisions taken at any committee level.
- The IS is headed by the NATO Secretary General, who from an administrative point of view is also a member of the IS.
- Vacancies within the IS are announced on NATO’s website and are open to all member country citizens.
- Worldwide, some 6,000 civilians work for NATO in different agencies and strategic and regional commands.
Role and responsibilities

The International Staff (IS) is an advisory and administrative body that supports the North Atlantic Council (Council or NAC) – NATO’s top political decision-making body. It is responsible for the preparation and follow-up of action in all matters of the Council. For instance, the IS produces a wide range of documents from policy papers to background notes, reports and speeches on issues relevant to NATO’s political and military agenda. It supports and advises committees, and also prepares and follows up on their discussions and decisions, therefore facilitating the political consultation process. It liaises closely with NATO’s International Military Staff (IMS) located in the same building in Brussels. The IMS is the executive body of the Military Committee – NATO’s senior military authority.

Members of the IS owe their allegiance to the Organization throughout the period of their appointment. They are either recruited directly by the Organization or seconded by their governments, and each appointment is approved by the Secretary General.

Vacancies within the IS are announced on NATO’s website and are open to member country citizens.

The structure of the International Staff

The International Staff includes the Office of the Secretary General, eight divisions, each headed by an Assistant Secretary General, and a number of independent offices headed by directors.

Private Office

The Secretary General heads the IS and has a Private Office that includes a director and staff, the Deputy Secretary General, the NATO Secretary General’s Representative for Women, Peace and Security, the Policy Planning Unit and the Council Secretariat.

Divisions

The IS fulfils a number of roles filled by different divisions:

- Joint Intelligence and Security Division: benefiting from increased intelligence-sharing between member country services and the Alliance, this division produces strategic analytical reports related to terrorism and its links with other transnational threats. It is also responsible for coordinating, monitoring and implementing NATO’s security policy, for overall security within NATO and for the NATO Headquarters Security Service.

- Emerging Security Challenges Division: this division deals with a growing range of non-traditional risks and challenges. It focuses on terrorism, hybrid threats, cyber defence and energy security. It also conducts strategic analysis and runs NATO’s science programme.

- Political Affairs and Security Policy Division: this division provides political advice and policy guidance. It has the lead role in the political aspects of NATO’s core security tasks, including regional and security affairs, as well as relations with other international organisations and partner countries. It also deals with arms control issues, disarmament and the non-proliferation of weapons of mass destruction.

- Defence Policy and Planning Division: this division develops and implements the defence policy and planning dimension of NATO’s fundamental security tasks. This includes defence planning, the Alliance’s nuclear policy, enablement and resilience, and certain aspects of operational planning.

- Operations Division: Operations provides the operational capability required to meet NATO’s deterrence, defence and crisis management tasks. Responsibilities include NATO’s crisis management and peacekeeping activities, civil emergency planning and exercises, and defence institution and capacity-building.

- Defence Investment Division: this division is responsible for developing and investing in assets and capabilities aimed at enhancing the Alliance’s defence capacity, including armaments planning, air defence and security investment. It also oversaw the construction of the new NATO Headquarters and the move from one building to the other.
- Public Diplomacy Division: this division is responsible for engaging multiple audiences on the Alliance’s policies and activities worldwide. It does this through media operations, digital communication and people-to-people engagement, especially in member and partner countries. It division also works in close collaboration across NATO civilian and military bodies to support core tasks across the full spectrum of Alliance activities.

- Executive Management Division: this division manages staff and finances. It is tasked with ensuring that NATO’s IS works efficiently and also provides support to all elements operating at NATO Headquarters, including support and conference services, information management and NATO’s human and financial resources.

Independent Offices

Also within the IS are the Office of Legal Affairs, the Office of Financial Control and the NATO Office of Resources.

The NATO Office of Resources was created in 2007. Under the direction of the Director, it brings together all IS members working on NATO military common-funded issues, with the aim of reinforcing military common-funded resource management at NATO Headquarters.

Evolution of the International Staff

The IS was created in 1951 to support the NAC. It was made responsible for the preparation and follow-up of action in all matters of the NAC. The Agreement on the Status of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization defined its status, which National Representatives and International Staff negotiated and signed in September 1951.

Throughout the years, the IS has been reorganised many times. In November 2002 for instance, at the Prague Summit, NATO leaders approved a package of measures to enhance the Alliance’s ability to meet new security threats. This included a reorganisation of NATO’s IS and the implementation of modern management processes. The restructuring aimed to ensure a fairer redistribution of responsibilities among divisions, strengthen management of the staff and improve coordination on key issues and programmes.

In the 2010 Strategic Concept, NATO committed to “engage in a process of continual reform, to streamline structures, improve working methods and maximise efficiency”. As such, a review of the IS was launched as part of a larger package of reform – that of the military command structure, organisations and agencies, and NATO committees.

As required by the Strategic Concept, reform remains an ongoing process.
Interoperability: Connecting NATO Forces

An Alliance of 29 nations can only work effectively together in joint operations if provisions are in place to ensure smooth cooperation. NATO has been striving for the ability of NATO forces to work together since the Alliance was founded in 1949. Interoperability has become even more important since the Alliance began mounting out-of-area operations in the early 1990s.

NATO's interoperability policy defines the term as the ability for Allies to act together coherently, effectively and efficiently to achieve tactical, operational and strategic objectives. Specifically, it enables forces, units and/or systems to operate together and allows them to share common doctrine and procedures, each others' infrastructure and bases, and to be able to communicate. Interoperability reduces duplication, enables pooling of resources, and produces synergies among the 29 Allies, and whenever possible with partner countries.

Components

Interoperability does not necessarily require common military equipment. What is important is that the equipment can share common facilities, and is able to interact, connect and communicate, exchange data and services with other equipment.

Through its technical (including hardware, equipment, armaments and systems), procedural (including doctrines and procedures) and human (including terminology and training) dimensions, and complemented by information as a critical transversal element, interoperability supports the implementation of such recent NATO initiatives as Smart Defence and Connected Forces.
Mechanisms

Interoperable solutions can only be achieved through the effective employment of standardization, training, exercises, lessons learned, demonstrations, tests and trials.

By strengthening relationships with the defence and security industry and by using open standards to the maximum extent possible, NATO is pursuing interoperability as a force multiplier and a streamliner of national efforts.

Evolution

NATO militaries have achieved high level of interoperability through decades of joint planning, training and exercises. More recently, Alliance members have put their interoperability into practice and developed it further during joint operations and missions in the Balkans, the Mediterranean, Afghanistan, Libya and elsewhere. These operations have also enabled NATO’s partner countries to improve interoperability with the Alliance.
ISAF’s mission in Afghanistan (2001-2014) (Archived)

NATO took the lead of the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan on 11 August 2003. Mandated by the United Nations, ISAF’s primary objective was to enable the Afghan government to provide effective security across the country and develop new Afghan security forces to ensure Afghanistan would never again become a safe haven for terrorists. From 2011, responsibility for security was gradually transitioned to Afghan forces, which took the lead for security operations across the country by summer 2013. The transition process was completed and Afghan forces assumed full security responsibility at the end of 2014, when the ISAF mission was completed. A new, smaller non-combat mission (“Resolute Support”) was launched on 1 January 2015 to provide further training, advice and assistance to the Afghan security forces and institutions.

ISAF was one of the largest coalitions in history and is NATO’s most challenging mission to date. At its height, the force was more than 130,000 strong, with troops from 51 NATO and partner nations.

Originally deployed to provide security in and around the capital Kabul, ISAF’s presence was gradually expanded to cover the whole country by the second half of 2006. As ISAF expanded into the east and south, its troops became increasingly engaged in fighting a growing insurgency in 2007 and 2008, while trying to help Afghanistan rebuild. In 2009, a new counter-insurgency was launched and 40,000 extra troops were deployed.

In support of the Afghan government, ISAF assisted the Afghan National Security Forces (ANSF) in the conduct of security operations throughout the country, helping to reduce the capability of the insurgency.
An important priority for ISAF was to increase the capacity and capabilities of the Afghan forces. This became the main focus of the mission from 2011 onwards, as responsibility for security was progressively transitioned to Afghan lead and ISAF shifted from a combat-centric role to training, advising and assisting.

The multinational force also helped to create the space and lay the foundations for improvements in governance and socio-economic development for sustainable stability.

### Building capacity and transitioning to Afghan lead

ISAF provided support to the Afghan government and international community in security sector reform, including mentoring, training and operational support to the Afghan National Army (ANA) and the Afghan National Police (ANP). The aim was to build professional, independent and sustainable forces that were able to provide security to the Afghan people throughout the country. This work was carried out jointly by the NATO Training Mission-Afghanistan (NTM-A) and ISAF’s Joint Command (IJC), together with the European Union Police Mission in Afghanistan (EUPOL Afghanistan) and other important national actors. NTM-A focused on training initial recruits and building the institutional training capability of the ANSF, while the IJC was responsible for developing fielded ANSF units through advice and assistance.

As the ANSF grew stronger and more capable, a gradual transition to full Afghan security responsibility was launched in July 2011, with the aim of having the Afghan forces fully responsible for security across the country by end 2014, as agreed with the Afghan government at the NATO Summit in Lisbon in 2010 and reaffirmed at the NATO Summit in Chicago in 2012 and the NATO Summit in Wales in 2014.

As a result, ISAF’s role progressively changed from leading operations to enabling the Afghan security forces to conduct independent operations themselves. This meant that ISAF’s mission evolved from one focused primarily on combat to an enabling Security Force Assistance (SFA) role, centred on training, advising and assisting its Afghan partners to prepare them to fully assume their security responsibilities by the end of 2014.

As the ANSF progressed towards that goal, the ISAF forces gradually stepped back and started to redeploy to their home countries. This drawdown took place in a coordinated, measured and gradual way in line with the ANSF’s capacity to manage the security situation. An important milestone was reached on 18 June 2013, when the fifth and last tranche of transition areas was announced by the Afghan government – with that, the ANSF took the lead for security across the country, a critical step in the transition towards full Afghan security responsibility by end 2014.

### Support for reconstruction and development

ISAF also contributed to reconstruction and development in Afghanistan through multinational Provincial Reconstruction Teams (PRTs) – led by individual ISAF nations – securing areas in which reconstruction work was conducted by national and international actors. Where appropriate – in accordance with Afghan priorities and in close coordination and cooperation with the Afghan government and the United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan (UNAMA) – ISAF provided practical support for reconstruction and development efforts as well as support for humanitarian assistance efforts conducted by other actors.

PRTs also helped the Afghan authorities strengthen the institutions required to progressively establish good governance and the rule of law, as well as to promote human rights. The principal role of the PRTs in this respect was to build Afghan capacity, support the growth of governance structures and promote an environment in which governance can improve.

By the end of 2014, all PRTs had been phased out and their functions handed over to the Afghan government, traditional development actors, non-governmental organisations and the private sector.

### ISAF’s mandate

ISAF was first deployed in 2001 on the basis of a request for assistance by the Afghan authorities and a United Nations (UN) Security Council mandate, which authorised the establishment of the force to assist the Afghan government in the maintenance of security in Kabul and its surrounding areas – in particular to enable the Afghan authorities as well as UN personnel to operate in a secure environment.
At that time, the operation was limited to the Kabul area, and its command was assumed by ISAF nations on a rotational basis.

In August 2003, on the request of the UN and the Government of the Islamic Republic of Afghanistan, NATO took command of ISAF. Soon after, the UN mandated ISAF’s gradual expansion outside of Kabul.

While not technically a UN force, ISAF was a UN-mandated international force under Chapter VII of the UN Charter. Eighteen UN Security Council Resolutions (UNSCRs) related to ISAF, namely: 1386, 1413, 1444, 1510, 1563, 1623, 1707, 1776, 1817, 1833, 1890, 1917, 1943, 2011, 2069, 2096, 2120, and 2145. A detailed Military Technical Agreement agreed between the ISAF Commander and the Afghan Transitional Authority in January 2002 provided additional guidance for ISAF operations.

**Origins and expansion of ISAF**

ISAF was created in accordance with the Bonn Conference in December 2001. Afghan opposition leaders attending the conference began the process of reconstructing their country by setting up a new government structure, namely the Afghan Transitional Authority. The concept of a UN-mandated international force to assist the newly established Afghan Transitional Authority was also launched on this occasion to create a secure environment in and around Kabul and support the reconstruction of Afghanistan.

These agreements paved the way for the creation of a three-way partnership between the Afghan Transitional Authority, UNAMA and ISAF.

**NATO takes on ISAF command**

On 11 August 2003, NATO assumed leadership of the ISAF operation, bringing the six-month national rotations to an end. The Alliance became responsible for the command, coordination and planning of the force, including the provision of a force commander and headquarters on the ground in Afghanistan.

This new leadership overcame the problem of a continual search to find new nations to lead the mission and the difficulties of setting up a new headquarters every six months in a complex environment. A continuing NATO headquarters also enables small countries, less able to take over leadership responsibility, to play a strong role within a multinational headquarters.

**Expansion of ISAF’s presence in Afghanistan**

ISAF’s mandate was initially limited to providing security in and around Kabul. In October 2003, the UN extended ISAF’s mandate to cover the whole of Afghanistan (UNSCR 1510), paving the way for an expansion of the mission across the country.

- **Stage 1: to the north**

  In December 2003, the North Atlantic Council authorised the then Supreme Allied Commander Europe, General James Jones, to initiate the expansion of ISAF by taking over command of the German-led Provincial Reconstruction Team (PRT) in Kunduz. The other eight PRTs operating in Afghanistan in 2003 remained under the command of Operation Enduring Freedom, the continuing US-led military operation in Afghanistan.

  On 31 December 2003, the military component of the Kunduz PRT was placed under ISAF command as a pilot project and first step in the expansion of the mission.

  Six months later, on 28 June 2004, at the NATO Summit in Istanbul, Allied leaders announced plans to establish four other PRTs in the north of the country: in Mazar-e Sharif, Meymaneh, Feyzabad and Baghlan.

  This process was completed on 1 October 2004, marking the completion of the first phase of ISAF’s expansion. ISAF’s area of operations then covered some 3,600 square kilometres in the north and the mission was able to influence security in nine northern provinces of the country.
Stage 2: to the west

On 10 February 2005, NATO announced that ISAF would be further expanded, into the west of Afghanistan.

This process began on 31 May 2006, when ISAF took on command of two additional PRTs, in the provinces of Herat and Farah and of a Forward Support Base (a logistic base) in Herat.

At the beginning of September, two further ISAF-led PRTs in the west became operational, one in Chaghcharan, capital of Ghor Province, and one in Qala-e-Naw, capital of Badghis Province, completing ISAF’s expansion into the west.

The extended ISAF mission led a total of nine PRTs, in the north and the west, providing security assistance in 50 per cent of Afghanistan’s territory. The Alliance continued to make preparations to further expand ISAF, to the south of the country.

In September 2005, the Alliance also temporarily deployed 2,000 additional troops to Afghanistan to support the 18 September provincial and parliamentary elections.

Stage 3: to the south

On 8 December 2005, NATO Foreign Ministers endorsed a plan that paved the way for an expanded ISAF role and presence in Afghanistan. The first element of this plan was the expansion of ISAF to the south in 2006, also known as Stage 3.

This was implemented on 31 July 2006, when ISAF assumed command of the southern region of Afghanistan from the US-led coalition forces, expanding its area of operations to cover an additional six provinces – Daykundi, Helmand, Kandahar, Nimruz, Uruzgan and Zabul – and taking on command of four additional PRTs.

The expanded ISAF led a total of 13 PRTs in the north, west and south, covering some three-quarters of Afghanistan’s territory.

The number of ISAF forces in the country also increased significantly, from about 10,000 prior to the expansion to about 20,000 after.

Stage 4: ISAF expands to the east, takes responsibility for entire country

On 5 October 2006, ISAF implemented the final stage of its expansion, by taking on command of the international military forces in eastern Afghanistan from the US-led coalition.

In addition to expanding the Alliance’s area of operations, the revised operational plan also paved the way for a greater ISAF role in the country. This included the deployment of ISAF training and mentoring teams to Afghan National Army units at various levels of command.
Istanbul Cooperation Initiative (ICI)

Reaching out to the broader Middle East

NATO’s Istanbul Cooperation Initiative, launched at the Alliance’s Summit in the Turkish city in June 2004, aims to contribute to long-term global and regional security by offering countries of the broader Middle East region practical bilateral security cooperation with NATO.

ICI focuses on practical cooperation in areas where NATO can add value, notably in the security field. Six countries of the Gulf Cooperation Council were initially invited to participate. To date, four of these -- Bahrain, Qatar, Kuwait and the United Arab Emirates -- have joined. Saudia Arabia and Oman have also shown an interest in the Initiative.

Based on the principle of inclusiveness, the Initiative is, however, open to all interested countries of the broader Middle East region who subscribe to its aims and content, including the fight against terrorism and the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction.

Each interested country will be considered by the North Atlantic Council on a case-by-case basis and on its own merit. Participation of countries in the region in the Initiative as well as the pace and extent of their cooperation with NATO will depend in large measure on their individual response and level of interest.

What key principles is the Initiative based on?

The ICI is based on a number of important principles, including:

- Non discrimination: all ICI partners are offered the same basis for their cooperation with NATO.
- Self-differentiation: a tailored approach to the specific needs of each of our ICI partner countries. Particularly Individual Partnership Cooperation Programmes (IPCP), allow interested ICI countries and
NATO to frame their practical cooperation in a more prospective and focused way, enabling interested countries to outline the main short and long-term objectives of their cooperation with the Alliance, in accordance with NATO's objectives and policies for the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative.

- **Inclusiveness**: all ICI countries should see themselves as stakeholders of the same cooperative effort.
- **Two-way engagement**: the ICI is a “two-way” partnership, in which NATO seeks partners’ contribution for its success, through a regular consultation process; special emphasis is placed on practical cooperation.
- **Non imposition**: ICI partners are free to choose the pace and extent of their cooperation with the Alliance; NATO has no wish to impose anything upon them.
- **Complementarity and mutual reinforcement**: efforts of the ICI and other international institutions for the region are complementary and mutually reinforcing in nature.
- **Diversity**: the ICI respects and takes into account the specific regional, cultural and political contexts of the respective partners.

**What does this mean in practice?**

The Initiative offers a ‘menu’ of bilateral activities that countries can choose from, which comprises a range of cooperation areas, including:

1. tailored advice on defence transformation, defence budgeting, defence planning and civil-military relations;
2. military-to-military cooperation to contribute to interoperability through participation in selected military exercises and related education and training activities that could improve the ability of participating countries’ forces to operate with those of the Alliance; and through participation in selected NATO and PfP exercises and in NATO-led operation on a case-by-case basis;
3. cooperation in the fight against terrorism, including through intelligence-sharing;
4. cooperation in the Alliance’s work on the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and their means of delivery;
5. cooperation regarding border security in connection with terrorism, small arms and light weapons and the fight against illegal trafficking;
6. civil emergency planning, including participating in training courses and exercises on disaster assistance.

Individual and Partnership Cooperation Programme (IPCP) allow interested ICI countries and NATO to frame their practical cooperation in a more prospective and focused way, enabling interested countries to outline the main short and long-term objectives of their cooperation with the Alliance.

**How did the Initiative evolve?**

NATO recognizes that dealing with today’s complex new threats requires wide international cooperation and collective effort. That is why NATO has developed, and continues to develop, a network of partnerships in the security field.

The Initiative was preceded by a series of high level consultations conducted by the then Deputy Secretary General of NATO, Ambassador Minuto Rizzo, with six countries of the region in May, September and December 2004.

These were: Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates. During these consultations all of the countries expressed their interest in the Initiative.

ICI was launched at the Summit meeting of NATO Heads of State and Government in Istanbul, 28 June 2004. Following the Summit, from September to December 2004, the Deputy Secretary General of NATO paid a second round of visits to the six members of the Gulf Cooperation Council, to discuss the way ahead.
In the first three months of 2005, three countries: Bahrain, Kuwait and Qatar formally joined the ICI. In June 2005, the United Arab Emirates joined the Initiative.

The ICI has since developed both in the political and in the practical dimensions. While the political dialogue has evolved to include high-level meetings, the practical dimension was progressively enhanced through the opening of new partnership tools and activities as well as through the contribution of these countries to NATO-led operations. The multilateral dimension of the partnership also developed, with the first NAC+4 meeting held in November 2008, followed by two other such meetings in 2009 and 2010.

Since the Istanbul Summit in 2004, an annual Menu of Practical Activities focusing on agreed priority areas has been opened to ICI countries and has been gradually enhanced. Whereas in 2007, the offer of cooperation to ICI countries included 328 activities/events, the 2011 Menu of Practical Activities now contains about 500 activities.

The NATO Training Cooperation Initiative (NTCI), launched at the 2007 Riga Summit, aims at complementing existing cooperation activities developed in the ICI framework through the establishment of a “NATO Regional Cooperation Course” at the NATO Defence College (NDC) in Rome, which consists in a ten-week strategic level course also focusing on current security challenges in the Middle East. ICI partners, as well as Saudi Arabia, actively participate in these courses.

The importance of public diplomacy has been underlined by ICI nations. High visibility events gave way to informal discussions on security related issues of common interest. The ICI Ambassadorial Conferences in Kuwait (2006), Bahrain (2008) and the United Arab Emirates (2009), which were attended by the Secretary General, the Deputy Secretary General and the 28 NATO Permanent Representatives, as well as by high-ranking officials, policymakers and opinion leaders from ICI countries, focused on discussing and addressing the perception of NATO in the Gulf, as well as ways to develop NATO-ICI partnership in its two dimensions. The fourth ICI Ambassadorial Conference took place in Qatar in February 2011 and focused on deepening NATO-ICI partnership.

The new Strategic Concept, adopted at the Lisbon Summit in November 2010, identifies cooperative security as one of three core tasks for the Alliance. It refers specifically to the ICI, and states: “We attach great importance to peace and stability in the Gulf region, and we intend to strengthen our cooperation in the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative. We will aim to develop a deeper security partnership with our Gulf partners and remain ready to welcome new partners in the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative.”

With the approval of the new partnership policy at the meeting of NATO foreign ministers in Berlin in April 2011, all NATO partners will have access in principle to the same range and number of activities. This will dramatically expand the number of activities accessible to ICI countries.

ICI partners have also increasingly demonstrated their readiness to participate in NATO-led operations, acting as security providers. Today, several ICI partners actively contribute to the NATO ISAF operation in Afghanistan. Following the launch of Operation Unified Protector (OUP) in Libya, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates promptly provided air assets to the operation and were recognised as contributing nations, playing a key role in the success of the operation.

Which NATO bodies have a central role?

Following the launch of the ICI, NATO countries decided to establish the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative Group, composed of political counsellors from the 29 delegations of member countries to NATO, which was replaced in 2011 by the Political and Partnerships Committee, which responsible for all partnerships.

The Committee is in charge of defining the procedures for the development of a menu of practical activities with interested countries and ensuring its successful implementation. It also reports to the Council or to NATO’s Senior Political Committee and prepares the ground for the decisions to be adopted by the North Atlantic Council on ICI.

In addition, the Committee engages countries participating in the Initiative on a ‘29+1’ basis for the development of individual work plans and follows up on their implementation.
Joint Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance

Joint Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance (JISR) is vital for all military operations. It provides decision-makers and action-takers with a better situational awareness of what is happening on the ground, in the air or at sea. This means that Allies work together to collect, analyse and share information to maximum effect. This makes Joint ISR a unique example of cooperation and burden-sharing across the Alliance.

Highlights

- NATO is establishing a permanent JISR system providing information and intelligence to key decision-makers, helping them make well-informed, timely and accurate decisions.
- JISR brings together data and information gathered through projects such as NATO’s Alliance Ground Surveillance (AGS) system or NATO AWACS surveillance aircraft as well as a wide variety of national JISR assets from the space, air, land and maritime domains.
- Both surveillance and reconnaissance includes visual observation (from soldiers on the ground) and electronic observation (for example from satellites, unmanned aircraft systems, ground sensors and maritime vessels), which are then analysed, turning information into intelligence.
- The Initial Operational Capability (IOC) for JISR, declared in February 2016, represents a significant achievement, enabling better connectivity between NATO and Allies’ capabilities.
- IOC is only the first milestone for the JISR initiative. Further work is needed to sustain these achievements.
More background information

Components

Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance (ISR) provides the foundation for all military operations, and its principles have been used in warfare for centuries. The individual elements of ISR are:

- **Intelligence**: the final product derived from surveillance and reconnaissance, fused with other information;
- **Surveillance**: the persistent monitoring of a target; and
- **Reconnaissance**: information-gathering conducted to answer a specific military question.

Both surveillance and reconnaissance can include visual observation (for example soldiers on the ground covertly watching a target, unmanned aircraft systems (UAS) with cameras), as well as electronic observation.

The difference between surveillance and reconnaissance has to do with time and specificity; surveillance is a more prolonged and deliberate activity, while reconnaissance missions are generally rapid and targeted to retrieve specific information.

Once surveillance and reconnaissance information has been obtained, intelligence specialists can analyse it, fuse it with other information from other data sources and produce the intelligence which is then used to inform military and civilian decision-makers, particularly for the planning and conduct of operations.

While all countries have their own sources and methods for the production of intelligence, it is not always easy for them to share their intelligence with Allies. Sometimes this is due to security concerns, sometimes to internal procedural requirements, and sometimes to technological constraints.

The objective of NATO Joint ISR is to champion the concept of “need to share” over the concept of “need to know”. This does not mean that all Allies will automatically share everything, but rather that NATO can facilitate the procedures and technology to promote sharing while simultaneously providing information assurance (i.e., the protection of data and networks). This way, Allies can have a holistic picture of whatever crisis is occurring and NATO decision-makers can make well-informed, timely and accurate decisions.

Mechanism

The experience the Alliance gained from its operations in Afghanistan and Libya has resulted in collection assets (for example information gathering equipment such as surveillance aircraft) becoming far more accessible to military personnel, even at the lowest tactical levels. Assets that would have been used only for strategic purposes at the discretion of military generals years ago are now widely available and their use is decentralised. This shift occurred because NATO member countries procured significant numbers of maritime, land and airborne collection assets to help them locate adversaries, who often operate in complex environments and among civilian populations.

To enable information-gathering to take place, and to ensure that information is analysed and intelligence is produced for decision-makers, there are a number of primary actors involved, including:

- **Surveillance and reconnaissance collection assets**
  Their role is to collect information. Examples include Alliance Ground Surveillance (AGS), AWACS surveillance aircraft which use radar, observation satellites, electronic assets and special ground reconnaissance troops.

- **Intelligence analysts**
  Their role is to exploit and analyse information from multiple sources. Examples include national military and civilian analysts working at the strategic level in intelligence organisations, imagery analysts at all levels, and encryption experts.
Decision-makers
Their role is to use intelligence to inform their decision-making. Examples include political leaders and military commanders.

Evolution
Based on the experience NATO Allies gained in recent operations, the Alliance is looking to establish a permanent, effective ISR system. NATO aims to provide Allies with a mechanism which brings together data and information gathered through Smart Defence projects such as the AGS system or AWACS, as well as a wide variety of national ISR capabilities, including troops on the ground, maritime and air assets, space-based platforms such as satellites, and Special Operations Forces.

To provide a foundation for NATO’s Joint ISR ambition, the Alliance is currently developing a JISR project aimed at providing the following pillars:

- Training and education
  The personnel involved with the Joint ISR capability in NATO will possess expertise to guarantee the efficiency of the JISR enterprise. This area of the project examines ways to ensure that NATO personnel receive the highest standard of ISR training and education.

- Doctrine and procedures
  To improve interoperability, efficiency, coherence and effectiveness, Joint ISR doctrine and procedures will be continuously developed and reviewed, from strategic thinking to tactical procedures.

- Networking environment
  NATO communication and information systems (CIS) will guarantee efficient collaboration and sharing of ISR data, products and applications between the Allies. This is the core business of NATO’s Joint ISR effort.

NATO’s 2012 Chicago Summit established the objective to strengthen cooperation and ensure tighter connections between Allied forces. During the Summit, the Allied Heads of State and Government expressed the ambition to provide NATO with an enduring and permanently available JISR capability, giving the Alliance the eyes and ears it needs to achieve strategic decision advantage. At the 2014 Wales Summit, Allies reconfirmed that Joint ISR remained a high NATO priority.

At their meeting on 10 February 2016, defence ministers declared IOC for Joint, Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance. It represents a significant achievement, enabling better connectivity between NATO and Allies’ capabilities and enhancing situational awareness throughout the NATO Response Force (NRF).

IOC is only the first milestone for the JISR initiative. Further work is needed to sustain these achievements, and expand them beyond the scope of the NRF. An enduring JISR capability is now being developed in a phased approach; ongoing work will further improve on and build synergy in the management of Allies’ diverse inputs and capabilities for NATO’s 360 degree situational awareness.

Technical trials take place every two years in order to demonstrate and assess progress on the Alliance’s JISR capabilities in a real-world environment. Unified Vision 2018 (UV18), scheduled for June, will test ISR capabilities with a focus on challenges ranging from conventional threats to terrorism. The latest technology available will be utilised in order to merge intelligence feeds and exploit raw data into intelligence for decision-makers at sites distributed across NATO territories in both Europe and North America.
Kosovo Air Campaign (Archived)

NATO launched an air campaign, Operation Allied Force, in March 1999 to halt the humanitarian catastrophe that was then unfolding in Kosovo. The decision to intervene followed more than a year of fighting within the province and the failure of international efforts to resolve the conflict by diplomatic means.

Highlights

- The 1989 imposition of direct rule from Belgrade of a predominantly Albanian province led to tension and waves of violence between Serbs and Kosovar Albanians in the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia.
- President Milosovic’s policy of ethnic cleansing produced flows of refugees and internally displaced people.
- In 1999, once all diplomatic avenues had failed, NATO launched an air campaign to halt the humanitarian catastrophe unfolding in Kosovo.
- Operation Allied Force started on 24 March 1999 and was suspended on 10 June, lasting a total of 78 days.
- On 10 June 1999, the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia accepted the withdrawal of its military, police and paramilitary forces and the deployment of an effective international civil and security presence.
By the end of 1998 more than 300,000 Kosovars had already fled their homes, the various cease-fire agreements were systematically being flouted and negotiations were stalled.

Two rounds of internationally brokered talks in Rambouillet, France, in February and in Paris in March 1999 failed to break the deadlock and exhausted diplomatic avenues. At the time, autonomy for Kosovo within the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, guaranteed by the presence of a NATO-led force, could have been assured. Accepted by the Albanian delegation, the proposal was rejected by Belgrade.

NATO announced the suspension of the air campaign on 10 June, once it had concluded a Military Technical Agreement with the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. The same day, UNSCR 1244 welcomed the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia’s acceptance of the principles for a political solution, including an immediate end to violence and a rapid withdrawal of its military, police and paramilitary forces and the deployment of an effective international civil and security presence, with substantial NATO participation.

The political objectives of the air campaign

They were to bring about:
- a verifiable stop to all military action, violence and repression;
- the withdrawal from Kosovo of military personnel, police and paramilitary forces;
- the stationing in Kosovo of an international military presence;
- the unconditional and safe return of all refugees and displaced persons and unhindered access to them by humanitarian aid organizations;
- the establishment of a political agreement for Kosovo in conformity with international law and the Charter of the United Nations.

The campaign proper

Despite strains, the Alliance held together during 78 days of air strikes in which more than 38,000 sorties – 10,484 of them strike sorties – were flown without a single Allied fatality.

After first targeting the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia’s air defences, NATO gradually escalated the campaign using the most advanced, precision-guided systems and avoiding civilian casualties to the greatest extent possible.

Target selection was reviewed at multiple levels of command to ensure that it complied with international law, was militarily justified, and minimized the risk to civilian lives and property.

Having intervened in Kosovo to protect ethnic Albanians from ethnic cleansing, NATO has been equally committed to protecting the province’s ethnic Serbs from a similar fate since the deployment of KFOR in the province in June 1999.

The build-up to the campaign and its immediate aftermath

Simmering tension in Kosovo resulting from the 1989 imposition of direct rule from Belgrade of this predominantly Albanian province erupted in violence between Serbian military and police and Kosovar Albanians at the end of February 1998.

The international community intervenes

The international community became increasingly concerned about the escalating conflict, its humanitarian consequences and the risk of it spreading to other countries, as well as Yugoslav President Slobodan Milosevic’s disregard for diplomatic efforts aimed at peacefully resolving the crisis and the destabilizing role of Kosovar Albanian militants.

On 13 October 1998, the North Atlantic Council authorized activation orders for NATO air strikes, in support of diplomatic efforts to make the Milosevic regime withdraw forces from Kosovo, cooperate in
bringing an end to the violence and facilitate the return of refugees to their homes. Following further diplomatic initiatives, President Milosevic agreed to comply and the air strikes were called off.

**The Kosovo Verification Mission**

Further measures were taken in support of UN Security Council resolutions calling for an end to the conflict, including the establishment of a Kosovo Verification Mission by the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe and an aerial surveillance mission by NATO, as well as a NATO military task force to assist in the evacuation of members of the Verification Mission in the event of further conflict.

**The crisis intensifies**

The situation in Kosovo flared up again at the beginning of 1999, following a number of acts of provocation on both sides and the use of excessive force by the Serbian military and police. This included the massacre of 40 unarmed civilians in the village of Racak on 15 January.

Renewed international efforts to give new political impetus to finding a peaceful solution to the conflict resulted in the convening of negotiations between the parties to the conflict in London and Paris under international mediation. These negotiations failed, however, and in March 1999, Serbian military and police forces stepped up the intensity of their operations, moving extra troops and tanks into the region, in a clear breach of agreements reached.

Tens of thousands of people began to flee their homes in the face of this systematic offensive. A final unsuccessful attempt was made by US Ambassador Richard Holbrooke to persuade President Milosevic to reverse his policies. All diplomatic avenues having been exhausted, NATO launched an air campaign against the Milosevic regime on 24 March 1999.

**The aftermath of the air campaign**

Following diplomatic efforts by Russia and the European Union on 3 June, a Military Technical Agreement was concluded between NATO and the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia on 9 June. On the following day, after confirmation that the withdrawal of Yugoslav forces from Kosovo had begun, NATO announced the suspension of the air campaign.

On 10 June, UNSCR 1244 welcomed the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia’s acceptance of the principles for a political solution, including an immediate end to violence and a rapid withdrawal of its military, police and paramilitary forces and the deployment of an effective international civil and security presence, with substantial NATO participation.
NATO and Libya (Archived)

Following the Qadhafi regime’s targeting of civilians in February 2011, NATO answered the United Nations’ (UN) call to the international community to protect the Libyan people. In March 2011, a coalition of NATO Allies and partners began enforcing an arms embargo, maintaining a no-fly zone and protecting civilians and civilian populated areas from attack or the threat of attack in Libya under Operation Unified Protector (OUP). OUP successfully concluded on 31 October 2011.

Precursor to Operation Unified Protector

In February 2011, a peaceful protest in Benghazi in eastern Libya against the 42-year rule of Colonel Muammar Qadhafi met with violent repression, claiming the lives of dozens of protestors in a few days. As demonstrations spread beyond Benghazi, the number of victims grew. In response, the United Nations Security Council (UNSCR) adopted Resolution 1970 on 26 February 2011, which expressed “grave concern” over the situation in Libya and imposed an arms embargo on the country.

Following the adoption of Resolution 1970 and with growing international concern over the Libyan crisis, NATO stepped up its surveillance operations in the Mediterranean on 8 March 2011. The Alliance deployed Airborne Warning and Control Systems (AWACS) aircraft to the area to provide round-the-clock observation. These “eyes-in-the-sky” gave NATO detailed information about movements in Libyan airspace. Two days later the Alliance moved ships from current NATO assets, as well as ships made available by NATO nations for the mission, to the Mediterranean Sea to boost the monitoring effort.

After the situation in Libya further deteriorated, the UN Security Council adopted Resolution 1973 on 17 March 2011. The resolution condemned the “gross and systematic violation of human rights, including arbitrary detentions, enforced disappearances, torture and summary executions.” It also introduced active measures, including a no-fly zone, and authorized member states, acting as appropriate through regional organizations, to use “all necessary measures” to protect Libyan civilians and civilian populated areas.
With the adoption of UNSCR 1973, several UN member states took immediate military action to protect civilians under Operation Odyssey Dawn. This operation, which was not under the command and control of NATO, was conducted by a multinational coalition led by the United States.

### Operation Unified Protector

**Responding to the United Nations’ call**

On 22 March 2011, NATO responded to the UN's call to prevent the supply of “arms and related materials” to Libya by agreeing to launch an operation to enforce the arms embargo against the country. The next day, NATO ships operating in the Mediterranean began cutting off the flow of weapons and mercenaries to Libya by sea. NATO maritime assets stopped and searched any vessel they suspected of carrying arms, related materials or mercenaries to or from Libya.

In support of UNSCR 1973, NATO then agreed to enforce the UN-mandated no-fly zone over Libya on 24 March 2011. The resolution banned all flights into Libyan airspace to protect civilian-populated areas from air attacks, with the exception of flights used for humanitarian and aid purposes.

The Alliance took sole command and control of the international military effort for Libya on 31 March 2011. NATO air and sea assets began to take military actions to protect civilians and civilian populated areas. Throughout the crisis, the Alliance consulted closely with the UN, the League of Arab States and other international partners.

**Commitment to protecting the Libyan people**

The Alliance's decision to undertake military action was based on three clear principles: a sound legal basis, strong regional support and a demonstrable need. By the end of March 2011, OUP had three distinct components:

- Enforcing an arms embargo in the Mediterranean Sea to prevent the transfer of arms, related materials and mercenaries to Libya
- Enforcing a no-fly zone to prevent aircrafts from bombing civilian targets
- Conducting air and naval strikes against military forces involved in attacks or threatening to attack Libyan civilians and civilian populated areas

During a meeting in Berlin on 14 April 2011, foreign ministers from NATO Allies and non-NATO partners agreed to continue OUP until all attacks on civilians and civilian populated areas ended, the Qadhafi regime withdrew all military and para-military forces to bases, and the regime permitted immediate, full, safe and unhindered access to humanitarian aid for the Libyan people.

On 8 June 2011, NATO defence ministers met in Brussels and agreed to keep pressure on the Qadhafi regime for as long as it took to end the crisis, reaffirming the goals laid out by the foreign ministers. Following the liberation of Tripoli on 22 August by opposition forces, the Secretary General reaffirmed both NATO's commitment to protect the Libyan people and its desire that the Libyan people decide their future in freedom and in peace.

International heads of state and government further reiterated this commitment during a “Friends of Libya” meeting in Paris on 1 September.

On 16 September, the UN Security Council adopted Resolution 2009, which unanimously reasserted NATO’s mandate to protect civilians in Libya. The new resolution also established a United Nations Support Mission in Libya (UNSMIL).

**Ending the mission**

As NATO air strikes helped to gradually degrade the Qadhafi regime's ability to target civilians, NATO defence ministers met in Brussels on 6 October and discussed the prospects of ending OUP. Ministers confirmed their commitment to protect the people of Libya for as long as threats persisted, but to end the
mission as soon as conditions permitted. The NATO Secretary General also pledged to coordinate the termination of operations with the UN and the new Libyan authorities.

A day after opposition forces captured the last Qadhafi regime stronghold of Sirte and the death of Colonel Qadhafi on 20 October 2011, the North Atlantic Council took the preliminary decision to end OUP at the end of the month. During that transition period, NATO continued to monitor the situation and retained the capacity to respond to threats to civilians, if needed.

A week later, the North Atlantic Council confirmed the decision to end OUP. On 31 October 2011 at midnight Libyan time, a NATO AWACS concluded the last sortie; 222 days after the operation began. The next day, NATO maritime assets left Libyan waters for their home ports. Although NATO’s operational role regarding Libya is finished, the Alliance stands ready to assist Libya in areas where it could provide added value, such as in the area of defence and security sector reforms, if requested to do so by the new Libyan authorities.

Command structure of Operation Unified Protector

NATO’s North Atlantic Council (NAC) in Brussels, Belgium exercised overall political direction of OUP, while Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE) in Mons, Belgium, carried out NAC decisions with military implementations through Joint Force Command (JFC) Naples.

Lieutenant General Charles Bouchard was the overall operational commander of the Combined Joint Task Force Unified Protector. Under his leadership, NATO Maritime Command Naples directed naval operations in support of OUP. Although NATO’s Air Command Headquarters for Southern Europe, in Izmir, Turkey (AC Izmir) managed air operations, the air campaign itself was conducted from NATO’s Combined Air Operations Centre Poggio Renatico in Italy. For this reason, major elements of AC Izmir were moved during the course of the OUP.

Italian Vice Admiral Rinaldo Veri from NATO Maritime Command Naples led the maritime arms embargo, while Rear Admiral Filippo Maria Foffi served as the Task Force Commander at sea.

No troops under NATO command were on the ground in Libya at any point during OUP.

Evolution

February 2011 Peaceful protests in Benghazi meet with violent repression by the Qadhafi regime.

26 February 2011 The UN Security Council adopts Resolution 1970, which imposes an arms embargo on Libya.

8 March 2011 NATO deploys AWACS aircraft to the region.

10 March 2011 NATO moves ships to the Mediterranean Sea to boost the monitoring effort.

17 March 2011 The UN Security Council adopts Resolution 1973, which imposes a no-fly zone over Libya and authorizes member states “to take all necessary measures” to protect civilians and civilian-populated areas under attack or threat of attack.

19 March 2011 Several UN member states take immediate military action to protect Libyan civilians.

22 March 2011 NATO decides to enforce the UN-mandated arms embargo.

23 March 2011 NATO vessels in the Mediterranean begin cutting off the flow of weapons and mercenaries to Libya by sea.

24 March 2011 NATO takes the decision to enforce the UN-mandated no-fly zone over Libya in support of UNSCR 1973.

31 March 2011 NATO takes sole command of the international military effort regarding Libya. NATO air and sea assets begin taking military actions to protect civilians in Libya.

14 April 2011 NATO foreign ministers and partners agree to use all necessary resources to carry out the UN mandate.
8 June 2011  
NATO defence ministers and partners decide to continue Operation Unified Protector for as long as it takes to end the crisis in Libya.

22 August 2011  
The NATO Secretary General reaffirms NATO’s commitment to protect the Libyan people and its desire that the Libyan people decide their future in freedom and in peace.

1 September  
At a “Friends of Libya” meeting in Paris, international heads of state and government reiterate their commitment to protecting civilians in Libya.

16 September 2011  
The UN Security Council adopts Resolution 2009, which unanimously reaffirms NATO’s mandate to protect Libyan civilians.

6 October  
NATO defence ministers reaffirm their commitment to protect the people of Libya for as long as threats to civilians persist. They also decide to end the mission as soon as conditions permit.

21 October 2011  
The North Atlantic Council takes the preliminary decision to end operations at the end of the month.

28 October 2011  
The North Atlantic Council confirms the decision to end OUP at the end of the month.

31 October 2011  
At midnight Libyan time, a NATO AWACS concludes the last sortie over Libya. The next day, NATO maritime assets leave Libyan waters for their home ports.

Fact and figures

During the course of OUP, all Allies participated in the mission, either directly or indirectly, through NATO’s command structures and common funding. A number of partner nations supported the operation, including Sweden, Qatar, the United Arab Emirates, Jordan and Morocco.

In total, NATO and partner air assets had flown more than 26,000 sorties, an average of 120 sorties per day. Forty-two per cent of the sorties were strike sorties, which damaged or destroyed approximately 6,000 military targets. At its peak, OUP involved more than 8,000 servicemen and women, 21 NATO ships in the Mediterranean and more than 250 aircrafts of all types. By the end of the operation, NATO had conducted over 3,000 hailings at sea and almost 300 boardings for inspection, with 11 vessels denied transit to their next port of call.

In support of humanitarian assistance provided by the UN and nongovernmental organizations, among others, to proceed unhindered, NATO also de-conflicted nearly 4,000 air, sea and ground movements.
Logistics

While the term "logistics" can encompass several different meanings, in essence it has to do with having the right thing, at the right place, at the right time. NATO defines logistics as the science of planning and carrying out the movement and maintenance of forces. It is of vital importance for any military operation and, without it, operations could not be carried out and sustained. Logistics can be seen as the bridge between deployed forces and the industrial base, which produces the material and weapons deployed forces need to accomplish their mission.

**Highlights**

- The services and responsibilities of NATO logistics are subdivided into three domains: production logistics, in-service logistics, and consumer logistics.
- Multinational logistics is a component of collective logistics, which aims to achieve reduction in costs, harmonise life-cycle processes and increase efficiency in logistics support at all times.
- NATO logistics can also be understood through the core functions they fulfil which include but are not limited to: supply, maintenance, movement and transportation, petroleum support, infrastructure engineering, and medical support.
- One of the key logistics principles driving logistic support at NATO is that of collective responsibility which encourages nations and NATO to cooperatively share the provision and use of logistic capabilities and resources.
- The Logistics Committee is the principal committee that supports the North Atlantic Council and the Military Committee as the overarching coordinating authority across the whole spectrum of logistics functions within NATO.
- In the wake of the Russia-Ukraine conflict since 2014, the NATO Logistics Vision and Objectives (V&O) was revised in accordance with developments from the 2010 Strategic Concept, Political Guidance 2015, and the Readiness Action Plan.
More background information

Definitions

Based on NATO’s agreed definition of logistics – the science of planning and carrying out the movement and maintenance of forces – logistics covers the following areas:

- design and development, acquisition, storage, transport, distribution, maintenance, evacuation and disposal of materiel;
- transport of personnel;
- acquisition, construction, maintenance, operation and disposition of facilities;
- acquisition of provision of services;
- medical and health service support.

These services and responsibilities are subdivided into three domains:

- production logistics,
- in-service logistics,
- consumer logistics.

Production logistics

Production logistics, also known as acquisition logistics, largely belongs to the industrial domain. It is concerned with the planning, design, development and procurement of equipment and therefore includes: standardization and interoperability, contracting, quality assurance, acquiring spares, reliability and maintainability analysis, safety standards for equipment, specifications and production processes, trials and testing, codification, equipment documentation, and configuration control and modifications.

While the responsibility for equipping and maintaining military forces is primarily a national one, cooperation does take place within NATO in numerous spheres. This is done, principally, under the auspices of NATO’s Conference of National Armament Directors (CNAD) and its subordinate bodies.

In-service logistics

In-service logistics bridges the gap between production and consumer logistics. It comprises the functions associated with procuring, receiving, storing, distributing and disposing of materiel that is required to maintain military equipment and supply forces.

Beyond ensuring that weapons systems are available and fit for use, in-service support actually begins with the decision to bring the system into the inventory. For this, the NATO Support and Procurement Agency (NSPA) is the principal organisation responsible.

Consumer logistics

Consumer logistics, also known as operational logistics, is concerned with the supply and support functions of forces. It includes reception of the initial product, storage, transport, maintenance, operation and disposal of materiel. As a consequence, consumer logistics comprises stock control, provision or construction of facilities, movement and control, reliability and defect reporting, safety standards for storage, transport and handling, and related training.

These roles fall mainly under the responsibility of the Logistics Committee and the Petroleum Committee. Other bodies, such as the Committee of the Chiefs of Military Medical Services in NATO (COMEDS), advise the Military Committee on logistical matters in their specific areas of responsibility.

Modes of multinational logistic support

The logistic support options available to a joint force commander range from a totally integrated multinational logistic force to purely national support. In order to supplement purely national logistic
support, ease the individual national burden and achieve greater economy of scale, there are four types of multinational logistic support options that may be implemented:

- Pre-planned mutual support, which are mutual support agreements (MSAs) and cooperation between national support elements (NSEs) that are arranged bi- or multilaterally by NATO and/or nations.

- One nation formally undertaking the provision of support and services to all or part of the multinational force as the logistic lead nation (LLN) or the logistic role specialist nations (LRSN).

- One or more nations formally undertaking the service of all or part of the multinational force under the operational control of the joint force commander.

- One or more nations undertaking the service of all or part of the multinational force by forming a multinational logistic/medical unit (MLU/MMU).

The definitions listed above have been drawn directly from the Allied Joint Publication (AJP) – 4.9 series. Also in this series is an elaboration on the benefits, limitations and constraints of multinational logistic support.

## Core functions

Another way of understanding NATO’s responsibilities in the field of logistics is through the core functions they fulfil. NATO is responsible for a number of functions, which can, at times, overlap. They comprise:

**Supply**

Supply covers material and items used in the equipment, support, and maintenance of military forces. The supply function includes the determination of stock levels, provisioning, distribution and replenishment.

**Maintenance**

Maintenance refers to all actions, including repair, to retain the material or restore it to a specified condition. The operational readiness of land, naval and air forces will depend to a great extent on a high standard of preventive maintenance during peacetime of the equipment and associated material. In addition, the capability to maintain equipment in-theatre is as fundamental as having it available in the first place. One does not work without the other. Consider the former issue of helicopters in Afghanistan: while the country had helicopters to contribute to military operations, it lacked the essential capabilities to maintain them in the field.

**Movement and transportation**

A flexible capability needs to exist to move forces in a timely manner within and between theatres. This also applies to the logistic support necessary to mount and sustain operations undertaken to carry out the full spectrum of NATO roles and missions.

**Petroleum support**

The NATO Petroleum Supply Chain has to be able to respond to the Alliance’s operational requirements, taking into account deployment distances and dispersions envisaged. Additionally, impacts to the fuels delivery capability must also be taken into account, which can call for increased cooperation between NATO member and partner countries, financial considerations and the need for greater interoperability. As such, the fuels delivery capability is under constant review in order to continue creating innovative ways of responding to new needs.

**Infrastructure engineering for logistics**

Infrastructure engineering, while not exclusively a logistics function, requires close coordination with logistics as its mission is closely aligned in terms of facilitating lines of communication and constructing support facilities. The acquisition, construction and operation of facilities form the basis for the NATO Security Investment Programme – a long-term bundle of projects that is dedicated directly to NATO installations and facilities for the support of military forces. Overall, the engineering mission bridges the gap from logistics to operations and is closely related to the ultimate success of both.
Medical support

An efficient medical support system is needed to treat and evacuate sick, injured and wounded personnel, minimise man-days lost and return casualties to duty. It is considered a morale booster and a potential force multiplier. In addition, medical support plays a vital role in force protection. Given that this kind of support is normally a national responsibility, planning needs to be flexible when considering multinational approaches. The degree of multinationality varies according to the circumstances of the mission and the willingness of countries to participate.

Enabling functions

In addition to core functions, there are enabling functions, which include:

- logistic information management: this couples available information technology with logistic processes and practices in order to meet the logistic information requirements of NATO commanders and countries;
- reception, staging and onward movement: this is the phase in the deployment process that transitions units, personnel, equipment and materiel from arrival at ports of debarkation to their final destination. Although this is an operational matter, it requires the provision of a significant degree of logistic support;
- contracting: contracting has become increasingly important to the conduct of operations, especially when operating beyond NATO territory. It can be employed to gain quick access to in-country resources by procuring the supplies and services that the commander requires;
- host nation support: if available, host nation support can provide the NATO commander and contributing countries with logistics and other areas of support in accordance with arrangements negotiated and discussed through the partnership of the host nation government. This may reduce the amount of logistic forces and material required to deploy, sustain and redeploy forces that otherwise must be provided by contributing countries.

Related areas

NATO logistics also monitors several other separate areas that relate in varying degrees to its core and enabling functions. These include explosive ordnance disposal, environmental protection, civil-military cooperation and standardization.

These areas play an important role in the success of an operation. For instance, standardization is the key tool for achieving interoperability. Interoperability has a direct impact on mission sustainability and the combat effectiveness of forces. The minimum requirements for interoperability are commonality of concepts, doctrines and procedures, compatibility of equipment and interchangeability of combat supplies. NATO sets standards which it encourages individual countries to adopt and produces NATO Standardization Agreements for procedures, systems and equipment components, known as STANAGS.

Material and services also form part of logistics, but are not currently treated by NATO. Services for combat troops and logistic activities include but are not limited to: manpower and skills provisioning, housing/accommodation, burials, water provision, canteen, laundry and bathing facilities, map redistribution, and postal and courier service.

Principles, policies and planning

Logistics principles

The following principles relate to the development of policy and doctrine for all functional areas of logistics including movement and transportation, and medical support (with the exception of Germany, where medical support is not considered as a logistics function). An element of overlap between the principles has been voluntarily introduced to provide a comprehensive and seamless foundation for logistic support to any possible Alliance mission. The definitions below have been drawn directly from the approved 2004 Military Committee document (MC 319/2(Final)), which sets out NATO principles and policies for logistics.
Collective responsibility
The first principle concerned – that of collective responsibility – is the driving force of logistic support at NATO. Nations and NATO authorities have collective responsibility for logistic support of NATO’s multinational operations. This collective responsibility encourages nations and NATO to cooperatively share the provision and use of logistic capabilities and resources to support the force effectively and efficiently. Standardization, cooperation and multinationality in logistics build together the basis for flexible and efficient use of logistic support, thereby contributing to the operational success.

Authority
There is an essential interdependence between responsibility and authority. The responsibility assigned to any NATO commander must be matched with the delegation of authority by nations and NATO to allow the adequate discharge of responsibilities. The NATO commander at the appropriate level must be given sufficient authority over the logistic resources necessary to enable him to receive, employ, sustain and redeploy forces assigned to him by nations in the most effective manner. The same should apply for non-NATO commanders of multinational forces participating in a NATO-led operation.

Primacy of operational requirements
All logistic support efforts, from both the military and civil sector, should be focused to satisfy the operational requirements necessary to guarantee the success of the mission.

Cooperation
Cooperation among the nations and NATO is essential. Cooperation across the full spectrum of logistics, including between the civilian and military sector, as well as within and between nations, both contribute to the best use of limited resources. For non-Article 5 crisis response operations, this cooperation must be extended to non-NATO nations, and other relevant organisations as required.

Coordination
Logistic support must be coordinated not only among nations but also between nations and NATO at all levels. It must also be carried out with non-NATO nations and other relevant organisations as required. Generic and standing pre-arranged agreements are the tools to facilitate logistic coordination and cooperation. The overall responsibility for coordination lies with NATO and should be conducted as a matter of routine.

Assured provision
Nations and NATO must ensure, individually and collectively, the provision of logistic resources to support forces allocated to NATO during peace, crisis and conflict.

Sufficiency
Logistic support must be available in the appropriate quantity and quality, at the appropriate notice, when and where it is required throughout the full spectrum of the Alliance’s possible missions. It must be ensured for any NATO operation, no matter the duration.

Efficiency
Logistic resources must be used as efficiently and economically as possible. Needs must be identified in a timely manner to optimise the efficient provision and effective use of such resources.

Flexibility
Logistic support must be proactive, adaptable and responsive to achieve the objective. Adequate planning which considers potentially changing circumstances enhances flexibility.

Visibility and transparency
Visibility and transparency of logistic resources are essential for effective logistic support. NATO commanders require a timely and accurate exchange of information among nations and NATO to prioritise consignment movement into and within the joint operation area. This allows for redirection in accordance
with agreements between the commander and national support elements, as well as for effective employment of logistic assets within the joint operation area.

Logistics policies

A hierarchy of policy documents

A formal hierarchy of logistics policies and doctrine exists. At the top are strategic-level logistics policies, which are published as North Atlantic Council Memoranda and Military Committee documents. Then follow the Joint Logistic Doctrine; the Component Logistic Doctrine; Logistic Tactics, Techniques and Procedures; and Logistic Directives.

The NATO Policy for Cooperation in Logistics

In 2001, a NATO Policy for Cooperation in Logistics was developed to improve multinational cooperation. The framework for its implementation is the Concept for Cooperation in Logistics, which is composed of three principal elements:

- the Alliance’s policy and guidance documents that direct and influence NATO logistics in their own domains;
- the cooperation tools (or “enablers”) that promote cooperation in logistics (i.e. policy, doctrine, activities, systems, standards, procedures and capabilities);
- the Harmonisation, Coordination and Control Mechanism, which is the formal mechanism that continuously identifies and manages cooperation objectives and enablers such as when they are put into place and when they are achieved.

Responsibility and authority

All logistics policy documents promulgate the principles outlined in the section above: collective responsibility, authority, primacy of operational requirements, cooperation, coordination, assured provision, sufficiency, efficiency, flexibility, and visibility and transparency.

With regard to the general implementation of logistic support, responsibility and authority have a fundamental role to play. Individual countries have the ultimate responsibility for equipping their forces and ensuring the provision of logistic resources to support the forces assigned to NATO during peace, crisis and conflict. They retain responsibility until such time as they are released to NATO by agreed mechanisms for the Transfer of Authority.

Nations and NATO authorities have a collective responsibility for ensuring that the NATO commander has access to the required logistic information. The NATO commander assumes control of commonly provided resources as directed and is responsible for establishing the logistic requirements for all phases of an operation, as well as the development of a logistic support plan that supports the operational plan. The commander must also ensure that the logistic force structure and the command and control (C2) arrangements have been established and are capable of supporting the operation. His/her key authorities are to:

- command common-funded logistic resources and assume operational control of Multinational Integrated Logistic Units (MILUs) and other assigned logistic assets, as directed;
- redistribute the logistic assets of nations for the support of the forces in accordance with pre-agreed terms and conditions; and
- inspect and require reports on the quantity and quality of logistic assets designated to support the forces that will be under his command.

In sum, with logistic information, the NATO commander has the key authority to ensure that the force is properly supported and to establish a support organisation to meet the operational requirement. The authorities listed above are also applicable to non-NATO commanders of a multinational force participating in a NATO-led operation.
Logistics planning

Logistics planning in NATO’s Defence Planning Process

Logistics planning is an integral part of NATO’s defence planning process, which sets out the Alliance’s goals. Defence planning provides a framework within which national and NATO defence-related planning can be harmonised so as to meet the Alliance’s agreed requirements in the most effective way. In other words, defence planning seeks to ensure that the Alliance has the requisite forces, assets, facilities and capabilities to fulfil its tasks throughout the full spectrum of its missions in accordance with the Strategic Concept. As such, it covers both NATO’s own capabilities and those of Allied countries.

In concrete terms, logistics planning is done through the force planning process and Partnership for Peace (PfP) Planning and Review Process (PARP). It is at this level that the logistic capabilities needed to deploy, sustain and redeploy Alliance forces are identified by the Strategic Commanders in consultation with participating countries. Logistic capabilities can be called upon by NATO commanders as part of the operational planning process to be used in a NATO-led operation. The authority, responsibility and funding for multinational logistic arrangements are established during the operational planning process.

The Strategic Commanders are also responsible for developing stockpile requirements. For this purpose, NATO requirements are listed in the NATO Stockpile Planning Guidance, which is reviewed and sent out to nations every two years. Stockpiling is closely linked to the principles of logistic readiness and sustainability. National and NATO logistic plans must ensure that sufficient quantity and quality of logistic resources are available at the same readiness and deployability levels to support forces until a re-supply system is in place. In addition, combat power must be sustained for the foreseen duration of operations, which necessitates sufficient stocks or at least assured access to industrial capabilities, agreements, contingency contracts and other means, including contractor support to operations.

Vision and Objectives of NATO Logistics

In 1999, the Senior NATO Logisticians’ Committee (SNLC – since June 2010 renamed the Logistics Committee) decided to develop the NATO Logistics Vision and Objectives (V&O). Effectively, it is a planning tool that provides the Logistics Committee with a mechanism to coordinate and harmonise, on behalf of the North Atlantic Council and the Military Committee, the development and implementation of logistics policies and initiatives within NATO. It also ensures that NATO’s broader logistics concerns are taken into account in defence planning.

The NATO Logistics V&O consists of an overarching vision for NATO logistics over a period of 10 years; broad objectives that are aligned with higher-level guidance; and detailed requirements that identify the actions, agents and timeframe for completion.

The NATO Logistics Vision and Objectives process

This process consists of three phases:

- develop and approve the vision and strategic goals;
- develop and approve the objectives and tasks;
- monitor and manage the achievement of the objectives and tasks.

The NATO Logistics V&O covers a 10-year period and is updated every four years, with a review taking place after two years if required. It is approved by the Logistics Committee, but logistics and logistics-related committees are invited to cooperate in its completion. Progress on objectives is reported to the Logistics Committee through an Annual Logistic Report, which is also sent to defence ministers for notation.

Logistics planning in operational planning

Logistics operational planning is part of the NATO operational planning process. It aims to get what is effectively needed in the field of logistics for a specific operation, as opposed to logistics planning which aims to ensure the availability of logistics in general. Three key documents are produced during operational planning:
the Concept of Operations (CONOPS); the Operation Plan (OPLAN); and the Contingency Plan (COP).

In addition to these three documents, logistic support guidelines are produced that include considerations such as the geography of the theatre and the political and military situation. Other issues are also taken into account such as the use of multinational logistics, movement planning, medical planning, the role of the host nation and coordination with international organisations and non-governmental organisations.

Bodies involved

A number of associated policy committees, organisations and agencies are involved in, or support logistics. They comprise:

- the Logistics Committee (LC);
- the Petroleum Committee (PC);
- Committee of the Chiefs of Military Medical Services in NATO (COMEDS);
- the Civil Emergency Planning Committee (CEPC);
- the Committee for Standardization;
- the NATO Supply and Procurement Agency (NSPA);
- the Bi-SC* Movement and Transportation Forum (Bi-SC M&T Forum);
- the Bi-SC* Medical Advisory Group (Bi-SC MEDAG).

(*Bi-SC signifies that the formation in question reports to both Strategic Commanders (SC).)

Logistics Committee

The Logistics Committee (LC) is NATO’s principal committee dealing with logistics. Its overall mandate is two-fold: to address logistics matters with a view to enhancing the performance, efficiency, sustainability and combat effectiveness of Alliance forces; and to exercise, on behalf of the North Atlantic Council, an overarching coordinating authority across the whole spectrum of logistics functions within NATO.

It carries out its work through four subordinate bodies of which the Logistics Committee Executive Group and the Movement and Transportation Group are the principal ones. The LC reports jointly to both the Military Committee and the North Atlantic Council, or the Defence Planning Committee as appropriate, reflecting the dependence of logistics on both civil and military factors.

Petroleum Committee

The Petroleum Committee (PC) is the senior advisory body in NATO for logistic support to Alliance forces on all matters concerning petroleum, including the NATO Pipeline System, other petroleum installations and handling equipment. The PC is the expert body reporting to the LC responsible to ensure NATO can meet its petroleum requirements in times of peace, crisis and conflict, including expeditionary operations.

The PC was originally established as the NATO Pipeline Committee in 1956, but was renamed twice after that: once in March 2008 when it became the NATO Petroleum Committee to better reflect its wider role and responsibilities; and the second time in June 2010 during a major committee review, when it became the Petroleum Committee and was placed under the LC.

Committee of the Chiefs of Military Medical Services in NATO

The Committee of the Chiefs of Military Medical Services in NATO (COMEDS) acts as the central point for the development and coordination of military medical matters and for providing medical advice to the NATO Military Committee.
Civil Emergency Planning Committee

The Civil Emergency Planning Committee (CEPC) is responsible for the policy direction and general coordination of civil emergency planning and preparedness at the NATO level. It facilitates integration of civil support and advice on civil issues into Alliance operational planning, including the possible use of military logistic resources for civil emergencies. It coordinates closely with the LC.

Committee for Standardization

This is the senior authority of the Alliance for providing coordinated advice to the North Atlantic Council on overall standardization matters. Since the aim of NATO standardization is to enhance the Alliance’s operational effectiveness through the attainment of interoperability among NATO forces and additionally between NATO forces and forces of partner and other countries, it coordinates with the LC.

NATO Support and Procurement Agency

The NATO Support and Procurement Agency (NSPA) is the executive body of the NATO Support and Procurement Organisation (NSPO). Formed in July 2012, it brings together NATO’s logistics and procurement support activities by offering products and services according to its five essential operations:

- Fuel Management, which includes the Central European Pipeline System (CEPS) Programme;
- Strategic Transport and Storage, which includes the NATO Airlift Management (NAM) Programme;
- Systems Procurement and Life Cycle Management;
- Logistics Services and Project Management;
- Support to Operations and Exercises.

Bi-SC Movement and Transportation Forum

Bi-SC Movement and Transportation Forum (Bi-SC M&T Forum) was formed in 1996 and is the senior forum for coordinating Alliance-wide concerns for movement and transportation policy planning between Strategic Commanders, NATO members and designated agencies. Movement and transport matters of relevance to the forum are those that derive from the NATO commander’s movement and transport responsibility and from concepts and policies developed by NATO Headquarters.

Bi-SC Medical Advisory Group

The Bi-SC Medical Advisory Group (Bi-SC MEDAG) provides a forum for medical issues between the Strategic Commanders. Medical matters of relevance to the group are those that derive from the NATO commander’s medical responsibility and from concepts and policies developed by NATO Headquarters.

Evolution of logistics

During the Cold War

During the Cold War, NATO followed the principle that logistics was a national responsibility. Accordingly, its only focus at the time was the establishment of and compliance with overall logistics requirements. This principle governed NATO’s plans and actions until the beginning of the 1990s, when it was understood and accepted that the strategic situation that had underpinned this principle had undergone a fundamental change.

Before the 1990s, NATO logistics was limited to the North Atlantic area. The Alliance planned the linear defence of Western Europe with national corps supported by national support elements. Lines of communication within Europe extended westwards and northwards to Channel and North Sea ports. Planning called for reinforcements and supplies to be sea-lifted from the United States and Canada to these same ports and to be airlifted to European bases to pick up pre-positioned equipment.

The NATO Pipeline System over the years of its existence grew to supply fuel to NATO forces in Europe. The NATO Maintenance and Supply Agency (NAMSA), which would later evolve to become part of the NSPA, was created in Luxembourg, initially to aid European countries in their Foreign Military Sales purchase of US combat aircraft in the 1950s.
In the 1990s, NATO recognised the changed security environment it was operating in as a result of enlargement, Partnership for Peace (PfP) and other cooperation programmes with Central and Eastern Europe, cooperation with other international organisations, and peace support operations in the Balkans. These developments presented significant challenges for NATO’s logistics staff.

The Balkans experience

NATO’s deployment of the Implementation Force (IFOR) to Bosnia and Herzegovina in December 1995 revealed shortcomings in Alliance logistic support for peace support operations. The logistic footprint was very large, featuring redundant and inefficient national logistic structures. Experiences from IFOR resulted in major revisions to PfP and NATO logistics policies and procedures and highlighted the need for greater multinationality in logistics.

IFOR’s 60,000 troops in Bosnia and Herzegovina were deployed and supplied nationally by road, rail, ships and aircraft over relatively short lines of communication. While the force was able to rely on some host nation support — civil and military assistance from neighbouring countries and even Bosnia and Herzegovina itself — it relied heavily on national support elements with redundant logistic support capabilities, reducing the overall efficiency and effectiveness of the overall force.

The Stabilization Force (SFOR), which replaced IFOR, and the Kosovo Force (KFOR), which deployed to the Serb province in June 1999, suffered from the same stove-piped national logistic support as IFOR. For example, KFOR had five field hospitals, one for each brigade, when fewer would have been sufficient for the force.

Increased cooperation and multinationality

As early as January 1996, NATO logisticians recognised the new challenges facing the Alliance. In particular, the downsizing of military resources stressed the need for increased cooperation and multinationality in logistic support. The new challenges required the Alliance to be able to logistically sustain and operate in non-Article 5 crisis response operations, potentially at far distances from the supporting national logistic and industrial bases and on non-NATO territory, with no supportive or functioning host nation. All of this needed to be performed under the legal conditions of peace, with no access to mobilisation and/or emergency legislation.

The 1999 Strategic Concept

The Senior NATO Logisticians’ Conference (SNLC), the then senior body on logistics, then undertook to translate the Alliance’s 1999 Strategic Concept into responsive, flexible and interoperable logistics principles and policies. It first developed a vision for NATO logistics aimed at addressing the challenge of developing collective responsibility in logistics between NATO and the states involved.

This collective responsibility is attained through close coordination and cooperation between national and NATO authorities during both planning and execution. It also includes greater consideration of the efficient use of civil resources. As a result of their experiences in NATO-led operations, countries have gained an appreciation of the value of this approach to logistic support, especially in the case of the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan.

The Afghan experience

After the 11 September 2001 attacks on the United States, NATO could no longer afford to do logistics in the same way it did in the Balkans. NATO started facing some of these limitations with ISAF in Afghanistan, which is land-locked and far from Europe.

The long lines of communication inside the country are hampered by rough terrain, unpaved roads and security threats. The force therefore relied heavily on airlift for movement, reinforcements and supplies. Most of its airlift requirements were provided by the United States or by Russian aircraft leased by Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE) through the NATO Maintenance and Supply Agency (NAMSA) in Luxembourg.

Tactical fixed- and rotary-wing aircraft were crucial for the expansion of the ISAF mission beyond Kabul as it could take days to travel from the capital to the provinces by road, made potentially impossible in the
winter with snow. This expansion began in January 2005 with the establishment of Provincial Reconstruction Teams (PRTs), north of the Afghan capital, then to the west, the south and the east.

**The 2010 Strategic Concept**

During the NATO Summit in Lisbon in November 2010, a new Strategic Concept for the defence and security of NATO members was adopted by Heads of State and Government. Recognising that the modern security environment posed an evolving set of challenges to the security of NATO’s territory and populations, the Alliance’s commitment to collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security were reaffirmed. Across the crisis management spectrum in particular, a need for enhanced intelligence-sharing within NATO and more effective interface with civilian partners in forming appropriate civilian crisis management capability were highlighted.

Given the updated Strategic Concept, as well as additional developments in both Political Guidance and the Readiness Action Plan, a revised Vision & Objectives document was created and agreed upon in August 2015.

**NATO Logistics Vision & Objectives 2015-2024**

The NATO Logistics V&O provides a formatted Programme of Work to assist NATO and nations in addressing logistic capability gaps. In the wake of the Russia-Ukraine conflict since 2014, the Readiness Action Plan (RAP) was agreed upon by Heads of State and Government at the 2014 Wales Summit in response to the challenges posed by Russia and their strategic implications. The Plan also responds to the risks and threats emanating from the Middle East and North Africa. Through the RAP, the Alliance’s 28 leaders agreed to reverse the trend of declining defence budgets and raise them over the coming decade.

Additionally, Political Guidance 2015 further articulates the strategic direction set in the 2010 Strategic Concept and the measures put in place by the RAP. It sets out NATO’s Level of Ambition (LOA) and other agreed objectives to guide the next cycle of the NATO Defence Planning Process (NDPP). It provides specific direction to the different planning domains, including logistics. As such, it has broadened the scope of the engagement for both operational support and long-term capability development and the need for broader engagement in order to enable maximum coherence and effectiveness in logistics.

The revised vision statement, which now forms the strategic logistics guidance, promotes the pursuit of collective logistics and broadens the Logistics Vision to provide NATO commanders the greatest flexibility on current and future missions by providing effective and efficient logistic support. This updated Vision is not restricted to only the joint force commander but seeks also to include broader civilian responsibilities through the adoption of a more comprehensive approach.

In the present strategic environment, with the deployment of NATO forces potentially requiring rapid movement of personnel, equipment, and materiel across NATO territory, the new NATO logistics visions reflects top-down guidance by principles emphasising the need for operational effectiveness balanced with considerations of efficiencies.
The Logistics Committee (LC) is the senior advisory body on logistics in NATO.

**Highlights**

- Its overall mandate is two-fold: to address consumer logistics matters with a view to enhancing the performance, efficiency, sustainability and combat effectiveness of Alliance forces; and to exercise, on behalf of the North Atlantic Council, an overarching coordinating authority across the whole spectrum of logistics functions within NATO.
- The LC reports jointly to both the North Atlantic Council and the Military Committee, reflecting the dependence of logistics on both civil and military factors.

**Role and responsibilities**

The LC is responsible for harmonising and coordinating the development of policy recommendations and coordinated advice on civil and military logistics matters, Alliance logistic interoperability, and cooperation in logistics.

**Developing concepts**

As new Alliance concepts, visions and technologies emerge, the LC ensures that the necessary logistic support concepts are in place and in line with the NATO vision for logistics.
A key document is “NATO Principles and Policies for Logistics” (MC 319/2), which establishes the principle of “collective responsibility” for logistic support between national and NATO authorities. It is based on the idea that both NATO and participating countries are responsible for the logistic support of NATO’s multinational operations and is characterised by close coordination and cooperation between national and NATO authorities during logistics planning and execution.

Membership

The LC is a joint civil/military body where all member countries are represented. Membership is drawn from senior national civil and military representatives of ministries of defence or equivalent bodies with responsibility for consumer aspects of logistics in member countries. Representatives of the Strategic Commands, the NATO Support and Procurement Agency (NSPA), the NATO Standardization Office, the Committee of the Chiefs of Military Medical Services in NATO and other sectors of the NATO Headquarters Staff also participate in the work of the LC.

Working mechanisms

Meetings

The LC meets under the chairmanship of the NATO Secretary General twice a year, in joint civil and military sessions. It has two permanent co-chairmen: the Assistant Secretary General of the division responsible for defence policy and planning issues and the Deputy Chairman of the Military Committee.

Support staff and subordinate bodies

The LC is supported jointly by dedicated staff in the International Secretariat (IS) and the International Military Staff (IMS).

It carries out its work through six subordinate bodies, of which the first two play the principal role:

- the Logistics Committee Executive Group;
- the Movement and Transportation Group;
- the Standing Group of Partner Logistic Experts;
- the Logistic Information Management Group;
- the Petroleum Committee; and
- the Ammunition Transport Safety Group.

The Logistics Committee Executive Group

This is the principal subordinate body, which advises the LC on general logistic matters. It monitors and coordinates the implementation of logistic policies, programmes and initiatives through consultation among countries, the strategic commanders and other NATO logistic and logistic-related bodies. It also provides a forum for addressing logistic concerns and coordinates with the Movement and Transportation Group and other subordinate bodies, and harmonises their work with the LC’s overall policies and programmes.

Furthermore, the Logistics Committee Executive Group develops logistic policies, programmes and initiatives for the LC’s consideration.

It meets twice a year in the same format as the LC and is co-chaired by a civil co-chairman, the Head, IS Logistics, and by a military co-chairman, the Deputy Assistant Director, IMS Logistics, Armaments and Resources Division.

The Movement and Transportation Group

As its name indicates, this group is specialised in the area of movement and transport. It advises the LC on movement and transportation matters and monitors and coordinates the implementation of related
policies, programmes and initiatives through consultation and cooperation among countries, the strategic commanders and other NATO transportation and transportation-related groups and agencies.

It is co-chaired by the same people who co-chair the Logistics Committee Executive Group - the Head, IS Logistics, and the Deputy Assistant Director, IMS Logistics, Armaments and Resources Division – and also meets twice a year, in March and September in the same format as the LC. In addition, the three Transport Planning Boards and Committees of the Civil Emergency Planning Committee are represented on the Movement and Transportation Group.

Both the Logistics Committee Executive Group and the Movement and Transportation Group can form ad-hoc working groups to carry out specific tasks that require a certain expertise.

**The Standing Group of Partner Logistic Experts**

This group identifies, develops and promotes the employment of partner logistic forces and capabilities volunteered by partners for NATO-led operations. It does this under the guidance of the Logistics Committee Executive Group with partners and the Movement and Transportation Group with partners. It also makes recommendations concerning logistics pre-arrangements to the strategic commanders and, more generally, provides a forum for addressing logistic topics related to the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme that any member or PfP country may want to raise.

This group meets twice a year under the chairmanship of a partner country; the chair is assumed for a two-year term. Membership comprises the strategic commanders and senior staff officers from NATO and partner countries, the IS, the IMS, and the NSPA.

**The Logistic Information Management Group**

This is NATO’s overarching logistics information management body. It reviews, assesses and recommends NATO logistic information management requirements and develops logistic information management policy and guidance for consideration by the Logistics Committee Executive Group.

The Logistic Information Management Group is chaired by a country representative and comprises experts from NATO and partner countries. It meets as often as necessary.

**The Petroleum Committee**

This Committee is the senior advisory body in NATO for logistic support to Alliance forces on all matters concerning petroleum, including the NATO Pipeline System (NPS), other petroleum installations and handling equipment.

The Petroleum Committee deals with questions related to NATO petroleum requirements and how they are met in times of peace, crisis and conflict, including expeditionary operations.

**The Ammunition Transport Safety Group**

This group provides guidance for NATO forces on procedures for planning, organising and conducting the logistic transportation of munitions and explosives and dangerous goods using the different modes of transportations available.

**Working with other committees**

The LC works in close cooperation with the Civil Emergency Planning Committee (CEPC). The CEPC is responsible for coordinating the use of civil resources to support the Alliance’s overall defence effort. The responsibilities of these two committees are interrelated, bringing them and their related sub-committees to work closely together.

The LC also works with the NSPA, NATO Standardization Office and the Committee of the Chiefs of Military Medical Services in NATO.
Evolution

Logistic conferences were, for a long time, a feature of planning within NATO’s military command structure. In 1964, the ACE Logistics Coordination Centre (LCC) was formed to meet the requirements of Allied Command Europe. This centre had detailed emergency and wartime roles, which were rehearsed and tested during exercises. Allied Command Atlantic (ACLANT) also had a Logistics Coordination Board.

However, as Alliance preparedness including logistics readiness and sustainability became a priority, there was an increased need for cooperation and coordination in consumer logistics. What was then called the Senior NATO Logisticians’ Conference (SNLC) was therefore established in 1979 and has since developed and introduced logistic support concepts to meet the logistic challenges of the future. It was renamed the Logistics Committee in June 2010 after a thorough review of NATO committees aimed at introducing more flexibility and efficiency into working procedures.
The world’s oceans are increasingly busy maritime highways. Today, 85 per cent of all international trade in raw material and manufactured goods travels by sea, and tankers carry more than half of the world’s oil. The maritime domain is of strategic importance for NATO. NATO is determined to help protect its Allies from any possible threats at sea or from the sea.

### Highlights

- The Alliance Maritime Strategy, agreed in 2011, clearly identifies the parameters for NATO’s maritime activities. Drawing from the Strategic Concept, maritime activities can cover collective defence, crisis management, cooperative security and maritime security.
- Maritime forces increasingly contribute to deterrence and defence and projecting stability through three primary functions: strategic, security and warfighting.
- NATO is reinforcing its maritime posture with a focus on these three functions and is taking concrete steps to improve the Alliance’s overall maritime situational awareness.
- The Alliance has Standing Naval Forces – NATO’s highly trained maritime, immediate-response capacity.
- NATO’s maritime and joint exercise programme is key to interoperability and improving core warfighting competencies.
- NATO is currently leading Operation Sea Guardian in the Mediterranean and is providing assistance to help deal with the refugee and migrant crisis in the Aegean Sea.
- Cooperation with non-NATO partners, including other international organisations such as the European Union, is fundamental to efforts in the maritime domain.
More background information

The Alliance Maritime Strategy and the Alliance Maritime Posture

On the basis of the 2010 Strategic Concept and NATO’s three core tasks (collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security), the 2011 Alliance Maritime Strategy derived four maritime roles for the Alliance to contribute to: deterrence and collective defence, crisis management, cooperative security and maritime security. Since 2014, the Alliance’s adaptation to the changed security environment has been pursued along two essential tracks: strengthening the Alliance's deterrence and defence posture and enhancing NATO’s contribution to projecting stability. Reinforcement of the Alliance Maritime Posture is an integral and cross-cutting part of the implementation of these two tracks.

The Alliance Maritime Strategy describes NATO’s four strategic roles or what it does in the maritime domain. The Alliance Maritime Posture describes NATO’s functions or how it uses the maritime domain and the Alliance’s naval forces.

NATO is strengthening its deterrence and defence posture in all domains. The maritime domain encompasses oceans, seas and littorals, on, above and below the surface, in all directions. It is a continuum and it is fully connected to other domains and areas. The Alliance’s naval forces include those maritime forces, sensors and other capabilities under national or NATO command that contribute to Alliance security.

The Alliance Maritime Posture comprises the Alliance’s naval forces, their presence within the maritime domain and the operational and cooperative activities that they conduct in the performance of three functions, which contribute to Alliance security:

- **Strategic function:** the presence of maritime forces creates strategic and deterrent effects, including for assurance and messaging, and demonstrates NATO’s intent to operate without constraint. The flexibility of maritime forces provides nearly instant availability of inherently tailorable force packages yielding a range of attractive, measured and viable political and military options.

- **Security function:** maritime security has become a mainstay of NATO’s maritime activities. Allies have developed sophisticated skills, tactics, techniques and procedures associated with maritime security. The maintenance of a safe and secure maritime environment can be undertaken through a range of maritime security activities and operations. Maritime forces can provide a ready and flexible mechanism and significant versatility for a broad range and scale of missions and tasks.

- **Warfighting function:** during peacetime and in a crisis, maritime forces are primarily deterrent in nature. They can contribute to conventional operations, nuclear deterrence and ballistic missile defence, to advance Alliance security interests. Allies’ maritime forces provide deterrence and defence in their contiguous seas, extending the defence of their national territory and can project power at distance. Maritime forces can rapidly transition from low-intensity to high-intensity missions and tasks. Surface, sub-surface and above-surface capabilities and forces work together to establish sea denial or control, support reinforcement, protect assets, project power and support joint forces and joint effects.

Maritime and joint exercises are key to maintaining and developing warfighting competencies and improving Allies’ combined maritime skills and readiness for all operations. Some areas and competencies being incorporated into future exercises include the protection of sea lines of communication and rapid reinforcement, carrier strike, NATO’s amphibious forces, anti-submarine warfare capacity, countering hybrid threats in the maritime domain, integrated air and missile defence and countering threats in cyber space.

NATO’s Standing Naval Forces and capabilities

NATO has Standing Naval Forces (SNF) that provide the Alliance with a continuous naval presence. This multinational deterrent force constitutes an essential maritime requirement for the Alliance. It carries out a programme of scheduled exercises, manoeuvres and port visits, and can be rapidly deployed in times of crisis or tension.
NATO’s SNFs consist of four groups: the Standing NATO Maritime Groups (SNMGs) composed of SNMG1 and SNMG2; and the Standing NATO Mine Countermeasures Groups (SNMCMG1 and SNMCMG2). All four Groups are integrated into the NATO Response Force (NRF), the Alliance’s rapid-reaction force.

**SNMG1 and SNMG2**

The Standing NATO Maritime Groups are a multinational, integrated maritime force made up of vessels from various Allied countries. These vessels are permanently available to NATO to perform different tasks ranging from exercises to operational missions. They also help to establish Alliance presence, demonstrate solidarity, conduct routine diplomatic visits to different countries, support partner engagement, and provide a variety of maritime military capabilities to ongoing missions.

SNMG1 and SNMG2 function according to the operational needs of the Alliance, therefore helping to maintain optimal flexibility. Their composition varies and they are usually composed of between two and six ships from as many NATO member countries.

SNMG1 and SNMG2 fall under the authority of Allied Maritime Command (MARCOM), Northwood, United Kingdom following MARCOM’s December 2012 inauguration as the operational hub for all Alliance maritime operations. MARCOM also has two subordinate commands – Submarine Command (COMSUBNATO) and Maritime Air Command (COMMARAIR) – as well as the NATO Shipping Centre, which plays an important role in countering piracy.

**SNMCMG1 and SNMCMG2**

The Standing NATO Mine Countermeasures Groups – SNMCMG1 and SNMCMG2 – are multinational forces that primarily engage in search and explosive ordnance disposal operations. SNMCMG2 also conducts historical ordnance disposal operations to minimise the threat from mines dating back to the Second World War.

Both SNMCMG groups are key assets in the NATO Response Force (NRF) and are able to fulfil a wide range of roles from humanitarian tasks to operations. They can deploy at short notice and are often the first assets to enter an operational theatre.

SNMCMG1 was formed in the Belgian port of Ostend on 11 May 1973 to ensure safety of navigation around the ports of the English Channel and northwest Europe. Originally called “Standing Naval Force Channel”, its name was changed several times to reflect its expanding area of operation. Today, the Group is capable of operating nearly anywhere in the world.

SNMCMG2 developed from an on-call force for the Mediterranean, which was created in 1969. It also evolved over time to reflect its new responsibilities.

SNMCMG2 and SNMCMG1 were both given their current names in 2006.

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**NATO’s maritime operations/activity**

Building on the strength of its naval forces, NATO’s maritime operations have demonstrated the Alliance’s ability to achieve strategic objectives in vastly different contexts.

**Operation Sea Guardian**

In November 2016, Operation Sea Guardian was launched as a flexible operation, potentially covering up to seven maritime security operation (MSO) tasks. To date, this Operation has been carrying out three MSO tasks, namely: maritime security capacity building; support to maritime situational awareness; and support to maritime counter-terrorism. Operation Sea Guardian (OSG) is currently operating in the Mediterranean Sea. Upon North Atlantic Council agreement – NATO’s top political decision-making body – OSG can execute any of the additional four MSO tasks: upholding freedom of navigation; maritime interdiction; fighting proliferation of weapons of mass destruction; and the protection of critical infrastructure.

OSG brings together naval assets from several Allied countries for set periods of time. These focused operations are conducted at a tempo of three continuous weeks every two months, in total six a year.
Although there is no permanent ship presence at sea throughout the duration of the whole year, maritime situational awareness is maintained throughout the year through the information network of Allied Maritime Command.

As part of its mandate, the Operation is supporting the European Union’s (EU’s) Operation Sophia in the Central Mediterranean. This support relates to information-sharing and logistics support.

Since 29 March 2019, the EU’s Operation Sophia has transitioned from a naval-aerial operation to a purely aerial operation. This change has, by default, put an end to the North Atlantic Council-agreed logistical support provided by OSG, but not to the information exchange between the two operations, which continues. The latest EU decision further impacts the possible support that NATO had agreed to offer to the EU in its efforts to implement UN Security Council Resolution 2420, the arms embargo against Libya, which NATO had nevertheless never been called by the EU to implement.

**Assistance to the refugee and migrant crisis**

NATO has contributed to international efforts to assist with the refugee and migrant crisis. To that end, NATO ships have – since February 2016 – been conducting reconnaissance, monitoring and surveillance of illegal crossings within the Aegean, in cooperation with relevant national and EU authorities. NATO ships have been collecting valuable information that has been used by both the Greek and Turkish Coastguards and by Frontex (the EU’s border management agency) to take action, for instance, by intercepting the migrant boats first sighted by NATO. Information-sharing at the operational and tactical levels between NATO and Frontex has proven to be a valuable activity.

**Operation Ocean Shield**

From 2009 to 2016, Operation Ocean Shield contributed to international efforts to suppress piracy and protect humanitarian aid shipments off the Horn of Africa, succeeding Operation Allied Protector (March-August 2009) and Operation Allied Provider (October-December 2008). NATO continues to be engaged in counter-piracy efforts in that area through maritime situational awareness and sustained links with counter-piracy actors.

**Operation Active Endeavour**

From 2001 to 2016, Operation Active Endeavour (the predecessor to Operation Sea Guardian) helped deter, detect, and if necessary disrupt the threat of terrorism in the Mediterranean Sea. The operation evolved out of NATO’s immediate response to the terrorist attacks against the United States of 11 September 2001. And in 2011, Operation Unified Protector delivered power from the sea and comprised a major maritime arms embargo on Libya.
Medical support

The military medical community provides medical care and preventive health care for deployed troops, as well as psychological support and veterinary care. It also provides essential deployment support, such as force health protection, medical intelligence, and medical logistics and supply. Civilian-military cooperation, mainly during disaster relief, mass casualty situations and population movements, can be a mission for military medical support as well. Medical support is one of the key planning domains for operations.

Highlights

- The COMEDS is NATO’s senior body on military health matters.
- It aims to improve coordination, standardization and interoperability in the medical field and the exchange of information between NATO and partner countries.
- It also develops new concepts of medical support for operations, with emphasis on multinational health care, modularity of medical treatment facilities and partnerships.
- The COMEDS is headed by a Chairman and meets biannually in plenary session with representatives from NATO and partner countries.
- The committee was established in 1994 when the need for coordinating medical support in peacekeeping, disaster relief and humanitarian operations became vital for NATO.

Medical support in practice

The military health support system aims to preserve or restore the health of NATO personnel and consequently to contribute to preserving the operational capacity of NATO forces.
It means that medical support is not only curative medicine for deployed personnel, but it covers the complete range of human and animal curative and preventive medicine. The military medical support embraces the medical support of combats, as well as medical general practice, force health protection before and during deployments, medical logistics and supply, medical intelligence and the medical dimension of the chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) warfare. The civilian-military cooperation in the medical area is very important during disaster relief, mass casualty situations and population movements, the military medical support may be involved in these missions too.

During NATO operations, medical support is usually provided by troop-contributing countries - Allies or partners - who also carry the responsibility for having enough well-educated medical support to perform state-of-the-art medical service. Nevertheless, the medical support command and control is a NATO function, performed by Joint Medical (JMed) Staff Branches within Allied Commands. Since medical support is a transversal element of the operations, the medical heads of these JMed Staff Branches are the Medical Advisors (MedAd) of the commanders. Thereby the commanders can rely on accurate and relevant advice about all medical related issues and challenges essential to the planning and conduct of any mission.

The Medical Advisors from the International Military Staff (IMS) and Allied Command Transformation (ACT) support the NATO capability development in the medical domain. This is conducted in order to help Allies reach the NATO Level of Ambition regarding medical support, to support the development of new capabilities and to improve cooperation in multinational capacities.

Committee of the Chiefs of Military Medical Services - COMEDS

Beyond the medical support of NATO operations, COMEDS represents the members' health services on the NATO Military Committee (MC). The COMEDS was established in 1994 to advise the MC on all military health matters affecting NATO and reports to it once a year. Since there is no equivalent on the political side, if needed, COMEDS can be asked to report to the North Atlantic Council, NATO’s highest political decision-making body.

COMEDS meets in plenary session twice a year. It is headed by a chairman, who is elected among the members’ surgeons general for a three-year period. The secretary of the COMEDS, designated for three years aside the chairman, is assigned full-time to NATO Headquarters as COMEDS executive officer.

The COMEDS steers Allied medical doctrine and interoperability development within NATO and its member countries. It does this in collaboration with the NATO Standardization Office (NSO), and through several working groups and panels that are populated by national subject-matter experts from both Allied and partner countries.

The COMEDS and the NATO strategic-level Medical Advisors work together to improve medical support in a multinational dimension. Since the deployed troops and medical assets are usually from different countries, the ongoing challenge is to provide the highest level of care and prevention to everyone with a unified, comprehensive, medical support composed of harmonised national assets. Medical interoperability addresses this challenge with Standardization Agreements (STANAGs).

Other forms of support

Supporting the efforts of the medical community, the Centre of Excellence for Military Medicine (MILMED COE) in Budapest (Hungary) - with a satellite branch in Munich (Germany) - takes part in military medical training, the lessons learned process and interoperability development.

Moreover, multinational training and exercises are used to improve multinational medical support. Numerous NATO medical courses are performed by the NATO School in Oberammergau (Germany) or the MILMED COE. NATO medical exercises are organised regularly, for instance Vigorous Warrior exercises give the medical troops a platform to conduct multinational training and the Clean Care exercises support the medical part of CBRN. These exercises have been alternating every second year for almost a decade. The medical community also provides real-life support to all NATO exercises.
Looking ahead

The NATO medical community is preparing to face the next challenges. An ACT document entitled "Framework for Future Alliance Operations" lists the potential future events, crises or conflicts that NATO may face over the next 15 years. Many of these are of direct concern to the military medical community. Scenarios like mass migration, the use of weapons of mass destruction, mega-city turmoil, etc. are extremely challenging from a medical viewpoint, pushing the medical community to continuously adapt and improve, find alternative treatments, processes or capacities.

The COMEDS Futures Advisory Board (CFAB), in collaboration with the NATO Science and Technology Organization (STO) and Allied Command Transformation for medical capability building (Smart Defence Initiatives, Framework Nation Concept Medical Cluster) support preparations for future military medical challenges.
NATO Mediterranean Dialogue

NATO’s Mediterranean Dialogue was initiated in 1994 by the North Atlantic Council. It currently involves seven non-NATO countries of the Mediterranean region: Algeria, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Mauritania, Morocco and Tunisia.

Origins and Objectives

The Dialogue reflects the Alliance’s view that security in Europe is closely linked to security and stability in the Mediterranean. It is an integral part of NATO’s adaptation to the post-Cold War security environment, as well as an important component of the Alliance’s policy of outreach and cooperation.

The Mediterranean Dialogue’s overall aim is to:

- contribute to regional security and stability
- achieve better mutual understanding
- dispel any misconceptions about NATO among Dialogue countries

Key Principles

The successful launch of the Mediterranean Dialogue (MD) and its subsequent development has been based upon a number of principles:

- Non discrimination: all Mediterranean partners are offered the same basis for their cooperation with NATO.
- Self-differentiation, allowing a tailored approach to the specific needs of each of our MD partner countries. Particularly Individual Cooperation Programmes (ICP) allow interested MD countries and
NATO to frame their practical cooperation in a more prospective and focused way, enabling interested countries to outline the main short and long-term objectives of their cooperation with the Alliance, in accordance with NATO’s objectives and policies for the Mediterranean Dialogue.

- **Inclusiveness:** all MD countries should see themselves as share holders of the same cooperative effort.

- **Two-way engagement:** the MD is a “two-way partnership”, in which NATO seeks partners’ contribution for its success, through a regular consultation process; special emphasis is placed on practical cooperation.

- **Non imposition:** MD partners are free to choose the pace and extent of their cooperation with the Alliance; NATO has no wish to impose anything upon them.

- **Complementarity and mutual reinforcement:** efforts of the MD and other international institutions for the region are complementary and mutually reinforcing in nature; such as, for example, those of the EU’s “Union For the Mediterranean”, the OSCE’s “Mediterranean Initiative”, or the “Five plus Five”.

- **Diversity:** the MD respects and takes into account the specific regional, cultural and political contexts of the respective partners.

Moreover, the MD is progressive in terms of participation and substance. Such flexibility has allowed the number of Dialogue partners to grow - witness the inclusion of Jordan in November 1995 and Algeria in March 2000 - and the content of the Dialogue to evolve over time.

The Dialogue is primarily bilateral in structure (NATO+1). Despite the predominantly bilateral character, the Dialogue nevertheless allows for multilateral meetings on a regular basis (NATO+7).

In principle, activities within the Mediterranean Dialogue take place on a self-funding basis. However, Allies agreed to consider requests for financial assistance in support of Mediterranean partners’ participation in the Dialogue. A number of measures have recently been taken to facilitate cooperation, notably the revision of the Dialogue’s funding policy to allow funding up to 100 percent of the participation costs in Dialogue’s activities and the extension of the NATO/PfP Trust Fund mechanisms to MD countries.

### The political dimension

The Mediterranean Dialogue is based upon the twin pillars of political dialogue and practical cooperation.

The Mediterranean Cooperation Group (MCG), established at the Madrid Summit in July 1997 under the supervision of the North Atlantic Council (NAC), had the overall responsibility for the Mediterranean Dialogue, until it was replaced in 2011 by the Political and Partnerships Committee, which is responsible for all partnerships. The Committee meets at the level of Political Counsellors on a regular basis to discuss all matters related to the Dialogue including its further development.

Political consultations in the NATO+1 format are held on a regular basis both at Ambassadorial and working level. These discussions provide an opportunity for sharing views on a range of issues relevant to the security situation in the Mediterranean, as well as on the further development of the political and practical cooperation dimensions of the Dialogue.

Meetings in the NATO+7 format, including NAC+7 meetings, are also held on a regular basis, in particular following the NATO Summit and Ministerial meetings, Chiefs-of-Defence meetings, and other major NATO events. These meetings represent an opportunity for two-way political consultations between NATO and MD partners.

At the June 2004 Istanbul Summit, NATO’s Heads of State and Government elevated the MD to a genuine partnership through the establishment of a more ambitious and expanded framework, which considerably enhanced both the MD’s political and practical cooperation dimensions.

Since then, the constant increase in the number and quality of the NATO-MD political dialogue has recently reached a sustainable level. Consultations of the 29 Allies and seven MD countries take place on a regular basis on a bilateral and multilateral level, at Ministerial, Ambassadorial and working level formats. That has also included three meetings of the NATO and MD Foreign Ministers in December 2004,
2007 and 2008 in Brussels. Two meetings of NATO and MD Defense Ministers in 2006 and 2007 in Taormina, Italy and Seville, Spain. Ten meetings of the Chief of Defense of NATO and MD countries have also take place so far. The first ever NAC+7 meeting took place in Rabat, Morocco, in 2006 and, more recently, the first MD Policy Advisory Group meeting with all seven MD partners took place in San Remo, Italy, on 15-16 September 2011.

The political dimension also includes visits by NATO Senior Officials, including the Secretary General and the Deputy Secretary General, to Mediterranean Dialogue countries. The main purpose of these visits is to conduct high-level political consultations with the relevant host authorities on the way forward in NATO’s political and practical cooperation under the Mediterranean Dialogue.

The new Strategic Concept, which was adopted at the Lisbon Summit in November 2011, identifies cooperative security as one of three key priorities for the Alliance, and constitutes an opportunity to move partnerships to the next generation. Mediterranean Dialogue partners were actively involved in the debate leading to its adoption.

The Strategic Concept refers specifically to the MD, stating that: "We are firmly committed to the development of friendly and cooperative relations with all countries of the Mediterranean, and we intend to further develop the Mediterranean Dialogue in the coming years. We will aim to deepen the cooperation with current members of the Mediterranean Dialogue and be open to the inclusion in the Mediterranean Dialogue of other countries of the region."

MD partners have reiterated their support for enhanced political consultations to better tailor the MD to their specific interests and to maintain the distinctive cooperation framework of the MD.

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**The practical dimension**

Measures of practical cooperation between NATO and Mediterranean Dialogue countries are laid down in an annual Work Programme which aims at enhancing our partnership through cooperation in security-related issues.

The annual Work Programme includes seminars, workshops and other practical activities in the fields of modernisation of the armed forces, civil emergency planning, crisis management, border security, small arms & light weapons, public diplomacy, scientific and environmental cooperation, as well as discussions on terrorism and the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction (WMD).

There is also a military dimension to the annual Work Programme which includes invitations to Dialogue countries to observe - and in some cases participate - in NATO/PfP military exercises, attend courses and other academic activities at the NATO School (SHAPE) in Oberammergau (Germany) and the NATO Defense College in Rome (Italy), and visit NATO military bodies.

The military programme also includes port visits by NATO’s Standing Naval Forces, on-site train-the-trainers sessions by Mobile Training Teams, and visits by NATO experts to assess the possibilities for further cooperation in the military field.

Furthermore, NATO+7 consultation meetings on the military programme involving military representatives from NATO and the seven Mediterranean Dialogue countries are held twice a year.

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**State of play**

At their Summit meeting in Istanbul in June 2004, NATO’s HOSG invited Mediterranean partners to establish a more ambitious and expanded framework for the Mediterranean Dialogue, guided by the principle of joint ownership and taking into consideration their particular interests and needs. The aim is to contribute towards regional security and stability through stronger practical cooperation, including by enhancing the existing political dialogue, achieving interoperability, developing defence reform and contributing to the fight against terrorism.

Since the June 2004 Istanbul Summit, an annual Mediterranean Dialogue Work Programme (MDWP) focusing on agreed priority areas has been the main cooperation instrument available and has been
expanded progressively in more than 30 areas of cooperation, going from about 100 activities in 2004, to over 700 activities and events in 2011.

While the MDWP is essentially military (85 percent of the activities), it comprises activities in a wide range of areas of cooperation including Military Education, Training and Doctrine, Defence Policy and Strategy, Defence Investment, Civil Emergency Planning, Public Diplomacy, Crisis Management, Armaments and Intelligence related activities.

At their Berlin meeting in April 2011, NATO Foreign Ministers endorsed the establishment of a single Partnership Cooperation Menu (PCM) for all partners. As of 1 January 2012, the single partnership menu will be effective, thus dramatically expanding the number of activities accessible to MD countries.

A number of cooperation tools have also been progressively opened to MD countries, such as:

- The e-Prime database which provides electronic access to the MDWP allowing close monitoring of cooperation activities;
- The full package of Operational Capabilities Concept (OCC) to improve partners’ capacity to contribute effectively to NATO-led Crisis Response Operations through achieving interoperability;
- The Trust Fund mechanism that currently includes ongoing substantial projects with MD countries such as Jordan and Mauritania;
- The Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Center (EADRCC) aims at improving partners’ capacity in supporting NATO’s response to crises;
- The Partnership Action Plan Against Terrorism (PAP-T) aims at strengthening NATO’s ability to work effectively with MD partners in the fight against terrorism;
- The Civil Emergency Planning (CEP) action plan aims at improving the civil preparedness against CBRN attacks on populations and critical infrastructures.

The NATO Training Cooperation Initiative (NTCI), launched at the 2007 Riga Summit, aims at complementing existing cooperation activities developed in the MD framework through: the establishment of a “NATO Regional Cooperation Course” at the NATO Defence College (NDC) in Rome, which consists in a ten-week strategic level course also focusing on current security challenges in the Middle East.

**Individual Partnership Cooperation Programmes**

The Individual and Partnership Cooperation Programme (IPCP), which replaces the previous Individual Cooperation Programme (ICP) framework document, aims at enhancing bilateral political dialogue as well as at tailoring the cooperation with NATO according to key national security needs, framing NATO cooperation with MD partner countries in a more strategic way. Israel, Egypt, Jordan, Morocco, Mauritania and Tunisia have all agreed tailored Individual Cooperation Programmes with NATO. This is the main instrument of focused cooperation between NATO and MD countries.

Taking into account changes in the Middle East and North Africa, NATO stands ready to support and assist those Mediterranean Dialogue countries undergoing transition, if they so request. Drawing on in-house experience and expertise, through Individual Partnership Cooperation Programmes the Alliance could provide assistance in the areas of security institutions building, defence transformation, modernisation and capacity development, civil-military relations, and defence-related aspects of the transformation and reform of the security sector.
Member countries

At present, NATO has 29 members. In 1949, there were 12 founding members of the Alliance: Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, the United Kingdom and the United States. The other member countries are: Greece and Turkey (1952), Germany (1955), Spain (1982), the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland (1999), Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia (2004), Albania and Croatia (2009), and Montenegro (2017).

Highlights

- Provision for enlargement is given by Article 10 of the North Atlantic Treaty.
- Article 10 states that membership is open to any “European State in a position to further the principles of this Treaty and to contribute to the security of the North Atlantic area”.
- Any decision to invite a country to join the Alliance is taken by the North Atlantic Council, NATO’s principal political decision-making body, on the basis of consensus among all Allies.
Alphabetical list of NATO member countries

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About member countries and their accession

The founding members

On 4 April 1949, the foreign ministers from 12 countries signed the North Atlantic Treaty (also known as the Washington Treaty) at the Departmental Auditorium in Washington, D.C.: Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, the United Kingdom and the United States.

Within the following five months of the signing ceremony, the Treaty was ratified by the parliaments of the interested countries, sealing their membership.

The 12 signatories

Some of the foreign ministers who signed the Treaty were heavily involved in NATO’s work at a later stage in their careers:

- Belgium: M. Paul-Henri Spaak (NATO Secretary General, 1957-1961);
- Canada: Mr Lester B. Pearson (negotiated the Treaty and was one of the “Three Wise Men”, who drafted the report on non-military cooperation in NATO, published in 1956 in the wake of the Suez Crisis);
- Denmark: Mr Gustav Rasmussen;
- France: M. Robert Schuman (architect of the European institutions, who also initiated the idea of a European Defence Community);
- Iceland: Mr Bjarni Benediktsson;
- Italy: Count Carlo Sforza;
- Luxembourg: M. Joseph Bech;
- the Netherlands: Dr D.U. Stikker (NATO Secretary General, 1961-1964);
- Norway: Mr Halvard M. Lange (one of the “Three Wise Men”, who drafted the report on non-military cooperation in NATO);
- Portugal: Dr José Caeiro da Matta;
- the United Kingdom: Mr Ernest Bevin (main drive behind the creation of NATO and as Foreign Secretary from 1945 to 1951, he attended the first formative meetings of the North Atlantic Council);
- the United States: Mr Dean Acheson (as US Secretary of State from 1949 to 1953, he attended and chaired meetings of the North Atlantic Council).

**Flexibility of NATO membership**

On signing the Treaty, countries voluntarily commit themselves to participating in the political consultations and military activities of the Organization. Although each and every signatory to the North Atlantic Treaty is subject to the obligations of the Treaty, there remains a certain degree of flexibility which allows members to choose how they participate. The memberships of Iceland and France, for instance, illustrate this point.

- Iceland

When Iceland signed the Treaty in 1949, it did not have – and still does not have – armed forces. There is no legal impediment to forming them, but Iceland has chosen not to have any. However, Iceland has a Coast Guard, national police forces, an air defence system and a voluntary expeditionary peacekeeping force. Since 1951, Iceland has also benefitted from a long-standing bilateral defence agreement with the United States. In 2006, US forces were withdrawn but the defence agreement remains valid. Since 2008, air policing has been conducted on a periodic basis by NATO Allies.

- France

In 1966, President Charles de Gaulle decided to withdraw France from NATO’s integrated military structure. This reflected the desire for greater military independence, particularly vis-à-vis the United States, and the refusal to integrate France’s nuclear deterrent or accept any form of control over its armed forces.

In practical terms, while France still fully participated in the political instances of the Organization, it was no longer represented on certain committees, for instance, the Defence Planning Committee and the Nuclear Planning Group. This decision also led to the removal of French forces from NATO commands and foreign forces from French territory. The stationing of foreign weapons, including nuclear weapons, was also banned. NATO’s political headquarters (based in Paris since 1952), as well as the Supreme Headsquarters Allied Powers Europe or SHAPE (in Rocquencourt since 1951) moved to Belgium.

Despite France’s withdrawal from NATO’s integrated military structure, two technical agreements were signed with the Alliance, setting out procedures in the event of Soviet aggression. Since the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989, France has regularly contributed troops to NATO’s military operations, making it one of the largest troop-contributing states. It is also NATO’s fourth-biggest contributor to the military budget.

From the early 1990s onwards, France distanced itself from the 1966 decision with, for instance, its participation at the meetings of defence ministers from 1994 (Seville) onwards and the presence of French officers in Allied Command Operations and Allied Command Transformation structures from 2003. At NATO’s Strasbourg/Kehl Summit in April 2009, France officially announced its decision to fully participate in NATO structures.

**The accession of Greece and Turkey**

Three years after the signing of the Washington Treaty, on 18 February 1952, Greece and Turkey joined NATO. This enabled NATO to reinforce its “southern flank”.

At a time when there was a fear of communist expansion throughout Europe and other parts of the world (Soviet support of the North Korean invasion of South Korea in 1950), extending security to southeastern Europe was strategically important. Not only did NATO membership curb communist influence in Greece – a country recovering from civil war – but it also relieved Turkey from Soviet pressure for access to key strategic maritime routes.

**The accession of Germany**

Germany became a NATO member on 6 May 1955. This was the result of several years of deliberations among western leaders and Germany, whose population opposed any form of rearmament.

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1 However, France has chosen not to become a member of NATO’s Nuclear Planning Group.
Following the end of the Second World War, ways of integrating the Federal Republic of Germany into west European defence structures was a priority. The Federal Republic of Germany - or West Germany - was created in 1949 and although the new state was anchored to the west, its potential was feared. Initially, France proposed the creation of a European Defence Community – a European solution to the German question. However, the French Senate opposed the plan and the proposal fell through leaving NATO membership as the only viable solution. Three conditions needed to be fulfilled before this could happen: post-war victors (France, the United Kingdom, the United States and the Soviet Union) had to end the occupation of the Federal Republic of Germany; Italy and West Germany needed to be admitted to the Western Union Defence Organisation (the military agency of the Western Union) and then there was the accession procedure itself.

When Germany joined the Western Union, the latter changed its name to become the Western European Union. This accession, together with the termination of the Federal Republic of Germany’s status as an occupied country, was bringing the country closer to NATO membership. The Federal Republic of Germany officially joined the Western Union on 23 October 1954 and its status as an occupied country came to an end when the Bonn-Paris conventions came into effect on 5 May 1955. The next day, it became NATO’s 15th member country.

With the reunification of Germany on 3 October 1990, the Länder of the former German Democratic Republic joined the Federal Republic of Germany in its membership of NATO.

**The accession of Spain**

Spain joined the Alliance on 30 May 1982 despite considerable public opposition. The end of Franco’s dictatorship in 1975, the military coup in 1981 and the rise of the Socialist Party (PSOE), the leading opposition party which was initially against NATO accession, made for a difficult social and political context, both nationally and internationally.

Spain fully participated in the political instances of the Organization, but refrained from participating in the integrated military structure - a position it reaffirmed in a referendum held in 1986. With regard to the military aspects, it was present as an observer on the Nuclear Planning Group; reserved its position on participation in the integrated communication system; maintained Spanish forces under Spanish command and did not accept to have troops deployed outside of Spain for long periods of time. Nevertheless, Spanish forces would still be able to operate with other NATO forces in an emergency.

Spain’s reservations gradually diminished. The Spanish Parliament endorsed the country’s participation in the integrated military command structure in 1996, a decision that coincided with the nomination of Dr Javier Solana as NATO’s first Spanish Secretary General (1995-1999).

**The first wave of post-Cold War enlargement**

The fall of the Berlin Wall and the dissolution of the Warsaw Pact after the end of the Cold War opened up the possibility of further NATO enlargement. Some of the new democracies of Central and Eastern Europe were eager to become integrated into Euro-Atlantic institutions.

In 1995, the Alliance carried out and published the results of a Study on NATO Enlargement that considered the merits of admitting new members and how they should be brought in. It concluded that the end of the Cold War provided a unique opportunity to build improved security in the entire Euro-Atlantic area and that NATO enlargement would contribute to enhanced stability and security for all.

The Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland were invited to begin accession talks at the Alliance’s Madrid Summit in 1997 and on 12 March 1999 they became the first former members of the Warsaw Pact to join NATO.

Drawing heavily on the experience gained during this accession process, NATO launched the Membership Action Plan - or MAP - at the Washington Summit in April 1999. The MAP was established to help countries aspiring to NATO membership in their preparations, even if it did not pre-judge any decisions.
The second wave of post-Cold War enlargement

Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia were invited to begin accession talks at the Alliance’s Prague Summit in 2002. On 29 March 2004, they officially became members of the Alliance, making this the largest wave of enlargement in NATO history.

All seven countries had participated in the MAP before acceding to NATO.

The accession of Albania and Croatia

When they were partners, Albania and Croatia worked with NATO in a wide range of areas, with particular emphasis on defence and security sector reform, as well as support for wider democratic and institutional reform.

Albania had participated in the MAP since its inception in 1999 and Croatia joined in 2002. In July 2008, they both signed Accession Protocols and became official members of the Alliance on 1 April 2009.

Montenegro – the most recent accession

Shortly after regaining its independence in June 2006, Montenegro joined the Partnership for Peace in December of the same year and the Membership Action Plan three years later. It actively supported the NATO-led operation in Afghanistan from 2010 and, now provides support to the follow-on mission. Developing the interoperability of its forces and pursuing defence and security sector reforms were an important part of the country’s cooperation with NATO before it became a member country. It worked with NATO in areas such as the development of emergency response capabilities and the destruction of surplus munitions – an area in which a project is still ongoing.

The Accession Protocol was signed in May 2016 and Montenegro became a member of the Alliance on 5 June 2017.
Membership Action Plan (MAP)

The Membership Action Plan (MAP) is a NATO programme of advice, assistance and practical support tailored to the individual needs of countries wishing to join the Alliance. Participation in the MAP does not prejudge any decision by the Alliance on future membership. Current participants are Bosnia and Herzegovina and the Republic of North Macedonia.

Countries participating in the MAP submit individual annual national programmes on their preparations for possible future membership. These cover political, economic, defence, resource, security and legal aspects.

The MAP process provides a focused and candid feedback mechanism on aspirant countries’ progress on their programmes. This includes both political and technical advice, as well as annual meetings between all NATO members and individual aspirants at the level of the North Atlantic Council to assess progress, on the basis of an annual progress report. A key element is the defence planning approach for aspirants, which includes elaboration and review of agreed planning targets.

Throughout the year, meetings and workshops with NATO civilian and military experts in various fields allow for discussion of the entire spectrum of issues relevant to membership.

The MAP was launched in April 1999 at the Alliance’s Washington Summit to help countries aspiring to NATO membership in their preparations. The process drew heavily on the experience gained during the accession process of the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland, which became members in the Alliance’s first post-Cold War round of enlargement in 1999.

Participation in the MAP

Participation in the MAP helped prepare the seven countries that joined NATO in the second post-Cold War round of enlargement in 2004 (Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia) as well as Albania and Croatia, which joined in April 2009. Montenegro, which joined the MAP in December 2009, became a member of the Alliance in June 2017.

Current participants in the MAP are Bosnia and Herzegovina and the Republic of North Macedonia.

Bosnia and Herzegovina was invited to join the MAP in 2010. At the time, Allied foreign ministers called on the authorities in Bosnia and Herzegovina to resolve a key issue concerning the registration of immovable defence property to the state. At their meeting in December 2018, foreign ministers decided that NATO is ready to accept the submission of Bosnia and Herzegovina’s first Annual National Programme under the MAP. The registration of immovable defence property to the state remains essential.

The Republic of North Macedonia (previously known as the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia) has been participating in the MAP since 1999. At the 2008 Bucharest Summit, Allied leaders agreed to invite the country to become a member as soon as a mutually acceptable solution to the issue over the country’s name was reached with Greece. Following a historic agreement between Athens and Skopje on the name issue, Allies invited the country to start accession talks in 2018 and the Accession Protocol was signed on 6 February 2019. Once the Protocol has been ratified in the capitals of each of the 29 Allies, according to national procedures, the country will become a member of NATO. (On 15 February, the Republic of North Macedonia was officially recognised by its constitutional name, marking the full implementation of the agreement between Athens and Skopje.)
Meteorology and oceanography

Today, the Alliance is often operating, or monitoring conditions that affect its strategic interests, beyond the borders of its member nations. It therefore needs to have the most accurate, timely and relevant information – both current and forecast – describing the meteorological and oceanographic (METOC) aspects of these environments. For example, comprehensive weather and flood forecasting and oceanographic features such as wave heights, temperature, salinity, surf and tidal movements, or even the presence of marine life, can seriously affect military activities.

NATO cooperation in METOC support for its forces aims to ensure that Allies get the information they need through efficient and effective use of national and NATO assets. This information helps allied forces exploit the best window of opportunity to plan, execute, support and sustain military operations. Furthermore, it helps them optimize the use of sensors, weapons, targeting, logistics, equipment and personnel.

To advise the Military Committee, a METOC working group was recently formed from two separate meteorology and oceanography groups.

The NATO Meteorological and Oceanographic Military Committee Working Group

The NATO Meteorological and Oceanographic Military Committee Working Group [MCWG(METOC)] advises the Military Committee on METOC issues. It also acts as a standardization authority by supervising two subordinate panels on military meteorology and military oceanography.
MCWG (METOC), which comprises delegates from each allied country, meets annually to address military METOC policy, procedures and standardization agreements between NATO and partner countries. It relies to a large extent on the resources of NATO members, most of which have dedicated civil and/or military METOC organizations.

The group supports NATO and national members in developing effective plans, procedures and techniques for providing METOC support to NATO forces and ensuring data is collected and shared. In a more general sense, it encourages research and development as well as liaison, mutual support and interoperability among national and NATO command METOC capabilities that support allied forces.

NATO created the MCWG (METOC) by merging the former Military Oceanography Group and the Military Committee Meteorology Group in 2011.

The role of NATO countries

NATO member countries are expected to provide the bulk of METOC information and resources. At the same time, national delegates are able to steer policy, when needed, through the MCWG (METOC) and act as the approval authority for standardization. Among other tasks, nations are expected to:

- contribute to a network of data collection sites and platforms,
- provide METOC analysis and forecasts, and
- provide military METOC support products and services, such as tactical decision aids (TDAs) and acoustic predictions.

NATO established a METOC Communications Hub collocated with the Bundeswehr Geo-Information Office in Germany to better enable information-sharing among Allies and partner countries. Other allied nations also contribute to data-sharing capabilities by, for example, sustaining databases of oceanographic information or taking a lead responsibility in supporting specified operations and missions.

Climate change

The interdependencies and importance of climate change was one of the motivating factors for combining the former oceanography and meteorology groups. NATO nations and partners monitor global situations like climate change that affect security interests. In this respect, it collaborates with international organizations such as the United Nations, the World Meteorological Organization and the International Civil Aviation Organization.

NATO military METOC policies and procedures, including those supported by the MCWG (METOC), facilitate hazard assessment and prediction capabilities and rapid response for natural disasters.

The working group helps NATO members and partner countries look at how, within their national civil or military METOC capabilities, or within a collective capability, they are assessing and preparing for climate change and other national security threats.
The Military Committee (MC) is the senior military authority in NATO and the oldest permanent body in NATO after the North Atlantic Council, both having been formed only months after the Alliance came into being. It is the primary source of military advice to the North Atlantic Council and the Nuclear Planning Group, and gives direction to the two Strategic Commanders.

**Highlights**

- The Military Committee is the primary source of consensus-based advice to the North Atlantic Council and the Nuclear Planning Group on military policy and strategy, and it provides guidance to the two Strategic Commanders – Supreme Allied Commander Europe and Supreme Allied Commander Transformation.
- As such, it is an essential link between the political decision-making process and the military structure of NATO.
- The Military Committee is responsible for translating political decision and guidance into military direction, and for recommending measures considered necessary for the defence of the NATO area and the implementation of decisions regarding military operations.
- It also develops strategic policy and concepts, and prepares an annual long-term assessment of the strength and capabilities of countries and areas posing a risk to NATO’s interests.
- The Military Committee, headed by its Chairman, meets frequently at the level of permanent Military Representatives, and three times a year at the level of Chiefs of Defence.
Roles and responsibilities

Consensus-based advice on military matters
The Committee’s principal role is to provide consensus-based advice on military policy and strategy to the North Atlantic Council and direction to NATO’s Strategic Commanders. It is responsible for recommending to NATO’s political authorities those measures considered necessary for the common defence of the NATO area and for the implementation of decisions regarding NATO’s operations and missions. The Military Committee’s advice is sought as a matter of course prior to authorisation by the North Atlantic Council of NATO military activities or operations. It represents an essential link between the political decision-making process and the military command structure of NATO and is an integral part of the decision-making process of the Alliance.

Strategic direction
The Military Committee also plays a key role in the development of NATO’s military policy and doctrine within the framework of discussions in the Council, the Nuclear Planning Group and other senior bodies. It is responsible for translating political decision and guidance into military direction to NATO’s two Strategic Commanders – Supreme Allied Commander Europe and Supreme Allied Commander Transformation. In this context, the Committee assists in developing overall strategic concepts for the Alliance and prepares an annual long-term assessment of the strength and capabilities of countries and areas posing a risk to NATO’s interests. In times of crises, tension or war, and in relation to military operations undertaken by the Alliance such as its role in Afghanistan and Kosovo, its advises the Council of the military situation and its implications, and makes recommendations on the use of military force, the implementation of contingency plans and the development of appropriate rules of engagement. It is also responsible for the efficient operation of agencies subordinate to the Military Committee.

Committee representatives
The Military Committee is made up of senior military officers (usually three-star Generals or Admirals) from NATO member countries, who serve as their country’s permanent Military Representative (MILREP) to NATO, representing their Chief of Defence (CHOD). It represents a tremendous amount of specialised knowledge and experience that helps shape Alliance-wide military policies, strategies and plans. The MILREPs work in a national capacity, representing the interests of their country while remaining open to negotiation and discussion so that a NATO consensus can be reached. A civilian official represents Iceland, which has no military forces.

The Committee is headed by its Chairman, who is NATO’s senior military official. The Chairman directs the Military Committee and acts on its behalf, issuing directives and guidance both to the Director General of the International Military Staff and to NATO’s Strategic Commanders. He also has an important public role as Committee spokesman and representative, making him the senior military spokesman for the Alliance on all military matters. He is nominated for a period of three years.

Working mechanisms of the Committee
The Committee meets at least once a week in formal or informal sessions to discuss, deliberate and act on matters of military importance. In practice, meetings are convened whenever necessary and both the Council and the Military Committee normally meet much more frequently than once a week. As a result of the Alliance’s role, for instance in Afghanistan, Kosovo and the Mediterranean, the need for the Council and Military Committee to meet more frequently to discuss operational matters has increased. The work of the Military Committee is supported by the International Military Staff (IMS), which effectively acts as its executive body. The IMS is responsible for preparing assessments, studies and other papers on NATO military matters and ensures that the appropriate NATO military bodies implement the decisions and policies on military matters.
High-level meetings
Like the political decision-making bodies, it also meets regularly at its highest level, namely at the level of Chiefs of Defence (CHODs). Meetings at this level are normally held three times a year. Two of these meetings occur at NATO Headquarters and a NATO member country hosts the third in the form of a Military Committee Conference.

Cooperation with partners
The Military Committee meets regularly with partner countries at the level of national Military Representatives (once a month) and at the level of CHODs (twice a year) to deal with military cooperation issues. The Military Committee can also meet in different formats, for instance in the framework of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (i.e., in EAPC format) or more specifically to address issues related to an ongoing military operation (i.e., in RS format – Resolute Support format).
Military organisation and structures

NATO's military organisation and structures comprise all military actors and formations that are involved in and used to implement political decisions that have military implications.

The key elements of NATO’s military organisation are the Military Committee, composed of the Chiefs of Defence of NATO member countries, its executive body – the International Military Staff – and the military Command Structure (distinct from the Force Structure).

The NATO Command Structure is composed of Allied Command Operations and Allied Command Transformation, headed respectively by the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) and the Supreme Allied Commander, Transformation (SACT).

The Force Structure consists of organisational arrangements that bring together the forces placed at the Alliance’s disposal by the member countries, along with their associated command and control structures. These forces are available for NATO operations in accordance with predetermined readiness criteria and with rules of deployment and transfer of authority to NATO command that can vary from country to country.

Working mechanisms

In practice, the Chairman of the Military Committee presides over the Military Committee, where each member country has a military representative (or Milrep) for his/her Chief of Defence. This committee - NATO’s most senior military authority - provides the North Atlantic Council and the Nuclear Planning Group with consensus-based military advice – that is, advice agreed to by all of NATO’s Chiefs of Defence.

The Military Committee works closely with NATO’s two Strategic Commanders – SACEUR, responsible for operations and SACT, responsible for transformation. They are both responsible to the Military Committee for the overall conduct of all Alliance military matters within their areas of responsibility.

On the one side, the Military Committee provides the Strategic Commanders with guidance on military matters; and on the other side, it works closely with them to bring forward for political consideration by the North Atlantic Council, military assessments, plans, issues and recommendations, together with an analysis that puts this information into a wider context and takes into account the concerns of each member country. The Military Committee is supported in this role by the International Military Staff.

In sum, the Military Committee serves, inter alia, as a link between the political leaders of NATO Headquarters and the two Strategic Commanders.

The capacity to adapt

Over and above these working mechanisms, there are two phenomena that have a direct impact on the military structure, the way it functions and the way it evolves: first and foremost, international developments and events; and secondly, the constant interaction between the political and military bodies.

Evidently, political events with far-reaching consequences such as the end of the Cold War and military operations such as the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF), NATO’s former operation in Afghanistan – do trigger extensive reforms, especially within NATO’s military Command Structure. To keep pace with all these changes and future challenges, the Command Structure and way of doing business are constantly evolving. Additionally, the permanent exchange of information and specialised knowledge as well as experience between military experts and the political actors at NATO Headquarters are a constant and continual means of mutual education. This ability of the military and the civilian to work closely together makes NATO a unique organisation.
Multinational capability cooperation

To carry out its missions and tasks, NATO needs Allies to invest in interoperable, cutting-edge and cost-effective equipment. To that end, NATO plays an important role in helping nations decide how and where to invest in their defence. The Alliance also supports Allies in identifying and developing multinational cooperative projects to deliver the key defence capabilities needed for Alliance security.

Highlights

- NATO is helping Allies to identify, initiate and advance opportunities for multinational capability cooperation in key areas such as air-to-air refuelling, ammunition, maritime unmanned systems, command and control, and training.
- The aim is to drive down costs through economies of scale while improving operational values through increased commonality of equipment, training, doctrine and procedures.
- NATO Allies and partner nations have initiated several High Visibility Projects (HVP), which are being developed.
- NATO works with the European Union to avoid duplication and ensure complementarity of efforts.

More background information

High Visibility Projects

There are currently 9 projects underway that will deliver improved operational effectiveness, economies of scale, and connectivity among NATO Allies and partners. These projects address key capability areas: command and control, training structures, ammunitions and high-end acquisition.

In addition, nations continue to discuss promising areas for multinational cooperation in order to provide cost-effective security.

Command and control

Command and control (C2) consists of the leadership and direction given to a military organisation in the accomplishment of its mission. C2 is key in carrying out any NATO operation successfully and makes the operation work smoothly and efficiently. The projects below present examples of how C2 can be handled at multinational level.
**Composite Special Operations Component Command (C-SOCC)**

Special Operations Forces today increasingly operate in a multinational context. This is why having a multinational headquarters for their management is key. NATO Allies Belgium, Denmark and the Netherlands agreed to create a tri-national command – C-SOCC – which, once fully operational, will participate in the NATO Response Force and could also be responsible for supporting multinational missions as well as NATO operations.

**Regional Special Operations Component Command (R-SOCC)**

Four Allies – Croatia, Hungary, Slovakia and Slovenia – and partner country Austria have agreed to put together, under Hungarian leadership, a regional deployable headquarters to manage Special Operations. Regional NATO Special Operations Forces across the Alliance could provide clear benefits in terms of speed and resilience to respond to arising crises.

**Training structures**

All Allied forces – whether on land, in the air or at sea – need good training to confront a variety of security challenges and to perform their duties. Multinational training enables forces of different Allies to train together, improve coordination and cooperation and increase their readiness.

**Special Operations Forces Aviation**

Special Operations Forces are a highly valuable and versatile tool for effectively responding to evolving security threats. In order to further strengthen NATO in this domain, four Allies – Bulgaria, Croatia, Hungary and Slovenia – have decided to create a multinational Special Aviation Programme (MSAP) dedicated exclusively to training air crews who will conduct the insertion and extraction of Special Operations Forces.

This training facility stationed in Zadar, Croatia will be established in a gradual manner, expanding the training opportunities offered over time. The new aviation training centre is expected to open its doors on 11 December 2019 and will contribute to NATO’s adaptability and readiness.

**High-end acquisition**

Equipment used in NATO operations and missions differs in size and cost. While some is small and affordable, there are capabilities that are too big or too expensive for one country to take on. Nations are cooperating on several high-end projects they could not afford individually.

**Multi Role Tanker Transport Capability (MRTT-C)**

The MRTT is a multi-function aircraft that can serve to transport cargo, troops and as an aerial refuel tanker. Air-to-air refuelling tankers are especially critical for the projection of air power. As they are a pooled asset, interoperability is essential. The MRTT-C project enables the six participating Allies – Belgium, the Czech Republic, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Norway – to collectively acquire Airbus A330 Multi Role Tanker Transport aircraft and establish a multinationally owned and operated fleet of MRTTs. For this initiative, NATO and the European Union (EU) joined forces, as both organisations identified shortfalls in air-to-air refuelling and the participating Allies are also members of the EU. As such, it is an example of the close cooperation between NATO and the EU.

**Maritime Multi Mission Aircraft (M3A)**

When it comes to maritime defence and security, it is vital for NATO to provide continuous situational awareness and anti-submarine warfare capabilities. To replace their aging Maritime Patrol Aircraft fleets, Canada, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Poland, Spain and Turkey have joined a multinational effort for developing replacement solutions. This project guarantees cutting-edge technology for NATO Allies beyond the end of the operational life of the current fleets in 2035. France and Germany took a first step forward by starting to develop a Maritime Airborne Warfare System (MAWS), which will serve as a maritime situational awareness tool.

**Maritime Unmanned Systems (MUS)**

An increasingly important capability to secure NATO’s ability to actively respond to threats in the maritime area is unmanned systems. To facilitate multinational cooperation in this area, 14 NATO Allies – Belgium,
Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Spain, Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States – have joined forces via the MUS initiative to develop tailor-made solutions including, but not limited to, systems for detecting and clearing mines, and tracking submarines.

**Ammunition**

Ammunition is an essential part of every military operation. In order to ensure NATO Allies and partner countries are well equipped, three projects – each addressing a different type of ammunition – have been worked on at multinational level.

**Air-to-Ground Precision Guided Munitions (A2G-PGM)**

The supply of sufficient inventories of precision munitions is necessary for enabling NATO operations. This project is a multinational framework for acquiring air-to-ground munitions and aims to increase the flexibility in stockpile management by reducing legal and technical obstacles for sharing and exchanging munitions among the participating Allies – Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Greece, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Spain, the United Kingdom – and partner country Finland. This will enable the Alliance to bridge the interoperability gap in this area, which NATO first encountered during its operation in Libya, as well as support the European Allies in reducing dependence on the United States when it comes to air missions.

**Land Battle Decisive Munitions (LBDM)**

Modelled after its parent project above, the LBDM project creates a multinational framework for acquiring munitions for land domain. It currently gathers 18 Allies and three partner countries – Belgium, Croatia, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Montenegro, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, the United Kingdom, Austria, Finland and the Republic of North Macedonia - making it the largest of the High Visibility Projects. It will increase the Alliance’s ability to share munitions and work more smoothly in the field. Over time, this initiative will help troops increase their interoperability and effectiveness, harmonise munitions inventories and enable participants to operate seamlessly and effectively together.

**Maritime Battle Decisive Munitions (MBDM)**

NATO Allies Belgium, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Spain, and partner country Finland agreed to combine munitions purchases in the maritime domain, including surface-to-air and surface-to-surface missiles, torpedoes and gun shells. The potential establishment of common warehousing solutions could lower costs even further. This effort presents an important first step towards creating European stockpiles of high-quality maritime munitions that meet the Alliance’s evolving needs.

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**How does it work?**

Allies are constantly exploring new multinational initiatives to develop the key capabilities the Alliance needs when facing today’s security challenges.

These political commitments take the form of agreements signed by defence ministers. An initial document, also called a Letter of Intention (LOI) – outlining the general cooperation idea – is signed by the defence ministers involved in the project. It is followed by the signature of a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU), a legally binding document specifying the details of cooperation. The MOUs provide the necessary legal framework for the execution of the implementation phase towards the delivery of the specific capability.

In the implementation phase of most projects, the NATO Support and Procurement Agency (NSPA) plays an important role of intermediary between the nations and industry. This can happen at different levels: NSPA can invite industry to present solutions for Allies and partners to acquire, be involved in the procurement process, or even negotiate on behalf of nations with industry.
National delegations to NATO

Each NATO member country has a delegation at NATO Headquarters in Brussels, Belgium, and contributes to the consultation process, which allows NATO to take collective decisions or actions.

Highlights

- A delegation represents its country at NATO and has a status similar to that of an embassy.
- It is headed by an “ambassador” (also called “permanent representative”), who acts on instructions from his or her capital and reports back to the national authorities.
- With all the delegations in the same building, they are able to maintain formal and informal contacts with each other, as well as with NATO’s International Staff and International Military Staff.
- Delegations can vary in size and are principally staffed with civil servants from the ministries of foreign affairs and defence.

More background information

Roles and responsibilities

- Representing its member country

The responsibility and task of each delegation is to represent its member country at NATO. The authority of each delegation comes from its home country’s government. It acts on instruction from its capital and reports back on NATO decisions and projects.
Each member country is represented on every NATO committee, at every level. At the top, each member country is represented on the North Atlantic Council (NAC), the principal political decision-making body within NATO, by an ambassador.

The ambassadors are supported by their national delegation, composed of advisers and officials who represent their country on different NATO committees, subordinate to the NAC. Delegations can also be supported by experts from capitals on certain matters.

**Contributing to the consultation process**

An important function of the delegations at NATO Headquarters is to contribute to the consultation process.

Consultation among the delegations can take place in many forms, from the exchange of information and opinions to the communication of actions or decisions which governments have already taken or may be about to take and which have a direct or indirect bearing on the interests of Allies. Consultation is ultimately designed to enable member countries to arrive at mutually acceptable agreements on collective decisions or on action by the Alliance as a whole.

**The participants**

The delegation is headed by an ambassador, who is appointed by his/her government for a period ranging between one to eight years.

The staff of the delegation varies in size from about six (Iceland) to 200 (United States). It comprises civil servants from the ministries of foreign affairs, the ministry of defence and other relevant ministries. The International Staff and International Military Staff at NATO Headquarters support the work of the delegations.

As set out in the “Agreement on the Status of NATO, National Representatives and International Staff” (signed at Ottawa in 1951), all members of national delegations shall enjoy the same immunities and privileges as diplomatic representatives. These include: immunity from personal arrest or detention; immunity from legal process in respect of words spoken or written or acts done in an official capacity; and inviolability for all papers and documents. A full list of privileges and immunities can be found in Article XIII of the agreement.
NATO and the 2003 campaign against Iraq ( Archived)

The March 2003 campaign against Iraq was conducted by a coalition of forces from different countries, some of which were NATO member countries and some were not. NATO as an organization had no role in the decision to undertake the campaign or to conduct it.

Highlights

- NATO as an organisation had no role in the 2003 campaign since opinions among members were divided, as they were in the United Nations.
- Iraq was suspected of possessing weapons of mass destruction and was requested to comply with its disarmament obligations.
- The US-led coalition, Operation Iraqi Freedom, ousted the Saddam Hussein regime.
- Prior to the campaign and at the request of Turkey, NATO undertook precautionary defensive measures by deploying for instance surveillance aircraft and missile defences on Turkish territory.
- NATO also supported Poland – a participant in the US-led Multinational Stabilization Force set up after the campaign – with for instance communications and logistics.
With tensions escalating prior to events, in February 2003 Turkey requested NATO assistance under Article 4 of the North Atlantic Treaty. The Alliance undertook a number of precautionary defensive measures to ensure Turkey’s security in the event of a potential threat to its territory or population as a consequence of the crisis.

On 21 May 2003, the Alliance also agreed to support one of its members – Poland - in its leadership of a sector in the US-led Multinational Stabilization Force in Iraq.

## NATO assistance in the field

NATO’s assistance to Turkey and support to Poland were responses to requests made by the two countries. It reflects the Alliance’s commitment to the security of its member states and policy of making its assets and experience available wherever and whenever they are needed, in accordance with NATO’s founding treaty.

### Support to Turkey

Following a request by Turkey, NATO deployed surveillance aircraft and missile defences on Turkish territory from 20 February to 16 April 2003. The first NATO defensive assets arrived in Turkey the day after the decision was made and the last elements effectively left the country on 3 May.

#### Operation Display Deterrence

- NATO’s Integrated Air Defence System in Turkey was put on full alert and augmented with equipment and personnel from other NATO commands and countries;
- Four NATO Airborne Early Warning and Command Systems aircraft (AWACS) were deployed from their home base in Geilenkirchen, Germany, to the Forward Operating Base in Konya, Turkey. The first two were deployed on 26 February and the two others on 18 March. Their mission was to monitor Turkish airspace and provide early warning for defensive purposes. The aircraft flew close to 100 missions and more than 950 hours;
- Three Dutch ground-based air defence PATRIOT batteries were deployed to South-eastern Turkey on 1 March, followed by two US batteries. Their main task was to protect Turkish territory from possible attacks with tactical ballistic missiles;
- Preparations were made to augment Turkey’s air defence assets with additional aircraft from other NATO countries;
- Equipment and material for protection from the effects of chemical and biological attack was offered by several NATO countries.

#### Civil emergency planning

In addition, on 3 March 2003, the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) received a request for assistance from Turkey for capabilities that might be needed by medical teams, civil protection teams and airport personnel to deal with the consequences of possible chemical or biological attacks against the civilian population.

#### Command of the operation

The deployment of Operation Display Deterrence was authorized by NATO’s Defence Planning Committee on 19 February 2003 and began the next day. The operation was conducted under the overall command of the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) and run by what was then NATO’s regional headquarters Southern Europe (AFSOUTH).
Support to Poland

The US-led Multinational Force (MNF), known by the name of Operation Iraqi Freedom, ousted Saddam Hussein’s regime. Following the end of the March campaign, the Polish government requested NATO support in the context of its planned leadership of one of the sectors in the MNF.

The North Atlantic Council agreed to this request on 21 May and tasked NATO’s military authorities to provide advice on what type of support could be given. On 2 June, following a review of this advice, the Council agreed to aid Poland in a variety of supporting roles, including force generation, communications, logistics and movements. However, NATO did not have any permanent presence in Iraq.

Poland formally assumed command of the Multinational Division (MND) Central South in Iraq on 3 September 2003. It withdrew from the coalition in October 2008.

The evolution of NATO’s involvement

The decisions to assist Turkey and support Poland were the culmination of formal and informal consultations on a possible NATO role in Iraq, which began in 2002.

UNSCR 1441

Iraq was suspected of possessing weapons of mass destruction. On 8 November 2002, the UN Security Council issued Resolution 1441 to offer Iraq a final chance to comply with its disarmament obligations that had been repeatedly stated in previous UN Security Council Resolutions (UNSCR).

In a special declaration issued at the Prague Summit on 21-22 November, NATO heads of state and government pledged support for the implementation of this resolution.

In December, the United States proposed six measures, which NATO could take in the event of a possible military campaign against Iraq, should its government fail to comply with UNSCR 1441. These ranged from the protection of US military assets in Europe from possible terrorist attacks to defensive assistance to Turkey in the event of a threat from Iraq.

Iraq’s leader, Saddam Hussein, refused to comply and therefore raised suspicions among Security Council members. This prompted some to support immediate military action and others to insist that the weapon inspectors be given more time to conduct their work. The division in the UN was also reflected at NATO since there was no consensus among Alliance members either as to whether military action should be taken against Iraq.

The request from Turkey

Invocation of Article 4

Early February 2003, the United States put forward to the North Atlantic Council a proposal to task the Alliance’s military authorities to begin planning deterrent and defensive measures in relation to a possible threat to Turkey. No consensus was reached on this since members disagreed on the need for and timing of such measures.

In the morning of 10 February 2003, Turkey formally invoked Article 4 of the North Atlantic Treaty, asking for consultations in the North Atlantic Council on defensive assistance from NATO in the event of a threat to its population or territory resulting from armed conflict in neighbouring Iraq.

Disagreement

The request by Turkey was debated over several days, but no agreement was reached. Whereas there was no disagreement among NATO countries about their commitment to defend Turkey, there was a disagreement on whether deterrent and defensive measures should be initiated and, if so, at what point? Three member countries - Belgium, France and Germany - felt that any early moves by NATO to deploy defensive measures to Turkey could influence the ongoing debate at the United Nations Security Council in regard to Iraq and the effort to find a peaceful solution to the crisis.
Reaching consensus

On 16 February, with the cohesion of the Alliance under strain in the face of continued disagreement among the member countries, Lord Robertson, the Secretary General of NATO acting in his capacity as Chairman, concluded that no further progress on this matter could be made within the Council.

On the same day, with the concurrence of all member countries, the matter was taken up by the Defence Planning Committee. Composed of all member countries but France, which did not participate in NATO’s integrated military structure at the time, the Committee was able to reach agreement on the next steps. It decided that NATO military authorities should provide military advice on the feasibility, implications and timelines of three possible defensive measures to assist Turkey. The Committee then reviewed this advice and on 19 February it authorized the military authorities to implement, as a matter of urgency, defensive measures to assist Turkey under the name of Operation Display Deterrence.

The decision-making bodies

The decision to provide support to Turkey was made by the Defence Planning Committee. Alliance support for Poland’s role in the multinational stabilization force was agreed on in the North Atlantic Council.
NATO and the INF Treaty

The Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces Treaty, or INF Treaty, was crucial to Euro-Atlantic security for decades. It eliminated a whole category of nuclear weapons that threatened Europe in the 1980s. All NATO Allies agree that the SSC-8 / 9M729 missile system developed and deployed by Russia violated the INF Treaty, while posing a significant risk to Alliance security. Despite Allies' repeated calls on Russia to return to full and verifiable compliance, Russia continued to develop and deploy Treaty-violating systems, which led to the agreement's demise on 2 August 2019.


NATO’s position on key events

The INF Treaty was signed on 8 December 1987 by the United States and the former Soviet Union, and entered into force on 1 June 1988. It required both countries to eliminate their ground-launched ballistic and cruise missiles that could travel between 500 and 5,500 kilometres (between 300 and 3,400 miles) by an implementation deadline of 1 June 1991.

By the deadline, the two countries had together destroyed a total of 2,692 short- and intermediate-range missiles: 1,846 Soviet missiles and 846 American missiles. It marked the first elimination of an entire category of weapons capable of carrying nuclear warheads.

But in recent years, Russia has developed, produced, tested and deployed a new intermediate-range missile known as the 9M729, or SSC-8. The 9M729 is mobile and easy to hide. It is capable of carrying nuclear warheads. It reduces warning times to minutes, lowering the threshold for nuclear conflict. And it can reach European capitals.

In July 2018, NATO Allies stated that after years of denials and obfuscation by the Russian Federation, and despite Allies repeatedly raising their concerns, the Russian Federation had only recently acknowledged the existence of the missile system without providing the necessary transparency or
explanation. A pattern of behaviour and information over many years led to widespread doubts about Russian compliance. NATO Allies said that, in the absence of any credible answer from Russia on this new missile, the most plausible assessment was that Russia was in violation of the Treaty.

In December 2018, NATO Foreign Ministers supported the finding of the United States that Russia was in material breach of its obligations under the INF Treaty and called on Russia to urgently return to full and verifiable compliance with the Treaty.

Allies remained open to dialogue and engaged Russia on its violation, including at a NATO-Russia Council meeting on 25 January 2019. Russia continued to deny its INF Treaty violation, refused to provide any credible response, and took no demonstrable steps toward returning to full and verifiable compliance.

As a result of Russia’s continued non-compliance, on 1 February 2019, the United States announced its decision to suspend its obligations under Article XV of the INF Treaty. This meant that the United States could terminate the Treaty within six months of this date if Russia had not come back into compliance.

Also on 1 February 2019, NATO Allies said that unless Russia honoured its INF Treaty obligations through the verifiable destruction of all of its 9M729 systems, thereby returning to full and verifiable compliance, Russia would bear sole responsibility for the end of the Treaty. NATO Allies also made clear that NATO would continue to closely review the security implications of Russian intermediate-range missiles and would continue to take steps necessary to ensure the credibility and effectiveness of the Alliance’s overall deterrence and defence posture.

On 15 February 2019, NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg recalled at the Munich Security Conference that “it was on this very stage, at the Munich Security Conference in 2007, this was the place that President Putin first publically expressed his desire for Russia to leave the INF Treaty. A treaty that is only respected by one side will not keep us safe”.

The Alliance did everything in its remit to encourage Russia to return to compliance before 2 August 2019 so as to preserve the INF Treaty.

On 26 June 2019, NATO Defence Ministers urged Russia once again to return to full and verifiable compliance. They also considered potential NATO measures – such as exercises, intelligence, surveillance and reconnaissance, air and missile defences, and conventional capabilities – and agreed that NATO would continue to ensure a safe, secure and effective nuclear deterrent. At the same time, Defence Ministers confirmed that NATO had no intention to deploy new land-based nuclear missiles in Europe, and did not want a new arms race.

On 2 August 2019, the United States’ decision to withdraw from the Treaty took effect. NATO Allies issued a statement fully supporting the US decision, and attributing “sole responsibility” for the Treaty’s demise to Russia. The statement made clear that NATO would respond in a “measured and responsible way” to the risks posed by Russia’s SSC-8 system, with a “balanced, coordinated and defensive package of measures,” ensuring credible and effective deterrence and defence. Allies also made clear their firm commitment to the preservation of effective international arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation.

### Missiles banned under the INF Treaty

Under the INF Treaty, the United States and Russia cannot possess, produce or flight-test a ground-launched cruise missile with a range capability of 500 to 5,500 kilometres, or possess or produce launchers of such missiles.

The INF Treaty gives precise definitions of the banned ground-launched ballistic and cruise missiles:

- An intermediate-range ballistic missile (IRBM) is a ground-launched ballistic or cruise missile having a range capability between 1,000 and 5,500 kilometres. The term “ballistic missile” means a missile that has a ballistic trajectory over most of its flight path.

- A shorter-range missile means a ground-launched ballistic or cruise missile having a range capability between 500 and 1,000 kilometres. The term “cruise missile” means an unmanned, self-propelled vehicle that sustains flight through the use of aerodynamic lift over most of its flight path.
Timeline

- **8 December 1987**: Signing of the INF Treaty.
- **11 May 1991**: Destruction of the last missiles covered under the Treaty.
- **23 May 2013**: The United States first raises its concerns with Russia about the missile system.
- **5 September 2014**: Wales Summit: Allies call on Russia to preserve the viability of the Treaty.
- **9 July 2016**: Warsaw Summit: Allies call on Russia to answer US charges and preserve the viability of the INF Treaty.
- **9 December 2017**: Russia admits the SSC-8/9M729 exists but claims it is compliant.
- **11 July 2018**: NATO Allies declare that Russia appears to be violating the INF Treaty.
- **20 October 2018**: The United States announces its intention to withdraw from the Treaty.
- **4 December 2018**: The United States declares Russia in material breach of the Treaty.
- **4 December 2018**: NATO Foreign Ministers support the US finding on Russia’s violation.
- **25 January 2019**: NATO Allies urge Russia to return to compliance at a NATO-Russia Council meeting.
- **1 February 2019**: The United States announces its decision to suspend compliance with the INF Treaty.
- **1 February 2019**: NATO Allies issue a statement on Russia’s failure to comply with the INF Treaty.
- **14 February 2019**: NATO Defence Ministers call again on Russia to come back into compliance.
- **26 June 2019**: NATO Defence Ministers agree that NATO will respond, should Russia fail to return to compliance, and consider potential measures.
- **2 August 2019**: The United States’ decision to withdraw from the INF Treaty takes effect, with the full support of NATO Allies. Allies issue a statement attributing sole responsibility for the Treaty’s demise to Russia, and announce their decision to respond in a measured and responsible way, while remaining firmly committed to the preservation of effective international arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation.
NATO Administrative Tribunal

The Administrative Tribunal (AT) is an independent body. It is competent to decide any individual dispute brought by a staff member or a member of the retired North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) staff or his or her legal successor, who is affected by a decision, which is allegedly not in compliance with the Civilian Personnel Regulations or the terms of his appointment with the Organization.

Highlights

- NATO’s dispute resolution system has its legal basis within the Agreement on the Status of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, National Representatives and International Staff, done at Ottawa on 20 September 1951, in particular its Article XXIV, and ratified by all member states.
- The NATO Appeals Board, the predecessor of the AT, was created in 1965 and remained operational under the same legal framework for over 40 years.
- In 2011 the North Atlantic Council (NAC) decided to conduct a thorough review of its dispute resolution system in view of its modernisation.
- On 23 January 2013, the NAC approved amendments to its Civilian Personnel Regulations and established, inter alia, with effect from 1 July 2013, the Administrative Tribunal (AT) of NATO.
- The AT is composed of five members of different NATO nationalities who are appointed by the NAC.
- The AT generally conducts oral hearings and renders binding judgments.
- The AT is served by a Registrar office whose personnel are in the discharge of his/her duties responsible only to the Tribunal.
More background information

Members

The Tribunal is composed of five members, who shall be of the nationality of one of the NATO member states, but not members of the staff, retired staff members or of the national delegations to the NAC.

The members, of different nationality, are appointed by the NAC “on the basis of merit, be a competent citizen of good character, integrity, reason, intelligence, and judgment and possess the qualifications required for appointment to high judicial office or be a jurisconsult of recognised competence in a field or fields relevant to the work of the Tribunal”. The appointment is for a five years term, renewable once.

On 22 April 2013 the NAC appointed the following five individuals as President and Members of the AT:

- Mr Chris de Cooker (Netherlands), President of the NATO Administrative Tribunal
- Ms Maria-Lourdes Arastey Sahún (Spain), Member of the NATO Administrative Tribunal
- Mr John R. Crook (United States), Member of the NATO Administrative Tribunal
- Mr Laurent Touvet (France), Member of the NATO Administrative Tribunal
- Mr Christos A. Vassilopoulos (Greece), Member of the NATO Administrative Tribunal

Schedule of sessions

The next session of the Tribunal will be held at NATO Headquarters on 6 December 2019.

- Summary table of registered appeals (October 2019) (PDF/241Kb)

Staff members, or retired NATO staff, or members of a Delegation of a NATO member state holding the appropriate security clearance, and who are interested in attending a hearing, should consult the “Guidelines for attendance to the NATO Administrative Tribunal's hearings” under “Practical information” or send an e-mail to: mailbox.tribunal@hq.nato.int for further information and assistance.

Practical information

For practical information on how to file a submission or attend a NATO AT hearing, please refer to the documents below:

- Practice Directions for the parties to judicial proceedings before the NATO Administrative Tribunal (Adopted on 23 February 2015), 184.67 KB
- AT(TRI)(2014)0003: Guidelines for attendance to the NATO Administrative Tribunal’s hearings, 244.20 KB

To file a submission electronically please refer to the link below

- https://nat.hq.nato.int/

The NATO AT can be contacted at:

NATO Administrative Tribunal
Blvd Leopold III
B-1110 Brussels

Tel: + 32 (0)2 707 3831

E-mail: mailbox.tribunal@hq.nato.int

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1 Two of these members (chosen by drawing lots) are appointed for three years.
2 All five members have been renewed for a further term. The Members of the Tribunal are completely independent in the exercise of their duties.
AT Judgments

Past judgments can be consulted below:

- Judgments of the NATO Administrative Tribunal - 2013, 1698.03 KB
- Judgments of the NATO Administrative Tribunal - 2014, 5.4 MB
- Judgments of the NATO Administrative Tribunal - 2015, 5432 KB
- Judgments and Orders of the NATO Administrative Tribunal - 2016, 7.16 MB
- Judgments and Orders of the NATO Administrative Tribunal - 2017, 2.7 MB
- Judgments and Orders of the NATO Administrative Tribunal - 2018, 11 MB
- Statistics of Judgments of the NATO Administrative Tribunal - 2013-2018, 569 KB

NB: Judgments can be word-searched using the “CTRL + F” function of the keyboards
NATO Advisory and Liaison Team (NALT)

Mission
To support further developments of the security organisations in Kosovo and to include the provision of advice and support with a focus on capacity-building, education and training coordination.

Structure
The Director of the NALT is a senior military rank and is supported by a civilian Deputy. The Director and his Deputy are supported by a Command and Support Element and a team comprised of military and civilian advisors delivering the necessary advice and assistance throughout the security organisations in Kosovo.

Tasks
The NATO Advisory and Liaison Team performs the following tasks:

- advise – including in the areas of capacity-building, training, leadership, doctrine, logistics, international law, human rights and management;
- assist – including best practices to international standards on issues such as head office strategies, policies, plans processes and internal control mechanisms that ensure transparency and accountability;
- liaise and coordinate NATO Assistance Programmes.

Main principles
The principles of NATO’s support to the security organisations in Kosovo include:

- transparency of engagement, including with regional actors;
- the NALT is an objective-based mission which consults on a regular basis with the authorities in Kosovo;
- coherent delivery of advice and assistance with a view of ensuring coordination with other stakeholders and the authorities in Kosovo.

Current priorities
A comprehensive NALT Programme of Work, as agreed with partners, delivers advice, assistance and support in areas such as:

- human resources management (HRM);
- logistics;
- procurement;
- finance;
- emergency management planning;
- officer and non-commissioned officer (NCO) development;
- training and lessons learned.
General organisational information

The NATO Advisory and Liaison Team was officially created on 28 August 2016.

Current staff consist of 41 military and civilian personnel including 10 local staff.

The NALT structure comprises a Command Element, Chief of Staff Support Team, Strategy and Plans Branch, Operations and Support Branches.
NATO Airborne Early Warning and Control Programme Management Organisation (NAPMO)

Information on NAPMO can be found on: http://www.napma.nato.int/organisation/2.html
NATO Air Command and Control System (ACCS)

The NATO Air Command and Control System (ACCS) programme will provide the Alliance with a single, integrated air command and control system to manage NATO air operations in and out of the Euro-Atlantic area.

Highlights

- NATO ACCS will replace a wide variety of NATO and national air systems currently fielded across the Alliance.
- It will provide a unified air command and control system, enabling NATO and its members to manage all types of air operations both over NATO European territory as well as when deployed out of area.
- Once fully deployed, NATO ACCS will cover 10 million square kilometres of airspace and interconnect over 20 military aircraft control centres.

NATO ACCS in practice

NATO ACCS will be one of the major pillars of the NATO Integrated Air and Missile Defence System (NATINAMDS) capability aimed at safeguarding and protecting Alliance territory, populations and forces against any air and missile threat and attack.

For the first time, all NATO air operations (including air policing) will be provided with a unified system employing a single consistent and secure database.
NATO ACCS will integrate air mission control, air traffic control, airspace surveillance, airspace management, command and control (C2) resource management and force management functions among other functionalities.

The system is designed to make it easier to add functionality, make necessary upgrades and address emerging operational requirements, such as theatre missile defence.

Such operations are under the tactical command of Headquarters Allied Air Command (HQ AIRCOM), Ramstein, and will be undertaken from a range of static and deployable installations. HQ AIRCOM is supported by two Combined Air Operations Centres (CAOC) in Torrejon, Spain and in Uedem, Germany, as well as by one Deployable Air Command and Control Centre (DACCC) in Poggio Renatico, Italy.

Both CAOCs are composed of two parts. One part is a Static Air Defence Centre (SADC) responsible for air policing and the other a Deployable Air Operations Centre (D-AOC), which supports operations. The D-AOC is an element focused on the production of combat plans and the conduct of combat operations.

In July 2015, the ACCS system reached a significant milestone when NATO's first ACCS site was activated in Poggio Renatico. On 17 June, the first ever ACCS real-life air policing event was controlled using NATO ACCS. The order to take off was sent from the CAOC located in Torrejon and was executed by two Eurofighter Typhoon aircraft controlled by the ACCS site in Poggio Renatico. Other NATO and national sites will follow in 2015 and subsequent years.

Once fully deployed, ACCS will cover 10 million square kilometres (3.8 million square miles) of airspace. It will interconnect more than 20 military aircraft control centres, providing a wide spectrum of new and modern tools to all NATO air operators, and greatly increase the effectiveness of NATO air operations.

In the future, ACCS will integrate the capabilities of missile defence command and control, be interoperable with Alliance Ground Surveillance (AGS) and Joint intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance (JISR).

**Deployability**

To support NATO's out-of-area operations, the NATO ACCS programme will provide deployable capabilities. The Deployable ARS (deployable air control centre) is a mobile, shelterised tactical component of NATO ACCS that will support any NATO out-of-area operations and is designed to be easily transportable by road, air and sea. The DARS achieved initial operational capability on 12 June 2015.

**Information-sharing**

NATO ACCS is made of various dedicated national and NATO systems which pool their resources and capabilities to create a new, more complex system offering greater functionality and performance.

The system will allow improved information-sharing and shared situational awareness to distributed sites in order to support collaboration. It also shares information with a multitude of external agencies (such as civilian air traffic systems).

### The scale of the programme

In broad terms, the NATO ACCS programme comprises the following elements:

- around 300 air surveillance sensor sites interconnected with more than 40 different radar types;
- around 16 basic standard interfaces, links and data types;
- around 550 external systems in 800 locations with 6,500 physical interfaces;
- 81 million square kilometres of theatre of operations (not including deployable capability) from the northernmost point of Norway in the north of Europe to the easternmost point of Turkey in the south;
- more than 13 million lines of integrated and delivered software code;
- 27 operational site locations and deployable components;
142 operator roles, more than 450 work positions and more than 60 servers; and
around 200 commercial off-the-shelf products providing operational tools.

Management

The NATO Communications and Information (NCI) Agency is responsible for procuring NATO ACCS and for delivering it to the operational community.

The Air Command and Control (C2) Programme Office and Services (PO&S) of the NCI Agency, headed by a director, was created from a number of previous NATO bodies as a consequence of the NATO Agencies Reform in 2012. The re-organisation is part of an ongoing NATO reform process which aims to enhance efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of capabilities and services, to achieve greater synergy between similar functions and to increase transparency and accountability.

The Air C2 PO&S has the mandate to oversee NATO’s Air C2 programmes and is composed of experts from NATO nations, the majority of whom have backgrounds in the following disciplines: defence procurement, software and systems engineering, operations, logistics, quality assurance, configuration management, communications, test and evaluation, information technology, information security. The Air C2 PO&S is presently located at NATO Headquarters, Brussels, Belgium, at NCI Agency, The Hague, The Netherlands, and at NCI Agency, Glons, Belgium.

Evolution

Fifty years ago, NATO member countries recognised that protection of the airspace over the member states could be achieved more effectively if conducted cooperatively. They delegated operational control of the air policing mission even in times of peace to the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR). The component parts of the required air command and control system – surveillance assets, command and control networks, ground-based weapons systems and interceptor aircraft – operate coherently with NATO and national assets in a collective and holistic approach.

The NATO Integrated Air Defence System (NATINADS), now the NATO Integrated Air and Missile Defence System (NATINAMDS), was the first example of what has more recently been called “Smart Defence” – multinational cooperation employed to provide a necessary capability providing 24/7 protection and support to air policing.

Systems must, of course, adapt to the changing political situation and threat. For example, the Cold War ended more than 20 years ago and the system required to defend the Alliance now must reflect the wide range of current threats. Ballistic missiles, cruise missiles, stealth aircraft and civil aircraft hijacked as weapons have been added to the threat spectrum; and the required capability to conduct operations outside NATO territories requires more flexible and deployable systems.

Airspace as a resource is shared by civilian and military users, and consequently the management of airspace needs to be closely coordinated. Civilian initiatives like the Single European Sky or the North American NEXTGEN will apply changes to airspace management policy and procedures. NEXTGEN is an umbrella term for the ongoing transformation of the National Airspace System of the United States.
NATO Communications and Information Agency (NCI Agency)

The NATO Communications and Information Agency – or NCI Agency – acts as NATO’s principal Consultation, Command and Control (C3) deliverer and Communications and Information Systems (CIS) provider. It also provides IT-support to NATO Headquarters, the NATO Command Structure and NATO Agencies.

Main tasks and responsibilities
NCI Agency delivers advanced Command, Control, Communications, Computers, Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance (C4ISR) technology and communications capabilities in support of Alliance decision-makers and missions, including addressing new threats and challenges such as cyber and missile defence. This includes the acquisition of technology, experimentation, the promotion of interoperability, systems and architecture design and engineering, as well as testing and technical support. It also provides communication and information systems (CIS) services in support of Alliance missions.

In addition, the Agency conducts the central planning, system engineering, implementation and configuration management for the NATO Air Command and Control System (ACCs) Programme.

NCI Agency also provides co-operative sharing and exchange of information between and among NATO and other Allied bodies using interoperable national and NATO support systems.

The Agency’s structure
The NCI Agency, led by a General Manager, is headquartered in Brussels, Belgium. It has major locations in The Hague, the Netherlands, and Mons, Belgium, in addition to over 30 offices in Afghanistan and with major customers. The Agency is the executive arm of the NATO Communication and Information Organisation (NCIO), which aims to achieve maximum effectiveness in delivering C3 capabilities to stakeholders, while ensuring their coherence and interoperability, and ensuring the provision of secure CIS services at minimum cost to Allies – individually and collectively.
NCIO is managed by an Agency Supervisory Board (ASB) composed of representative from each NATO nation. The ASB oversees the work of the NCIO. After consulting with the NATO Secretary General, NCIO’s ASB appoints the General Manager of the Agency. All NATO nations are members of the NCIO.

The ASB, which reports to the North Atlantic Council (NAC), issues directives and makes general policy decisions to enable NCIO to carry out its work. Its decisions on fundamental issues such as policy, finance, organization and establishment require unanimous agreement by all member countries.

## Evolution

At the Lisbon Summit in November 2010, NATO Heads of State and Government agreed to reform the 14 existing NATO Agencies, located in seven member states. In particular, Allies agreed to streamline the agencies into three major programmatic themes: procurement, support, and communications and information. The reform aims to enhance efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of capabilities and services, to achieve greater synergy between similar functions and to increase transparency and accountability.

As part of the reform process, the NCI Agency was created on 1 July 2012 through the merger of the NATO C3 Organisation, NATO Communication and Information Systems Services Agency (NCSA), NATO Consultation, Command and Control Agency (NC3A), NATO Air Command and Control System Management Agency (NACMA), and NATO Headquarters Information and Communication Technology Service (ICTM).
The NATO Defense College in Rome offers strategic-level courses on politico-military issues designed to prepare selected personnel for NATO and NATO-related appointments.

The College also provides senior NATO officials with fresh perspectives on issues relevant to the Alliance by drawing on the ideas of top academics, experts and practitioners, and through reports from conferences and workshops that focus on the major issues challenging the Alliance.

Virtually all of the College’s activities are open to participants from the Partnership for Peace and Mediterranean Dialogue countries, and they may also include participants from countries in the broader Middle East region in the framework of the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative.

The College was established in Paris in 1951 and was transferred to Rome in 1966.

- Core objectives and activities
- The organization of the College
- The evolution of the College

Core objectives and activities

The College’s mission is to contribute to the effectiveness and cohesion of the Alliance by developing its role as a major centre of education, study and research on transatlantic security issues.

The main educational activity of the College is the Senior Course, which is attended by up to 90 course members selected by their own governments on a national quota basis. These members are either
military officers holding the rank of colonel or lieutenant colonel, or civilian officials of equivalent status from relevant government departments or national institutions.

In line with guidance issued to the College by the North Atlantic Council and NATO's Military Committee in 2002, the College focuses its efforts on three core areas: education, outreach and research.

**Education**

Most course members go on to staff appointments in NATO commands or national NATO-related posts in their own countries.

Great importance is attached to the achievement of consensus among the course members during their preparatory work and discussions, reflecting the importance of the principle of consensus throughout NATO structures.

Also, the College has a non-attribution rule that allows students to speak their minds freely, knowing that their views will not be repeated outside the confines of the College “family”.

Parts of the Senior Course are designed to be taken as modular short courses which allow selected officers and officials from NATO Headquarters and from the strategic commands to join the Senior Course for one week to study a particular strategic theme. In addition to the courses, daily lectures are given by visiting academics, politicians, high-ranking military and civil servants.

**Outreach**

In 1991, the College introduced a two-week course for senior officers and civilians from the members of the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe, now the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE). The following year, the course became an Integrated Partnership for Peace (PiP)/OSCE Course within the framework of the Senior Course. As an integral part of NATO’s PiP programme, this two-week course aims to develop a common perception of the Euro-Atlantic region among the college’s regular Senior Course members and representatives from PiP/OSCE and NATO’s Mediterranean Dialogue countries.

**Research**

The College has significantly upgraded its work in the field of research. It aims to provide senior NATO officials with fresh perspectives, drawing on the ideas of top academics, experts and practitioners, through reports based on conferences and workshops that focus on the major issues challenging the Alliance. In addition, the College organizes an International Research Seminar on Euro-Atlantic Security every year, in cooperation with an academic institution from one of the PiP countries. A similar International Research Seminar with Mediterranean Dialogue Countries also takes place annually.

Each year the College offers research fellowships in the field of security studies to two nationals from PiP countries and two from Mediterranean Dialogue countries. This programme aims to promote individual scholarly research on topics relating to Euro-Atlantic, Eurasian and Mediterranean security issues.

**The organization of the College**

The College comes under the direction of the Military Committee, which appoints the commandant of the College for a period of three years. The commandant is an officer of at least lieutenant general rank or equivalent. He is assisted by a civilian dean and a military director of management provided by the host country. The Chairman of the Military Committee chairs the College’s Academic Advisory Board. The College faculty is composed of military officers and civilian officials, normally from the foreign and defence ministries of NATO member countries.

**The evolution of the College**

In 1951, US General Dwight D. Eisenhower, NATO’s first Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR), first perceived the need to identify officers and officials in the then embryonic NATO who were capable of adapting themselves to the new security environment in Europe.
On 25 April 1951, he wrote:

"...There is a high priority requirement to develop individuals, both on the military and civilian side, who will have a thorough grasp of the many complicated factors which are involved in the problem of creating an adequate defense posture for the North Atlantic Treaty area. The venture upon which we are now embarked is so new to all of us, and the problems which it raises are on such a different scale from those which have hitherto confronted the member nations, that we are continually faced with a necessity for exploring new approaches and for broadening our points of view. This means we must constantly be on the lookout for individuals who are capable of adapting themselves to this new environment and who find it possible, in a reasonably short time, to broaden their outlook and to grasp the essentials of this challenging problem sufficiently to shoulder the responsibilities inherent in this new field."

His vision was translated into the founding of the NATO Defense College in Paris, and Course Number 1 was inaugurated on 19 November 1951.

The College quickly made a name for itself as an establishment where NATO’s senior officials learnt how to operate effectively in high-level, multinational staffs.

**Move to Rome**

The College continued in Paris until 1966, when President Charles de Gaulle decided that France would withdraw from NATO’s integrated military structure and the College was required to move.

Italy offered temporary accommodation in an office block in the EUR area of Rome. These premises served the College for more than 30 years.

In the 1990s it became increasingly clear that a new building was required: one that would be in keeping with the standing the College had acquired within NATO and the international academic world.

Italy offered to provide such premises and work began on the construction of a purpose-built College in the Military City of Cecchignola. The College moved in during the summer of 1999 and the inauguration of the new facilities took place on 10 September.

Over the years, some 7,000 senior officers, diplomats, and officials have passed through the College in preparation for working on Alliance-related issues.
NATO-Georgia Commission

The NATO-Georgia Commission (NGC) was established in September 2008 to serve as a forum for both political consultations and practical cooperation to help Georgia achieve its goal of membership in NATO.

A Framework Document establishing the new body was signed by NATO’s Secretary General and the Georgian Prime Minister on 15 September 2008 in Tbilisi. The inaugural session took place immediately afterwards, during the visit of the North Atlantic Council to Georgia.

The NGC aims to deepen political dialogue and cooperation between NATO and Georgia at all appropriate levels.

It also supervises the process set in hand at the Bucharest Summit in April 2008, when the Allies agreed that Georgia will become a NATO member. To this end, the NGC seeks to underpin Georgia’s efforts to take forward its political, economic, and defence-related reforms pertaining to its Euro-Atlantic aspirations for membership in NATO, with a focus on key democratic and institutional goals.

Another of the NGC’s goals is to coordinate Alliance efforts to assist Georgia in recovering from the August 2008 conflict with Russia.

Participation

All NATO member states and Georgia are represented in the NGC, which meets regularly at the level of ambassadors and military representatives, as well as periodically at the level of foreign and defence ministers and chiefs of staff, and occasionally at summit level.
Senior level meetings of the NGC are prepared by the Political Committee in NGC format (or NGC PC). Meetings in this format also serve as the site for ongoing exchanges on political and security issues of common interest, and the preparation and assessment of Georgia’s programmes of cooperation with NATO.

The work of the NGC

The NGC provides a forum for consultation between the Allies and Georgia on the process of reforms in Georgia, NATO’s assistance to that process, and on regional security issues of common concern.

In December 2008, NATO foreign ministers decided to further enhance work under the NGC through the development of an Annual National Programme (ANP). The ANP, which was finalised in spring 2009, replaced the Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP), which has guided NATO-Georgia cooperation since 2004.

The NGC also keeps under review cooperative activities developed in the framework of Georgia’s participation in the Partnership for Peace, as well as in the military-to-military sphere.
NATO Headquarters

NATO Headquarters is the political and administrative centre of the Alliance. It is located at Boulevard Leopold III in Brussels, Belgium. It offers a venue for representatives and experts from all member countries to consult on a continuous basis, a key part of the Alliance’s consensual decision-making process, and to work with partner countries.

Highlights

- NATO Headquarters is the political and administrative centre of the Alliance.
- It is the permanent home of the North Atlantic Council – NATO’s senior political decision-making body.
- It is also home to national delegations of member countries and to liaison offices or diplomatic missions of partner countries.
- The work of these delegations and missions is supported by NATO’s International Staff and International Military Staff, also based at the Headquarters.
- The Headquarters hosts roughly 6,000 meetings every year.
- Initially based in London, the Headquarters was moved to Paris in 1952 before being transferred to Brussels, Belgium in 1967.

Role, responsibilities and people

NATO Headquarters is where representatives from all the member states come together to make decisions on a consensus basis. It also offers a venue for dialogue and cooperation between partner countries and NATO member countries, enabling them to work together in their efforts to bring about peace and stability.
Roughly 4,000 people work at NATO Headquarters on a full-time basis. Of these, some 2,000 are members of national delegations and supporting staff members of national military representatives to NATO. About 300 people work at the missions of NATO’s partners countries. Some 1,000 are civilian members of the International Staff or NATO agencies located within the Headquarters and about 500 are members of the International Military Staff, which also includes civilians.

### Working mechanism

With permanent delegations of NATO members and partners based at the Headquarters, there is ample opportunity for informal and formal consultation on a continuous basis, a key part of the Alliance’s decision-making process.

Meetings at NATO Headquarters take place throughout the year, creating a setting for dialogue among member states. More than 5,000 meetings take place every year among NATO bodies, involving staff based at the Headquarters as well as scores of experts who travel to the site.

### Evolution

In 1949, Allied countries established NATO’s first Headquarters in London, the United Kingdom, at 13 Belgrave Square.

As NATO’s structure developed and more space was needed, its Headquarters moved to central Paris in April 1952. At first it was temporarily housed at the Palais de Chaillot, but then moved to a purpose-built edifice at Porte Dauphine in 1960.

In 1966, however, France decided to withdraw from NATO’s integrated military command structure, which called for another move – this time to Brussels. The new site in Belgium was constructed in a record time of six months and was inaugurated on 16 October 1967.

By 1999, NATO Heads of State and Government came to realise that, with NATO’s enlargement and transformation, the facilities no longer met the requirements of the Alliance. They agreed to construct a new Headquarters situated across the road from the existing Headquarters, Boulevard Léopold III, Brussels. The construction of the building was finalised in 2017 and the move took place in 2018.

The design of the new building reflects the unity and adaptability of the Alliance. Its unity is manifest through the concept of interlocking fingers, while its adaptability is ensured by state-of-the-art facilities, allowing the building to adapt to the Alliance’s evolving needs. It is also equipped for the 21st century with cutting-edge information and communications technologies. Furthermore, the building helps reduce NATO’s environmental footprint by reducing energy consumption (geothermal heating in the winter and cooling in the summer), making full use of natural light via huge glass surfaces, and reducing water consumption (rain water collection via the sloped wings of the construction).
NATO Information and Documentation Centre (NIDC)

The NATO Information and Documentation Centre in Ukraine (NIDC) was inaugurated in May 1997 on the eve of signing the NATO-Ukraine Charter on a Distinctive Partnership, which serves as the founding document for the relationship between NATO and Ukraine. The NIDC is part of the NATO Public Diplomacy Division and was the first information office established by NATO in a partner country, and open to the general public.

In September 2015, the NATO Secretary General signed an Agreement with the Ukrainian authorities establishing the NATO Representation comprising the two NATO bodies operating in Ukraine - NATO Information and Documentation Centre and NATO Liaison Office (NLO) in Ukraine - with the necessary legal framework. The two offices will eventually move and be collocated in the same premises courtesy of the Ukrainian Government.

The NIDC in Kyiv plays a key role in promoting a better understanding in Ukraine of NATO’s core tasks and priorities, benefits of NATO-Ukraine cooperation, as well as in providing support to the Ukrainian authorities in the area of public information and strategic communications.

The NIDC also contributes to the efforts to facilitate and enhance Ukraine’s participation in cooperation activities with NATO in the frameworks of the NATO-Ukraine Charter, Ukraine’s Annual National Programme, Strategic Communications Partnership and other forms of cooperation between NATO and Ukraine. It advises the Ukrainian authorities and institutions in the area of strategic communications and public diplomacy.
NIDC Staff

Director (Slovakia/NATO IS)
Deputy Director/Strategic Communications Advisor (Lithuanian Voluntary National Contribution)
Local staff

The mandate of the NIDC consists in:

1. Maintaining and establishing contact with all relevant civil and military ministries or agencies;
2. Advising and assisting the Ukrainian authorities, in particular the Ministries of Foreign Affairs, Defence and Interior, the National Security and Defence Council, the Security Service of Ukraine, the State Border Guard Service, and the State Emergency Service in respect of strategic communications, as well as in developing communications activities in respect of defence and security sector reforms;
3. Developing and organising public diplomacy and communications activities for visiting NATO officials;
4. Developing and implementing public diplomacy and communications programmes, including training and capacity building programmes and activities in the realm of public diplomacy, in furtherance of the NATO-Ukraine Distinctive Partnership;
5. Strengthening public awareness of NATO through personal contacts and the dissemination of information on NATO, to allow free access to information on NATO to audiences and the public at large, including, inter alia, government officials and structures, the military and security authorities and institutions, in particular the Ministries of Foreign Affairs, Defence and Interior, the National Security and Defence Council, the Security Service of Ukraine, the State Border Guard Service, and the State Emergency Service, as well as parliamentarians and their researchers, the media, journalists and media professionals, libraries, university and institute departments dealing with political, security, foreign policy and defence matters, relevant non-governmental organisations and economic and business leaders, and other interested publics;
6. Establishing a comprehensive NATO computer-based documentation and correspondence network, which will be freely accessible electronically to the Ukrainian and international publics;
7. Initiating, coordinating and/or organising national, regional and international seminars, conferences and roundtables on European and global security, and specifically on NATO’s role;
8. Reviewing and coordinating proposals for potential visitors to NATO and NATO-related conferences and seminars, and assisting with visits to Ukraine of NATO officials;
9. Making available information on NATO academic and scientific programs to potential applicants, and reviewing applications;
10. Contributing to, monitoring and reporting on Ukrainian and international media coverage of NATO-related issues;
11. Liaising with NATO authorities in the context of relevant NATO-Ukraine activities and cooperation programmes; and
12. Any other public diplomacy activities.

Public Diplomacy/Communications Projects

In order to facilitate NATO’s core mission and activities in Ukraine, NIDC supports various public diplomacy and communications projects, including seminars, conferences, multimedia projects aimed at promoting awareness and better understanding of NATO, its values and activities, and NATO-Ukraine cooperation.

Flagship projects in Ukraine include the Kyiv Security Forum, Yalta European Strategy, and others.

Grants are awarded on a regular basis throughout the year to recognised Ukrainian non-governmental organisations for a variety of initiatives and activities related to NATO and/or NATO-Ukraine relations. For more information and/or an application form, please visit the following link: NATO Public Diplomacy Division’s Co-Sponsorship Grants. Please send requests for additional information and project applications relating to Ukraine to projects@nato.kiev.ua.
Implementing the Strategic Communications Partnership Roadmap

NIDC advises Ukrainian authorities on Strategic Communications. A major milestone expanding the scope of NATO-Ukraine relations was achieved in September 2015 in agreeing the NATO-Ukraine Strategic Communications Partnership Roadmap (further referred to as ‘Roadmap’). The Roadmap was signed by NATO Secretary Jens Stoltenberg and Ukraine’s National Security and Defence Council (NSDC) Secretary Oleksandr Turchynov.

The NIDC is the NATO executing manager in Ukraine for the Roadmap and its associated programmes and activities. While the Secretariat of the National Security and Defence Council of Ukraine is the primary lead and coordinating authority on behalf of Ukraine.

The Strategic Communications Partnership aims to enhance the capabilities of the Ukrainian authorities in the field of Strategic Communications, assist the development of Ukraine’s Strategic Communications culture and maintain the highest standards of accuracy and ethics to ensure the credibility and efficiency of Ukraine’s government communications. Activities under the Roadmap Implementation Plan are tailored to achieve these goals and focus on: capacity-building in various communications disciplines, training capacity development, public diplomacy, and research in the sphere of communications.

Under the Comprehensive Assistance Package for Ukraine adopted at the 2016 NATO Summit in Warsaw, NATO will assist Ukraine in the development of strategic communications capabilities of the Defence Forces through the implementation of the NATO-Ukraine Strategic Communications Roadmap.
The NATO Information Office in Moscow (NIO) aims to contribute to the development of understanding by the general public of Russia of evolving relations between the Russian Federation and NATO and is the focal point for disseminating information within Russia on the role and function of NATO.

It was established on 15 December 2000 and is attached to the Embassy of the Kingdom of Belgium to the Russian Federation.

After the establishment of the NATO-Russia Council in May 2002, the Office was also tasked to inform the general public of Russia on the Council’s achievements.

What is its authority, tasks and responsibilities?

The NIO works in the following areas:

- Distribution of NATO official information to the general Russian public, including mass media, state agencies, federal and regional legislatures, the military, non-governmental organizations, and educational and research institutions
- Sponsoring of communication projects, including regional, national and international seminars, conferences and roundtables in the Russian Federation, on European and global security issues, focusing in particular on the role of NATO and on NATO-Russia cooperation;
organization of visits for Russian visitors to NATO headquarters and NATO sites, as well as for NATO representatives to the Russian Federation;

providing information on NATO’s educational and scientific programmes for Russian institutions and potential Russian applicants;

distribution of printed and electronic information on NATO and Euro-Atlantic security;

setting up a web site to inform about activities organized by the NIO and to highlight NATO-Russia related events that take place in Russia.

Who participates?
The NATO Information Office in Moscow is staffed by a director, who is member of NATO’s International Staff. Other members of the NIO team are Russian nationals.

Further details:

Address
NATO Information Office attached to the Embassy of Belgium
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Russia
http://www.nato.int/nio

Telephone lines
+7 495 937 3640
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Fax lines
+7 495 937 38 09

Email : office@nio-moscow.nato.int
NATO Liaison Office (NLO) Georgia

Mission
- Represent NATO in Georgia
- Facilitate political/military dialogue and practical cooperation under the NATO-Georgia Commission in support of Georgia’s efforts to join NATO.
- Enhance civil and military cooperation between NATO and the Government of Georgia in support Euro-Atlantic integration goals described in the Annual National Plan (ANP).

Tasks
- Provide advice and assistance to the Government of Georgia in support of civilian and military reform efforts required for NATO integration.
- Provide advice to Georgian and NATO authorities on the planning and implementation of cooperation programmes and activities.
- Conduct liaison with Georgian, NATO, Allied and partner authorities to enhance cooperation and understanding in pursuit of the NATO/Georgia goal of Georgia becoming a full NATO member.
- Facilitate NATO and Allied bilateral and multilateral projects, events and visits.

Current priorities
- **Strengthen Georgia’s Euro-Atlantic integration reform process:**
  - Assist Georgia in planning and implementing the civilian and military reform goals defined in the Annual National Programme (ANP).
  - Advise and assist Georgia’s reform of the armed forces in the framework of the Partnership for Peace (PfP) Planning and Review Process.
  - Support the planning and implementation of military reforms defined in the Georgia annual Work Plan developed by Georgia and the Military Committee.
- **Enhance NATO-Georgia political and practical dialogue**
  - Engage Georgian leadership at the senior and expert political and military levels.
  - Engage and inform Georgian society through intensified public diplomacy outreach to increase public awareness of NATO and NATO-Georgia relations.
- **Support transformation and democratic oversight of the defence and security sector:**
  - Engage parliament and the executive regarding the armed forces.
  - Engage non-governmental organisations (NGOs) interested in defence and security oversight in order to strengthen the role of civil society in national security and defence issues.
- **Engage in public affairs**
  - Highlight the work of NATO in Georgia and abroad to key stakeholders, i.e. the local population, elected officials, government officials, experts, academia etc.
  - Support local NGOs in implementing projects related to defence and security.
  - Monitor current trends and developments and report to Allies and other relevant stakeholders.
NATO programmes in Georgia

The fourth NATO Trust Fund project in Georgia was officially launched in May 2014. The project was completed in the fall of 2017 after clearing the site of a partially destroyed ammunition depot in Skra and providing/coordinating a number of specialist training courses to the explosive ordnance disposal (EOD) company of the Georgian armed forces. The budget of the project is 1.35 million Euro and its lead nations were the Czech Republic and Lithuania.

In 2009, NATO and Georgia launched the Professional Development Programme (PDP) with the objective of supporting Georgia’s Euro-Atlantic integration aspirations. The aim of the Programme is to enhance the professional skills of key civilian officials in order to strengthen capacity for effective democratic management and oversight, and support the reform processes of the priority areas identified by the Georgian Government. In 2017, the Programme has entered its fourth and final phase of operation in Georgia to last until 2021 with the strategic directions being: (1) Support of the Georgian Government in implementing state reforms within the defence and security sector; (2) Capacity-building and individual skills development of the “Euro-Atlantic Champions”; (3) Support of the Parliament of Georgia in strengthening its role in national security and reform. Additionally, in the last phase the Programme will aim to ensure sustainability and primarily focus on leaving lasting legacy behind.

General organizational information

The NATO Liaison Office was officially opened on 1 October 2010.

Current staff: 14

- Head of office (NATO civilian IS staff member);
- Deputy head of office (NATO civilian IS staff member);
- Five national experts (seconded by the Czech Republic, Germany, Iceland, Norway and Poland);
- Local Georgian employees: head of administration, administrative assistant, organisational manager;
- Two NATO Trust Fund Programme Managers;
- NATO Trust Fund Programme Officer;
- NATO Trust Fund Programme Administrative Assistant.

Contacts:
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Georgia
Tel: +995 (32) 293 38 01
NATO Liaison Office (NLO) Ukraine

**Mission**
- Facilitate practical cooperation under the NATO-Ukraine Commission;
- Enhance cooperation between NATO and Ukrainian authorities

**Tasks**
- Liaise: Ukrainian, NATO, Allied, and Partner Authorities
- Advise: Ukraine and NATO on current and future cooperation
- Facilitate: Programmes, Projects, Events, Visits

**Principal Ukrainian Partners**
- Core Executive: the Cabinet of Ministers, the National Security and Defence Council, the Presidential Secretariat
- Ministry of Foreign Affairs
- the *Verkhovna Rada* (Parliament)
- Ministry of Defence / Armed Forces
- Security Sector Institutions: the Security Service, the Foreign Intelligence Service, the Ministry of the Interior, the Ministry of Emergencies, the State Border Guard Service
- Other Ministries: Economy, Industrial Policy, Finance
- Civil society organizations involved in defence and security issues.

**Current Priorities**
- **Strengthening Ukraine’s implementation of broad Euro-Atlantic reforms:**
  - Assisting Ukraine in planning and implementing the Annual National Programmes (ANPs)
  - Improving inter-agency coordination
- **Enhancing NATO-Ukraine political and practical dialogue**
  - Intensive engagement at a senior political level
  - Intensified dialogue on reforms
  - Consultation on national security and regional security issues
  - NATO-Ukraine Joint Working Groups: Defence Reform / Technical Cooperation / Economic Security
- **Supporting transformation and democratic governance of defence and security sector:**
  - Parliamentary and executive oversight;
  - Implementing the National Security Strategy; improving national security system
  - Strengthening democratic management: expert engagement and training civil servants (the JWGDR Professional Development Programme)
- Strengthening impact of civil society on national security and defence issues (the NATO-Ukraine Partnership Network for Civil Society Expertise Development)

**Supporting operations and building interoperability to face common challenges:**
- KFOR, the Operation Active Endeavor, ISAF, NTM Iraq
- Effective, interoperable commands & staffs at strategic/operational levels
- Deployable, interoperable, sustainable capabilities at operational/unit level
- New security threats, including fight against terrorism and cyber defence

**Addressing legacy issues:**
- Munitions Destruction, Safety & Security (the NATO PfP Demilitarization Trust Fund Project)
- Social Protection of Current & Departing Servicemen (the NATO-Ukraine Resettlement Programme)

**General**
- Founded in April 1999; co-located with the General Staff Euro-Atlantic Integration Directorate
- Staff of 16: Civilian Head (Poland/NATO HQ); 1 NATO civilian (Estonia); 3 NATO military (Lithuania, Poland, Germany); 4 Ukr civilian + 3 project teams (currently 7 staff)
- Close co-operation with the NATO Information and Documentation Centre in Kyiv.
NATO Military Liaison Mission Moscow

The Military Liaison Mission Moscow was established as a self-reliant part of NATO’s International Military Staff in Moscow in late May 2002.

It enjoys diplomatic privileges under the umbrella of the Belgian Embassy.

The Mission supports the expansion of the NATO-Russia dialogue by conducting liaison between NATO’s Military Committee in Brussels and the Ministry of Defence of the Russian Federation.

What is its authority, tasks and responsibilities?

The Mission’s mandate is to support NATO-Russia dialogue and cooperation by:

- liaising with the Russian Ministry of Defence on issues covered by the NATO-Russia Council Programmes and in the NRC Military Cooperation Work-Plans;
- assisting the NATO Information Office in Moscow to explain Alliance policy to the Russian public and other audiences;
- and helping to facilitate the implementation of all NRC decisions, as appropriate.

Who participates?

At present the Mission is composed of 13 staff members, including one civilian. It is headed by Rear Admiral Geir Osen of Norway.

How does it work in practice?

The Mission’s main point of contact is the Directorate of International Treaties in the Russian Ministry of Defence.

In addition, the Mission maintains regular contacts with the Ministry’s Directorate for International Relations for VIP visits, the Main Operational Directorate of the Russian General Staff for interoperability programmes and the Russian Main Navy Staff for naval activities.

The Mission liaises on issues covered by the NATO-Russia Council Programmes and in the NRC Military Cooperation Work-Plans.

These include:

- Fight against Terrorism
- Crisis Management
- Non-Proliferation
- Arms Control & Confidence Building Measures
- Theatre Missile Defence
- Search & Rescue at Sea
- Mil-to-Mil Cooperation and Defence Reform
- Civil Emergency Planning
- Cooperative Airspace Initiative
- New Threats and Challenges
Contact details:
NATO’s Military Liaison Mission (MLM) in Moscow
Mytnaya Street 3, 119049 Moscow, Russian Federation
tel.:+7 495 775 0272
fax: +7 495 775 0280
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On the request of the Iraqi government, NATO agreed to establish a training and capacity-building mission in Iraq in October 2018. NATO Mission Iraq (NMI) is helping to strengthen Iraqi security forces and Iraqi military education institutions so that Iraqi forces can prevent the return of ISIS/Da’esh.

**Highlights**

- At the Brussels Summit in July 2018, NATO leaders agreed to launch NATO Mission Iraq (NMI), on the request of Iraq.
- NMI is a non-combat training and capacity-building mission, conducted with full respect of Iraq’s sovereignty and territorial integrity.
- It was established in Baghdad in October 2018 and involves around 500 trainers, advisors and supporting personnel from Allied and partner countries, including Australia, Sweden and Finland.

**The aim and contours of the mission**

NMI is designed to help strengthen Iraqi security forces and Iraqi military education institutions by providing training and advice to relevant Iraqi defence and security officials within the Ministry of Defence, the Office of the National Security Advisor, and Iraqi military schools and military education institutions. The mission will help Iraq develop its capacity to build more sustainable, transparent, inclusive and effective national security structures and professional military education institutions.

The mission fully integrates civil and military personnel, thereby multiplying the effectiveness of NATO’s efforts and maximising cooperation with other entities on the ground. NMI complements broader
international efforts to increase the long-term stability of Iraq and the region, coordinating its support with international partners in Iraq, including the Global Coalition, the European Union and the United Nations. Furthermore, the mission integrates gender perspectives into every stage of the initiating, concept and planning processes. A gender adviser is deployed as part of the senior advisory group, and gender issues are considered throughout the planning, guidance, future review and assessment processes.

In sum, the mission and its objectives can be described as follows:

- It contributes to overall efforts to counter terrorism by helping Iraq strengthen its security forces and prevent the re-emergence of the Da’esh terrorist group.

- It is advising the Iraqi military education institutions and enhances a self-sustaining Iraqi training capability by developing a cadre of Iraqi instructors in a variety of disciplines.

- It is advising the Iraqi Ministry of Defence, the Office of the National Security Advisor, and relevant national security institutions to make a lasting impact. Adding advisory activities at the institutional level to the initial training activities reinforces the international community’s broader efforts to reform and strengthen Iraqi security institutions and structures.

- In coordination and cooperation with the Global Coalition and the efforts by individual Allies and international organisations, it instructs on countering corruption, rule of law, the law of armed conflict, protection of civilians, children and armed conflict, and the Women, Peace and Security agenda.

- It is a non-combat mission founded on partnership and inclusivity as well as on full respect for Iraq’s sovereignty, independence and territorial integrity.

NATO does not deploy its personnel alongside Iraqi forces during combat operations and it only trains members of the Iraqi security forces under direct and effective control of the government of Iraq. NATO’s advisory activities are conducted in Baghdad, including in the Iraqi Ministry of Defence, the Office of the National Security Advisor, and relevant national security institutions. NATO’s training activities are carried out at the Iraqi military schools in the Baghdad area, Besmaya and Taji. The following military schools are considered as initial training locations:

**Baghdad area**

- Ministry of Defence
- Office of the National Security Advisor
- Prime Minister’s National Operations Centre
- Defence University for Military Studies
- Computer Science School
- Military Medical School

**Besmaya**

- Bomb Disposal (EOD/C-IED) School
- Armour School

**Taji**

- Military Electrical and Mechanical Engineering School
- Military Engineering School
- Military Transportation School
- Military School of Administration and Logistics
- Military Signals School

NMI falls under the authority of Allied Joint Force Command (JFC) Naples, which is one of two operational-level commands that stands ready to plan, conduct and sustain NATO operations of differing size and scope across the full spectrum of military response. In addition to managing operations from Naples or from the theatre of operation, JFC Naples also supports Allied Command Operations and NATO Headquarters in various functions such as training personnel and facilitating cooperation with partners.

The evolution of NATO’s training effort in Iraq

The mission builds on work previously conducted through other NATO training and capacity-building activities in Iraq. NMI is a new iteration of a long-standing relationship between the Alliance and Iraq, providing expertise and best practice in the reform of security structures, defence institution building, and training and education from the entire Alliance and its partners from all over the world.

From 2004 to 2011, NATO conducted a relatively small but important support operation in Iraq that consisted of training, mentoring and assisting the Iraqi security forces. It was known as the NATO Training Mission in Iraq (NTM-I) and became part of the international effort to help Iraq establish effective and accountable security forces. NTM-I delivered training, advice and mentoring support in a number of different settings. All NATO member countries contributed to the training effort either in or outside of Iraq, through financial contributions or donations of equipment. In parallel and reinforcing this initiative, NATO also worked with the Iraqi government on a structured cooperation framework to develop the Alliance’s long-term relationship with Iraq.

In July 2015, in response to a request by the Iraqi government, NATO agreed to provide defence and related security capacity building support. In April 2016, it began conducting a number of “train-the-trainer” courses in Jordan (more than 350 Iraqi security and military personnel were trained). Then, following a request from the Iraqi Prime Minister, at the Warsaw Summit in July 2016, NATO leaders agreed to provide NATO training and capacity-building activities to Iraqi security and military forces in Iraq. In January 2017, NATO deployed a modest but scalable Core Team to Baghdad of eight civilian and military personnel, setting up NATO’s permanent presence in Iraq. Jordan-based training transferred to Iraq in February 2017. The Core Team coordinated all NATO assistance provided to Iraq in 2017-2018 and laid the foundation for the establishment of NMI in 2018.
NATO Office of Resources (NOR)

The NATO Office of Resources (NOR) brings together, under the direction and leadership of the Director NOR, all international staff working on NATO military common-funded issues with the aim of reinforcing military common-funded resource management at the NATO HQ.

The NOR provides integrated staff advice and support to the Resource Policy and Planning Board (RPPB), the Budget Committee (BC) and the Investment Committee (IC) as well as their Chairmen.

The NOR provides staff advice to the divisions of the IS and IMS, and other bodies as required, on NATO military resource issues.
The NATO Parliamentary Assembly is an inter-parliamentary organisation, which brings together legislators from NATO member countries to consider security-related issues of common interest and concern. Since the 1980s, it has assumed additional roles by integrating into its work parliamentarians from NATO partner countries in Europe and beyond.

**Highlights**

- The NATO PA was established in 1955 to engage parliamentarians in transatlantic issues and help build parliamentary and public consensus in support of Alliance policies.
- Since the 1980s, it has broadened its reach to develop close relations with political leaders from Central and Eastern Europe, as well as from the Middle East and North Africa.
- The Assembly focuses on major security and policy issues facing the Alliance, producing reports that are adopted by majority vote.
- Five committees and eight sub-committees carry out its work and it holds approximately 40 activities a year.

**More background information**

**Fostering mutual understanding**

The Assembly’s principal objective is to foster mutual understanding among Alliance parliamentarians of the key security challenges facing the transatlantic partnership. It is completely independent of NATO but provides a link between NATO and the parliaments of its member countries.
Working with parliamentarians from member countries

- fostering dialogue among parliamentarians on major security issues;
- facilitating parliamentary awareness and understanding of key security issues and Alliance policies;
- providing NATO and its member governments with an indication of collective parliamentary opinion;
- providing greater transparency in NATO policies as well as collective accountability;
- strengthening the transatlantic relationship.

In fulfilling its goals, the Assembly provides a central source of information and a point of contact for member legislators and their respective national parliaments.

Cooperating with parliamentarians in partner countries

Since 1989, the Assembly has also had the following objectives:

- to assist in the development of parliamentary democracy throughout the Euro-Atlantic area by integrating parliamentarians from non-member countries into the Assembly’s work;
- to assist parliaments of countries actively seeking Alliance membership;
- to increase cooperation with countries which seek closer relations with NATO rather than membership, including those of the Caucasus and the Mediterranean regions;
- to assist in the development of parliamentary mechanisms, practices and know-how essential for the effective democratic control of armed forces.

Member and associate countries

The NATO-PA is made up of 266 delegates from the 29 NATO member countries. Each delegation is based on the country’s size and reflects the political composition of the parliament, therefore representing a broad spectrum of political opinion. Delegates are nominated by their parliaments according to their national procedures.

In addition to these NATO country delegates, delegates from 12 associate countries, four Mediterranean associate countries, as well as observers from eight other countries take part in its activities.

Inter-parliamentary assemblies such as the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe Parliamentary Assembly, the Council of Europe Parliamentary Assembly and the Western European Union Assembly also send delegations.

The European Parliament is entitled to send 10 delegates to Assembly Sessions and can participate in most committee and sub-committee activities.

Working by committee

Most of the Assembly’s work is carried out by its five committees: the Committee on the Civil Dimension of Security; the Defence and Security Committee; the Economics and Security Committee; the Political Committee; and the Science and Technology Committee.

There are several sub-committees, which meet during the year on fact-finding missions designed to gather information for sub-committee and committee reports. Sub-committee reports, like those produced directly for the committees, are amended and adopted by majority vote in the committees. Each year, the NATO PA typically holds approximately 40 activities. These include two Plenary Sessions, a Standing Committee meeting, three to four Rose-Roth Seminars, two Mediterranean Seminars, 16 sub-committee meetings and a variety of other meetings.

The NATO PA is headed by a President, who is a parliamentarian from a NATO member country. The headquarters of the Assembly comprises an International Secretariat of approximately 30 people based in Brussels, Belgium and is overseen by a Secretary General. The International Secretariat performs a
dual function: on the one hand, it conducts much of the research and analysis necessary for the substantive output of the Assembly’s committees, and on the other hand, it provides the administrative support required to organise sessions, seminars, committee meetings, and other Assembly activities.

In addition, the International Secretariat maintains a close working relationship with NATO, other international organisations and research institutes. It also provides briefings on NATO PA activities and concerns to visiting parliamentary groups, journalists, and academics.

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The evolution of the NATO PA

The idea to engage parliamentarians in transatlantic issues first emerged in the early 1950s and took shape with the creation of an annual conference of NATO parliamentarians in 1955. The Assembly’s creation reflected a desire on the part of legislators to give substance to the premise of the Washington Treaty that NATO was the practical expression of a fundamentally political transatlantic alliance of democracies.

The foundation for cooperation between NATO and the NATO PA was strengthened in December 1967 when the North Atlantic Council (NAC) authorised the NATO Secretary General to study how to achieve closer cooperation between the two bodies. As a result of these deliberations, the NATO Secretary General, after consultation with the NAC, implemented several measures to enhance the working relationship between NATO and the Assembly. These measures included the Secretary General providing a response to all Assembly recommendations and resolutions adopted in its Plenary Sessions.

Promoting parliamentary democracy in Central and Eastern Europe

In response to the fall of the Berlin Wall in the 1980s, the NATO PA broadened its mandate by developing close relations with political leaders in Central and East European countries. Those ties, in turn, greatly facilitated the dialogue that NATO itself embarked upon with the region’s governments.

The Rose-Roth programme of cooperation with the parliaments of Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) was initiated in 1990 by the then President of the Assembly, Congressman Charlie Rose, and Senator Bill Roth. The aim of the Rose-Roth Initiative was, initially, to strengthen the development of parliamentary democracy in CEE countries.

The Founding Act on Mutual Relations, Cooperation and Security between the Russian Federation and NATO, signed in May 1997, and the NATO-Ukraine Charter signed in July 1997, explicitly charged the Assembly with expanding its dialogue and cooperation with both the Russian Federal Assembly and the Ukrainian Verkhovna Rada.

Mirroring the creation in May 2002 of the NATO-Russia Council, a major step forward in NATO’s cooperation with Russia, the Assembly created the NATO-Russia Parliamentary Committee to allow discussions between NATO members and Russia on an equal footing. This committee became the main framework for direct NATO-Russia parliamentary relations.

In 2002, the Assembly also decided to upgrade its special relationship with Ukraine by creating the Ukraine-NATO Interparliamentary Council. The Assembly’s cooperation with the Verkhovna Rada was progressively strengthened in the run-up to the Ukrainian presidential elections in 2004. Since these elections, which triggered the “Orange Revolution”, the Assembly has been invited to monitor all presidential and parliamentary elections in Ukraine, in collaboration with the parliamentary assemblies of other international organisations.

Following Russia’s military intervention in Ukraine and its illegal and illegitimate annexation of Ukraine’s province of Crimea in March 2014, the NATO PA withdrew Russia’s Associate Membership of the Assembly altogether, breaking off regular institutional relations with the Russian Parliament. The NATO PA’s bureau has been authorised to meet representatives of the Russian Parliament on an ad-hoc basis, however. In parallel, the Assembly affirmed its unanimous support for Ukraine’s territorial integrity and political independence, and intensified cooperation with the Ukrainian Parliament.

Following the 2008 conflict in Georgia, the Assembly decided to strengthen its institutional relationship with the Georgian Parliament by creating the Georgia-NATO Interparliamentary Council (GNIC). It was created as a parliamentary counterpart to the NATO-Georgia Commission (NGC) established the same
year to oversee NATO’s relationship with Georgia. The country became an Associate Member of the Assembly in May 1999, and since then members of the Georgian delegation have participated in the many types of activities open to the Assembly’s partners.

**Increasing cooperation with partners in the Middle East and North Africa**

The increasing attention to security in the Mediterranean region in the 1990s culminated in 1996 with the creation of the Assembly’s Mediterranean Special Group (GSM). It is a forum for cooperation and discussion with the parliaments in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region focused on political, economic, social and security issues.

In 2004-2005, the Assembly decided to bolster its relations with parliaments in this region. At the Venice session, the Standing Committee created the new status of Mediterranean Associate Members, opening the door for increased cooperation with MENA parliaments.

**Afghanistan**

Since the terrorist attacks of 9/11 in the United States, NATO countries have been engaged militarily in Afghanistan, under a United Nations mandate, to prevent the country from ever again becoming a safe haven for terrorists. Afghan parliamentarians have an essential role in explaining to their citizens the reasons for the presence of foreign troops in their country; and national parliaments across the Alliance have a direct role in deciding the deployment of troops in operations. Afghanistan is therefore a strong ongoing focus for the Assembly, ensuring regular contacts, exchanging views and witnessing first-hand progress achieved and remaining challenges.

**Gender and security**

The NATO Parliamentary Assembly is a champion of the principle that women are equal partners in the pursuit of peace and security, and mainstreams gender in the Assembly’s activities and policies, as well as into the work of the Committees and other Assembly bodies. In 2007, the Assembly’s Standing Committee started paying greater attention to gender when it recognised that parliamentarians have an important role to play in promoting the Women, Peace and Security agenda. In 2015, an internal review of the Assembly’s approach to gender and security led to the adoption of further measures to mainstream gender in the Assembly’s work and promote a more balanced representation among Assembly members and elected officers.
NATO Pipeline System

NATO has a pipeline system designed to ensure that its requirements for petroleum products and their distribution can be met at all times.

**Highlights**

- The NATO Pipeline System (NPS) was set up during the Cold War to supply NATO forces with fuel and it continues to satisfy fuel requirements with the flexibility that today’s security environment requires.
- The NPS consists of ten distinct storage and distribution systems for fuels and lubricants.
- In total, it is approximately 10,000 kilometres long, runs through 12 NATO countries and has a storage capacity of 4.1 million cubic metres.
- The NPS links together storage depots, military air bases, civil airports, pumping stations, truck and rail loading stations, refineries and entry/discharge points.
- Bulk distribution is carried out using facilities from the common-funded NATO Security Investment Programme.
- The networks are controlled by national organisations, with the exception of the Central Europe Pipeline System (CEPS), which is a multinational system managed by the CEPS Programme Office under the aegis of the NATO Support and Procurement Agency.
Structure and geographical reach

The NPS is overseen by the Petroleum Committee, which is the senior advisory body in NATO on consumer logistics and, more specifically, on petroleum issues. The Petroleum Committee reports to the Logistics Committee on all matters of concern to NATO in connection with military fuels, lubricants, associated products and equipment, the NPS and other petroleum installations.

The NPS consists of eight national pipeline systems and two multinational systems:

- The national pipeline systems:
  - the Greek Pipeline System (GRPS);
  - the Icelandic Pipeline System (ICPS);
  - the Northern Italy Pipeline System (NIPS);
  - the Norwegian Pipeline System (NOPS);
  - the Portuguese Pipeline System (POPS);
  - the Turkish Pipeline System (TUPS), which comprises two separate pipeline systems known as the Western Turkey Pipeline System and the Eastern Turkey Pipeline System.

- The two multinational pipeline systems are:
  - the North European Pipeline System (NEPS) located in Denmark and Germany;
  - the Central Europe Pipeline System (CEPS) covering Belgium, France, Germany, Luxembourg and the Netherlands. This is the largest system.

In addition to the national and multinational systems, there are also fuel systems in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia and Spain.

The optimum use of NATO petroleum facilities in peacetime is essential for the proper maintenance of the NPS and the necessary training of its staff. NATO members use the facilities to the fullest extent practicable for military purposes and use spare capacity for commercial traffic providing that does not detract from the primacy of the military use of the system.

Historical evolution

The NATO Pipeline System was set up during the Cold War to supply Alliance forces with fuel.

In order to support the new missions of the Alliance, the emphasis has shifted away from static pipeline infrastructure to the rapidly deployable support of NATO’s expeditionary activities. To this end, NATO has developed a modular concept whereby all fuel requirements can be satisfied through a combination of 16 discrete but compatible modules which can receive, store and distribute fuel in any theatre of operation. The concept also enables both NATO and partner countries to combine their capabilities to provide a multinational solution to meet all fuel requirements.

Even with the emphasis on expeditionary operations, the existing static pipeline infrastructure remains an important asset for the Alliance. Since the end of the Cold War, the NPS has been used to support out-of-area operations from the European theatre or using NATO airfields as an intermediate hub. The sudden increase in fuel demand mainly for airlift and air-to-air refuelling can only be met by the NPS, which remains the most cost-effective, secure and environmentally safe method of storing and distributing fuel to Alliance forces.
NATO policy on combating trafficking in human beings

The Alliance initiated a zero-tolerance policy on human trafficking, which was endorsed at the Istanbul Summit in June 2004. The policy commits NATO member countries and other troop-contributing nations participating in NATO-led operations to reinforce efforts to prevent and combat such activity. The issue is kept under regular review by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC). The policy was also opened to the Mediterranean Dialogue and Istanbul Cooperation Initiative countries, as well as four partners across the globe (Australia, Japan, the Republic of Korea, the New Zealand) and remaining operational partners (Colombia, Malaysia, Mongolia, Singapore, Tonga) in January 2011.

NATO member countries are all signatories to the UN Protocol on Trafficking in Persons. The Allies are keenly aware that human trafficking fuels corruption and organized crime, and therefore runs counter to NATO’s stabilization efforts in its theatres of operation. These considerations led to the development of the NATO policy on combating trafficking in human beings.

NATO does not see itself as the primary organization to combat trafficking in human beings, but is working to add value wherever it can. The policy was developed in consultation with EAPC countries and non-NATO troop contributors, as well as governmental and non-governmental organizations.

The zero-tolerance policy calls for military and civilian personnel and contractors taking part in NATO-led operations to receive appropriate training on standards of their behavior during the operations. The Allies also agreed to review national legislation and report on national efforts in this regard. In theatre, NATO-led forces, operating within the limits of their mandate, support the responsible host-country authorities in their efforts to combat trafficking in human beings.

Much of the responsibility for implementing the policy was assigned to NATO’s Military Committee given that it is troops from NATO and non-NATO nations participating in NATO-led operations who are the most likely to come into contact with trafficked individuals and trafficking rings. Guidance was then issued by the Strategic Commanders.

The policy is kept under review to make sure that it’s effectively implemented by Allies and Partners as well as NATO as an organization. A regular comprehensive review is conducted to provide policy and practical recommendations. These include measures to strengthen policies and provisions in specific operations, to enhance training and awareness raising among NATO forces as well as the evaluation and reporting of all related activities.

A Senior Coordinator on Combating Trafficking in Human Beings (the NATO ASG for Defence Policy and Planning) coordinates all Alliance efforts in this field.

Developing policies and provisions in specific operations

The Alliance is working to ensure that the entire chain of command in every operation is aware of the NATO policy. Within existing operations the Allies are developing specific policy provisions, which do not exceed NATO’s mandate, for the role of NATO-led forces in supporting the authorities of the host country in combating the trafficking of human beings.

Specific policy provisions have been developed and incorporated into the operational plans relating to Afghanistan and Balkans to reflect the NATO policy and relevant guidance, as well as to raise the awareness of personnel. The appropriate role for NATO forces in this area is to support activities to the local authorities and relevant international organizations. Maintaining close contact with the host country is vital.
In Afghanistan, the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) is tasked to provide support to the Government of Afghanistan in countering human trafficking. ISAF works alongside and shares information with the Afghan security forces. ISAF holds weekly meetings with the International Organisation for Migration, which has been designated as the lead agency on the issue by the UN Assistance Mission in Afghanistan (UNAMA). ISAF also liaises regularly with the German police project, the UNAMA Human Rights Unit, the UNAMA Gender Advisor, the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) and the Afghanistan Independent Human Rights Commission.

In Kosovo, the United Nations Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK) has the lead on the issue. The Kosovo Force (KFOR) supports the UNMIK police (UNMIK-P) which has the executive responsibility.

### Training and raising awareness among Allied forces

Training and raising awareness among NATO forces is essentially the responsibility of the individual troop-contributing nation. Yet the Alliance is addressing the issue in a number of courses for the military personnel of both NATO and Partner countries at the NATO Defense College in Rome and NATO School in Oberammergau (NSO), Germany. Options for enhancing training in this area are being considered. The NSO also provides two Advanced Distant Learning courses related to combating trafficking in human beings, which are available to all those that may want to use them. Moreover, since 2008, the Turkish PfP Training Center organizes a bi-annual course on “Fight Against Trafficking in Human Beings”, which is open to military and civilians from NATO, PfP, MD and ICI countries.

### Accountability under the zero-tolerance policy

Nations contributing troops to NATO-led operations are required to ensure that members of their forces—as well as civilian elements—who engage in human trafficking or facilitate it, are liable to appropriate prosecution and punishment under their national legislation. Senior NATO commanders could ask for the repatriation of any offenders.
The NATO Response Force (NRF) is a highly ready and technologically advanced, multinational force made up of land, air, maritime and Special Operations Forces (SOF) components that the Alliance can deploy quickly, wherever needed. In addition to its operational role, the NRF can be used for greater cooperation in education and training, increased exercises and better use of technology.

**Highlights**

- Launched in 2002, the NRF consists of a highly capable joint multinational force able to react in a very short time to the full range of security challenges from crisis management to collective defence.
- NATO Allies decided to enhance the NRF in 2014 by creating a “spearhead force” within it, known as the Very High Readiness Joint Task Force (VJTF).
- This enhanced NRF is one of the measures of the Readiness Action Plan (RAP), which aims to respond to the changes in the security environment and strengthen the Alliance’s collective defence.
- Overall command of the NRF belongs to the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR).
- The decision to deploy the NRF is taken by the North Atlantic Council, NATO’s highest political decision-making body.

**Purpose**

The NRF has the overarching purpose of being able to provide a rapid military response to an emerging crisis, whether for collective defence purposes or for other crisis-response operations.
The NRF gives the Alliance the means to respond swiftly to various types of crises anywhere in the world. It is also a driving engine for NATO’s military transformation.

A rotational force

The NRF is based on a rotational system where Allied nations commit land, air, maritime or Special Operations Forces (SOF) units for a period of 12 months.

The NRF is also open to partner countries, once approved by the North Atlantic Council.

Participation in the NRF is preceded by national preparation, followed by training with other participants in the multinational force. As units rotate through the NRF, the associated high standards, concepts and technologies are gradually spread throughout the Alliance, thereby fulfilling one of the key purposes of the NATO Response Force – the further transformation of Allied forces.

Operational command of the NRF alternates between Allied Joint Force Commands in Brunssum, the Netherlands and Naples, Italy. JFC Naples has command of the NRF for 2019.

A powerful package

NATO Allies decided at the 2014 Wales Summit to enhance the NRF by creating a “spearhead force” within it, known as the Very High Readiness Joint Task Force or VJTF. This enhanced NRF is one of the measures of the Readiness Action Plan (RAP) agreed by Allies to respond to the changes in the security environment.

The enhanced NATO Response Force includes:

- **a command and control element**: Operational command of the NRF alternates between Allied Joint Force Commands in Brunssum and Naples;
- **the Very High Readiness Joint Task Force (VJTF)**: This NRF element – about 20,000 strong – includes a multinational land brigade of around 5,000 troops and air, maritime and SOF components. Leading elements are ready to move within two to three days. Allies assume the lead role for the VJTF on a rotational basis;
- **the Initial Follow-On Forces Group (IFFG)**: These are high-readiness forces that can deploy quickly following the VJTF, in response to a crisis. They are made up of two multinational brigades;
- **a maritime component**: it is based on the Standing NATO Maritime Groups (SNMGs) and the Standing NATO Mine Countermeasures Groups (SNMCMGs);
- **a combat air and air-support component**;
- **Special Operations Forces**; and
- **a chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) defence task force**.

Before use, the NRF will be tailored (adjusted in size and capability) to match the demands of any specific operation to which it is committed.

The VJTF and Initial Follow-on Forces are based in their home countries, but are able to deploy to wherever they are needed for exercises or crisis response. The VJTF participated in its first deployment exercise in Poland in June 2015 and is regularly tested during exercises on its ability to deploy and respond to any arising crisis.

From 2017, the VJTF brigade, led by the United Kingdom, with other Allies participating, will be available to respond rapidly to any contingency.

Altogether, the enhanced NRF comprises around 40,000 troops.

Any mission, anywhere

The NRF provides a tangible demonstration of NATO’s cohesion and commitment to deterrence and collective defence. Each NRF rotation has to prepare itself for a wide range of tasks. These include...
contributing to the preservation of territorial integrity, making a demonstration of force, peace support operations, disaster relief, protecting critical infrastructure and security operations. Initial-entry operations are conducted jointly as part of a larger force to facilitate the arrival of follow-on troops.

Elements of the NRF helped protect the 2004 Summer Olympics in Athens, Greece, and were deployed to support the Afghan presidential elections in September of the same year.

The NRF has also been used in disaster relief.

- In September and October 2005, aircraft from the NRF delivered relief supplies donated by NATO member and partner countries to the United States to assist in dealing with the aftermath of Hurricane Katrina.
- From October 2005 to February 2006, elements of the NRF were used in the disaster relief effort in Pakistan, following the devastating 8 October earthquake. Aircraft from the NRF were used in an air bridge that delivered almost 3,500 tons of urgently needed supplies to Pakistan, while engineers and medical personnel from the NRF were deployed to the country to assist in the relief effort.

### Evolution

The NATO Response Force initiative was announced at the Prague Summit in November 2002.

In the words of General James Jones, the then NATO Supreme Allied Commander Europe, "... NATO will no longer have the large, massed units that were necessary for the Cold War, but will have agile and capable forces at Graduated Readiness levels that will better prepare the Alliance to meet any threat that it is likely to face in this 21st century.”

The NRF concept was approved by Allied ministers of defence in June 2003 in Brussels.

On 13 October 2004, at an informal meeting of NATO defence ministers in Poiana Brasov, Romania, the NATO Secretary General and Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) formally announced that the NRF had reached its initial operational capability and was ready to take on the full range of missions.

The capabilities of the NRF were tested in a major live exercise, Steadfast Jaguar 06, in the Cape Verde Islands in June 2006. The challenging location was specifically designed to demonstrate and prove the viability of the NRF concept. At NATO’s Riga Summit in November 2006, the NRF was declared fully ready to undertake operations.

Since then, the way the NRF is generated and composed has been adjusted twice, in 2008 and 2010. This was to provide a more flexible approach to force generation, thereby facilitating force contributions, which were being hampered by the enduring high operational tempo arising from Afghanistan, Iraq and other missions. To further support force generation, Allies have set themselves voluntary national targets for force contributions.

On 21 February 2013, NATO defence ministers agreed that the NRF would be at the core of the Connected Forces Initiative in order to maintain NATO’s readiness and combat effectiveness.

At the Wales Summit in September 2014, Allies decided to enhance the NRF and to establish the Very High Readiness Joint Task Force (VJTF) that will be able to deploy within a few days to respond to any challenges that may arise. Allies also agreed to hold a multinational, high-visibility exercise – "Trident Juncture 2015" – to be hosted by Italy, Portugal and Spain. In addition, a broader and more demanding exercise programme would start in 2016, with the NRF as a key element in the exercises.

NATO defence ministers decided on 5 February 2015 that the VJTF would consist of a land component of around 5,000 troops with appropriate air, maritime and SOF units available. France, Germany, Italy, Poland, Spain, Turkey and the United Kingdom agreed to assume lead roles for the VJTF on a rotational basis in the coming years. The VJTF was to be operationally capable by the time of the 2016 Warsaw Summit – and this has been achieved.

On 9 June 2015, the VJTF deployed for the first time in Poland during exercise Noble Jump, where over 2,100 troops from nine NATO nations participated.
On 24 June 2015, NATO defence ministers took decisions on air, maritime and SOF components of the enhanced NRF. The NRF will now consist of up to 40,000 personnel. Ministers further took measures to speed up political and military decision-making, including authority for NATO’s Supreme Allied Commander Europe to prepare troops for action as soon as a political decision is made. Allies also approved a new advance planning tool – Graduated Response Plans – enabling executable operations plans to be generated exceptionally quickly, commensurate with the readiness requirements of the forces. Ministers also agreed on the establishment of a new standing joint logistics support group headquarters within the NATO Command Structure.

In October 2015, NATO defence ministers gave their green light to the completed military concept for the enhanced NATO Response Force, including its command and control arrangements.

During exercise Trident Juncture in late 2015, the VJTF was tested and certified for 2016. The exercise also certified the NRF headquarters for 2016: JFC Brunssum.

On 10 February 2016, defence ministers declared initial operational capability (IOC) for NATO’s Joint Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance (JISR) initiative. This IOC is centred on enhancing the situational awareness of the NATO Response Force through heightened proficiency in collecting, processing and exchanging intelligence.

At the Warsaw Summit, on 9 July 2016, Allied leaders welcomed the implementation of the Readiness Action Plan (RAP) and, through its longer-term adaptation measures, the enhancement of the NRF and a new Very High Readiness Joint Task Force (VJTF), able to begin deployment within two to three days.

On 11 January 2017, Headquarters Allied Rapid Reaction Corps (based in Gloucestershire, United Kingdom) officially took over as the Land Component Command of the 2017 NRF from NATO Rapid Deployable Corps-Spain. Also changing hands was the helm of NATO’s VJTF (Land) from Spain’s 7th Spanish Infantry Brigade to the United Kingdom’s 20th Armoured Infantry Brigade.

On 10 January 2018, NATO Rapid Deployable Corps – Italy (based in Solbiate Olona) officially took over as the Land Component Command of the 2018 NRF from Headquarters Allied Rapid Reaction Corps. Also, Italy’s 132nd “Ariete” Armoured Brigade took the lead of NATO’s VJTF (Land).

During exercise Trident Juncture 18, held in Norway from 25 October to 7 November 2018, the VJTF was tested and the exercise certified a German brigade – the 9th Panzerlehrbrigade – for 2019. The exercise involved around 51,000 personnel from member and partner countries, including six army brigades and Marine ground forces supported by air, maritime and Special Operations Forces units. It mainly focused on NATO’s ability to move personnel and armour quickly across Europe.

On 1 January 2019, German forces took the lead for NATO’s Very High Readiness Joint Task Force (VJTF), providing thousands of soldiers to be on standby and ready to deploy within days. Germany took over from Italy. Also, the 1st German / Netherlands Corps (based in Münster, Germany) is in charge of the NRF’s land forces.

### Authority

Any decision to use the NRF is a consensual political decision, taken on a case-by-case basis by all 29 Allies in the North Atlantic Council, NATO’s principal political decision-making body.
The NATO-Russia Council (NRC) was established as a mechanism for consultation, consensus-building, cooperation, joint decision and joint action. Within the NRC, the individual NATO member states and Russia have worked as equal partners on a wide spectrum of security issues of common interest.

The NRC was established at the NATO-Russia Summit in Rome on 28 May 2002 by the Declaration on “NATO-Russia Relations: a New Quality”. The Rome Declaration builds on the goals and principles of the 1997 NATO-Russia Founding Act on Mutual Relations, Cooperation and Security, which remains the formal basis for NATO-Russia relations. The NRC replaced the Permanent Joint Council (PJC), a forum for consultation and cooperation created by the 1997 NATO-Russia Founding Act.

In April 2014, following Russia's illegal military intervention in Ukraine and its violation of Ukraine's sovereignty and territorial integrity, the Alliance suspended all practical cooperation between NATO and Russia including that which took place in the framework of the NRC. However, the Alliance agreed to keep channels of communication open in the NRC and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council at Ambassadorial level and above, to allow the exchange of views, first and foremost on the crisis in Ukraine.

Three meetings of the NATO-Russia Council took place in 2016, three in 2017; two in 2018; and, to date, two in 2019. NATO remains open to a periodic, focused and meaningful political dialogue with Russia on the basis of reciprocity, as agreed at the NATO Summit in Warsaw in July 2016. The NATO-Russia Council has an important role to play as a forum for dialogue and information exchange, to reduce misunderstandings and increase predictability.

The 29 individual Allies and Russia are equal partners in the NRC – instead of meeting in the bilateral “NATO+1” format under the PJC.
The Secretary General is the Alliance's top international civil servant. This person is responsible for steering the process of consultation and decision-making in the Alliance and ensuring that decisions are implemented.

**Highlights**

- The Secretary General is NATO’s top international civil servant and has three principal roles.
- He/she chairs all major committees and is responsible for steering discussions, facilitating the decision-making process and ensuring that decisions are implemented.
- He/she is the Organization’s chief spokesperson.
- He/she is at the head of the International Staff, whose role it is to support the Secretary General directly and indirectly.
- The person is nominated by member governments for an initial period of four years, which can be extended by mutual consent.
- The post is currently held by Jens Stoltenberg, former Prime Minister of Norway, who took up his responsibilities on 1 October 2014.

**Three principal responsibilities**

**Chairman of the North Atlantic Council and other key bodies**

First and foremost, the Secretary General chairs the North Atlantic Council - the Alliance’s principal political decision-making body - as well as other senior decision-making committees. These include the Nuclear Planning Group, the NATO-Russia Council and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council.
Additionally, together with a Ukrainian representative, he is the chairman of the NATO-Ukraine Commission, as well as the chairman of the NATO-Georgia Commission.

Above and beyond the role of chairman, the Secretary General has the authority to propose items for discussion and use his good offices in case of disputes between member states. He acts as a decision facilitator, leading and guiding the process of consensus-building and decision-making throughout the Alliance.

He maintains direct contact with heads of state and government, foreign and defence ministers in NATO and partner countries, in order to facilitate this process. This entails regular visits to NATO and partner countries, as well as bilateral meetings with senior national officials when they visit NATO Headquarters.

Effectively, his role allows him to exert some influence on the decision-making process while respecting the fundamental principle that the authority for taking decisions is invested only in the member governments themselves.

Principal spokesperson

The Secretary General is also the principal spokesman of the Alliance and represents the Alliance in public on behalf of the member countries, reflecting their common positions on political issues.

He also represents NATO vis-à-vis other international organisations as well as to the media and the public at large. To this end the Secretary General regularly holds press briefings and conferences as well as public lectures and speeches.

Head of the International Staff

Third and lastly, the Secretary General is the senior executive officer of the NATO International Staff, responsible for making staff appointments and overseeing its work.

Support to the Secretary General

In his day-to-day work, the Secretary General is directly supported by a Private Office and a Deputy Secretary General, who assists the Secretary General and replaces him in his absence. The Deputy Secretary General is also the chairman of a number of senior committees, ad hoc groups and working groups.

More generally speaking, the entire International Staff at NATO Headquarters supports the Secretary General, either directly or indirectly.

The selection process

The Secretary General is a senior statesman from a NATO member country, appointed by member states for a four-year term. The selection is carried through informal diplomatic consultations among member countries, which put forward candidates for the post.

No decision is confirmed until consensus is reached on one candidate. At the end of his term, the incumbent might be offered to stay on.

The position has traditionally been held by a European statesman.
NATO Secretary General’s Special Representative for the Caucasus and Central Asia

The NATO Secretary General’s Special Representative is responsible for carrying forward the Alliance’s policy in the two strategically important regions of the Caucasus and Central Asia.

He provides advice to the Secretary General on how best to achieve NATO’s goals in the two regions, and how best to address the security concerns of NATO’s partners. He is responsible for overall coordination of NATO’s partnership policy in the two regions, and works closely with regional leaders to enhance their cooperation with the Alliance. In the Caucasus, NATO works with Armenia, Azerbaijan and Georgia which are effectively the South Caucasus; and in Central Asia: Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan.
The Special Representative also provides high-level support for the work of the NATO Liaison Officer for
the South Caucasus in Tbilisi, Georgia and for Central Asia based in Tashkent, Uzbekistan. He works
closely with the NATO Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan in order to ensure that NATO’s policy
in Central Asia fully supports NATO’s ongoing mission in Afghanistan.

He liaises with senior officials from partner governments in the two regions, and advises them on their
overall process of reform and how best to use NATO partnership tools to implement those reforms. He
also liaises with representatives of the international community and other international organisations
engaged in the two regions in order to ensure coordination of assistance programmes.

The Special Representative also promotes understanding about NATO and security issues more
generally through engaging with the media and civil society in the two regions.

The position of Special Representative for the Caucasus and Central Asia was created on an ad hoc basis
following the decision taken by NATO Allies at the Istanbul Summit in June 2004 to place a special focus
on the strategically important regions of the Caucasus and Central Asia.

A key element of this special focus was enhanced liaison arrangements, including the appointment of the
Special Representative and two NATO Liaison Officers, one for each region. (The post of NATO Liaison
Officer for Central Asia was later cancelled in 2017, for budgetary reasons. However, NATO continues to
maintain and seek to enhance its political dialogue and practical relations with its five Central Asian
partners – practical liaison is now being conducted through NATO Headquarters and the NATO military
structures.)

The post of Special Representative is currently held by James Appathurai, who replaced the late Robert
F. Simmons – NATO’s first Special Representative – in December 2010. Mr Appathurai previously served
as NATO’s Spokesperson from 2004 to 2010. Prior to that, he served as Deputy Head and Senior
Planning Officer in the Policy Planning and Speechwriting Section of NATO’s Political Affairs Division from
NATO Liaison Officer for the South Caucasus/Head of the NATO Liaison Office in Georgia

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The NATO Standardization Office (NSO) initiates, coordinates, supports and administers NATO standardization activities, which are conducted under the authority of the Committee for Standardization (CS) -- the committee responsible for standardization policy. The NSO assists NATO’s Military Committee in developing military operational standards. These activities foster NATO standardization with the goal of enhancing the interoperability and operational effectiveness of Alliance military forces.

### Highlights

- The NSO is an independent office which initiates, coordinates, supports and administers NATO standardization activities.
- The Director manages the standardization activities of the NSO and is responsible for the efficient functioning and administration of the Office.

### More background information

#### Role

The NSO initiates, coordinates, supports and administers standardization activities conducted under the authority of the Committee for Standardization (CS). The Director of the NSO is the principal advisor to the Military Committee (MC) on the development and coordination of standardization activities. He supports and assesses the activities of the MC Standardization Boards (MCSBs) and ensures that a satisfactory liaison is maintained between these boards and other Alliance standardization bodies.

The DNSO is responsible for carrying out decisions of the CS and implementing its guidance. It also addresses the standardization priorities of the North Atlantic Council (NAC) and of the Secretary General. Moreover, the NSO supports the NATO Defence Planning Process, which is the primary means to identify
the required capabilities and promote their timely and coherent development and acquisition by Allies. Additionally, it encourages implementation of Standardization Agreements (STANAGs) through defence planning. A STANAG is a NATO document that specifies the agreement of member countries to implement a standard. There are more than 1,200 STANAGs promulgated in NATO. For instance, NATO has adopted a standard in the naval operational domain governing multinational maritime support of humanitarian operations or for emergency markings on the outside and the inside of aircraft.

The NSO publishes NATO standardization documents, and further manages a database of NATO standardization documentation.

The Office also maintains the NATO terminology directives and programme and management tools (including a database for the Alliance, such as NATOTerm). It coordinates and facilitates the standardization of terms and definitions required for use throughout the Alliance. Terminology helps establish a common language which underpins standardization and interoperability.

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### Working mechanism

The MC exercises supervision and corporate oversight as well as promotes best practices. The MC and the CS develop annual objectives for the NSO in their respective areas and approve the Director’s annual progress report.

The Director is responsible for the efficient functioning and administration of his staff of approximately 45 people in accordance with guidance from the MC and the CS. He promulgates all ratified STANAGs and Allied Publications (APs). He liaises directly with the chairmen of NATO committees, staffs, the Strategic Commands and communicates directly with any NATO command, agency or staff on matters of NATO standardization. The Director also liaises with civilian standards-developing organisations (SDOs) and acts as the NATO standardization management staff focal point with those organisations.

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### Evolution

Shortly after the establishment of the Alliance, it was recognised that the coordinated development of policies, procedures and equipment of NATO members held great potential for enhancing the military effectiveness and efficiency of the Organization. As a result, the Military Office for Standardization (MOS) was established in London in January 1951 for the purpose of fostering the standardization of operational and administrative practices.

In 1971, the MOS moved from London to NATO Headquarters in Brussels, Belgium, where, following the 1998-2000 review of the NATO Standardization Process, the MOS was combined with the Office of NATO Standardization. The latter addressed broader standardization issues such as identifying overall Alliance standardization goals and coordination between operational and material activities.

In August 2001, the NATO Standardization Agency (NSA) was granted expanded responsibilities for the coordination of standardization activities within NATO.

In July 2014, as a result of the NATO Agencies Reform, the NSA became - without change in its mission, function and activities - the NSO, an integrated NATO Headquarters staff element reporting to the MC and the CS.
The NATO Support and Procurement Agency (NSPA) brings together NATO’s logistics and procurement support activities in a single organisation, providing integrated multinational support solutions for NATO Allies and partners. It is a fully customer-funded agency, operating on a “no profit - no loss” basis.

More background information

Main tasks and responsibilities

The NSPA’s mission is to provide responsive, effective and cost-efficient logistics support services for systems and operations. This support is provided – in times of peace, crisis and war, wherever required – to the NATO member nations, the NATO Military Authorities and partner countries, both individually and collectively. In line with guidance provided by the North Atlantic Council (NAC) – NATO’s principal political decision-making body – it aims to maximise the ability and flexibility of armed forces, contingents and other relevant organisations to execute their core mission.

The NSPA is organised into three business segments: the NATO Airlift Management Programme, the Central Europe Pipeline System Programme and Logistics Operations.

NATO Airlift Management (NAM) Programme

The NAM Programme was established to meet the requirements of the participating nations of the Strategic Airlift Capability (SAC). Its executive body, the NAM Programme Office, is responsible for acquiring, managing and supporting airlift assets required for national operations, including those in support of NATO, EU, UN and multinational commitments.

The NAM Programme Office also provides financial, logistical, and administrative services for any military force that operates aircraft owned under the Programme. Currently, it supports the Heavy Airlift Wing, a multinational military unit established by the participating nations of SAC to operate the Globemaster III C-17A aircraft. The large cargo jets are certified and registered as Hungarian-state aircraft, with the main operating base located in Pápa, Hungary.

Central Europe Pipeline System (CEPS) Programme

The CEPS Programme manages the operation, financing and maintenance of an integrated, cross-border fuel pipeline and storage system in support of NATO’s operational military requirements, including expeditionary operations. The CEPS Programme Office, located in Versailles, France, coordinates the operations, product quality and financial management of the Programme, including planning and overseeing cross-border traffic which operates on a 24/7 basis. The Programme Office represents the CEPS Programme in its relationship with NATO authorities and other entities.
Belgium, France, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands (host nations) and the United States are members of the Programme. The CEPS Programme Board is the governing body for Programme execution and acts in the collective interests of all Programme members.

Logistics Operations

The Logistics Operations unit provides a wide range of capabilities supporting multiple weapon systems, equipment and logistics services, such as support to operations.

These logistics capabilities and services are provided using multinational legal frameworks, as well as bilateral and multinational agreements that enable the consolidation and centralisation of logistics management functions for NATO, its member nations as well as partner countries.

All of these capabilities can be leveraged to support NATO and its member nations during exercises and during deployments under NAC-approved operations. A number of NATO staff are deployed to operations and NATO commands to provide frontline logistics and contract management.

Logistics Operations also maintains a Southern Operational Centre in Taranto, Italy, where NATO’s deployable headquarters camps are maintained and from where they may be deployed in support of NATO operations and exercises.

The majority of support is managed through outsourced contracts to industry, which are awarded through international competitive bidding processes.

The Logistics Operations business unit also has an in-house engineering and technical support capability covering a number of specific technologies and services, such as optoelectronics, calibration and data management.

Structure

Headquartered in Capellen, Luxembourg, the NSPA employs some 1,200 staff in operational centres in France, Hungary, Italy and Luxembourg. Headed by a general manager, the NSPA is the executive body of the NATO Support and Procurement Organisation (NSPO).

All 29 NATO nations are members of the NSPO, with each nation represented on the NSPO Agency Supervisory Board (ASB). The ASB directs and controls the activities of the NSPA, issues directives and makes general policy decisions to enable the NSPO to carry out its work. It reports to the NAC.

Evolution

At the 2010 Lisbon Summit, Allied leaders agreed to reform the 14 existing NATO Agencies, located in seven member countries. In particular, they agreed to streamline the agencies into three major programmatic themes: procurement, support, and communications and information. The reform aims to enhance efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of capabilities and services, to achieve greater synergy between similar functions, and to increase transparency and accountability.

As part of the reform process, the NSPA was established on 1 July 2012 merging three former in-service support agencies: the NATO Maintenance and Supply Agency (NAMSA), the NATO Airlift Management Agency (NAMA) and the Central Europe Pipeline Management Agency (CEPMA).

In April 2015, the NATO Support Agency (NSPA) became the NATO Support and Procurement Agency, marking the expansion of its capabilities to include all aspects of systems procurement from initial acquisition throughout sustainment.
NATO-Ukraine Commission

The NATO-Ukraine Commission (NUC) is the decision-making body responsible for developing the NATO-Ukraine relationship and for directing cooperative activities. It also provides a forum for consultation between the Allies and Ukraine on security issues of common concern.

The NUC was established by the NATO-Ukraine Charter on a Distinctive Partnership signed by Ukrainian and Allied Heads of State and Government in Madrid on 9 July 1997. Its task is to ensure proper implementation of the Charter’s provisions, broadly assess the development of the NATO-Ukraine relationship, survey planning for future activities, and suggest ways to improve or further develop cooperation.

The work of the NUC

The NUC provides a forum for consultation between the Allies and Ukraine on security issues of common concern. The current crisis in Ukraine has been discussed in the NUC forum. On 2 March 2014, Allies and Ukraine convened an extraordinary meeting of the NUC. At their meeting in April 2014, Foreign Ministers of the NATO-Ukraine Commission condemned Russia’s illegal and illegitimate “annexation” of Crimea and stated that NATO and Ukraine would intensify cooperation and promote defence reforms through capacity building and capability development programmes.
Other subjects are also discussed within the framework of the NUC such as the situation in Afghanistan and the Balkans; the fight against terrorism; frozen conflicts and other regional security issues.

In December 2008, NATO foreign ministers decided to further enhance work under the NUC through the development of an Annual National Programme (ANP).

The NUC also keeps under review Ukraine’s activities in the Partnership for Peace programme, in the military sphere under the Military Committee and the Ukraine Annual Work Plan.

Joint working groups have been set up under the auspices of the NUC to take work forward in specific areas, namely defence and security sector reform, armaments, economic security, scientific and environmental cooperation.

Participants

All NATO member states and Ukraine are represented in the NUC, which meets regularly at the level of ambassadors and military representatives, as well as periodically at the level of foreign and defence ministers and chiefs of staff, and occasionally at summit level, involving Heads of State and Government.

Senior-level meetings of the NUC are prepared by the Political Committee in NUC format (or NUC PPC), which also serves as the site for ongoing exchanges on political and security issues of common interest, and the preparation and assessment of Ukraine’s programmes of cooperation with NATO.
NATO-Ukraine Joint Working Group on Defence Reform

NATO and Ukraine cooperation in the area of defence and security sector reform is more extensive than with any other partner country. The NATO-Ukraine Joint Working Group on Defence Reform (JWGDR) is the primary focus for NATO-Ukraine cooperation in defence and security sector reform.

Established in 1998 under the auspices of the NATO-Ukraine Commission, the JWGDR pursues initiatives in the area of civil-military relations, democratic oversight and civilian management of the armed forces and other security sector agencies, defence planning, development of policy, strategy and national security concepts.

The JWGDR allows Ukraine to draw on Allied countries’ considerable experience and expertise, and serves as a tool through which the Allies can channel assistance. It also provides the institutional basis for NATO’s cooperation with ministries and agencies engaged in implementing defence and security sector reform in Ukraine. These include the National Security and Defence Council, the Ministries of Foreign Affairs and Defence, National Guard, Border Guard Service, Security Service of Ukraine, the Verkhovna Rada (Ukrainian Parliament) and others.

All NATO member states and Ukraine are represented in meetings of the JWGDR. Since 2013, these meetings are chaired by NATO’s Assistant Secretary General for Political Affairs and Security Policy (prior to this, they were chaired by the Assistant Secretary General for Defence Policy and Planning).

The core group of the JWGDR meets quarterly at the expert level at NATO Headquarters in Brussels. Annual meetings take place at Senior Level, involving high-ranking officials from Allied capitals and Kyiv.

Additionally, there are several programmes and initiatives supporting Ukraine’s reforms in the defence and security sector, which are implemented under the auspices of the JWGDR, such as the Professional Development Programme for Civilian Personnel of Security and Defence Sector Institutions, and Partnership Network for Civil Society Expertise Development.
North Atlantic Cooperation Council (NACC) (Archived)

The North Atlantic Cooperation Council (NACC) was established by the Allies on 20 December 1991 as a forum for dialogue and cooperation with NATO’s former Warsaw Pact adversaries. The NACC was a manifestation of the “hand of friendship” extended at the July 1990 summit meeting in London, when Allied leaders proposed a new cooperative relationship with all countries in Central and Eastern Europe in the wake of the end of the Cold War.

Such was the pace of change in Europe at the time that inaugural meeting of the NACC itself witnessed an historic event: as the final communiqué was being agreed, the Soviet ambassador announced that the Soviet Union had dissolved during the meeting and that he now only represented the Russian Federation.

The 11 former Soviet republics of the newly formed Commonwealth of Independent States were invited to participate in the NACC. Georgia and Azerbaijan joined the NACC in 1992 along with Albania, and the Central Asian republics soon followed suit.

In the immediate post-Cold War period, consultations within the NACC focused on residual Cold War security concerns, such as the withdrawal of Russian troops from the Baltic States, and on regional conflicts that were breaking out in parts of the former Soviet Union as well as in the former Yugoslavia.
Political cooperation was launched on a number of security and defence-related issues. Military-to-military contacts and cooperation also got off the ground.

The NACC broke new ground in many ways. Multilateral political consultation and cooperation helped build confidence in the early 1990s, paving the way for the launch of the Partnership for Peace (PfP) in 1994. The PfP programme offered partners the possibility to develop practical bilateral cooperation with NATO, choosing their own priorities for cooperation.

The invitation to join the Partnership for Peace was addressed to all states participating in the NACC and other states participating in the Conference on Security and Cooperation (which became the Organisation for Security and Cooperation in 1995).

The NACC was succeeded by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council in 1997. This reflected the Allies’ desire to build a security forum, which would include Western European partners and be better suited for the increasingly sophisticated relationships being developed with partner countries. Many partners were deepening their cooperation with NATO, in particular in support of defence reform and the transition towards democracy, and several partners were by then also actively supporting the NATO-led peacekeeping operation in Bosnia and Herzegovina.
The North Atlantic Council is the principal political decision-making body within NATO. It oversees the political and military process relating to security issues affecting the whole Alliance. It brings together representatives of each member country to discuss policy or operational questions requiring collective decisions, providing a forum for wide-ranging consultation between members on all issues affecting their peace and security.

**Highlights**

- The North Atlantic Council (NAC) is the principal political decision-making body within NATO and is the ultimate authority at the head of a network of committees.
- NAC discussions and decisions cover all aspects of the Organization’s activities and are often based on reports and recommendations prepared by subordinate committees, at the Council’s request.
- The Nuclear Planning Group has comparable authority to the NAC, but only for matters within its specific area of competence, i.e., nuclear policies, planning and consultation procedures.
- Policies decided in the NAC are the expression of the collective will of all member countries of the Alliance since decisions are made on the basis of unanimity and common accord.
- The Secretary General chairs the NAC and its decisions have the same status and validity at whatever level it meets.
- It was the only body established by the North Atlantic Treaty (Article 9) in 1949 and the only one with the authority to set up subsidiary bodies.
More background information

Effective political authority and powers of decision

The NAC has effective political authority and powers of decision. It is the only body that was established by the North Atlantic Treaty, under Article 9:

“The Parties hereby establish a council, on which each of them shall be represented, to consider matters concerning the implementation of this Treaty. The council shall be so organized as to be able to meet promptly at any time. The council shall set up such subsidiary bodies as may be necessary; in particular it shall establish immediately a defense committee which shall recommend measures for the implementation of Articles 3 and 5.”

In addition to being the only body invested with the authority to set up “such subsidiary bodies as may be necessary”, it is also the ultimate authority at the head of a large, intricate network of committees and working groups. It is often referred to as “the Council”.

The NAC is the principal political decision-making body and oversees the political and military process relating to security issues affecting the whole Alliance.

Items discussed and decisions taken at meetings of the Council cover all aspects of the Organization’s activities and are frequently based on reports and recommendations prepared by subordinate committees at the Council’s request. Equally, subjects may be raised by the Secretary General or any one of the national representatives, in particular under Article 4 of the Washington Treaty:

“The Parties will consult together whenever, in the opinion of any of them, the territorial integrity, political independence or security of any of the Parties is threatened.”

Decisions are agreed upon on the basis of unanimity and common accord. There is no voting or decision by majority. This means that policies decided upon by the NAC are supported by and are the expression of the collective will of all the sovereign states that are members of the Alliance and are accepted by all of them. All members have an equal right to express their views and share in the consensus on which decisions are based.

Representation at different levels

Representatives of all member countries of NATO have a seat at the NAC. It can meet at the level of “permanent representatives” (or “ambassadors”), at the level of foreign and defence ministers, and at the level of heads of state and government.

Its decisions have the same status and validity at whatever level it meets.

The Secretary General chairs the NAC. In his absence, the Deputy Secretary General chairs the meetings. The longest serving ambassador on the Council assumes the title of dean of the Council. Primarily a ceremonial function, the dean may be called upon to play a more specific presiding role, for example in convening meetings and chairing discussions at the time of the selection of a new Secretary General. At ministerial meetings of foreign ministers, one country’s foreign minister assumes the role of honorary president. The position rotates annually among members in the order of the English alphabet.

The ambassadors sit round the table in order of nationality, following the English alphabetical order. The same procedure is followed throughout the NATO committee structure.

Working procedures

The NAC meets at least every week and often more frequently, at the level of permanent representatives; it meets twice a year at the level of ministers of foreign affairs, three times a year at the level of ministers of defence, and occasionally at the summit level with the participation of heads of state and government.

Permanent representatives act on instruction from their capitals, informing and explaining the views and the policy decisions of their governments to their colleagues around the table. Conversely, they report back to their national authorities on the views expressed and positions taken by other governments,
informing them of new developments and keeping them abreast of movement toward consensus on important issues or areas where national positions diverge.

Each country represented at the Council table or on any of its subordinate committees retains complete sovereignty and responsibility for its own decisions.

**Preparing the Council’s work**

The work of the Council is prepared by subordinate committees that are responsible for specific areas of policy. Much of this work involves the Deputies Committee, consisting of Deputy Permanent Representatives.

The Council has an important public profile and issues declarations and communiqués explaining the Alliance’s policies and decisions. These documents are normally published after ministerial or summit meetings. The Deputies Committee has particular responsibility for preparing such documents and meets in advance of ministerial meetings to draft the texts for Council approval. The Nuclear Planning Staff Group plays a similar role on behalf of the Nuclear Planning Group.

The Political and Partnerships Committee may handle other aspects of political work. Depending on the topic under discussion, the respective senior committee with responsibility for the subject assumes the leading role in preparing Council meetings and following up on Council decisions.

When the Council meets at the level of defence ministers, or is dealing with defence matters and questions relating to defence strategy, senior committees such as the Defence Policy and Planning Committee may be involved as principal advisory bodies. If financial matters are on the Council’s agenda, the Resource Policy and Planning Board will be responsible to the Council for preparing relevant aspects of its work.

**Supporting the Council**

Direct support to the Council is provided by the Secretary of the Council, who ensures that Council mandates are executed and decisions recorded and circulated. A small Council Secretariat handles the organisational and logistical aspects of the NAC’s work, while the relevant divisions of the International Staff support the work of committees reporting to the NAC.

Generally speaking, the entire International Staff at NATO Headquarters supports the work of the Council, either directly or indirectly, and helps to ensure that Council decisions are implemented.
NATO’s nuclear deterrence policy and forces

Nuclear weapons are a core component of NATO’s overall capabilities for deterrence and defence, alongside conventional and missile defence forces. NATO is committed to arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation, but as long as nuclear weapons exist, it will remain a nuclear alliance.

**Highlights**

- Credible deterrence and defence, based on an appropriate mix of nuclear, conventional and missile defence capabilities, remains a core element of NATO’s overall strategy to prevent conflict and war.
- The credibility of NATO’s nuclear forces is central to maintain deterrence, which is why the safety, security and effectiveness of these forces are constantly evaluated in light of technological and geo-strategic evolutions.
- NATO’s current nuclear policy is based on NATO’s 2010 Strategic Concept and the 2012 Deterrence and Defence Posture Review, as well as guidance from Heads of State and Government at the Summits in Wales, Warsaw, and Brussels.
- The Nuclear Planning Group provides the forum for consultation on NATO’s nuclear deterrence.

**More background information**

### NATO’s nuclear deterrence policy

The fundamental purpose of NATO’s nuclear capability is to preserve peace, prevent coercion and deter aggression. NATO’s current nuclear policy is based on two public documents agreed by all 29 Allies:

- The 2010 Strategic Concept
- The 2012 Deterrence and Defence Posture Review

The 2010 Strategic Concept, adopted by Allied Heads of State and Government at the NATO Summit in Lisbon in November 2010, sets out the Alliance’s core tasks and principles, including deterrence. The Strategic Concept commits NATO to the goal of creating the conditions for a world without nuclear weapons, but reconfirms that, as long as there are nuclear weapons in the world, NATO will remain a nuclear alliance. It also seeks to ensure the broadest possible participation of Allies in collective defence planning on nuclear roles, in peacetime basing of nuclear forces, and in command, control and consultation arrangements.

The 2010 Lisbon Summit set in train work on a Deterrence and Defence Posture Review (DDPR), which was endorsed by the Allied Heads of State and Government at the NATO Chicago Summit in May 2012. The DDPR stressed that the fundamental purpose of Alliance nuclear forces is deterrence, which is essentially a political function. While the Alliance focuses on the maintenance of effective deterrence, political control of nuclear weapons will be kept under all circumstances and nuclear planning and consultation within the Alliance will be in accordance with political guidance.

NATO continues to affirm the importance of nuclear deterrence in light of evolving challenges. Allies reiterated this principle at the 2014 Wales Summit, the 2016 Warsaw Summit, and the 2018 Brussels Summit, where Heads of State and Government declared that the goal of Allies “is to continue to bolster deterrence as a core element of our collective defence and to contribute to the indivisible security of the
Following changes in the security environment, NATO has taken steps to ensure its nuclear deterrent capabilities remain safe, secure, and effective. As long as nuclear weapons exist, NATO will remain a nuclear alliance."

Nuclear consultation

The key principles of NATO’s nuclear policy are established by the Heads of State and Government of the 29 members of the Alliance. The development and implementation of NATO’s nuclear policy are the responsibility of the Nuclear Planning Group (NPG). The NPG provides the forum for consultation on all issues that relate to NATO nuclear deterrence. All Allies, with the exception of France, which has decided not to participate, are members of the NPG.

NATO’s nuclear forces

The fundamental purpose of NATO’s nuclear forces is for deterrence. Nuclear weapons are unique and the circumstances under which NATO might have to use nuclear weapons is extremely remote. Furthermore, any employment of nuclear weapons against NATO would fundamentally alter the nature of a conflict. However, should the fundamental security of any NATO Ally be threatened, NATO has the capabilities – both nuclear and conventional – and the resolve to impose costs on the adversary that would be unacceptable and far outweigh the benefits that any adversary could hope to achieve.

Strategic nuclear forces

The strategic forces of the Alliance, and particularly those of the United States, are the supreme guarantee of the security of the Allies. The independent strategic nuclear forces of the United Kingdom and France have a deterrent role of their own and contribute significantly to the overall security of the Alliance. These Allies’ separate centres of decision-making contribute to deterrence by complicating the calculations of any potential adversaries. In other words, should an adversary decide to attack NATO, they must not only contend with NATO’s decision-making, but also make a judgment about decision-making from the leaders of the United States, United Kingdom, and France.

Dual-capable aircraft

NATO’s nuclear deterrence posture relies on nuclear weapons forward-deployed by the United States in Europe, as well as on the capabilities and infrastructure provided by Allies concerned. A number of NATO member countries contribute a dual-capable aircraft (DCA) capability to the Alliance. These aircraft are central to NATO’s nuclear deterrence mission and are available for nuclear roles at various levels of readiness. In their nuclear role, the aircraft are equipped to carry nuclear bombs in a conflict and personnel are trained accordingly.

The United States maintains absolute control and custody of their nuclear weapons forward deployed in Europe, while Allies provide military support for the DCA mission with conventional forces and capabilities.

Evolution of NATO’s Nuclear Policy

Nuclear deterrence has been at the core of NATO’s mutual security guarantee and collective defence since its inception in 1949. The very first NATO Strategic Concept (1949) referenced the requirement to “ensure the ability to carry out strategic bombing promptly by all means possible with all types of weapons without exception.” The United States subsequently committed nuclear weapons to NATO in July 1953, with the first American theatre nuclear weapons arriving in Europe in September 1954. NATO’s nuclear sharing arrangements, which were already in place by the time negotiations for the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT) began in the 1960s, were codified by the United States and the Soviet Union as a precursor for the final agreed NPT text. The United Kingdom has also extended its nuclear forces, including its current single submarine-based system and Continuous At-Sea Deterrent, to the protection of NATO Allies for over 50 years.

NATO seeks its security at the lowest possible level of forces and is fully committed to arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation. Since the height of the Cold War, it has unilaterally reduced the size
of its land-based nuclear weapons stockpile by over 90 per cent, reducing the number of nuclear weapons stationed in Europe and its reliance on nuclear weapons in strategy. This position is made clear in both the 2010 Strategic Concept and the 2012 Deterrence and Defence Posture Review.

Since progress on arms control and disarmament must take into account the prevailing international security environment, at the Warsaw Summit in 2016, NATO leaders recognised that conditions for achieving further disarmament were unfavourable given Russia’s aggressive actions and military build-up in recent years. During the 2018 NATO Summit in Brussels, Heads of State and Government once again affirmed NATO’s long-standing commitment to nuclear deterrence, stating that "as long as nuclear weapons exist, NATO will remain a nuclear alliance."
Nuclear Planning Group (NPG)

The Nuclear Planning Group acts as the senior body on nuclear matters in the Alliance and discusses specific policy issues associated with nuclear forces. The Alliance’s nuclear policy is kept under constant review and is modified and adapted in light of new developments.

**Highlights**

- The Nuclear Planning Group (NPG) reviews the Alliance’s nuclear policy in light of the ever-changing security environment.
- While the North Atlantic Council is the ultimate authority within NATO, the NPG acts as the senior body on nuclear matters in the Alliance.
- The NPG discusses specific policy issues associated with nuclear forces and wider issues such as nuclear arms control and nuclear proliferation.
- All members, with the exception of France which has decided not to participate, are part of the NPG irrespective of whether or not they themselves maintain nuclear weapons.
- The NPG was founded in December 1966 to provide a consultative process on nuclear doctrine within NATO. It was initially called the Nuclear Defence Affairs Committee.

**NATO’s senior body on nuclear policy issues**

Whilst the North Atlantic Council (NAC) is the ultimate authority within NATO, the NPG acts as the senior body on nuclear matters within NATO. It meets annually in Defence Ministers format at 28 (29 minus France).

Its discussions cover a broad range of nuclear policy matters, including the safety, security and survivability of nuclear weapons, communications and information systems, as well as deployment issues. It also covers wider questions of common concern such as nuclear arms control and nuclear proliferation.

The role of the NPG is to review the Alliance’s nuclear policy in light of the ever-changing security challenges of the international environment and to adapt it if necessary. The NPG also adjusts planning and consultation procedures accordingly.

It provides a forum in which NATO member countries can participate in the development of the Alliance’s nuclear policy and in decisions on NATO’s nuclear posture, irrespective of whether or not they themselves maintain nuclear weapons. The policies that are agreed upon therefore represent the common position of all the participating countries. Decisions are taken by consensus within the NPG, as is the case for all NATO committees.

**Participants**

All member countries, with the exception of France, which has decided not to participate, are part of the NPG.

It is chaired by the Secretary General of NATO.
Working procedures

The work of the NPG is prepared by an NPG Staff Group. This group is composed of members of the national delegations of all participating member countries. The Staff Group prepares meetings of the NPG Permanent Representatives and carries out detailed work on their behalf. It generally meets once a week and at other times, as necessary.

The senior advisory body to the NPG on nuclear policy and planning issues is the NPG High Level Group (HLG). In 1998-1999, the HLG also took over the functions and responsibilities of the former Senior Level Weapons Protection Group (SLWPG) which was charged with overseeing nuclear weapons safety, security and survivability matters. The HLG is chaired by the United States and is composed of national policy makers (at policy director level) and experts from Allied capitals. It meets several times a year to discuss aspects of NATO’s nuclear policy, planning and force posture, and matters concerning the safety, security and survivability of nuclear weapons.

The NPG itself meets, when necessary, at the level of Ambassadors; and once a year at the level of Ministers of Defence.

Evolution

The NPG was founded in December 1966, when the Defence Planning Committee in Ministerial Session accepted the recommendation of the Special Committee of Defence Ministers, chaired by Robert McNamara of the United States, to establish a consultative process on nuclear doctrine within NATO.

Ministers implemented these recommendations by creating the Nuclear Defence Affairs Committee (NDAC), which included all NATO members, and the NPG, which was restricted to nations participating in NATO’s integrated military structure, and was mandated to carry out detailed work on nuclear issues.

In order to facilitate the NPG’s work, only seven nations sat on the Group at any one time. The United States, United Kingdom, Italy and West Germany were permanent members, while appointments to the other three NPG seats lasted for one year, and rotated amongst the eligible nations. The NDAC met once per year at ministerial level, meeting for the last time in 1973. The Portuguese Cárnam Revolution in 1974, raised some security concerns, which led to the cancellation of the planned NDAC. Thereafter no meeting of the NDAC has convened.

Even though the NDAC has never been formally abolished, its work was taken over by the NPG, which then became the only formal NATO body dealing with nuclear affairs.

The rotational membership of the NPG was ended in 1979 in recognition of the increasing importance to all members of NATO’s nuclear policy and posture.
Operations and missions: past and present

NATO is an active and leading contributor to peace and security on the international stage. It promotes democratic values and is committed to the peaceful resolution of disputes. However, if diplomatic efforts fail, it has the military capacity to undertake crisis management operations alone or in cooperation with other countries and international organisations.

Highlights

- NATO is a crisis management organisation that has the capacity to undertake a wide range of military operations and missions.
- Approximately 20,000 military personnel are engaged in NATO operations and missions around the world, managing often complex ground, air and naval operations in all types of environment.
- Currently, NATO is leading operations in Afghanistan, Kosovo and the Mediterranean.
- In 2018, NATO initiated a training mission in Iraq, which aims at developing the capacity of Iraq’s security forces, its defence and security institutions, and its national defence academies.
- NATO is also supporting the African Union and conducting air policing missions on the request of its Allies. Furthermore, NATO is assisting with the response to the refugee and migrant crisis in Europe and has Patriot missiles and AWACS aircraft deployed in Turkey.
- It also carries out disaster relief operations and missions to protect populations against natural, technological or humanitarian disasters.
- The tempo and diversity of operations and missions in which NATO is involved have increased since the early 1990s.
Current operations and missions

NATO in Afghanistan

NATO is currently leading Resolute Support, a non-combat mission which provides training, advice and assistance to Afghan security forces and institutions. Resolute Support was launched on 1 January 2015. It includes approximately 17,000 personnel from both NATO and partner countries and operates with one hub (in Kabul/Bagram) and four spokes in Mazar-e Sharif (northern Afghanistan), Herat (western Afghanistan), Kandahar (southern Afghanistan) and Laghman (eastern Afghanistan).

Key functions include: supporting planning, programming and budgeting; assuring transparency, accountability and oversight; supporting the adherence to the principles of rule of law and good governance; supporting the establishment and sustainment of processes such as force generation, recruiting, training, managing and development of personnel.

The legal basis of the Resolute Support Mission rests on a formal invitation from the Afghan Government and the Status of Forces Agreement (SOFA) between NATO and Afghanistan, which governs the presence of Allied troops. Resolute Support is also supported by the international community at large. This is reflected in United Nations (UN) Security Council Resolution 2189, unanimously adopted on 12 December 2014. This resolution welcomes the new Resolute Support Mission and underscores the importance of continued international support for the stability of Afghanistan.

Resolute Support is a follow-on mission to the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF). ISAF was under NATO leadership from August 2003 to December 2014. It was established under a request for assistance by the Afghan authorities and by a UN mandate in 2001 to prevent Afghanistan from once again becoming a safe haven for terrorists. In addition, ISAF was tasked to develop new Afghan security forces and enable Afghan authorities to provide effective security across the country in order to create an environment conducive to the functioning of democratic institutions and the establishment of the rule of law.

The mission in Afghanistan constitutes the Alliance’s most significant operational commitment to date. Moreover, beyond Resolute Support and ISAF, Allies and partners countries are committed to the broader international community’s support for the long-term financial sustainment of the Afghan security forces. NATO leaders have also reaffirmed their commitment to an enduring partnership between NATO and Afghanistan, by strengthening political consultations and practical cooperation within the framework of the NATO-Afghanistan Enduring Partnership signed in 2010.

NATO in Kosovo

While Afghanistan remains NATO’s primary operational theatre, the Alliance has not faltered on its other commitments, particularly in the Balkans. Today, approximately 3,500 Allied and partner troops operate in Kosovo as part of NATO’s Kosovo Force (KFOR).

Having first entered Kosovo in June 1999 to end widespread violence and halt the humanitarian disaster that was unfolding, KFOR troops continue to maintain a strong presence throughout the territory.

Following Kosovo’s declaration of independence in February 2008, NATO agreed it would continue to maintain its presence on the basis of UN Security Council Resolution 1244. It has since helped to create a professional and multi-ethnic Kosovo Security Force, which is a lightly armed force responsible for security tasks that are not appropriate for the police. Meanwhile, NATO strongly supports the European Union-sponsored Dialogue between Belgrade and Pristina. The normalisation of relations between Serbia and Kosovo is key to solving the political deadlock over northern Kosovo.

Securing the Mediterranean Sea

NATO operations are not limited only to zones of conflict. In the aftermath of the 9/11 terrorist attacks, NATO immediately began to take measures to expand the options available to counter the threat of international terrorism. In October 2001, it launched the maritime surveillance Operation Active Endeavour, focused on detecting and deterring terrorist activity in the Mediterranean. The operation was terminated in October 2016 and was succeeded by Sea Guardian, a flexible maritime operation able to perform the full range of maritime security operations tasks.
Sea Guardian is currently performing three tasks in the Mediterranean Sea: maritime situational awareness, counter-terrorism at sea and support to capacity-building. If decided by Allies, it could also perform other tasks such as upholding freedom of navigation, conducting interdiction tasks and protecting critical infrastructure. More generally speaking, it is helping to maintain a secure and safe maritime environment while supporting the Alliance’s three core tasks: collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security.

**Training mission in Iraq**

The “NATO Mission Iraq” was formally launched at the Brussels Summit in July 2018, at the request of the Iraqi government and in coordination with the Global Coalition to Defeat ISIS. It is a non-combat training and capacity-building mission that involves several hundred NATO trainers. The trainers are helping Iraqi forces secure their country and the wider region against terrorism, and prevent the re-emergence of ISIS. Training focuses on areas such as countering improvised explosive devices (IEDs), civil-military planning, armoured vehicles maintenance and military medicine; it is also helping Iraqi instructors to build more sustainable, transparent and inclusive national security structures and institutions to strengthen Iraqi military institutions.

From 2004 to 2011, NATO conducted a relatively small but important support operation in Iraq that consisted of training, mentoring and assisting the Iraqi Security Forces. It was known as the NATO Training Mission in Iraq (NTM-I).

**Supporting the African Union**

Well beyond the Euro-Atlantic region, the Alliance continues to support the African Union (AU) in its peacekeeping missions on the African continent. Since June 2007, NATO has assisted the AU Mission in Somalia (AMISOM) by providing air- and sealift support for AU peacekeepers following renewed AU requests. NATO is also providing capacity-building support, as well as expert training support to the African Standby Force (ASF), at the AU’s request. The ASF is intended to be deployed in Africa in times of crisis and is part of the AU’s efforts to develop long-term peacekeeping capabilities. ASF represents the AU’s vision for a continental, on-call security apparatus with some similarities to the NATO Response Force.

**Air policing**

Since Russia’s illegal military intervention in Ukraine in 2014, NATO has been taking extra reassurance measures for its Allies. Among these is the boosting of NATO’s air policing missions.

Air policing missions are collective peacetime missions that enable NATO to detect, track and identify all violations and infringements of its airspace and to take appropriate action. Allied fighter jets patrol the airspace of Allies who do not have fighter jets of their own. NATO has deployed additional aircraft to reinforce missions over Albania, Montenegro and Slovenia, as well as the Baltic region, where NATO F-16s have intercepted Russian aircraft repeatedly violating Allied airspace.

This air policing capability is one of three NATO standing forces on active duty that contribute to the Alliance’s collective defence efforts on a permanent basis. They also include NATO’s standing maritime forces, which are ready to act when called upon, as well as an integrated air defence system to protect against air attacks, which also comprises the Alliance’s ballistic missile defence system.

**Terminated operations and missions**

**Counter-piracy in the Gulf of Aden and off the Horn of Africa**

Responding to a request from UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon, NATO naval forces provided escorts to UN World Food Programme (WFP) vessels transiting through the dangerous waters in the Gulf of Aden, where growing piracy threatened to undermine international humanitarian efforts in Africa. The NATO-led Operation Allied Provider was conducted from October to December 2008 and involved counter-piracy activities off the coast of Somalia.
Concurrently, in response to an urgent request from the African Union (AU), these same NATO naval forces escorted a vessel chartered by the AU carrying equipment for the Burundi contingent deployed to the AU Mission in Somalia.

From March to August 2009, NATO ran Operation Allied Protector, a counter-piracy operation, to improve the safety of commercial maritime routes and international navigation off the Horn of Africa. The force conducted surveillance tasks and provided protection to deter and suppress piracy and armed robbery, which are threatening sea lines of communication and economic interests.

Building on previous counter-piracy missions conducted by NATO, Operation Ocean Shield focused on at-sea counter-piracy operations off the Horn of Africa. Approved on 17 August 2009 by the North Atlantic Council, this operation contributed to international efforts to combat piracy in the area. It also offered, to regional states that requested it, assistance in developing their own capacity to combat piracy activities. There were no successful piracy attacks from May 2012 onwards, but even though Somalia-based piracy was suppressed, it had not been eliminated. During the periods without surface ships, maritime patrol aircraft continued to fly sorties, and links to situational awareness systems and counter-piracy partners remained in place. In this effort, the NATO Shipping Centre played a key role. Ocean Shield was terminated on 15 December 2016 after having achieved its objectives.

**Operation Active Endeavour**

Operation Active Endeavour (OAE) was initiated in the immediate aftermath of the 9/11 terrorist attacks to deter, defend, disrupt and protect against terrorist activity in the Mediterranean. It helped to secure one of the busiest trade routes in the world and was among eight initiatives launched by the Alliance in 2001, in solidarity with the United States. It was an Article 5 operation, i.e., a collective defence operation that, initially only involved NATO member countries until it started accepting non-NATO countries’ participation in 2004.

OAE hailed merchant vessels and boarded suspect ships, intervened to rescue civilians on stricken oil rigs and sinking ships and, generally, helped to improve perceptions of security. NATO ships also systematically carried out preparatory route surveys in “choke” points, as well as in important passages and harbours throughout the Mediterranean.

2010 was a turning point for OAE, when it shifted from a platform-based to a network-based operation, using a combination of on-call units and surge operations instead of deployed forces. In addition to tracking and controlling suspect vessels, it helped to build a picture of maritime activity in the Mediterranean by conducting routine information approaches to various vessels.

Active Endeavour was succeeded by Operation Sea Guardian in November 2016.

**International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan**

Established under the request of the Afghan authorities and a UN mandate in 2001, the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) was led by NATO from August 2003 to December 2014.

Its mission was to develop new Afghan security forces and enable Afghan authorities to provide effective security across the country in order to create an environment conducive to the functioning of democratic institutions and the establishment of the rule of law, with the aim to prevent Afghanistan from once again becoming a safe haven for terrorists.

ISAF also contributed to reconstruction and development in Afghanistan. This was done primarily through multinational Provincial Reconstruction Teams (PRTs) – led by individual ISAF troop-contributing countries – securing areas in which reconstruction work could be conducted by national and international actors. PRTs also helped the Afghan authorities progressively strengthen the institutions required to fully establish good governance and the rule of law, as well as to promote human rights. The principal role of the PRTs in this respect was to build capacity, support the growth of governance structures and promote an environment in which governance can improve.

ISAF was one of the largest international crisis management operations ever, bringing together contributions from up to 51 different countries. By end 2014, the process of transitioning full security responsibility from ISAF troops to the Afghan army and police forces was completed and the ISAF mission
came to a close. On 1 January 2015, a new NATO-led, non-combat mission, Resolute Support, to train, advise and assist the Afghan security forces and institutions was launched.

NATO and Iraq

NATO conducted a relatively small but important support operation in Iraq from 2004 to 2011 that consisted of training, mentoring and assisting the Iraqi Security Forces. At the Istanbul Summit in June 2004, the Allies rose above their differences and agreed to be part of the international effort to help Iraq establish effective and accountable security forces. The outcome was the creation of the NATO Training Mission in Iraq (NTM-I). The NTM-I delivered its training, advice and mentoring support in a number of different settings. All NATO member countries contributed to the training effort either in or outside of Iraq, through financial contributions or donations of equipment. In parallel and reinforcing this initiative, NATO also worked with the Iraqi government on a structured cooperation framework to develop the Alliance’s long-term relationship with Iraq.

NATO and Libya

Following the popular uprising against the Gadhafi regime in Benghazi, Libya, in February 2011, the UN Security Council adopted Resolutions 1970 and 1973 in support of the Libyan people, “condemning the gross and systematic violation of human rights”. The resolutions introduced active measures including a no-fly zone, an arms embargo and the authorisation for member countries, acting as appropriate through regional organisations, to take “all necessary measures” to protect Libyan civilians.

Initially, NATO enforced the no-fly zone and then, on 31 March 2011, NATO took over sole command and control of all military operations for Libya. The NATO-led Operation Unified Protector had three distinct components:

- the enforcement of an arms embargo on the high seas of the Mediterranean to prevent the transfer of arms, related material and mercenaries to Libya;
- the enforcement of a no-fly-zone in order to prevent any aircraft from bombing civilian targets; and
- air and naval strikes against those military forces involved in attacks or threats to attack Libyan civilians and civilian-populated areas.

The UN mandate was carried out to the letter and the operation was terminated on 31 October 2011 after having fulfilled its objectives.

Assisting the African Union in Darfur, Sudan

The African Union Mission in Sudan (AMIS) aimed to end violence and improve the humanitarian situation in a region that has been suffering from conflict since 2003. From June 2005 to 31 December 2007, NATO provided air transport for some 37,000 AMIS personnel, as well as trained and mentored over 250 AMIS officials. While NATO’s support to this mission ended when AMIS was succeeded by the UN-AU Mission in Darfur (UNAMID), the Alliance immediately expressed its readiness to consider any request for support to the new peacekeeping mission.

Pakistan earthquake relief assistance

Just before the onset of the harsh Himalayan winter, a devastating earthquake hit Pakistan on 8 October 2005, killing an estimated 53,000 people, injuring 75,000 and making at least four million homeless. On 11 October, in response to a request from Pakistan, NATO assisted in the urgent relief effort, airlifting close to 3,500 tons of supplies and deploying engineers, medical units and specialist equipment. This was one of NATO’s largest humanitarian relief initiatives, which came to an end on 1 February 2006.

Over time, the Alliance has helped to coordinate assistance to other countries hit by natural disasters, including Turkey, Ukraine and Portugal. It does this through its Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre.

Hurricane Katrina

After Hurricane Katrina struck the south of the United States on 29 August 2005, causing many fatalities and widespread damage and flooding, the US government requested food, medical and logistics supplies and assistance in moving these supplies to stricken areas. On 9 September 2005, the North Atlantic
Council approved a military plan to assist the United States, which consisted of helping to coordinate the movement of urgently needed material and supporting humanitarian relief operations. During the operation (9 September-2 October), nine member countries provided 189 tons of material to the United States.

**Protecting public events**

In response to a request by the Greek government, NATO provided assistance to the Olympic and Paralympic Games held in Athens with Operation Distinguished Games from 18 June until 29 September 2004. NATO provided intelligence support, provision of chemical, biological radiological and nuclear (CBRN) defence assets and AWACS radar aircraft. This was the first operation in which non-Article 4 or 5 NATO assistance was provided within the borders of a member country.

In the same vein, NATO responded to a request made by the Latvian government for assistance in assuring the security of the Riga Summit in November 2006. NATO provided technical security, CBRN response capabilities, air and sea policing, improvised explosive device (IED) detections, communications and information systems, and medical evacuation support.

**Second Gulf Conflict**

During the second Gulf Conflict, NATO deployed NATO AWACS radar aircraft and air defence batteries to enhance the defence of Turkey in an operation called Display Deterrence. This operation started on 20 February 2003 and lasted until 16 April 2003. The AWACS aircraft flew 100 missions with a total of 950 flying hours.

**NATO in North Macedonia**

Responding to a request from the Government in Skopje to help mitigate rising ethnic tension, NATO implemented three successive operations in the country, previously known as the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. The operations were conducted from August 2001 to March 2003.

First, Operation Essential Harvest disarmed ethnic Albanian groups operating throughout the country.

The follow-on Operation Amber Fox provided protection for international monitors overseeing the implementation of the peace plan.

Finally, Operation Allied Harmony was launched in December 2002 to provide advisory elements to assist the government in ensuring stability throughout the country.

These operations demonstrated the strong inter-institutional cooperation between NATO, the European Union and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe. In April 2002, NATO Headquarters Skopje was created to advise on military aspects of security sector reform; it still operates today.

**NATO’s first counter-terrorism operation**

On 4 October 2001, once it had been determined that the 9/11 terrorist attacks in New York and Washington DC had come from abroad, NATO agreed on a package of eight measures to support the United States. On the request of the United States, the Alliance launched its first-ever counter-terrorism operation – Operation Eagle Assist - from mid-October 2001 to mid-May 2002.

It consisted of seven NATO AWACS radar aircraft that helped patrol the skies over the United States; in total 830 crew members from 13 NATO countries flew over 360 sorties. This was the first time that NATO military assets were deployed in support of an Article 5 operation.

**NATO in Bosnia and Herzegovina**

With the break-up of Yugoslavia, violent conflict started in Bosnia and Herzegovina in April 1992. The Alliance responded as early as summer 1992 when it enforced the UN arms embargo on weapons in the Adriatic Sea (in cooperation with the Western European Union from 1993) and enforced a no-fly-zone declared by the UN Security Council. It was during the monitoring of the no-fly-zone that NATO engaged in the first combat operations in its history by shooting down four Bosnian Serb fighter-bombers conducting a bombing mission on 28 February 1994.
In August 1995, to compel an end to Serb-led violence in the country, UN peacekeepers requested NATO airstrikes. Operation Deadeye began on 30 August against Bosnian Serb air forces, but failed to result in Bosnian Serb compliance with the UN's demands to withdraw. This led to Operation Deliberate Force, which targeted Bosnian Serb command and control installations and ammunition facilities. This NATO air campaign was a key factor in bringing the Serbs to the negotiating table and ending the war in Bosnia.

With the signing of the Dayton Peace Accord in December 1995, NATO immediately deployed a UN-mandated Implementation Force (IFOR) comprising some 60,000 troops. This operation (Operation Joint Endeavour) was followed in December 1996 by the deployment of a 32,000-strong Stabilisation Force (SFOR).

In light of the improved security situation, NATO brought its peace-support operation to a conclusion in December 2004 and the European Union deployed a new force called Operation Althea. The Alliance has maintained a military headquarters in the country to carry out a number of specific tasks related, in particular, to assisting the government in reforming its defence structures.

From 1949 to the early 1990s

During the Cold War

When NATO was established in 1949, one of its fundamental roles was to act as a powerful deterrent against military aggression. In this role, NATO's success was reflected in the fact that, throughout the entire period of the Cold War, NATO forces were not involved in a single military engagement. For much of the latter half of the 20th century, NATO remained vigilant and prepared.

After the Cold War

With the end of the Cold War in the early 1990s came great changes to the international security environment. The Alliance witnessed the emergence of new threats and the resurgence of old but familiar ones.

With these changing conditions came new responsibilities. From being an exclusively defensive alliance for nearly half a century, NATO began to assume an increasingly proactive role within the international community. Before engaging in its first major crisis-response operation in the Balkans, NATO conducted several other military operations:

After Iraqi forces invaded Kuwait on 2 August 1990, NATO Airborne Early Warning aircraft deployed to Konya, Turkey, to monitor the crisis and provide coverage of southeastern Turkey in case of an Iraqi attack during the first Gulf Crisis/War.

In response to a Turkish request for assistance to meet the threat posed by Iraq during the first Gulf Crisis/War, NATO deployed the ACE Mobile Force (Air) and air defence packages to Turkey.

**Operation Allied Goodwill I & II**, 4-9 February & 27 February – 24 March 1992
Following the break-up of the Soviet Union in December 1991 and the collapse of its centrally-controlled economic system, NATO assisted an international relief effort by flying teams of humanitarian assistance experts and medical advisors to Russia and other Commonwealth of Independent States nations using AWACS trainer cargo aircraft.

**Operation Agile Genie**, 1-19 May 1992
During a period of growing Western tension with Libya after the UN Security Council imposed sanctions designed to induce Libya to surrender suspects in the bombing of a Pan Am airliner over the town of Lockerbie in Scotland in 1988, NATO provided increased AWACS coverage of the Central Mediterranean to monitor air approach routes from the North African littoral. NATO AWACS aircraft flew a total of 36 missions.
Operation Active Endeavour (Archived)

Under Operation Active Endeavour, NATO ships patrolled the Mediterranean and monitored shipping to help deter, defend, disrupt and protect against terrorist activity. The operation evolved out of NATO’s immediate response to the terrorist attacks against the United States of 11 September 2001.

Highlights

- Operation Active Endeavour was one of eight initiatives launched in response to the 9/11 terrorist attacks against the United States in 2001. It was terminated in October 2016 and succeeded by Sea Guardian.
- It helped deter terrorist activity in the Mediterranean Sea.
- By tracking and controlling ships, Active Endeavour also helped secure one of the busiest trade routes in the world.
- The operation evolved from a platform-based to a network-based operation, using a mix of on-call units and surge operations instead of deployed forces.
- The experience accrued through Active Endeavour gave NATO unparalleled expertise in deterring maritime terrorist activity in the Mediterranean, especially with regard to the proliferation and smuggling of weapons of mass destruction and cooperation with non-NATO countries and civilian agencies.
- Initially an Article 5 operation, Active Endeavour benefitted from support from non-NATO countries from 2004 onwards.
The aim of the operation and its current functions

Operation Active Endeavour (OAE) is the only Article 5 operation on anti-terrorism that NATO has ever had. It was initiated in support of the United States immediately after 9/11. It aimed to demonstrate NATO’s solidarity and resolve in the fight against terrorism and help deter and disrupt terrorist activity in the Mediterranean.

NATO forces hailed over 128,000 merchant vessels and boarded some 172 suspect ships. By conducting these maritime operations against terrorist activity, NATO’s presence in these waters benefited all shipping travelling through the Straits of Gibraltar by improving perceptions of security. NATO helped to keep seas safe, protect shipping and control suspect vessels. Moreover, this operation also enabled NATO to strengthen its relations with partner countries, especially those participating in the Alliance’s Mediterranean Dialogue.

Keeping seas safe and protecting shipping

Keeping the Mediterranean’s busy trade routes open and safe is critical to NATO’s security. In terms of energy alone, some 65 per cent of the oil and natural gas consumed in Western Europe passes through the Mediterranean each year, with major pipelines connecting Libya to Italy and Morocco to Spain. For this reason, NATO ships systematically carried out preparatory route surveys in “choke” points as well as in important passages and harbours throughout the Mediterranean.

Tracking and controlling suspect vessels

From April 2003, NATO systematically boarded suspect ships. These boardings took place with the compliance of the ships’ masters and flag states in accordance with international law.

What happened in practice was that merchant ships passing through the eastern Mediterranean were hailed by patrolling NATO naval units and asked to identify themselves and their activity. This information was then reported to NATO’s Maritime Commander in Northwood, the United Kingdom. If anything appeared unusual or suspicious, teams of between 15 and 20 of the ships’ crew boarded vessels to inspect documentation and cargo. Compliant boarding could only be conducted with the consent of the flag state and/or the ship’s master. NATO personnel could otherwise convey this information to the appropriate law enforcement agency at the vessel’s next port of call. The suspect vessel was then shadowed until action was taken by a responsible agency/authority, or until it entered a country’s territorial waters.

Unexpected benefits

While the mandate of OAE was limited to deterring, defending, disrupting and protecting against terrorist-related activity, the operation had a visible effect on security and stability in the Mediterranean that was beneficial to trade and economic activity.

NATO ships and helicopters also intervened on several occasions to rescue civilians on stricken oil rigs and sinking ships, saving the lives of several hundred people over time. The operation provided the framework for the maritime component of NATO’s assistance to the Greek government to ensure the safe conduct of the 2004 Olympic and Paralympic Games in August and September 2004. Task Force Endeavour conducted surveillance, presence and compliant boarding operations in international waters around the Greek peninsula with Standing Naval Forces surface ships, supported by maritime patrol aircraft and submarines and in coordination with the Hellenic Navy and Coast Guard.

Closer cooperation with partners

The increased NATO presence in the Mediterranean also enhanced the Alliance’s security cooperation programme with seven countries in the wider Mediterranean region – Algeria, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Mauritania, Morocco and Tunisia. This programme - the Mediterranean Dialogue - was set up in 1994 to contribute to regional security and stability and to achieve better mutual understanding between NATO and its Mediterranean partners.
Mediterranean Dialogue countries are equally concerned by the threat of terrorism and cooperated with NATO in OAE by providing intelligence about suspicious shipping operating in their waters.

Command and structure of the operation

The operation was under the overall command of, and was conducted from, Maritime Command Headquarters, Northwood, United Kingdom, through a task force deployed in the Mediterranean.

Task Force Endeavour consisted of a balanced collection of surface units, submarines and maritime patrol aircraft. The operation also regularly made use of NATO’s two high-readiness frigate forces, which are permanently ready to act and capable of conducting a wide range of maritime operations.

The operational pattern used surface forces as reaction units to conduct specific tasks such as locating, tracking, reporting and boarding of suspected vessels in the light of intelligence.

NATO’s Standing Naval Forces rotated in providing periodic support to OAE either through “surges” (when an entire force participates) or through individual units being put on call at times when the operation had no assigned forces.

Evolution

An Article 5 deployment

The deployment was one of eight measures taken by NATO to support the United States in the wake of the terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001, following the invocation of Article 5, NATO’s collective defence clause, for the first time in the Alliance’s history.

The deployment started on 6 October and was formally named Operation Active Endeavour on 26 October 2001. Together with the dispatch of Airborne Warning and Control System (AWACS) aircraft to the United States, it was the first time that NATO assets were deployed in support of an Article 5 operation.

From October 2001, NATO ships patrolled the Mediterranean and monitored shipping, boarding any suspect ships. Compliant boarding operations were essential to the successful continuation of the operation. They were limited to trying to establish whether a vessel was engaged in terrorist activity.

In March 2003, OAE was expanded to provide escorts through the Straits of Gibraltar to non-military ships from Alliance member states requesting them. This extension of the mission – Task Force STROG (Strait of Gibraltar) – was designed to help prevent terrorist attacks such as those off Yemen on the USS Cole in October 2000 and on the French oil tanker Limburg two years later. The area was considered particularly vulnerable because the Straits are extremely narrow and some 3,000 commercial shipments pass through daily. In total, 488 ships took advantage of NATO escorts until this mission was suspended in May 2004. Forces remained ready to move at 30 days’ notice.

Covering the entire Mediterranean

One year later, in March 2004, as a result of the success of OAE in the Eastern Mediterranean, NATO extended its remit to the whole of the Mediterranean.

At the June 2004 Istanbul Summit, Allied leaders decided to enhance OAE. They also welcomed offers by partner countries to support the operation.

An evolving operation

In the revised Concept of Operations – approved by the North Atlantic Council on 23 April 2009 – the Military Committee highlighted two considerations: the need to further enhance information-sharing between NATO and other actors in the region; the fact that in some cases, the operation was hampered by the lack of consent to conduct compliant boarding of suspect vessels.

In addition, the Operational Plan – approved in January 2010 – shifted OAE from a platform-based to a network-based operation, using a combination of on-call units and surge operations instead of deployed
forces; it also increased cooperation with non-NATO countries and international organisations in order to improve Maritime Situational Awareness. All options for future changes in the operation's mandate were considered on the basis of the Alliance Maritime Strategy, adopted in January 2011. OAE fulfilled the four roles outlined in this strategy: deterrence and collective defence; crisis management; cooperative security; and maritime security.

In February 2013, as a result of the reform of the military command structure initiated in 2011, the operation changed command. Initially, OAE was under the overall command of Joint Force Command (JFC), Naples, and was conducted from Allied Maritime Component Command Naples, Italy (CC-Mar Naples). From 22 February 2013, it came under the command of, and was conducted by, Maritime Command Headquarters (HQ MARCOM), Northwood.

As the Alliance refined its counter-terrorism role over the years, the operation’s remit was extended and its mandate regularly reviewed. In addition to tracking and controlling suspect vessels to keep the seas safe, it also aimed to build a picture of maritime activity in the Mediterranean. To do this, the ships conducted routine information approaches to various vessels in order to reassure and inform mariners on the efforts to keep the maritime community safe.

The experience that NATO accrued in Active Endeavour gave the Alliance unparalleled expertise in the deterrence of maritime terrorist activity in the Mediterranean Sea. This expertise was relevant to wider international efforts to combat terrorism and, in particular, the proliferation and smuggling of weapons of mass destruction, as well as enhanced cooperation with non-NATO countries and civilian agencies. OAE was terminated in October 2016 when Sea Guardian became operational. At the Warsaw Summit in July 2016, NATO leaders agreed to create a broader maritime operation in the Mediterranean. Sea Guardian is a flexible maritime operation that is able to perform the full range of maritime security tasks, if so decided by the North Atlantic Council. It is currently performing three tasks in the Mediterranean Sea: maritime situational awareness, counter-terrorism at sea and support to capacity-building.

## Contributing countries

Because it was an Article 5 operation, Operation Active Endeavour initially involved member countries only. Some NATO members, mainly Greece, Italy, Spain and Turkey contributed directly to the operation with naval assets. Escort operations in the Straits of Gibraltar used to involve the use of fast patrol boats from northern European Allies Denmark, Germany and Norway. Spain also provided additional assets in the Straits. OAE relied heavily on the logistic support of Mediterranean NATO Allies.

From 2004, partner and non-NATO countries started offering their support.

All offers were considered on a case-by-case basis. Exchanges of Letters were signed between NATO and Israel, Morocco, Russia and Ukraine. In addition, Finland and Sweden informally expressed their interest in contributing to the operation. Georgia and Israel sent liaison officers to HQ MARCOM in Northwood following the signing of tactical Memoranda of Understanding with NATO on the exchange of information. Russia deployed vessels twice, in 2006 and 2007, and Ukraine a total of six times since 2007. New Zealand also deployed a vessel (April-May 2015).
Operation Sea Guardian

Maritime security is high on NATO’s agenda. In November 2016, NATO launched a maritime security operation (MSO) – called Sea Guardian – which can perform a broad range of tasks. Currently and in line with decisions taken by the North Atlantic Council (NAC), it is operating in the Mediterranean, focusing on three of the seven MSO tasks.

**Highlights**

- Operation Sea Guardian is a flexible operation that can potentially cover the full range of MSO tasks. At present, it is carrying out maritime security capacity building, and providing support to maritime situational awareness and to maritime counter-terrorism.

- Operation Sea Guardian can execute any of the four additional MSO tasks, if requested by the NAC: uphold freedom of navigation, conduct maritime interdiction, fight the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction, and protect critical infrastructure.

- Operation Sea Guardian is currently operating in the Mediterranean and is conducting operations at a tempo of three continuous weeks every two months, which represents six operations per year in total.

- Through Operation Sea Guardian, NATO is contributing to the maintenance of a secure and safe maritime environment, while collaborating with other actors, such as the European Union (EU) by providing support for instance to Operation Sophia in the Central Mediterranean.

- Operation Sea Guardian was launched in November 2016 and succeeded Operation Active Endeavour.

- It comes under the operational command of Allied Maritime Command (MARCOM), Northwood, United Kingdom.
More background information

The context

In today’s globalised economy, 90 per cent of the total volume of goods is moved by sea and communication cables that carry 95 per cent of the world’s cyberspace traffic lie on the sea-bed. The Mediterranean Sea is no exception. In terms of energy alone, some 65 per cent of the oil and natural gas consumed in Western Europe pass through the Mediterranean each year.

In this context, NATO launched Operation Sea Guardian, which aims to reinforce maritime situational awareness, counter-terrorism efforts including through the hailing and the boarding of suspect vessels, and capacity-building in the Mediterranean Sea. These tasks focus on gathering relevant information about current maritime activities in the Mediterranean region to help identify possible security concerns, and therefore continue to develop maritime security awareness in the region. Nevertheless, if the NAC so decides, the Operation can conduct any of the agreed four additional MSO tasks: uphold freedom of navigation, conduct maritime interdiction, fight the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction, and protect critical infrastructure.

Within the framework of Operation Sea Guardian, NATO supports the EU’s Operation Sophia with regard to information-sharing, logistical support and the implementation of the United Nations Security Council Resolution 2357 (the arms embargo against Libya).

As such, the Mediterranean offers opportunities to deepen maritime cooperation at operational and tactical levels between NATO and the EU, building on previous experience and successes, in particular in the Indian Ocean and the Aegean Sea.

The Operation comes under the operational command of the Allied Maritime Command (MARCOM), Northwood, United Kingdom. MARCOM serves as the hub of maritime security information-sharing for the Alliance.

The contours of Sea Guardian

Operation Sea Guardian succeeded Operation Active Endeavour. Similarly to the latter, Operation Sea Guardian operates in the Mediterranean and performs the three below-mentioned MSO tasks. However, it is not an Article 5 operation as Operation Active Endeavour was.

- **Support maritime situational awareness**: the focus is on information-sharing between Allies and with civilian agencies to enhance the NATO Recognised Maritime Picture (RMP);

- **Support maritime counter-terrorism**: this involves the planning and conduct of a range of operations to deter, disrupt, defend and protect against maritime-based terrorist activities. Essentially, these operations aim to deny terrorists access to designated areas and contain threats through the use of force;

- **Contribute to maritime security capacity building**: NATO aims to contribute to the international community’s efforts in developing maritime security with both military and non-military authorities;

If agreed by the NAC, Operation Sea Guardian can perform the following four additional MSO tasks:

- **Uphold freedom of navigation**: NATO must be ready and able to act in compliance with and support the principle of freedom of navigation in times of peace and war. This includes surveillance, patrol, maritime interdiction, Special Operations, deployment of law enforcement detachments and, when authorised, the use of force.

- **Conduct maritime interdiction**: assets can be assigned for quick-response actions and may use Special Operations Forces and experts in chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) weapons to board suspect vessels;

- **Fight the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction**: the aim is to prevent the transport and deployment of weapons of mass destruction, and involves the ability to locate, identify and secure illicit CBRN material transiting at sea;
- **Protect critical infrastructure**: at the request of a NATO or non-NATO country and in accordance with directions from the NAC, NATO helps protect critical infrastructure in the maritime environment, including the control of choke points.
Operations Policy Committee

The Operations Policy Committee (OPC) plays a lead role in the development and implementation of operations-related policy. It aims to provide coherent and timely advice to the North Atlantic Council, to which it reports directly. It also seeks to enhance collaboration between the political and military sides of NATO Headquarters.

All member countries are represented on this committee. This Committee also meets regularly in so-called KFOR format, i.e., with non-NATO member countries that contribute troops to the Kosovo Force (KFOR) in Kosovo.

The OPC is supported by the International Staff’s Operations Division.

The OPC was created following the June 2010 committee reform, replacing the former Policy Coordination Group.
Organisations and agencies

NATO Agencies are an essential part of NATO and constitute a vital mechanism for procuring and sustaining capabilities collectively. They are executive bodies of their respective NATO procurement, logistics or service organisations, and operate under North Atlantic Council-approved charters.

The NATO Agencies are established to meet collective requirements of some or all Allies in the field of procurement, logistics and other forms of services, support or cooperation.

Although NATO Organisations and Agencies are autonomous, they are required to follow the terms set out in their charters.

NATO Agencies reform

The NATO Agencies reform activity is part of an ongoing NATO reform process, which is also examining changes to the military command structure. The reform aims to enhance efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of capabilities and services, to achieve greater synergy between similar functions and to increase transparency and accountability.

At the 2010 Lisbon Summit, NATO Heads of State and Government agreed to reform the 14 existing NATO Agencies, located in seven member countries. In particular, Allies agreed to streamline the agencies into three major programmatic themes: procurement, support and communications and information.

In July 2012, a major milestone was reached, with the creation of four new NATO Organisations, assuming the functions and responsibilities of existing agencies. The reform has been implemented...
through several phases, to incrementally achieve increased effectiveness, efficiency and cost savings, while preserving capability and service delivery.

### NATO Agencies and Organisations

**NATO Communications and Information Agency** (NCIA), with headquarters in Brussels, providing NATO-wide IT services, procurement and support in areas such as Command and Control Systems, Tactical and Strategic Communications and Cyber Defence Systems.

**NATO Support and Procurement Agency** (NSPA), with headquarters in Capellen, Luxembourg, providing responsive, effective and cost-efficient acquisition, including armaments procurement; logistics; operational and systems support and services to the Allies, NATO Military Authorities and partner nations.

The **NATO Science and Technology Organization** (STO) is to include a Programme Office for Collaborative Science and Technology and a Centre for Maritime Research and Experimentation. The STO is headed by a Chief Scientist, based in Brussels, who serves as a NATO-wide senior scientific advisor.

The **NATO Standardization Office** (NSO), with headquarters in Brussels, provides support and administers standardization activities under the authority of the Committee for Standardization (CS). The NSO also reports to the Military Committee for operational standardization.
Pakistan earthquake relief operation

NATO airlifted close to 3,500 tons of urgently-needed supplies to Pakistan and deployed engineers, medical units and specialist equipment to assist in relief operations after the devastating 8 October 2005 earthquake.

The earthquake is estimated to have killed 80,000 people in Pakistan and left up to three million without food or shelter just before the onset of the harsh Himalayan winter.

The mission came to an end, on schedule, on 1 February 2006.

- Practical implementation of the NATO mission
- The evolution of NATO’s assistance
- The participants

**Practical implementation of the NATO mission**

On 11 October, in response to a request from Pakistan, NATO launched an operation to assist in the urgent relief effort.

NATO airlifted supplies donated by NATO member and partner countries as well as the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees via two air bridges, from Germany and Turkey.

168 flights delivered almost 3,500 tons of relief supplies. The supplies provided included thousands of tents, stoves and blankets necessary to protect the survivors from the cold.
In addition, NATO deployed engineers and medical units from the NATO Response Force to assist in the relief effort. The first teams arrived on 29 October.

In just three months of operations, NATO achieved the following:

- NATO’s air bridges flew almost 3,500 tons of aid to Pakistan with 168 flights. These flights carried in nearly 18,000 tents, 505,000 blankets, nearly 17,000 stoves/heaters, more than 31,500 mattresses, 49,800 sleeping bags, tons of medical supplies, and more;
- NATO’s field hospital treated approximately 4,890 patients and conducted 160 major surgeries. Mobile medical units treated some 3,424 patients in the remote mountain villages; they also contributed significantly to the World Health Organisation immunisation programme that has helped to prevent the outbreak of disease;
- In the cities of Arja and Bagh, NATO engineers repaired nearly 60 kilometres of roads and removed over 41,500 cubic meters of debris, enabling the flow of aid, commerce and humanitarian assistance to the inhabitants of the valley. Nine school and health structures were completed and 13 tent schools erected. The engineers distributed 267 cubic meters of drinking water and upgraded a permanent spring water distribution and storage system to serve up to 8,400 persons per day;
- NATO engineers also supported the Pakistani Army in Operation Winter Race, by constructing 110 multi-purpose shelters for the population living in the mountains;
- NATO helicopters transported more than 1,750 tons of relief goods to remote mountain villages and evacuated over 7,650 disaster victims;
- NATO set up an aviation fuel farm in Abbottabad, which carried out some 1,000 refuellings for civilian and military helicopters.

During the mission some 1,000 engineers and supporting staff, as well as 200 medical personnel, worked in Pakistan.

NATO was part of a very large effort aimed at providing disaster relief in Pakistan. The Pakistani Army provided the bulk of the response, with the support of NATO, the UN and other international organizations and several individual countries.

The evolution of NATO’s assistance

On 10 October, NATO received from Pakistan a request for assistance in dealing with the aftermath of the 8 October earthquake.

The next day, the North Atlantic Council approved a major air operation to bring supplies from NATO and Partner countries to Pakistan.

The airlift begins

The airlift began on 13 October and the first tons of supplies arrived in Pakistan on October 14.

On 19 October, NATO opened a second air bridge from Incirlik, Turkey, to deliver large quantities of tents, blankets and stoves donated by the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR).

Deployment of engineers and medical personnel

On 21 October, in response to a further request from Pakistan, NATO agreed to deploy engineers and medical personnel from the NATO Response Force to Pakistan to further assist in the relief effort.

A NATO headquarters was deployed to Pakistan on 24 October to liaise with Pakistani authorities and pave the way for the incoming troops.

The first troops, the advance elements of the medical team, began arriving on 29 October, and immediately began treating hundreds of people a day.
Engineering teams followed and began working in the area around Bagh in support of Pakistani efforts to repair roads, build shelters and medical facilities. NATO engineers also supported the Pakistani Army in Operation Winter Race, by constructing multi-purpose shelters for the population living in the mountains.

On 9 November, NATO opened a sophisticated 60-bed field hospital, which provided a wide range of care including complex surgical procedures.

On the same day, heavy-lift transport helicopters assigned to NATO for the operation, began flying, delivering supplies to remote mountain villages and evacuating victims.

NATO also set up an aviation fuel farm in Abbottabad, which carried out refuellings for civilian and military helicopters, which were essential to the relief effort.

**Further requests for assistance**

On 27 October, Foreign Secretary of Pakistan Tariq Osman Hyder addressed a meeting of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council at NATO Headquarters in Brussels, asking for further assistance.

He said that NATO could provide continued airlift, funds, logistic and airspace management, mobile fuel tanks, spare parts for helicopters and tactical aircraft, command and control, winterised tents and sleeping bags.

That same day, NATO’s Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre received from the UNHCR an urgent request for the transport to Pakistan of additional shelter and relief items stored in Turkey before the winter sets in.

NATO’s relief mission came to an end, on schedule, on 1 February 2006 and all personnel have left the affected zone around Bagh.

**The participants**

NATO’s short-term relief mission was based on five elements:

1. co-ordination of donations from NATO and partner countries through the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Relief Co-ordination Centre (EADRCC) in Brussels;
2. the air bridge from Turkey and Germany for the transport of relief goods to Pakistan;
3. five helicopters operating in the earthquake-affected area for the transport of supplies to remote mountain villages and evacuation of victims;
4. medical support with a field hospital and mobile medical teams in the area of Bagh;
5. engineer support operating in the area around Bagh in support of Pakistani efforts for the reparation of roads; and building of shelters, schools and medical facilities.

The NATO Land Component in Pakistan was led by the Spanish and headquartered in Arja. It included:

- A headquarters element in Arja;
- Two light engineer units in the Bagh district (one Spanish and one Polish);
- An Italian engineer unit with heavy construction equipment;
- A unit of British engineers specialized in high-altitude relief work;
- A multi-national team of medics operating the NATO field hospital, including staff for inpatient and outpatient care, as well as mobile medical teams in the area of Bagh — led by the Dutch Army and including Czech, French, Portuguese and British personnel;
- Four Water Purification teams (one Spanish, three Lithuanian);
- Two civil-military cooperation teams from Slovenia and France.

The NATO Air Component in Pakistan came from the French Air Defence and Operation Command and included:

- a German helicopter detachment;
- Luxembourg rescue helicopter;
- a French ground handling team;
- a fuel farm operated by a French unit at Abbottabad.

The NATO HQ in Pakistan was comprised of personnel from NATO’s Joint Force Command Lisbon, augmented by staff from NATO’s Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE).

In total some 1,000 NATO engineers and supporting staff, as well as 200 medical personnel, worked in Pakistan during the operation.
Partnership for Peace Planning and Review Process

The PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) aims to promote the development of forces and capabilities by partners that are best able to cooperate alongside NATO Allies in crisis response operations and other activities to promote security and stability. It provides a structured approach for enhancing interoperability and capabilities of partner forces that could be made available to the Alliance for multinational training, exercises and operations. The PARP also serves as a planning tool to guide and measure progress in defence and military transformation and modernisation efforts.

PARP is a biennial process that is open to all Partnership for Peace (PfP) partners. Following the review of NATO’s partnerships policy in April 2011, participation was also opened to all other partners on a voluntary and case-by-case basis subject to NAC approval. Countries that wish to join NATO must participate in the PARP as a pre-requisite to join the Membership Action Plan (MAP). The MAP provides advice, assistance and practical support tailored to the individual needs of countries wishing to join the Alliance. However, participation in the MAP does not prejudge any decision by the Alliance on future membership.

The PARP also provides a planning mechanism for Euro-Atlantic partners that are European Union (EU) members to assist them in developing capabilities for both NATO-led and EU-led operations.
Components

In recognition of the value the Allies place on force-planning, the 1994 Partnership for Peace (PfP) Framework Document committed NATO to developing a Planning and Review Process (PARP) with partner countries. Launched in 1995, the intent of the first cycle of this PARP was to provide a structured basis for identifying partner forces and capabilities that could be available to the Alliance for multinational training, exercises and operations. This process further enhances interoperability with Allied forces and promotes transparency.

Over time, the PARP has developed in several ways in order to serve different purposes. In addition to improving interoperability and increasing transparency, the Alliance also uses the PARP to support reform efforts in the context of the Membership Action Plans, the NATO-Ukraine Commission, the NATO-Georgia Commission, Individual Partnership Action Plans and the Partnership Action Plans on Defence Institution Building.

Working mechanism

The PARP is a voluntary process. The decision to take part in it is up to each partner country. In order to participate, the interested partner must first complete a PARP Survey, which clarifies the partner’s forces and capabilities available to the Alliance, its wider defence plans, the structure of its forces and its budgetary plans.

Based on this information, staff from both the civilian and military sides of the Alliance then develop a package of draft Partnership Goals tailored to the need of each individual partner nation. Next, the partner participates in bilateral talks on these goals with the civilian and military staffs. They then amend them as necessary, followed by discussions between the partner and all of the Allies. Finally, once this process is complete, the Ambassadors of the Allies and the partner country approve the Partnership Goals.

The PARP continuously reviews the progress of each country in implementing its Partnership Goals. To this end, based on an updated PARP Survey completed by the partner, the NATO staff produces a PARP Assessment which analyses the advancement of the partner in meeting the agreed Partnership Goals. The PARP Assessment is then discussed with the partner, reviewed with the Allies and approved by the Allied Ambassadors and the partner concerned.

The PARP itself is a two-year process. The partners and NATO agree to a package of Partnership Goals in even-numbered years and the PARP Assessment in odd-numbered years.

Evolution

Allies and participating partners jointly developed and agreed to the current PARP procedures and the collective documents related to the PARP. These collective documents, which continue to guide the PARP, include the PARP Ministerial Guidance, which the Allied and partner defence ministers approve; the Consolidated Report, which gives an overview of partners’ progress and contains a detailed section on the forces and capabilities that Allies could make available for crisis response operations; and the Partnership Goal Summary Report.

The PARP has moved beyond its primary focus on developing interoperability to also addressing the development of new capabilities. It has the additional function of providing a planning mechanism for the participating partners who are also European Union (EU) members. In this respect, it also assists them in developing capabilities for, and contributions to, the European Union’s military capabilities which reflects the imperative that each nation has only a single set of forces on which it can draw for NATO-led, EU-led or other operations.

In the past, the PARP was a vehicle for specifically encouraging defence reform, but has now extended to the wider security sector. For countries that agree, Partnership Goals now also cover reform and development objectives for Ministries of Interior and Finance, as well as Emergency Services, Border Guard Services and Security Services.
The Partnership for Peace (PfP) is a programme of practical bilateral cooperation between individual Euro-Atlantic partner countries and NATO. It allows partners to build up an individual relationship with NATO, choosing their own priorities for cooperation.

**Highlights**

- Based on a commitment to democratic principles, the purpose of the Partnership for Peace is to increase stability, diminish threats to peace and build strengthened security relationships between NATO and non-member countries in the Euro-Atlantic area.
- The PfP was established in 1994 to enable participants to develop an individual relationship with NATO, choosing their own priorities for cooperation, and the level and pace of progress.
- Activities on offer under the PfP programme touch on virtually every field of NATO activity.
- Since April 2011, all PfP activities and exercises are in principle open to all NATO partners, be they from the Euro-Atlantic region, the Mediterranean Dialogue, the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative or global partners.
- Currently, there are 21 countries in the Partnership for Peace programme.
Activities on offer under the PfP programme touch on virtually every field of NATO activity, including defence-related work, defence reform, defence policy and planning, civil-military relations, education and training, military-to-military cooperation and exercises, civil emergency planning and disaster response, and cooperation on science and environmental issues.

Over the years, a range of PfP tools and mechanisms have been developed to support cooperation through a mix of policies, programmes, action plans and arrangements. At the Lisbon Summit in November 2010, as part of a focused reform effort to develop a more efficient and flexible partnership policy, Allied leaders, decided to take steps to streamline NATO’s partnership tools in order to open all cooperative activities and exercises to partners and to harmonise partnership programmes.

The new partnerships policy approved by Allied foreign ministers in Berlin in April 2011 opened all cooperative activities and exercises as well as some programmes that were previously offered only to PfP partners to all partners, whether they be Euro-Atlantic partners, countries participating in the Mediterranean Dialogue and the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative, or global partners. (For more details, see “Partnership tools”)

The Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council provides the overall political framework for NATO’s cooperation with Euro-Atlantic partners and the bilateral relationships developed between NATO and individual partner countries within the Partnership for Peace programme.

There are currently 21 countries in the Partnership for Peace programme.

Framework

Partner countries choose individual activities according to their ambitions and abilities. These are put forward to NATO in what is called a Presentation Document.

An Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme (previously called the Individual Partnership Programme) is then jointly developed and agreed between NATO and each partner country. These two-year programmes are drawn up from an extensive menu of activities, according to each country’s specific interests and needs. All partners have access to the Partnership and Cooperation Menu, which comprises some 1,600 activities.

Some countries choose to deepen their cooperation with NATO by developing Individual Partnership Action Plans (IPAPs). Developed on a two-year basis, such plans are designed to bring together all the various cooperation mechanisms through which a partner country interacts with the Alliance, sharpening the focus of activities to better support their domestic reform efforts.

Milestones

July 1990: Allies extend a “hand of friendship” across the old East-West divide and propose a new cooperative relationship with all the countries of Central and Eastern Europe.

November 1991: The Alliance issues a new Strategic Concept for NATO, which adopts a broader approach to security, emphasising partnership, dialogue and cooperation.

December 1991: The North Atlantic Cooperation Council (NACC) is established as a forum for security dialogue between NATO and its new partners.

1994: The Partnership for Peace (PfP), a major programme of practical bilateral cooperation between NATO and individual partner countries, is launched. Partner missions to NATO are established. A Partnership Coordination Cell is set up at Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE) to help coordinate PfP training and exercises.

1995: An International Coordination Cell is established at SHAPE to provide briefing and planning facilities for all non-NATO countries contributing troops to NATO-led peacekeeping operations.

1996: A number of partner countries deploy to Bosnia and Herzegovina as part of a NATO-led peacekeeping force.
1997: The Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) is created to replace the NACC.

July 1997: The operational role of the PfP is enhanced at the Madrid Summit.

1998: Creation of the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre and Disaster Response Unit.

1999: Three partners – the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland – join NATO.

April 1999: At the Washington Summit, dialogue and cooperation are included as fundamental security tasks in the Alliance’s new Strategic Concept. Moreover, the PfP is further enhanced and its operational role strengthened, including the introduction of:

- the Operational Capabilities Concept to improve the ability of Alliance and partner forces to operate together in NATO-led operations;
- the Political-Military Framework for partner involvement in political consultations and decision-making, in operational planning and in command arrangements;
- a Training and Education Enhancement Programme to help reinforce the operational capabilities of partner countries.

1999: Several partner countries deploy peacekeepers as part of the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Kosovo (KFOR).

12 September 2001: The EAPC meets the day after the 9/11 terrorist attacks on the United States and pledges to combat the scourge of terrorism.

2002: The Partnership Trust Fund policy is launched to assist partner countries in the safe destruction of stockpiled anti-personnel mines and other munitions.

November 2002: At the Prague Summit, partnerships are further enhanced including:

- a Comprehensive Review to strengthen political dialogue with partners and enhance their involvement in the planning, conduct and oversight of activities in which they participate;
- a Partnership Action Plan against Terrorism (PAP-T);
- Individual Partnership Action Plans, allowing the Alliance to tailor its assistance to interested partners seeking more structured support for domestic reforms, particularly in the defence and security sector.


2004: Seven partners – Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia – join NATO.

June 2004: At the Istanbul Summit, further steps are taken to strengthen partnership, including:

- a Partnership Action Plan for Defence Institution Building (PAP-DIB) to encourage and support partners in building effective and democratically responsible defence institutions;
- an enhanced Operational Capabilities Concept and partners are offered representation at Allied Command Transformation to help promote greater military interoperability between NATO and partner country forces;
- a special focus on the Caucasus and Central Asia.

2006: Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro and Serbia become partners.

April 2008: At the Bucharest Summit, Malta returns to the Partnership for Peace (PfP) and joins the EAPC (Malta first joined the PfP programme in April 1995 but suspended its participation in October 1996). Also, priority is given to working with partners on building integrity in defence institutions and the important role of women in conflict resolution (as outlined in United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325).

2009: Two partners – Albania and Croatia – become members of NATO.
**November 2010:** At the Lisbon Summit, Allies reiterate their commitment to the EAPC and the PfP programme, described in NATO’s new Strategic Concept as being central to the Allies’ vision of a Europe whole, free and at peace. They agree to streamline NATO’s partnership tools in order to open all cooperative activities and exercises to all partners and to harmonise partnership. They also decide to review the Political-Military Framework for NATO-led PfP operations to update the way NATO works together with partner countries and shapes decisions on the operations and missions to which they contribute.

**April 2011:** Following up on the Lisbon Summit decisions, Allied foreign ministers meeting in Berlin approve a new, more efficient and flexible partnership policy. The revised Political-Military Framework for partner involvement in NATO-led operations is also noted by ministers.

**2014:** January 2014 marks the 20th anniversary of the PfP programme.

**July 2016:** At NATO’s summit in Warsaw, Allied leaders underline that – against the background of an increasingly unstable, global security environment, and based on a broad and strengthened deterrence and defence posture – NATO will seek to contribute more to the efforts of the international community in projecting stability and strengthening security outside NATO territory, thereby contributing to Alliance security overall. As part of these efforts NATO will develop a more strategic, more coherent, and more effective approach to partnerships.

**June 2017:** Partner country Montenegro becomes a member of NATO.
The Partnership for Peace (PfP) Status of Forces Agreement (SOFA) is a multilateral agreement between NATO member states and countries participating in the PfP programme. It deals with the status of foreign forces while present on the territory of another state.

The agreement was originally drawn up in Brussels on 19 June 1995 to facilitate cooperation and exercises under the PfP programme launched a year earlier.

Basically, the PfP SOFA applies – with the necessary changes having been made – most of the provisions of an agreement between NATO member states, which was done in London on 19 June 1951. (Some provisions of this so-called NATO SOFA cannot be applied to partner countries for technical reasons.)

It is important to note that these SOFAs fully respect the principle of territorial sovereignty, which requires a receiving state to give its consent to the entry of foreign forces. Neither the PfP SOFA nor the NATO SOFA addresses the issue of the presence of the force itself – that would be defined in separate arrangements. Consequently, it is only after states have agreed to send or receive forces that the SOFAs concerned are applicable.

By acceding to the PfP SOFA, the parties to the agreement identify exactly what the status of their forces will be and what privileges, facilities and immunities will apply to them, when they are present on the territory of another state, which is party to the PfP SOFA. All states that are party to the agreement grant the same legal status to forces of the other parties when these are present on their territory.

Therefore, once there is a common agreement, for example, regarding a certain operation, training or exercise, the same set of provisions will apply on a reciprocal basis. A common status and an important degree of equal treatment will be reached, which will contribute to the equality between partners.
The Partnership Interoperability Initiative (PII) was launched at the Wales Summit in 2014 to ensure that the deep connections built up between NATO and partner forces over years of operations will be maintained and deepened. In this way, partners can contribute to future crisis management, including NATO-led operations and, where applicable, to the NATO Response Force.

**Highlights**

- NATO partners contribute to NATO-led operations and missions, as well as exercises, often significantly.
- Partner forces need to be interoperable – able to operate together with NATO forces according to NATO standards, rules, procedures and using similar equipment.
- At the 2014 Wales Summit, NATO launched the Partnership Interoperability Initiative (PII) to maintain and deepen the interoperability that has been developed with partners during NATO-led operations and missions over the last decades.
- The PII underlined the importance of interoperability for all its partnerships and proposed new means to deepen cooperation with those partners that wished to be more interoperable with NATO.
- As a result of the PII, NATO granted tailor-made “enhanced opportunities” for deeper cooperation with five partners: Australia, Finland, Georgia, Jordan and Sweden.
- The PII also launched the “Interoperability Platform” (IP) to provide a wider group of partners with deeper access to cooperation on interoperability issues – currently 24 selected partners, who are interested and committed to deepening interoperability for future crises, participate in meetings of a number of NATO committees and bodies held in the IP format.
A focus on interoperability

Partners can contribute to NATO-led operations and missions – whether through supporting peace by training security forces in the Western Balkans and Afghanistan, or monitoring maritime activity in the Mediterranean Sea or off the Horn of Africa – as well as NATO exercises. To be able to contribute effectively, partners need to be interoperable with NATO.

Interoperability is the ability to operate together using harmonised standards, doctrines, procedures and equipment. It is essential to the work of an alliance of multiple countries with national defence forces, and is equally important for working together with partners that wish to contribute in supporting NATO in achieving its tactical, operational and strategic objectives. Much of day-to-day cooperation in NATO – including with partners – is focused on achieving this interoperability.

The Partnership Interoperability Initiative (PII)

In 2014, Allied leaders responded to the need to maintain and enhance interoperability built up with partners during years of operations (including in Afghanistan and the Western Balkans), recognising the importance of maintaining interoperability with partners for future crisis management. NATO launched the Partnership Interoperability Initiative (PII), which aims to:

- re-emphasise the importance of developing interoperability with and for all partners, and of ensuring that all existing partnership interoperability programmes are used to their full potential;
- enhance support for those partners that wish to maintain and enhance their interoperability, including through deeper cooperation and dialogue;
- offer enhanced opportunities for cooperation to those partners that provide sustained and significant force, capability or other contributions to the Alliance;
- underline that interoperability also needs to be a priority for NATO’s relations with other international organisations with a role in international crisis management.

More tailor-made cooperation: ”Enhanced Opportunities Partners”

The PII recognised that deeper interoperability underpins and complements closer relations between NATO and partners. As partner nations’ contributions to NATO missions and operations as well as force pools became more ambitious and complex, they would benefit from a more tailor-made relationship to help sustain such contributions, based on specific “enhanced opportunities” for cooperation, including:

- regular, political consultations on security matters, including possibly at ministerial level;
- enhanced access to interoperability programmes and exercises;
- sharing information, including on lessons learned;
- closer association of such partners in times of crisis and the preparation of operations.

Shortly after the 2014 Wales Summit, five partners were granted these “enhanced opportunities”: Australia, Finland, Georgia, Jordan, and Sweden. Since then, each “Enhanced Opportunities Partner” (EOP) has taken forward this programme of cooperation with NATO in a tailor-made manner, in areas of mutual interest for NATO and the partner concerned.

A standing format for cooperation on interoperability issues: the Interoperability Platform

Interoperability for current and future military cooperation to tackle security challenges is a key focus of day-to-day work at NATO, including in a broad range of committees, working groups and expert communities. The PII recognised that if partners are to be interoperable to manage crises with NATO tomorrow, they need to work with NATO on interoperability issues today – and be part of those discussions.
This is why the PII launched a standing format for NATO-partner cooperation on interoperability and related issues: the Interoperability Platform (IP). The format cuts across traditional, geographical frameworks for cooperation, and brings together all partners that have contributed to NATO operations or have taken concrete steps to deepen their interoperability with NATO. Participation in these programmes and activities changes, so the North Atlantic Council – the Alliance’s highest political decision-making body – adjusts participation every year. As of June 2017, 24 partners are members of the IP.

In this format, Allies and partners discuss projects and issues that affect interoperability for future crisis management, such as command and control systems, education and training, exercises or logistics.

Recognising the breadth and depth of work needed on interoperability, any NATO committee or body can meet in IP format, at different levels. It was launched by a meeting of defence ministers in IP format at the Wales Summit, and since then has met in a number of configurations at NATO Headquarters, including at the level of the North Atlantic Council, the Military Committee, the Partnerships and Cooperative Security Committee, the Operations Policy Committee, and technical groups such as the Conference of National Armaments Directors, the Command, Control and Consultation Board, the Civil Emergency Planning Committee and others. At the Warsaw Summit in July 2016, the defence ministers of the IP nations will meet with their NATO counterparts to review progress since Wales.

The following 24 partners are part of the IP as of June 2017:

Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Finland, Georgia, Ireland, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Republic of Korea, Republic of Moldova, Mongolia, Morocco, New Zealand, Republic of North Macedonia, Serbia, Sweden, Switzerland, Tunisia, Ukraine, and the United Arab Emirates.
Partnership tools

NATO has developed a number of partnership tools and mechanisms to support cooperation with partner countries through a mix of policies, programmes, action plans and other arrangements. Many tools are focused on the important priorities of interoperability and building capabilities, and supporting defence and security-related reform.

Highlights

- A Partnership Cooperation Menu comprising approximately 1,400 activities is accessible to all NATO partners.
- Several initiatives are open to all partners that allow them to cooperate with NATO mainly focusing on interoperability and building capacity, and supporting defence and security-related reform.
- Partnership tools for deeper bilateral cooperation with individual partners in specific areas include, for instance, the Planning and Review Process, the Operational Capabilities Concept and the Individual Partnership Action Plans.

Setting objectives for cooperation

Each partner determines the pace, scope, intensity and focus of their partnership with NATO, as well as individual objectives. Bilateral (NATO-partner) cooperation documents set out the main objectives and...
goals of that partner’s cooperation with NATO. There are three main types of bilateral partnership documents, set out below. Broadly speaking, the type of document chosen reflects the different nature and emphasis of the relationship.

The Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme (IPCP) is the standard document, developed usually every two years by the partner in close consultation with NATO staffs, and then approved by the North Atlantic Council (NAC) and the partner. It is open to all partners, and is modular in structure, adaptable to the interests and objectives of the partner and NATO.

The Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP), which partners can take up instead of IPCPs, offer partners the opportunity to deepen their cooperation with NATO and sharpen the focus on domestic reform efforts. Developed on a two-year basis, these plans include a wide range of jointly agreed objectives and targets for reforms on political issues as well as security and defence issues. IPAP prioritises and coordinates all aspects of the NATO-partner relationship, provides for an enhanced political dialogue and systematic support to democratic and defence and related security sector reform, including through an annual Allied assessment of progress in reforms undertaken by each participating partner.

The Annual National Programme (ANP) is the most demanding document, focused on comprehensive democratic, security and defence reforms, developed annually by the partner in consultation with NATO. The ANP is open to Membership Action Plan (MAP) nations, to track progress on the road to NATO membership; Georgia in the context of the NATO-Georgia Commission; and Ukraine in the context of the NATO-Ukraine Commission. Unlike the IPCP or IPAP, the ANP is a nationally owned document and is not agreed by the NAC. However, an annual assessment of progress in reforms is conducted by NATO staffs, agreed by the Allies, and discussed with each participating partner at NAC level.

Building capabilities and interoperability

Partner countries have made and continue to make significant contributions to the Alliance’s operations and missions, whether it be supporting peace in the Western Balkans and Afghanistan, training national security forces in Iraq, monitoring maritime activity in the Mediterranean Sea, or helping protect civilians in Libya.

At the Wales Summit in September 2014, NATO leaders endorsed two important initiatives to reinforce the Alliance’s commitment to the core task of cooperative security: the Partnership Interoperability Initiative and the Defence and Related Security Capacity Building Initiative. The first initiative was designed to reinforce NATO’s ability to provide security with partners in future, through interoperability; while the second was more focused on helping partners provide for their own security, by strengthening their defenc and related security capacity. A number of tools have been developed to assist partners in developing their own defence capacities and defence institutions, ensuring that partner forces are able to provide for their own security, capable of participating in NATO-led operations, and interoperable with Allies’ forces.

They include the following:

The Planning and Review Process (PARP) helps develop the interoperability and capabilities of forces which might be made available for NATO training, exercises and operations. Under PARP, Allies and partners, together negotiate and set planning targets with a partner country. Regular reviews measure progress. In addition, PARP also provides a framework to assist partners to develop effective, affordable and sustainable armed forces as well as to promote wider defence and security sector transformation and reform efforts. It is the main instrument used to assess the implementation of defence-related objectives and targets defined under IPAPs. PARP is open to Euro-Atlantic partners on a voluntary basis and is open to other partner countries on a case-by-case basis, upon approval of the NAC.

The Operational Capabilities Concept (OCC) Evaluation and Feedback Programme is used to develop and train partner land, maritime, air or Special Operations Forces that seek to meet NATO standards. This rigorous process can often take a few years, but it ensures that partner forces are ready to work with Allied forces once deployed. Some partners use the OCC as a strategic tool to transform their defence forces.
The OCC has contributed significantly to the increasing number of partner forces participating in NATO-led operations and the NATO Response Force.

Exercising is key for maintaining, testing and evaluating readiness and interoperability, also for partners. NATO offers partners a chance to participate in the Military Training and Exercise Programme (MTEP) to promote their interoperability. Through the MTEP, a five-year planning horizon provides a starting point for exercise planning and the allocation of resources.

In addition, and on a case-by-case basis, Allies may invite partners to take part in crisis-management exercises that engage the NAC and ministries in participating capitals, and national political and military representation at NATO Headquarters, in consultations on the strategic management of crises during an exercise.

Once a partner wishes to join a NATO-led operation, the Political-Military Framework (PMF) sets out principles and guidelines for the involvement of all partner countries in political consultations and decision-shaping, in operational planning and in command arrangements for operations to which they contribute.

Several tools and programmes have been developed to provide assistance to partner countries in their own efforts to transform defence and security-related structures and policies, and to manage the economic and social consequences of reforms. An important priority is to promote the development of effective defence institutions that are under civil and democratic control.

In particular, since 2014, the Defence and Related Security Capacity Building (DCB) Initiative reinforces NATO’s commitment to partners and helps project stability by providing support to nations requesting defence capacity assistance from NATO. It can include various types of support, ranging from strategic advice on defence and security sector reform and institution building, to development of local forces through education and training, or advice and assistance in specialised areas such as logistics or cyber defence.

The Building Integrity Initiative is aimed at promoting good practice, strengthening transparency, accountability and integrity to reduce the risk of corruption in the defence establishments of Allies and partners alike.

In addition, a Professional Development Programme can be launched for the civilian personnel of defence and security establishments to strengthen the capacity for democratic management and oversight.

Through the Partnership Trust Fund policy, individual Allies and partners support practical demilitarization projects and defence transformation projects in partner countries through individual Trust Funds.

Supporting transformation through education, training and exercises

NATO offers different means to access education, training and exercises, which can help partners to train and test personnel in the various areas relevant to their NATO partnerships.

Education and training in various areas is offered to decision-makers, military forces, civil servants and representatives of civil society through institutions such as the NATO School in Oberammergau, Germany; the NATO Defense College in Rome, Italy; and some 30 national Partnership Training and Education Centres.

NATO offers partners a Partnership Cooperation Menu (PCM) – an annual catalogue which comprises, on average, some 1,400 education, training and other events for partners across 37 disciplines, held in more than 50 countries, which cater to the needs of around 10,000 participants from partner countries. In addition to NATO bodies, Allies and partners can offer contributions to the PCM.

To support education and training for defence reform, the Defence Education Enhancement Programmes (DEEPs) are tailored programmes through which the Alliance advises partners on how to build, develop and reform educational institutions in the security, defence and military domain.
Wider cooperation

The NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme promotes joint cooperative projects between Allies and partners in the field of security-related civil science and technology. Funding applications should address SPS key priorities – these are linked to NATO’s strategic objectives and focus on projects in direct support to NATO’s operations, as well as projects that enhance defence capacity building and address other security threats.

Disaster response and preparedness is also an important area of cooperation with partners. The Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) is a 24/7 focal point for coordinating disaster-relief and consequence management efforts among NATO and partner countries, and has guided consequence-management efforts in more than 45 emergencies, including fighting floods and forest fires, and dealing with the aftermath of earthquakes.

The principles of United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 and related Resolutions – that form the Women, Peace and Security agenda – were first developed into a NATO policy approved by Allies and partners in the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) in 2007. The Resolutions reaffirm the role of women in conflict and post-conflict situations and encourage greater participation of women and the incorporation of gender perspectives in peace and security efforts. Over the years, the policy has been updated, related action plans have been strengthened and more partner countries from across the globe have become associated with these efforts. Currently NATO’s UNSCR 1325 coalition is the largest worldwide with 55 nations associated to the Action Plan. In practice, NATO has made significant progress in embedding gender perspectives within education, training and exercises, as well as the planning and execution of missions and operations, policies and guidelines.
Partnerships: projecting stability through cooperation

The Allies seek to contribute to the efforts of the international community in projecting stability and strengthening security outside NATO territory. One of the means to do so is through cooperation and partnerships. Over more than 25 years, the Alliance has developed a network of partnerships with non-member countries from the Euro-Atlantic area, the Mediterranean and the Gulf region, and other partners across the globe. NATO pursues dialogue and practical cooperation with these nations on a wide range of political and security-related issues. NATO’s partnerships are beneficial to all involved and contribute to improved security for the broader international community.

- Partners are part of many of NATO’s core activities, from shaping policy to building defence capacity, developing interoperability and managing crises.
- NATO’s programmes also help partner nations to develop their own defence and security institutions and forces.
- In partnering with NATO, partners can:
  - share insights on areas of common interest or concern through political consultations and intelligence-sharing;
  - gain access to advice and support as they reform and strengthen defence institutions and capacities;
  - participate in a rich menu of education, training and consultation events (over 1,200 events a year are open to partners through a Partnership Cooperation Menu);
  - prepare together for future operations and missions by participating in exercises and training;
  - contribute to current NATO-led operations and missions;
  - share lessons learned from past operations and develop policy for the future;
  - work together with Allies on research and capability development.
Through partnership, NATO and partners also pursue a broad vision of security:
- integrating gender perspectives into security and defence;
- fighting against corruption in the defence sector;
- enhancing efforts to control or destroy arms, ammunition and unexploded ordnance;
- advancing joint scientific projects.

Partnership has evolved over the years, to encompass more nations, more flexible instruments, and new forms of cooperation and consultation.

More background information

A flexible network of partnerships with non-member countries

Dialogue and cooperation with partners can make a concrete contribution to enhance international security, to defend the values on which the Alliance is based, to NATO’s operations, and to prepare interested nations for membership.

In both regional frameworks and on a bilateral level, NATO develops relations based on common values, reciprocity, mutual benefit and mutual respect.

In the Euro-Atlantic area, the 29 Allies engage in relations with 21 partner countries through the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council and the Partnership for Peace – a major programme of bilateral cooperation with individual Euro-Atlantic partners. Among these partners, NATO has developed specific structures for its relationships with Russia, Ukraine and Georgia.

NATO is developing relations with the seven countries on the southern Mediterranean rim through the Mediterranean Dialogue, as well as with four countries from the Gulf region through the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative.

NATO also cooperates with a range of countries which are not part of these regional partnership frameworks. Referred to as “partners across the globe”, they include Afghanistan, Australia, Colombia, Iraq, Japan, the Republic of Korea, Mongolia, New Zealand and Pakistan.

NATO has also developed flexible means of cooperation with partners, across different regions. NATO can work with so-called “29+n” groups of partners, where partners are chosen based on a common interest or theme. At the 2014 Wales Summit, NATO introduced the possibility of “enhanced opportunities” for certain partners to build a deeper, more tailor-made bilateral relationship with NATO. At the same time, Allied leaders launched the “Interoperability Platform”, a permanent format for cooperation with partners on the interoperability needed for future crisis management and operations.

Key objectives of NATO’s partnerships

Under NATO’s partnership policies, the strategic objectives of NATO’s partner relations are to:

- Enhance Euro-Atlantic and international security, peace and stability;
- Promote regional security and cooperation;
- Facilitate mutually beneficial cooperation on issues of common interest, including international efforts to meet emerging security challenges;
- Prepare interested eligible nations for NATO membership;
- Promote democratic values and institutional reforms, especially in the defence and security sector;
- Enhance support for NATO-led operations and missions;

1 In April 2014, NATO foreign ministers decided to suspend all practical civilian and military cooperation with Russia but to maintain political contacts at the level of ambassadors and above.
Enhance awareness of security developments including through early warning, with a view to preventing crises;

Build confidence and achieve better mutual understanding, including about NATO’s role and activities, in particular through enhanced public diplomacy.

That said, each partner determines – with NATO – the pace, scope, intensity and focus of their partnership with NATO, as well as individual objectives. This is often captured in a document setting goals for the relationship, which is to be regularly reviewed. However, many of NATO’s partnership activities involve more than one partner at a time.

**Partnership in practice: how NATO works with partners**

In practice, NATO’s partnership objectives are taken forward through a broad variety of means. Broadly speaking, NATO opens up parts of its processes, procedures and structures to the participation of partners, allowing partners to make concrete contributions through these. In some cases, special programmes have been created to assist and engage partners on their specific needs. Key areas for cooperation are set out below:

**Consultation** is key to the work of NATO as an alliance and is central to partnerships. Political consultations can help understand security developments, including regional issues, and shape common approaches to preventing crises or tackling a security challenge. NATO’s many committees and bodies often meet in formations with partners to shape cooperation in specific areas. NATO Allies meet with partners (individually or in groups) on a broad variety of subjects and at a variety of levels every day.

**Interoperability** is the ability to operate together using harmonized standards, doctrines, procedures and equipment. It is essential to the work of an alliance of multiple countries with national defence forces, and is equally important for working together with partners that wish to contribute in supporting the Alliance in achieving its tactical, operational and strategic objectives. Much of day-to-day cooperation in NATO – including with partners – is focused on achieving this interoperability. In 2014, recognising the importance of maintaining interoperability with partners for future crisis management, NATO launched the Partnership Interoperability Initiative, which inter alia launched mechanisms for enhanced cooperation with nations that wished to maintain deeper interoperability with NATO.

Partners can contribute to NATO-led operations and missions, whether through supporting peace by training security forces in the Western Balkans and Afghanistan or monitoring maritime activity in the Mediterranean Sea or off the Horn of Africa. As contributors to those missions, partners are invited to shape policy and decisions that affect those missions, alongside Allies. A number of tools have been created to assist partners in developing their ability to participate in NATO-led operations, and be interoperable with Allies’ forces.

For many years, NATO has worked with partners on defence reform, institution and capacity-building. As part of its work to project stability, NATO Allies have agreed that long-term and lasting stability is linked to improved governance of defence and security sector and institutions. Viable, effective and resilient defence institutions are essential to the long-term success of efforts to strengthen partner capacity. In 2004, NATO Allies and partners adopted the Partnership Action Plan on Defence Institution Building, setting basic benchmarks for defence institutions. In a NATO context, such work can go from strategic objective setting and joint reviews, to expert assistance and advice, as well as targeted education and training. Defence advice and reform is provided through bilateral partnership cooperation programmes, as well as through expert advisory programmes targeting specific aspects of Defence Institution Building, like the Defence Education Enhancement Programme or Building Integrity. In 2014, at the Wales Summit, NATO adopted the Defence and Related Security Capacity Building Initiative (see more below). The Initiative builds on NATO’s extensive track record and expertise in supporting, advising, assisting, training and mentoring countries requiring capacity-building support of the Alliance, and allows for the development of targeted, tailor-made packages of defence capacity-building support for countries, upon request and with Allied consent.
NATO also engages with partners in a broad variety of other areas where it has developed expertise and programmes. These include:

- Counter-terrorism;
- Counter-proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and their means of delivery;
- Emerging security challenges, such as those related to cyber defence, energy security and maritime security, including counter-piracy;
- Civil emergency planning.

**Towards more flexibility: evolutions in NATO’s partnerships**

NATO’s partnerships began in 1990, when, at the London Summit, NATO pledged to "extend... the hand of friendship" to its former adversaries in the Cold War. This soon led to the creation of cooperation structures, such as the North Atlantic Cooperation Council in 1991. In January 1994, the Partnership for Peace was launched, NATO’s first formal partnership programme, focused on NATO’s neighbours in Europe and the former Soviet Union. The same year, Allies launched the Mediterranean Dialogue for its Mediterranean neighbours. In 2004, Allies launched the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative for Gulf countries, and over the years, through cooperation in NATO missions and operations, NATO developed and built relations with partners further across the globe.

Reflecting the significant evolutions in NATO’s partnerships policy, in line with the new Strategic Concept adopted in 2010, a focused effort to reform NATO’s partnerships policy was launched at the 2010 Lisbon Summit to make dialogue and cooperation more inclusive, flexible, meaningful and strategically oriented. This resulted in a new partnership policy, which was endorsed by NATO foreign ministers at their meeting in Berlin in April 2011.

The new policy aimed to reinforce existing partnerships by strengthening consultation mechanisms and by facilitating more substance-driven cooperation. In addition, the new policy outlined a “toolbox” of mechanisms and activities for cooperation with partners.

In line with the Strategic Concept, NATO is offering its partners “more political engagement with the Alliance, and a substantial role in shaping strategy and decisions on NATO-led operations to which they contribute.” The Political-Military Framework, which governs the way NATO involves partners in political consultation and the decision-making process for operations and missions to which they contribute, was updated, giving contributing partners decision-shaping authority but not the same decision-making authority as member countries.

The Berlin policy decisions opened up the possibility for new forms of political dialogue with partners, including through more flexible “29+n” formats (thematic or event-driven), and are used, on a case-by-case basis, to enhance consultation on security issues of common concern and cooperation in priority policy areas, such as counter-piracy, counter-narcotics in Afghanistan, and cyber defence. The 2011 policy also opened up the possibility of developing deeper relations with partners across the globe as well as key global actors and other new interlocutors across the globe which share the Allies’ interest in peaceful international relations but have no individual programme of cooperation with NATO. A number of partners across the globe have since joined NATO’s partnerships community; most recently, Colombia became a partner in 2017.

At the Wales Summit in September 2014, NATO leaders endorsed two important initiatives to reinforce the Alliance’s commitment to the core task of cooperative security: the Partnership Interoperability Initiative, and the Defence and Related Security Capacity Building Initiative. The first initiative was designed to reinforce NATO’s ability to provide security with partners in future, through interoperability; while the second was more focused on helping countries, upon request, to provide for their own security, by strengthening their defence and related security institutions and capacity.

The Partnership Interoperability Initiative provides measures designed to ensure that the deep connections built between NATO and partner forces over years of operations will be maintained and deepened so that partners can contribute to future NATO-led operations and, where applicable, to the
NATO Response Force. The Partnership Interoperability Initiative has introduced a number of innovations, including the possibility of granting specific partners enhanced opportunities for deeper cooperation. Five partners (Australia, Finland, Georgia, Jordan and Sweden) currently have access to this enhanced cooperation, which includes easing the process for these nations to participate in exercises and enabling regular consultation on security matters; their status as enhanced opportunity partners was renewed in late 2017.

Another innovation concerns the establishment of the Interoperability Platform, a standing forum for meetings with 24 partners that have contributed to NATO operations or have taken concrete steps to deepen their interoperability with NATO. In this format, Allies and partners discuss projects and issues that affect interoperability, such as education, training, exercises, evaluation, capability development, command and control systems, and logistics.

The Defence and Related Security Capacity Building Initiative builds on NATO’s extensive track record and expertise in supporting, advising, assisting, training and mentoring countries requiring capacity-building support of the Alliance. It aims to reinforce NATO’s commitment to partner nations and help the Alliance to project stability without deploying large combat forces, as part of the Alliance’s overall contribution to international security, stability and conflict prevention. The programme is extended to countries upon their request, and with Allied consent. Allies have offered DCB packages to Georgia, Iraq, Jordan, the Republic of Moldova and Tunisia, following their requests.

At the Warsaw Summit in 2016, Allies underlined that they seek to contribute more to the efforts of the international community in projecting stability and strengthening security outside NATO territory.

At the Brussels Summit in 2018, Allies committed to further strengthening NATO’s role in this regard, helping partners, upon request, to build stronger defence institutions, improve good governance, enhance resilience, provide for their own security, and more effectively contribute to the fight against terrorism. The investments in partners’ security contribute to Alliance security overall and partnerships continue to be essential to the way NATO works in addressing security challenges.
Partnerships and Cooperative Security Committee

The Partnerships and Cooperative Security Committee (PCSC) is the single politico-military committee responsible for all NATO’s outreach programmes with non-member countries. It also handles NATO’s relations with other international organisations.

The PCSC provides the North Atlantic Council with comprehensive and integrated advice across the entire spectrum of NATO’s outreach policy.

The committee meets in various formats: “at 29” among Allies; with partners in NATO’s regionally specific partnership frameworks, namely the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, the Mediterranean Dialogue and the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative; with individual non-member countries in “29+1” formats; as well as in “29+n” formats on particular subjects, if agreed by Allies.

The PCSC was initially called the Political and Partnerships Committee (PPC). During the April 2010 committee reform, the PPC succeeded the Political Committee, absorbing all of its responsibilities. However, in September 2014, when the Political Committee was re-established, the PPC was renamed and its role redefined.
Peace support operations in Bosnia and Herzegovina

NATO conducted its first major crisis response operation in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The NATO-led Implementation Force (IFOR) was deployed in December 1995 to implement the military aspects of the Dayton Peace Agreement and was replaced a year later by the NATO-led Stabilisation Force (SFOR). SFOR helped to maintain a secure environment and facilitate the country’s reconstruction in the wake of the 1992-1995 war.

Highlights

- NATO conducted its first major crisis-response operation in Bosnia and Herzegovina.
- NATO implemented the military aspects of the Dayton Peace Agreement, which marked the end of the 1992-1995 war in the country.
- The NATO-led Implementation Force (IFOR) was deployed in December 1995 and was followed by the NATO-led Stabilisation Force (SFOR), which ended in December 2004.
- Once NATO had successfully implemented the military aspects of the Dayton Peace Agreement, the European Union (EU) took on NATO’s stabilisation role.
- NATO maintains a military headquarters in Sarajevo that complements the work of the EU mission and assists, inter alia, in defence reform and counter-terrorism.
- Bosnia and Herzegovina became a NATO partner country in December 2006 and is focusing on introducing democratic, institutional and defence reforms, as well as developing practical cooperation in other areas.
Aim and implementation of IFOR and SFOR

IFOR

The Implementation Force (IFOR) was deployed in Bosnia and Herzegovina in December 1995 with a one-year mandate.

IFOR operated under Chapter VII of the United Nations (UN) Charter, deriving its authority from UN Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1031 of 15 December 1995. This gave it a mandate not just to maintain peace, but also, where necessary, to enforce it. As such, IFOR was a peace enforcement operation, which was more generally referred to as a peace support operation. This was also the case for SFOR.

IFOR's aim

IFOR aimed to oversee implementation of the military aspects of the Dayton Peace Agreement, the accord ending the Bosnian War. Its main task was to guarantee the end of hostilities and separate the armed forces of the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, on the one hand, and Republika Srpska, on the other.

IFOR in the field

IFOR oversaw the transfer of territory between the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina and Republika Srpska, the demarcation of the inter-entity boundary and the removal of heavy weapons into approved cantonment sites.

As the situation on the ground improved, IFOR began providing support to organisations involved in overseeing the implementation of the civilian aspects of the Dayton Peace Agreement, including the Office of the High Representative, the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe and the United Nations.

IFOR’s goals were essentially completed by the September 1996 elections. As the situation was still potentially unstable and much remained to be accomplished on the civilian side, NATO agreed to deploy a new Stabilisation Force (SFOR) from December 1996.

SFOR

The Stabilisation Force (SFOR) operated under Chapter VII of the UN Charter, deriving its authority from UN Security Council Resolution 1088 of 12 December 1996. As was the case for IFOR, it was a peace enforcement operation that was more generally referred to as a peace support operation.

SFOR’s aim

SFOR’s primary task was to contribute to a safe and secure environment conducive to civil and political reconstruction.

Specifically, SFOR was tasked to deter or prevent a resumption of hostilities; to promote a climate in which the peace process could continue to move forward; and, to provide selective support within its means and capabilities to civilian organisations involved in this process.

SFOR in the field

SFOR’s activities ranged from patrolling and providing area security through supporting defence reform and supervising de-mining operations, to arresting individuals indicted for war crimes and assisting the return of refugees and displaced people to their homes.

Keeping the peace

SFOR troops carried out regular patrols throughout Bosnia and Herzegovina to maintain a secure environment. Multinational specialised units were deployed to deal with instances of unrest.

SFOR also collected and destroyed unregistered weapons and ordnance in private hands, in order to contribute to the overall safety of the population and to build confidence in the peace process. In 2003 alone, SFOR disposed of more than 11,000 weapons and 45,000 grenades.
SFOR was also one of several organisations involved in de-mining in Bosnia and Herzegovina. NATO forces carried out some de-mining themselves and helped to set up de-mining schools in Banja Luka, Mostar and Travnik. They also helped to establish a sniffer dog training school in Bihac.

Furthermore, SFOR had Multinational Specialised Units (MSU) that assisted the EU Police Mission (EUPM). The EUPM is responsible for helping the Bosnian authorities develop local police forces that meet the highest European and international standards, through monitoring, mentoring and inspecting police managerial and operational capacities.

**Reforming defence establishments**

A key aspect of SFOR’s work in Bosnia and Herzegovina concerned reform of the country’s defence structures, which had been divided into three rival ethnic groups at the end of hostilities.

Within the framework of a Defence Reform Commission, both SFOR and NATO worked to help Bosnia and Herzegovina build a unified command and control structure and to develop joint doctrine and standards for training and equipment that are compatible with NATO and Partnership for Peace (PfP) norms. In March 2004, a state-level defence minister brought the country’s two separate armies under a single command structure.

NATO’s military headquarters in Sarajevo has a leadership role in the Defence Reform Commission and is continuing to work on defence reform in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

**Arresting war crimes suspects**

Although the apprehension of indicted war criminals was officially the responsibility of the authorities of Bosnia and Herzegovina, NATO forces were instrumental in most arrests that have taken place. In total, SFOR brought 39 war crimes suspects to the International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia in The Hague (ICTY). SFOR also provided security and logistical support to ICTY investigative teams as well as surveillance of and ground patrolling around alleged mass graves.

**Contributing to reconstruction**

In addition to helping other organisations working on Bosnia and Herzegovina’s reconstruction, SFOR launched its own Civil-Military Cooperation (CIMIC) projects in areas such as structural engineering and transportation.

SFOR participated in the maintenance and repair of roads and railways in collaboration with the local authorities and other international agencies. This work has been critical to providing freedom of movement throughout Bosnia and Herzegovina.

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**Command of the missions**

As for all NATO operations, political control and coordination are provided by the North Atlantic Council (NAC), NATO’s senior political decision-making body. Strategic command and control is exercised by NATO’s Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers in Europe (SHAPE) in Mons, Belgium.

**Command of IFOR**


The COMIFOR was based at operational headquarters in Zagreb, Croatia. Lieutenant General Michael Walker, Commander Allied Command Europe Rapid Reaction Corps (COMARRC) acted as Commander for IFOR’s land component throughout the operation.

**Command of SFOR**

Following the hand-over to SFOR in December 1996, the command structure, as directed by the North Atlantic Council (NAC), was broadened to include a deputy SFOR commander, a deputy operational commander and divisional commanders at the head of each Multinational Task Force (MNTF) (1,800 - 2,000 troops).
This structure comprised 300 staff at HQSFOR at Camp Butmir in Sarajevo, led by the Commander of SFOR (COMSFOR) and three MNTFs working in different areas:

- MNTF-North (MNTF-N) based in Tuzla;
- MNTF-Southeast (MNTF-SE) based in Mostar; and
- MNTF-Northwest (MTNF-NW) based in Banja Luka.

Restructuring of SFOR

The NAC reviewed SFOR periodically at six monthly junctures to assess the force’s effectiveness. On 25 October 1999, the NAC, based upon the improved security situation in Bosnia and Herzegovina, reduced and restructured SFOR. Headquarters remained at Camp Butmir in Sarajevo but MNTFs were reduced in size from divisions to brigades. Each MNTF still retained individual brigade commanders. In addition a Tactical Reserve Force of 1,000 battle-ready troops was created.

As was the case with IFOR, every NATO member with armed forces committed troops to SFOR. Iceland, the only NATO country without armed forces, provided medical personnel. Non-NATO contributors at the time were: Albania, Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia (which all became NATO members), Austria, Argentina, Finland, Ireland, Morocco, Russia, and Sweden; and by special arrangement with the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand. All forces incorporated into SFOR came under the command of COMSFOR and the NAC.

Commanders of SFOR – COMSFOR


The evolution of NATO’s assistance

A four-year war started in Bosnia and Herzegovina when Yugoslavia (Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, North Macedonia (known at the time as the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia), Montenegro, Serbia and Slovenia) broke up at the end of the Cold War.

NATO’s involvement in Bosnia and Herzegovina began in 1992. In June of that year, NATO foreign ministers stated that, on a case-by-case basis, the Alliance would support peacekeeping activities under the responsibility of the Conference on Security and Co-operation in Europe (subsequently renamed the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe). A month later, in July 1992, NATO began monitoring operations in the Adriatic in support of UNSCR 713 and 757 imposing an arms embargo and sanctions in the former Yugoslavia.

By October 1992, NATO AWACS surveillance aircraft were monitoring operations in support of UNSCR 781, imposing a no-fly zone over Bosnia and Herzegovina. And in November, NATO and the Western European Union began to enforce the sanctions and embargo imposed by UNSCR 787. By the end of the year, NATO declared that it stood ready to support peacekeeping operations under the authority of the United Nations.

NATO’s first ever military engagement

After the United Nations authorised the enforcement of a no-fly zone over Bosnia and Herzegovina, NATO began Operation Deny Flight in April 1993. On 28 February 1994, four warplanes violating the no-fly zone were shot down by NATO aircraft in the Alliance’s first military engagement.
At the request of the United Nations, NATO provided close air support to the UN Protection Force (UNPROFOR) on the ground and carried out air strikes to protect UN-designated safe havens. Air strikes were conducted against targets such as tanks, ammunition depots and air defence radars.

NATO’s air operations against Bosnian Serb positions in August and September 1995 helped pave the way for a comprehensive peace agreement. The operation, Deliberate Force, lasted for 12 days and helped shift the balance of power between parties on the ground. It also helped persuade the Bosnian Serb leadership that the benefits of negotiating a peace agreement outweighed those of continuing to wage war.

On 14 December 1995, after negotiations in Dayton, Ohio, the General Framework Agreement for Peace was signed in Paris, France. The Dayton Peace Agreement establishes Bosnia and Herzegovina as a single, democratic and multi-ethnic state with two entities: the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the Republika Srpska.

And the first major crisis response operation

IFOR was the Alliance’s first major crisis response operation. It was set up to implement the military aspects of the Dayton Peace Agreement, when NATO took over responsibility for military operations in Bosnia and Herzegovina from UNPROFOR. IFOR’s goals were essentially completed by the September 1996 elections in Bosnia and Herzegovina. However, as the situation was still potentially unstable and much remained to be accomplished on the civilian side, NATO agreed to deploy a new Stabilisation Force (SFOR) from December 1996.

Mission hand-over to the European Union

At their Istanbul Summit in June 2004, NATO leaders decided to bring SFOR to a conclusion by the end of the year as a result of the improved security situation in Bosnia and Herzegovina and the wider region.

The SFOR mission was officially ended on 2 December 2004. In its place, a European Union-led force is deployed, known as Operation Althea. The Alliance is providing planning, logistic and command support for the EU mission, in the framework of a package of agreements known as “Berlin Plus”. These agreements provide the overall framework for NATO-EU cooperation.

NATO Headquarters Sarajevo

The primary role of this NATO Military Liaison and Advisory Mission (NATO HQ Sarajevo) is to assist Bosnia and Herzegovina in reforming its defence structures. It also aims to help the country meet requirements for its participation in NATO’s Partnership for Peace (PIP) programme.

NATO HQ Sarajevo undertakes certain operational tasks such as counter-terrorism while ensuring force protection, support to the International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia, with the detention of persons indicted for war crimes, and intelligence-sharing with the European Union. In sum, NATO HQ Sarajevo complements the work of the EU mission with specific competencies.

Facts and figures

Contributing countries

Over the course of these missions, a total of 36 Allied and partner countries contributed troops. In addition, soldiers from five countries that were neither NATO members nor Partnership for Peace (PIP) countries participated at different times, namely Argentina, Australia, Chile, Malaysia and New Zealand.

Troop numbers

- **IFOR**
  IFOR was a 60,000-strong force that was deployed for one year.

- **SFOR**
  SFOR originally comprised 31,000 troops. By early 2001, they had been reduced to 19,000 and, in spring 2002, the decision was taken to reduce troops to 12,000 by end 2002. By 2004, they totalled 7,000.
On the request of North Macedonia, previously known as the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, NATO engaged in three separate operations to quell tension between the country’s ethnic Albanian minority and national security forces.

**Highlights**

- With the signing of the Ohrid Framework Agreement (13 August 2001), the Skopje government pledged to improve the rights of its ethnic Albanian population and the latter agreed to abandon separatist demands and hand over weapons to a NATO force. This was the beginning of NATO’s short-term military presence in the country (2001-2003).
- Operation Essential Harvest (22 August – 26 September 2001) helped to disarm ethnic Albanian extremists on a voluntary basis.
- Operation Amber Fox (27 September 2001 – 15 December 2002) was mandated to ensure the protection of international monitors from the European Union and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe, which oversaw the implementation of the Ohrid Agreement.
Operation Allied Harmony (16 December 2002 – 31 March 2003) provided continued support for the international monitors and assisted the government in taking ownership of security throughout the country.

NATO maintains a military headquarters in Skopje that provides support in security sector reform.

North Macedonia has been a NATO partner country since 1995 and joined the Membership Action Plan in 1999.

At the 2008 Bucharest Summit, NATO leaders agreed to invite the country to join the Alliance as soon as a mutually acceptable solution to the issue over its name had been reached with Greece.

The country has been recognised as the Republic of North Macedonia since 15 February 2019.

More background information

Three separate NATO operations

Setting the scene

Violence broke out in the country when ethnic Albanian extremists challenged government authorities to grant the ethnic Albanian community more rights. On 20 June 2001, President Boris Trajkovski sent a letter to Lord Robertson, the then NATO Secretary General, to request NATO assistance in keeping civil war at bay. He wanted NATO to assist his government in demilitarizing the National Liberation Army (NLA) and disarming ethnic Albanian extremists operating across the country. Diplomatic efforts and peace talks had been initiated but stalled over a series of delicate issues, including the question of whether Albanian would be recognised as an official language.

NATO adopted a dual-track approach: it condemned the attacks but urged the government to adopt constitutional reforms to increase participation of ethnic Albanians in society and politics. NATO approved the operation on 29 June, but its conditions for deployment were that the political dialogue between the various parties in the country had a “successful outcome” and a cease-fire was respected. Only then would NATO send troops with “strong rules of engagement” to collect weapons from the ethnic Albanian extremists.

On 15 August, two days after the signature of the political framework agreement – the Ohrid Framework Agreement – the North Atlantic Council authorised the immediate deployment of the Headquarters of Task Force Harvest on the ground. This was the first of three operations to be launched:

- Operation Essential Harvest;
- Operation Amber Fox; and
- Operation Allied Harmony.

Collecting weapons

NATO officially launched Operation Essential Harvest on 22 August and effectively started operations on 27 August.

The 30-day mission aimed to disarm ethnic Albanian insurgents on a voluntary basis. Approximately 3,500 NATO troops, with logistical support, were sent to the country. Nearly 4,000 weapons and several hundred thousand more items, including mines and explosives, were collected. The operation finished on 26 September 2001.

Protecting international monitors

Following the conclusion of Operation Essential Harvest, the Allies launched Operation Amber Fox. The Operational Plan was approved on 26 September 2001 and the mission officially started the next day.

Operation Amber Fox was mandated to assist in the protection of international monitors from the European Union and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe, which oversaw implementation of the Ohrid Agreement.
The mission was deployed under German leadership with the participation of other NATO member countries, and consisted of 700 Allied troops joining 300 troops already based in the country. Initially, Operation Amber Fox had a three-month mandate, but it was subsequently extended until 15 December 2002.

Minimising the risks of destabilisation

In response to an additional request from President Trajkovski, the North Atlantic Council agreed to continue supporting the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, as it was known then, with a new mission that would help minimise the risks of destabilisation.

While acknowledging that Operation Amber Fox could be finalised, the Council agreed that there was a requirement for a follow-on international military presence in the country.

Operation Allied Harmony was launched on 16 December 2002 and its objectives were to provide continued support for international monitors and to assist the government in taking ownership of security throughout the country.

On 17 March 2003, the North Atlantic Council decided to terminate Operation Allied Harmony as of 31 March, and to hand over responsibility for a continued international military presence to the European Union.

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**NATO HQ Skopje**

NATO Headquarters (HQ) Skopje was created in April 2002 to advise on military aspects of security sector reform. NATO HQ Skopje maintains regular contact with government leadership and other agencies (principally defence and military authorities), as well as with the missions of the European Union, the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe and the United States, as guarantors of the Ohrid Framework Agreement.
Political Committee

The Political Committee discusses and exchanges information and assessments on political and regional developments of interest to Allies. It provides assistance to the North Atlantic Council and to the Secretary General in carrying out their responsibilities for political consultation by undertaking all necessary preparatory work for them to be able to fulfil these functions.

The Political Committee is established under the authority of the Council and consists of representatives from each delegation, aided by specialists from Capitals when needed. Individual member countries have a key role in proposing topics for the committee agenda, making experts available to inform the debate and providing food-for-thought papers and political assessments.

The committee meets under the chairmanship of the Assistant Secretary General for Political Affairs and Security Policy and is supported by the Political Affairs and Security Policy Division.

It was originally established in 1957 under the name of Committee of Political Advisers, following the recommendations of the “Report of the Committee of Three on Non-Military Cooperation in NATO” (December 1956). The Report recommended broadening areas of cooperation beyond the military to include non-military cooperation and encouraging regular political consultation among member countries so as to reinforce unity and cohesion. The Report explicitly mentioned the creation of a committee to assist permanent representatives and the Secretary General in discharging their responsibilities for political consultation (paragraphs 56 and 96 of the Report). The adoption of political consultation as a key component of the Alliance in 1956 permanently characterised NATO as a political and military organisation.

In 2010, as a result of a committee reform, the Political Committee was disbanded and its responsibilities transferred to the Political and Partnerships Committee. In July 2014, the Council decided to reinstate the Political Committee as a dedicated forum in which to discuss and exchange information on political and regional developments of interest to Allies.
Protection of children in armed conflict

Children are affected by armed conflict in many different ways. They are killed and maimed, recruited or used as soldiers, sexually exploited, abducted, their schools and hospitals are attacked and their access to humanitarian services is denied. NATO recognises that protecting children from the effects of armed conflict is both a moral imperative and an essential element to break the cycle of violence. NATO is taking steps, as part of the wider international community, to confront this issue.

Highlights

- NATO developed a policy entitled ‘Protection of Children in Armed Conflict – the Way Forward’ in close cooperation with the United Nations (UN).
- This policy provides clear guidance to further integrate UN Security Council Resolution 1612 and related resolutions into the Alliance’s military doctrine, education, training and exercises, as well as NATO-led operations and missions.
- The Alliance has a Senior NATO Focal Point for Children and Armed Conflict and has appointed Focal Points throughout the NATO Command Structure.
- In Afghanistan, NATO’s Resolute Support Mission actively supports the UN and the international community’s efforts to protect children from the effects of armed conflict.
- A Senior Children and Armed Conflict Adviser was deployed in April 2016 - the first time in a NATO-led mission - as part of Resolute Support Mission.

More background information

Policy framework

The protection of children in armed conflict in NATO-led operations and missions was first addressed by NATO leaders at the 2012 Chicago Summit, where NATO decided to develop practical, field-oriented measures to address violations against children during armed conflict.

As a result, NATO adopted its first Military Guidelines on Children and Armed Conflict later that year, outlining a broad framework to integrate UN Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1612 and related resolutions into operational activities and into education and training. Soon afterwards, the North Atlantic Council appointed the Assistant Secretary General for Operations within NATO’s International Staff as the Senior NATO Focal Point for Children and Armed Conflict. This person is in charge of maintaining a close dialogue with the UN on this topic.

NATO has also produced an e-learning module on child protection aimed at deployed troops. Developed in cooperation with the UN in 2013, this online tool is available to all Allies and partner countries and provides an overview of the six grave violations against children identified by the UN Secretary-General and the relevant legal frameworks for the protection of children in armed conflict.

At the Wales Summit in 2014, NATO leaders decided that the Alliance would ensure it is sufficiently prepared whenever and wherever children in armed conflict are encountered. In response, and in close cooperation with the UN, NATO developed the policy document ‘Protection of Children in Armed Conflict – the Way Forward’. Agreed by the North Atlantic Council in March 2015, the policy provides additional guidance to further integrate UNSCR 1612 and related resolutions into the Alliance’s military doctrine, education, training and exercises, as well as NATO-led operations and missions.
Its main priorities include:

- Supporting UN efforts to monitor instances of grave violations committed against children affected by armed conflict.
- When participating in NATO-led operations or missions, military leadership and personnel are trained to recognise and respond to possible grave violations identified by the UN Secretary-General.
- When training local forces, NATO ensures that the protection of children affected by armed conflict is given the right attention; NATO also promotes adequate reporting and monitoring mechanisms focusing on the six grave violations.
- The development of standard operating procedures for reporting violations.

## Concrete measures

Standard procedures for monitoring and reporting on the six grave violations in NATO-led missions and operations have been developed in consultation with relevant non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and information officers. In Afghanistan, the existing reporting system is being updated to improve information-sharing with the UN.

Children and Armed Conflict is being incorporated into NATO’s military exercise scenarios. This means that NATO commanders receive training to respond to situations where the six grave violations committed against children are encountered.

Focal Points for Children and Armed Conflict have been appointed throughout the NATO Command Structure. They support the integration of the Military Guidelines on Children and Armed Conflict into training opportunities, exercises and mission planning.

In cooperation with relevant NGOs and international organisations, Focal Points are trained on child protection, human rights – including children’s rights – and have knowledge of UNSCR 1612 and related resolutions.

In Afghanistan, NATO’s Resolute Support Mission, which aims to train, advise and assist the Afghan National Defence and Security Forces (ANDSF), actively supports the UN and the international community’s efforts to address the issue of the protection of children.

Resolute Support has recently reviewed its training on Children and Armed Conflict to ensure that the ANDSF are aware of their obligations to protect children. To this purpose and for the first time, a specialised Children and Armed Conflict Adviser was deployed in April 2016 in a NATO-led mission. NATO officials continue to use opportunities to raise the issue of protecting children in their political and military engagements with senior Afghan officials.
Protection of civilians

NATO and its partners are contributing to the protection of civilians by integrating related measures in the planning and conduct of NATO-led operations and missions. The protection of civilians includes all efforts taken to avoid, minimise and mitigate the negative effects that might arise from NATO and NATO-led military operations. It also includes efforts to prevent conflict-related sexual and gender-based violence.

Highlights

- At the Warsaw Summit in July 2016, NATO leaders endorsed the NATO Policy for the Protection of Civilians.
- NATO will identify and implement lessons learned on the protection of civilians, including through a gender-sensitive approach, in all relevant areas of operations and missions, as well as in training and education.
- A NATO Military Concept on the Protection of Civilians was developed for future NATO operations and missions, in close cooperation with other international organisations and civil society.

More background information

NATO Policy for the Protection of Civilians

Over the past decade, NATO and its partners have been developing specific policies and guidelines for the protection of civilians in the planning and conduct of NATO-led operations and missions. NATO has drawn lessons from its experience in Afghanistan, where it took measures to mitigate civilian casualties when leading the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF).
At the Warsaw Summit, NATO leaders adopted a NATO Policy for the Protection of Civilians. The aim of this overarching policy is to set out a coherent, consistent and integrated approach to the protection of civilians in NATO and NATO-led operations, missions and other mandated activities. The policy has been developed with NATO partners and in consultation with the United Nations (UN) and relevant international organisations. It complements NATO’s existing efforts in areas such as Children and Armed Conflict, Women Peace and Security, and Conflict-related Sexual and Gender-based Violence.

The protection of civilians encompasses many different areas of activity such as the defence of Alliance borders, implementing tailored partnership programmes, or engaging in crisis management operations.

**Conceptual framework**

The protection of civilians (persons, objects and services) includes all efforts taken to avoid, minimise and mitigate the negative effects that might arise from NATO and NATO-led military operations on the civilian population. When applicable, it also includes efforts to protect civilians from conflict-related physical violence or threats of physical violence by other actors. These efforts consist of a range of activities including the use of force to prevent, deter, pre-empt and respond to situations in which civilians suffer or are under the threat of physical violence.

Promoting long-term, self-sustained peace, security and stability is best achieved in cooperation with the local authorities, population and civil society (i.e., organisations working for human rights, including gender equality). To be effective, NATO also needs to take into account the roles and activities of other international actors.

**Integrating the protection of civilians from the outset**

NATO and its partners have committed to integrating the protection of civilians from the outset of NATO and NATO-led operations, missions and other mandated activities through a variety of means and measures:

**Civilian harm mitigation from own actions**: NATO will take measures to reduce the risks posed to civilians when the Alliance conducts operations and missions. It will ensure planning and preparations are made to avoid placing civilians in harm’s way. This planning would be based on past successes.

**Protection of civilians from the action of others**: NATO planners might be tasked, as appropriate, to recommend military response options, including a gender-sensitive approach, after having identified threats, type of perpetrators, their motivation, strategies and tactics, capabilities, and the expected outcome for civilians.

**Support to humanitarian action**: A NATO or NATO-led force can play an important role by contributing to the provision of a safe and secure environment. In exceptional circumstances, and based on humanitarian considerations, NATO may also respond to requests for assistance by humanitarian actors.

**Lessons learned on protection of civilians**: NATO will identify and implement lessons learned on protection of civilians, including through a gender-sensitive approach, in all relevant areas of operations and missions, as well as in training and education.

**Communications aspects**: NATO will continue to communicate measures it is taking to protect civilians. It will also continue to make every effort to communicate known civilian casualties to the host nation authorities, local population and media.

**NATO Headquarters-level and joint exercises**: During exercises, Allies and NATO Military Authorities are encouraged to continue including the protection of civilians within exercise scenarios.

**Training of forces participating in NATO and NATO-led operations and missions**: NATO education and training facilities will continue to develop specific modules in strategic- and operational-level curricula that will take into account the impact of conflict on women, men, girls and boys.

**Training of local forces**: When training local security forces is part of the agreed mandate, NATO should continue to share best practices and experiences on the protection of civilians, particularly civilian harm mitigation, as well as on the implementation of international human rights law and international humanitarian law.
**Defence and related security capacity building:** defence and related security capacity building packages may comprise elements on the protection of civilians, in line with the needs of requesting nations.

**Partnership tools and programmes:** partner countries with an interest in developing interoperability with NATO on the protection of civilians are encouraged to make use of partner programmes, tools and mechanisms and include the subject as part of their partnership goals and objectives. Contributors to the Partnership Cooperation Menu should consider widening their training offer in the field of protection of civilians, including on such issues as civilian harm mitigation and casualty tracking.

**Concept on the Protection of Civilians**

To effectively protect civilians, NATO forces must understand the threats that exist and match capabilities to counter them. In 2018, a NATO Military Concept on the Protection of Civilians was endorsed. It operationalises the NATO Policy for the Protection of Civilians and includes four objectives: understand the human environment, such as the culture, history, demographics, strengths and vulnerabilities; safeguard civilians from harm by belligerents; facilitate access to basic needs and services to the population; and contribute to a safe and secure environment through support to local government and its institutions.

**Prevention of conflict-related sexual and gender-based violence**

In 2015, NATO and its partners adopted, for the first time, military guidelines on the protection of, and response to, conflict-related sexual and gender-based violence.

Gender-related issues are also increasingly being incorporated into NATO exercises, as appropriate. See Women, Peace and Security for more information.
Public disclosure of NATO information

The NATO Archives works to improve the transparency of the Alliance through the Public Disclosure Programme. It aims to stimulate discussion, facilitate research on NATO and, more generally, support NATO’s ongoing engagement with the public. So far, the programme has released over 350,000 documents spanning across over 30 years of NATO history from 1949-1984.

**Highlights**

- The NATO Archives raises awareness of the Organization’s archival heritage through the declassification and public disclosure of records of permanent value related to the evolution of NATO, its missions, consultations and the decision-making process.
- NATO has publicly disclosed documents across all its primary functions. Subjects include political affairs, defence and military issues, scientific cooperation and documents originating from NATO’s highest political decision-making body, the North Atlantic Council.
- NATO documents with permanent value and that are 30 years or older go through a declassification and disclosure process and, once approved, become freely available to the public.
- So far, over 62,000 of the 350,000 publicly disclosed documents are available through the NATO Archives Online portal. The others are available for consultation at the NATO Archives Reading Room.
- Each year, thousands of new documents are proposed for public disclosure by the NATO Archivist.

**NATO information disclosed so far to the public**

Documents from hundreds of NATO committees, working groups, divisions and bodies have been proposed and released for public disclosure. The majority of them are available up to 1984 and have a
French and English version, the two official languages of the Alliance. A short list of the principal series includes:

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<th>Civil Organisation Records</th>
<th>Military Organisation Records</th>
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<td>North Atlantic Council</td>
<td>Military Committee</td>
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<td>Private Office</td>
<td>Defence Committee</td>
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<td>AC/119 - Political Affairs</td>
<td>Military Representatives Committee</td>
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<td>AC/127 - Economic Affairs</td>
<td>Standing Group</td>
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<td>DPC - Defence Planning</td>
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The current annual systematic process is underway, with national governments reviewing documents from 1985 to 1987 related to the North Atlantic Council, Private Office, Executive Secretariat, Political Affairs and Defence Planning and from the Military Committee (1985-1988). The Public Disclosure Programme is currently preparing documents from the North Atlantic Council, the Private Office, the Defence Planning Committee and several other important committees for the year 1988, and preparing a review of SHAPE and military command documents from 1950-1955.

### Declassification and public disclosure processes

The NATO Archives has two processes by which documents can be declassified and made publicly available, namely the systematic process and the ad-hoc process.

#### Systematic declassification and public disclosure

The systematic declassification and public disclosure process is proposed on an annual basis by the NATO Archivist to Allied countries. The documents proposed during this process are always at least 30 years old and of permanent value. For instance, in 2019, some 5,000 military and civilian documents, up to and including 1988, were proposed for public disclosure. The documents are collected by the NATO Archives and sent to the member countries having equity for approval (i.e., who were member countries at the time the document was published) under the silence procedure, usually one calendar year after being proposed. Once approved, the NATO Archives digitally stamps the documents as “Publicly Disclosed” and makes these available in its Reading Room. A member country can also choose to withhold a document and is required to give a reason for withholding. If withheld, the document will be re-examined for public disclosure in no more than 10 years.

#### The ad-hoc disclosure process

The ad-hoc disclosure process allows for members, organisations or the NATO Archives to propose documents which do not fall under the above systematic request. Ad-hoc requests usually come from researchers or journalists, who can make a “Freedom of Information” request to their national governments. The national government then makes the request to the NATO Archivist.

Ad-hoc requests can propose a single document or a series of documents, and can occur multiple times in the year and simultaneously with the systematic request and other ad-hoc requests. In 2018, 1,500 documents were declassified and publicly disclosed through the ad-hoc process. Some highlights from that year include files on the F104-G Starfighter and FIAT G.91 programmes, NATO’s evaluation on the development of the Czechoslovakia situation in spring 1968 and records related to NATO’s former War Headquarters in Malta. A shorter silence period is usually given to ad-hoc requests since fewer documents are usually proposed for declassification under this process.

### Access to NATO’s history

The NATO Archives and Public Disclosure Programme offer several ways to access and use the publicly disclosed holdings of NATO. The full set of all documents is always available through the NATO Archives Reading Room, located in NATO Headquarters, Brussels, Belgium. In order to visit the Reading Room,
a form must be filled out and sent to the NATO Archives by email at least 30 working days before any visit. Finding aids are available in the Reading Room and most documents are accessible as PDFs on our research stations.

The NATO Archives has also made available some 62,000 documents through an online tool called NATO Archives Online. Documents are available here as PDFs that can be freely downloaded by the public. These documents represent the first 10 years of Alliance history through the lens of its international civilian and military staffs. Historical press releases and NATO publications up to the year 2000 are also available through this portal. Fonds and series are described according to the internationally accepted ISAD(G) standard, meaning that researchers have access to detailed descriptions of hundreds of series.

Please keep in mind the guidelines for use of NATO content when using any NATO documents.

The Public Disclosure Programme also promotes the documents through a variety of outreach methods. Sign up for the NATO Archives mailing list to stay abreast of the latest public disclosure-related news and upcoming events.

History of declassification and public disclosure at NATO

Declassification and downgrading of sensitive documents has featured in the NATO Security Policy since 1955, when it was used to reduce the volume of classified material. Declassification was done on an ad-hoc basis during the first two decades and depended on the needs or initiatives of a service or a committee. In 1973, the Central Registry initiated a first systematic downgrading and declassification programme for older documents. Between 1973 and 1981, NATO downgraded and declassified some 37,000 documents, representing the first 15 years of NATO history. After 1981, systematic declassification stalled due to a revised and stricter Security Policy, which brought the programme to a standstill.

Once declassified, the documents were still considered official NATO documents and could only be released on an individual basis. A historian 30 years ago wishing to consult the documents would need support from their national delegation and the direct approval of the NATO Secretary General. Meetings were convened with archival experts and national archivists to discuss the situation at NATO. An increasing demand from researchers for access to documents, a push for greater organisational transparency and the pressure from national archivists led to the creation of a real archive. A first consultant was hired in 1989 to report on the state of the documents, and two more archival consultants were brought in in 1991-1994 and 1996-1998 to generate inventories, propose documents for public disclosure and prepare a longer-term archival programme. The consultants recommended that an advisory body be established to assist the North Atlantic Council in the corporate management of the NATO Archives.

The NATO Archives officially opened on 19 May 1999 in conjunction with the 50th anniversary of the founding of the Alliance. The formal establishment of the NATO Archives and, with it of the Archives Committee, led to the availability of the Alliance’s records to the public for the first time. With NATO Archives Online, researchers are able to enjoy even greater access to publicly disclosed NATO documents related to the Alliance’s history, evolution and decision-making process.
NATO’s purpose

NATO’s essential and enduring purpose is to safeguard the freedom and security of all its members by political and military means. Collective defence is at the heart of the Alliance and creates a spirit of solidarity and cohesion among its members.

NATO strives to secure a lasting peace in Europe, based on common values of individual liberty, democracy, human rights and the rule of law. Since the outbreak of crises and conflicts beyond the borders of NATO member countries can jeopardize this objective, the Alliance also contributes to peace and stability through crisis management operations and partnerships. Essentially, NATO not only helps to defend the territory of its members, but engages where possible and when necessary to project its values further afield, prevent crises, manage crises, stabilize post-conflict situations and support reconstruction.

NATO also embodies the transatlantic link by which the security of North America is tied to the security of Europe. It is an intergovernmental organization which provides a forum where members can consult together on any issues they may choose to raise and take decisions on political and military matters affecting their security. No single member country is forced to rely solely on its national capabilities to meet its essential national security objectives. The resulting sense of shared security among members contributes to stability in the Euro-Atlantic area.

NATO’s fundamental security tasks are laid down in the Washington Treaty. They are sufficiently general to withstand the test of time and are translated into more detail in strategic concepts. Strategic concepts are the authoritative statement of the Alliance’s objectives and provide the highest level of guidance on the political and military means to be used in achieving these goals; they remain the basis for the implementation of Alliance policy as a whole.
During the Cold War, NATO focused on collective defence and the protection of its members from potential threats emanating from the Soviet Union. With the collapse of the Soviet Union, along with the rise of non-state actors affecting international security, many new security threats emerged. NATO now focuses on countering these threats by utilizing collective defence, managing crisis situations and encouraging cooperative security, as outlined in the 2010 Strategic Concept.
Rapid Deployable Corps

Commanding NATO troops on missions wherever necessary

NATO’s Rapid Deployable Corps are High Readiness Headquarters, which can be quickly dispatched to lead NATO troops on missions within or beyond the territory of NATO member states.

Highlights

- NATO’s Rapid Deployable Corps are High Readiness Headquarters, which can be quickly dispatched to lead NATO troops wherever necessary.
- The corps can be deployed for a wide range of missions: from disaster management, humanitarian assistance and peace support to counter-terrorism and high-intensity war fighting.
- There are currently nine NATO Rapid Deployable Corps, which are each capable of commanding up to 60,000 soldiers.
- The political authorisation of the North Atlantic Council (NAC), NATO’s principal political decision-making body, is required to deploy the corps.
More background information

Mission

The Rapid Deployable Corps can be deployed for a wide range of missions: from disaster management, humanitarian assistance and peace support to counter-terrorism and high-intensity war fighting. They can command and control forces from the size of a brigade numbering thousands of troops up to a corps of tens of thousands. There are currently nine NATO Rapid Deployable Corps, which are each capable of commanding up to 60,000 soldiers.

The general requirement for High Readiness Forces Headquarters is to be ready to deploy its first elements within ten days and the entire force within two months.

On standby

The corps participate in the NATO Response Force (NRF) - a highly ready and technologically advanced force made up of land, air, sea, and Special Operations Forces components that can be deployed at short notice to wherever needed. Under the NRF’s rotation system, a designated Rapid Deployable Corps assumes command of the land component of the NRF for a fixed 12-month period, during which it is on standby. This means that the headquarters must be able to deploy on short notice. Prior to this, the corps undergoes an intense six-month training programme, which tests its procedures for planning and conducting combined joint crisis-response operations.

The various corps also play a central role in NATO’s ongoing operations. The Spanish corps commanded the land elements of the NRF that were deployed to Pakistan in late 2005 as part of NATO’s disaster assistance to the country following the devastating October 2005 earthquake. In 2006, the Allied Rapid Reaction Corps (ARRC) commanded the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF. The NATO Rapid Deployable Corps Italy, the NATO Rapid Deployable Corps Turkey, Eurocorps and 1 German-Netherlands Corps have also commanded ISAF. In addition, ARRC and Eurocorps played an important role in NATO’s operations in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kosovo and North Macedonia (previously known as the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia).

A broad spectrum of capabilities

The Rapid Deployable Corps possess a broad spectrum of capabilities. Each corps has undergone an intense NATO operational evaluation programme in order to qualify as a NATO Rapid Deployable Headquarters. The headquarters have all had to demonstrate their capabilities in 50 areas, both in the barracks and in the field. This includes planning, logistics, administration, and command and control.

This certification process is designed to ensure that the headquarters are capable of meeting the exacting challenges of a rapid deployment into various operational environments.

Participants

The corps are multinational, but are sponsored and paid by one or more ‘framework nations’ who provide the bulk of the headquarters’ personnel, equipment and financial resources.

The United Kingdom is the framework nation of the ARRC, while France, Greece, Italy, Spain and Turkey have sponsored the NATO Rapid Deployable Corps France, Greece Italy, Spain and Turkey, respectively. Germany and the Netherlands share costs for the German-Netherlands Rapid Deployable Corps, while Denmark, Germany and Poland are the three framework nations of the Multinational Corps Northeast and Belgium, France, Germany, Luxembourg and Spain are the Eurocorps framework nations.

The corps are open to personnel contributions from all the other NATO nations and several nations participate within each Rapid Deployable Corps.
Command structure

All Rapid Deployable Corps Headquarters, except Eurocorps, belong to NATO’s integrated military structure. This means that they operate under the direct operational command of the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR). The political authorisation of the North Atlantic Council (NAC), NATO’s principal political decision-making body, is required to deploy the corps, and is given on a case-by-case basis as the result of a consensual decision between all of the 29 NATO nations. In addition, any commitment of the Eurocorps requires an exclusive decision of the member states Belgium, France, Germany, Luxembourg and Spain.

Evolution

The Allied Rapid Reaction Corps (ARRC), originally based in Rheindalen, Germany, but now in Innsworth, United Kingdom, was the first such corps, created in 1992. Following a review of NATO force structures, four more High Readiness Force Headquarters were established in 2002 and three other were established in 2005 and 2006 reaching the total of nine High Readiness Force Headquarters.

These are: the Allied Rapid Reaction Corps (ARRC) in Innsworth, the United Kingdom; the NATO Rapid Deployable Corps Italy (NRDC-IT) in Solbiate Olana near Milan; the NATO Rapid Deployable Corps Spain (NRDC-Spain) in Valencia; the NATO Rapid Deployable Corps Turkey (NRDC-T) based near Istanbul; the 1 German-Netherlands Corps based in Münster, Germany; the Rapid Reaction Corps France (RRC-FR) in Lille; the NATO Deployable Corps Greece (NRDC-GR) based in Thessaloniki; and the Multinational Corps Northeast (MNC-NE) based in Szczecin, Poland.

In addition, Eurocorps, based in Strasbourg, France, has a technical agreement with NATO since 2002 and can be used for NATO missions.
Readiness Action Plan

The Readiness Action Plan (RAP) ensures that the Alliance is ready to respond swiftly and firmly to new security challenges from the east and the south. Begun at the 2014 Wales Summit, this is the most significant reinforcement of NATO’s collective defence since the end of the Cold War. At Warsaw in 2016, Allied leaders welcomed its implementation and introduced new work on NATO’s deterrence and defence posture.

Highlights

- Due to the changed security environment on NATO’s borders, the RAP includes ‘assurance measures’ for NATO member countries in Central and Eastern Europe to reassure their populations, reinforce their defence and deter potential aggression.
- Assurance measures comprise a series of land, sea and air activities in, on and around the eastern part of Alliance territory, which are reinforced by exercises focused on collective defence and crisis management.
- The RAP also includes ‘adaptation measures’ which are longer-term changes to NATO’s forces and command structure so that the Alliance will be better able to react swiftly and decisively to sudden crises.
- Adaptation measures include tripling the size of the NATO Response Force (NRF), the establishment of a Very High Readiness Joint Task Force (VJTF) able to deploy at very short notice, and enhanced Standing Naval Forces.
- To facilitate readiness and the rapid deployment of forces, eight NATO Force Integration Units (NFIUs) - which are small headquarters - were established in Central and Eastern Europe. Headquarters for the Multinational Corps Northeast in Szczecin, Poland and the Multinational Division Southeast in Bucharest, Romania were also established. In addition, a standing joint logistics support group headquarters is being set up.
- At the 2016 Warsaw Summit, Allies welcomed the implementation of the RAP and agreed to further strengthen the Alliance’s deterrence and defence posture with an enhanced forward presence in the eastern and southeast part of Alliance territory and a framework for NATO’s adaptation in response to growing challenges and threats emanating from the south.
More background information

-Assurance measures

The assurance measures are a series of land, sea and air activities in, on and around the territory of NATO Allies in Central and Eastern Europe, designed to reinforce their defence, reassure their populations and deter potential aggression. These are a direct result of Russia’s aggressive actions to NATO’s east. All 29 Allies are contributing to these measures on a rotational basis. The measures can be stepped up or reduced as necessary, depending on the security situation.

Since May 2014, NATO has increased the number of fighter jets on air-policing patrols over the Baltic States, and deployed fighter jets to Romania and Poland. In December 2015, a further package of tailored assurance measures was agreed for Turkey. The Alliance conducts regular AWACS surveillance flights over the territory of its eastern Allies, and maritime patrol aircraft flights along the eastern borders of Allied territory.

To provide assurance at sea, NATO deploys a number of multinational maritime forces such as a Standing NATO Mine Counter-Measures Group patrolling the Baltic Sea and the Eastern Mediterranean, and an enlarged Standing NATO Maritime Group conducting maritime assurance measures in addition to counter-terrorism patrols.

NATO has increased the number of exercises it organises. Military exercises provide important opportunities to improve the ability of Allies and partners to work together and are a valuable demonstration of NATO’s readiness to respond to potential threats. These exercises take place on land, at sea and in the air with scenarios based on collective defence and crisis management.

Assurance measures are flexible and scalable in response to the evolving security situation, and are kept under annual review by the North Atlantic Council – NATO’s principal political decision-making body.

-Adaptation measures

Adaptation measures are longer-term changes to NATO’s forces and command structure which will make the Alliance better able to react swiftly and decisively to sudden crises. These include the following:

-An enhanced NATO Response Force

The NATO Response Force (NRF) is a highly ready and technologically advanced multinational force made up of land, air, maritime and Special Operations Forces (SOF) components that the Alliance can deploy quickly, wherever needed.

At the 2014 Wales Summit, Allies decided to enhance the NRF to strengthen the Alliance’s collective defence and ensure that NATO has the right forces in the right place at the right time. The NRF now consists of about 40,000 personnel – a major increase from the previous level of 13,000. Its size is dependent on the task it is needed for.

The Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) has overall command of the NRF. Each year on rotation, NATO’s two Joint Force Commands (based in Brunssum, the Netherlands and Naples, Italy) have operational command of the NRF. In 2017, JFC Naples is commanding the NRF.

-Very High Readiness Joint Task Force

The quick-reaction Very High Readiness Joint Task Force (VJTF) or “spearhead force” of around 20,000, of which about 5,000 are ground troops, is able to begin deployment within two to three days wherever it is needed. The VJTF is supported by air, maritime and SOF components.

The VJTF and NRF forces are based in their home countries, but able to deploy from there to wherever they are needed for exercises or crisis response. Leadership and membership of the VJTF and NRF rotate on an annual basis. The VJTF participated in its first deployment exercise in Poland in June 2015 and is regularly tested during exercises.

If deployed in 2017, the VJTF (Land) will be led by the United Kingdom. Other Allies – France, Germany, Italy, Poland and Turkey – will serve as lead nation for the following years.
**NATO Force Integration Units**

NATO Force Integration Units (NFIUs) are small, multinational headquarters that will facilitate the rapid deployment of the VJTF and Allied follow-on forces. They are staffed by about 40 national and NATO specialists. Their task is to improve cooperation and coordination between NATO and national forces, as well as to prepare and support exercises and any deployments needed.

First, six NFIUs were established in Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland and Romania and inaugurated in September 2015, constituting a visible and persistent NATO presence in these countries. Subsequently, two more NFIUs were inaugurated in Hungary and Slovakia.

**High-readiness multinational headquarters**

The Multinational Corps Northeast Headquarters (HQ MNC-NE) located in Szczecin, Poland provides a high-readiness capability to command forces deployed to the Baltic States and Poland, if so required.

Established by Denmark, Germany and Poland, HQ MNC-NE has four main tasks:

- commanding the VJTF and NRF, or elements thereof, if deployed to the north-eastern region of NATO;
- exercising operational control over the NFIUs in Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland and Slovakia;
- monitoring the security situation in the region; and
- acting as a regional hub for cooperation.

A new deployable multinational divisional headquarters for the southeast was inaugurated in Bucharest, Romania on 1 December 2015. The new high-readiness headquarters will be able to command forces deployed within NATO’s southeastern region, supporting the defence of the Alliance. Multinational Division Southeast Headquarters (HQ MND-SE) is designated to have 280 personnel. HQ MND-SE will execute command and control over the NFIUs in Bulgaria and Romania.

In addition, the RAP calls for a number of logistics enhancements, including the prepositioning of equipment and supplies, to enhance NATO’s readiness to respond to any challenge to Allied security. A new standing joint logistics support group headquarters will be established within the NATO Command Structure.

**Evolution**

In September 2014, at the NATO Wales Summit, Allied leaders approved the RAP to ensure the Alliance is ready to respond swiftly and firmly to new security challenges. The plan provides a comprehensive package of measures to respond to the changes in the security environment in and near Europe and to threats emanating from the Middle East and North Africa.

NATO defence ministers decided on 5 February 2015 that the VJTF would consist of a land component of around 5,000 troops with appropriate air, maritime and SOF units available. France, Germany, Italy, Poland, Spain, Turkey and the United Kingdom agreed to assume lead roles for the VJTF on a rotational basis in the coming years. Ministers also set the goal of having an operationally capable VJTF by the time of the 2016 Warsaw Summit.

In April 2015, more than 1,500 troops took part in exercise Noble Jump, designed to test whether troops assigned to NATO’s Interim VJTF could be ready to deploy 48 hours after receiving an order-to-move.

On 9 June 2015, the VJTF deployed for the first time in Poland during exercise Noble Jump, where over 2,100 troops from nine NATO nations participated.

On 24 June 2015, NATO defence ministers took decisions on air, maritime and SOF components of the enhanced NRF. The NRF will now consist of up to 40,000 personnel. Ministers further took measures to speed up political and military decision-making, including authority for NATO’s Supreme Allied Commander Europe to prepare troops for action as soon as a political decision is made. Allies also approved a new advance planning tool – Graduated Response Plans – which will enable executable operations plans to be generated exceptionally quickly, commensurate with the readiness requirements.
of the forces. Allies also agreed on the establishment of a new standing joint logistics support group headquarters within the NATO Command Structure. Finally, defence ministers agreed that in October they would decide on the establishment of new NFIU HQs, in addition to the six existing multinational NFIU HQs.

In September 2015, NFIUs were inaugurated in Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland and Romania.

In October 2015, NATO defence ministers gave their green light to the completed military concept for the enhanced NRF, including its command and control arrangements. They also agreed to set up two more NFIUs in Hungary and Slovakia.

In December 2015, NATO inaugurated the Multinational Division Southeast Headquarters in Bucharest, marking its official integration into the NATO Command Structure. The new, high-readiness headquarters will be able to command forces deployed within NATO’s southeast region, supporting the Alliance’s defence. It will also be a hub for regional cooperation among Allies. The headquarters is designated to have 280 personnel.

In July 2016, at the Warsaw Summit, Allies welcomed the implementation of the Readiness Action Plan (RAP) and agreed to further strengthen the Alliance’s deterrence and defence posture. The RAP will provide the Alliance with a broad range of options to be able to respond to any threats from wherever they arise to protect Alliance territory, population, airspace and sea lines of communication. On 1 July 2016, Multinational Division Southeast Headquarters declared initial capability.

The last two NFIUs in Hungary and Slovakia were inaugurated respectively on 18 November 2016 and 24 January 2017.
Relations with Armenia

Armenia contributes to NATO-led operations and cooperates with Allies and other partner countries in many other areas. A key priority for NATO is to strengthen political dialogue and to provide focused advice and assistance in support of wide-ranging democratic, institutional and defence reform efforts in Armenia.

- Relations with NATO started in 1992, when Armenia joined the North Atlantic Cooperation Council. This forum for dialogue was succeeded in 1997 by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, which brings together all Allies and partner countries in the Euro-Atlantic area.
- Bilateral cooperation began when Armenia joined the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme in 1994.
- Armenia’s programme of cooperation with NATO is set out in an Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP), which is jointly agreed every two years. The wide-ranging nature of the IPAP means that Armenia cooperates with NATO not only in the defence sphere, but also on political and security issues, democratic standards, rule of law, and the fight against corruption.
- Armenia tailors its participation in the PIP programme through an annual Individual Partnership Cooperation Programme, selecting those activities that will help achieve the goals it has set in the IPAP.
- Armenia is an active contributor to NATO-led operations in Afghanistan and Kosovo.
- NATO has no direct role in negotiations aimed at resolving the Nagorno-Karabakh conflict, which are being conducted in the framework of the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) Minsk Group. However, NATO encourages all sides to continue their efforts aimed at a peaceful resolution of the conflict.
Key areas of cooperation

Armenia’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

Building capabilities and interoperability

- Since 2002, Armenia has participated in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP), which helps develop the ability of Armenia’s forces to work with NATO forces on operations.
- A key priority for Armenia is to ensure democratic control of the armed forces, which is being reinforced by its participation in the Partnership Action Plan on Defence Institution Building (PAP-DIB). NATO has also supported the introduction of civilian personnel to the Armenian Ministry of Defence.
- In 2008, Armenia joined NATO’s Defence Education Enhancement Programme (DEEP) to help reform its professional military education institutions. DEEP contributed to the drafting and editing of the Armenian Military Education Concept, the development of several specialised training courses, and the creation of the National Defence Research University in Yerevan.
- In 2013, the Armenian Ministry of Defence joined NATO’s Building Integrity (BI) programme. Once Armenia completes the NATO Self-Assessment and Peer Review Process (which started in 2014), the country will benefit from NATO BI tailored support to enhance good governance practices and to reduce corruption risks in the defence sector.
- NATO and individual Allies have supported Armenia’s efforts to develop interoperability with NATO forces of the Armenian Peacekeeping Battalion and enable it to become a brigade with associated combat support and combat service support units.
- Since 2014, under the Partnership Interoperability Initiative, Armenia has participated in the Interoperability Platform that brings Allies together with 24 selected partners that are active contributors to NATO’s operations.

Support for NATO-led operations and missions

- Armenia has contributed troops to NATO’s Kosovo Force (KFOR) since 2004.
- From 2009, the country also supported the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan and, following the completion of ISAF’s mission, is currently supporting the NATO-led efforts to train, advise and assist Afghan security forces, known as the Resolute Support Mission (RSM).

Wider cooperation

- Armenia works with NATO’s Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) to improve its emergency preparedness and response capabilities, to deal with disasters and asymmetric threats, to improve contingency planning, and to contribute to international disaster relief operations. NATO and Armenia have also cooperated on the establishment of the Crisis Management National Centre in Yerevan.
- Since 1993, Armenia has engaged with the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme. Key areas for cooperation have included defence against chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear agents (CBRN), and disaster forecast and prevention.
- Armenia organises an annual NATO Week to raise public awareness of NATO and Armenia’s cooperation with the Alliance. A NATO Information Centre was officially opened in Yerevan in 2007 with the support of the Armenian government and NATO.
Relations with Australia

NATO and Australia are strengthening relations to address shared security challenges. Australia is one of the top non-NATO troop contributors to NATO-led efforts in Afghanistan.

- NATO and Australia have been engaged in dialogue and cooperation since 2005. Australia is one of a range of countries beyond the Euro-Atlantic area – often referred to as “partners across the globe” – with which NATO is strengthening relations.
- In a joint political declaration in June 2012, NATO and Australia signalled their commitment to strengthening cooperation.
- Since February 2013, work continues to advance through an Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme.
- Australia currently provides support for NATO-led defence capacity building efforts in Afghanistan and has committed to supporting the new NATO Mission Iraq.
- Beyond cooperation on global challenges, the aim is to work together more closely on crisis and conflict management. An important priority is to protect the rules-based international order, promote mutual understanding of global security issues, and enhance interoperability between NATO and Australia.
- Cooperation is underpinned by regular high-level political dialogue, including a biennial bilateral Strategic Dialogue, and Australia is represented at summit-level meetings bringing together all nations that contribute to NATO’s mission in Afghanistan.
Key areas of cooperation

Australia's cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

Building capabilities and interoperability
- Since 2014 under the Partnership Interoperability Initiative, Australia participates in the Interoperability Platform that brings Allies together with 24 partners that are active contributors to NATO's operations. Australia is also one of five countries which have enhanced opportunities for dialogue and cooperation with the Allies (known as 'Enhanced Opportunity Partners') in recognition of their particularly significant contributions to NATO operations and other Alliance objectives.
- To deepen interoperability, Australia participates in committee work on issues such as logistics, information-sharing among operational partners, ballistic missile defence and cooperation in the armaments field.
- Australia also participates in NATO exercises, including for example exercise Trident Juncture 2018.

Support for NATO-led operations and missions
- Over almost a decade, Australia was one of the largest non-NATO troop contributors to the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) which completed its mission in 2014. As part of a Provincial Reconstruction Team in Uruzgan Province in southern Afghanistan, Australian personnel provided security and delivered reconstruction and community-based projects. Additionally, Australia's Special Operations Task Group operated in direct support of ISAF elements in Uruzgan Province. Australia continues to support NATO's follow-on Resolute Support Mission to train, advise and assist the Afghan forces. Australia is also a leading contributor to the Afghan National Army Trust Fund, having pledged USD 440 million to the fund since 2010.
- Both NATO and Australia are members of the Global Coalition to Defeat ISIS and help train Iraqi forces. Australia has committed to supporting the new NATO Mission Iraq, launched in July 2018.
- Australia and NATO also work together to strengthen maritime security. Australia is a potential operational partner for NATO's Operation Sea Guardian. The Australian navy also cooperated with NATO to fight piracy off the coast of Somalia as part of the past operation Ocean Shield.

Wider cooperation
- Australia has recently been increasingly involved in the Science for Peace and Security Programme with cooperation focusing on the Women, Peace and Security agenda, advanced technologies with security applications, counter-terrorism and energy security.
- In 2010, Australia contributed to a NATO Trust Fund project designed to clear unexploded ordnance in Saloglu, Azerbaijan.
Relations with Austria

NATO-Austria relations are conducted through the Partnership for Peace (PfP) framework, which Austria joined in 1995. NATO and Austria actively cooperate in peace-support operations, and have developed practical cooperation in a range of other areas. Austria has worked alongside Allies in security and peacekeeping operations in Bosnia and Herzegovina, and currently has personnel deployed in Afghanistan and Kosovo.

NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg and the Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Austria, Karin Kneissl (November 2018)

Key areas of cooperation

Austria’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

Building capabilities and interoperability

- As an official PfP Training and Education Centre, the Austrian Armed Forces International Centre (AUTINT) promotes interoperability by providing training opportunities for Allies and other partner countries. AUTINT’s courses focus primarily on crisis-response operations, but it also provides training for peace-support operations.
- Allies and other partners benefit from Austrian expertise. The country is contributing to NATO’s programme of support for security-sector reform activities, with a special emphasis on the Balkan region. This includes supporting professional military education reform through the Defence Education Enhancement Programme (DEEP).
- The PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) influences and reinforces Austrian planning activities. Through the PARP, Austria has declared an increasing number of forces and capabilities as potentially available for NATO-led operations.
Since 2014, under the Partnership Interoperability Initiative, Austria has participated in the Interoperability Platform, which brings Allies together with 24 selected partners that are active contributors to NATO’s operations.

Support for NATO-led operations and missions

- Austria has made a number of units available for potential PfP operations. In each case, deployment must be authorised by the Austrian Council of Ministers and approved by the Main Committee of the Austrian Parliament.
- From 1996 to 2001, Austria contributed a battalion to the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Bosnia and Herzegovina.
- Austria is currently contributing a mechanised company and support units to the NATO-led Kosovo Force (KFOR), amounting to over 400 troops.
- Austrian forces joined the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan in 2002, providing expertise and logistical support. Austria continues to contribute to the follow-on Resolute Support Mission (RSM) to further train, assist and advise the Afghan security forces and institutions.

Wider cooperation

- Austria has contributed to several NATO Trust Fund projects in other partner countries, providing support for the destruction of mines and/or munitions in Albania, Kazakhstan, Montenegro, Serbia and Ukraine, among others.
- Austria cooperates with NATO Allies on civil preparedness, providing mutual support in dealing with the consequences of major accidents or disasters in the Euro-Atlantic area. This could include dealing with the consequences of incidents involving chemical, biological, radiological or nuclear agents, as well as humanitarian disaster relief operations.
- Under the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme, scientists from Austria have participated in numerous advanced research workshops and seminars on a range of topics, including preparedness against bio-terrorism, strengthening influenza pandemic preparedness and emerging biological threats.
Relations with Azerbaijan

Azerbaijan contributes to NATO-led operations and cooperates with the Allies and other partner countries in many other areas. Support for the country’s reform efforts is a priority.

- Relations with NATO started in 1992, when Azerbaijan joined the North Atlantic Cooperation Council. This forum for dialogue was succeeded in 1997 by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, which brings together all Allies and partner countries in the Euro-Atlantic area.
- Bilateral cooperation began when Azerbaijan joined the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme in 1994. Thanks to regular participation in PfP activities, Azerbaijan has been able to contribute actively to Euro-Atlantic security by supporting NATO-led peace-support operations.
- Cooperative activities, reform plans and political dialogue processes are detailed in Azerbaijan’s Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP), which is jointly agreed for a two-year period.
- NATO has no direct role in negotiations aimed at resolving the Nagorno-Karabakh conflict, which are being conducted in the framework of the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) Minsk Group. However, NATO encourages all sides to continue their efforts aimed at a peaceful resolution of the conflict.

**Key areas of cooperation**

Azerbaijan’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

**Building capabilities and interoperability**

- Azerbaijan’s participation in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) since 1997 has allowed NATO and individual Allies to assist Azerbaijan in developing selected units to improve interoperability with those of the Allies. Within and alongside the PARP process, Azerbaijan develops units in...
accordance with NATO standards, organises force contributions for NATO-led peace-support operations abroad, and prepares a range of other capabilities for potential future missions in which Azerbaijan may decide to participate.

- NATO and Azerbaijan started work on a jointly agreed Defence Education Enhancement Programme (DEEP) in 2008 to integrate NATO standards into the teaching methodologies and curricula of the country’s Professional Military Education (PME) institutions. Initially, DEEP efforts were focused on the Armed Forces Military College, a command and staff/war college that grooms senior military leaders. In 2018, Azerbaijan asked NATO to also involve the Military High School, a pre-commissioning school, in DEEP (an expansion which is significantly supported by Bulgaria). DEEP is also supporting a newly established language training centre, bringing Azerbaijani teachers and testers in close contact with Allied and partner language institutes.

- Since 2014, under the Partnership Interoperability Initiative, Azerbaijan has participated in the Interoperability Platform that brings Allies together with 24 selected partners that are active contributors to NATO’s operations.

Support for NATO-led operations and missions

- From 1999 to 2008, troops from Azerbaijan were part of the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Kosovo (KFOR).

- Azerbaijan actively supported the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan from 2002 to the end of the NATO-led operation in 2014. The country currently supports the follow-on Resolute Support Mission (RSM) to train, advise and assist Afghan security forces. Azerbaijan also contributes to NATO’s Afghan National Army Trust Fund.

- Azerbaijan has a long-standing interest in the protection of critical energy infrastructure, including against terrorist attacks, and the Ministry of National Security has worked with elements of NATO to establish an International Anti-Terrorism Training Centre.

Wider cooperation

- In cooperation with NATO’s Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC), Azerbaijan is developing its national civil emergency and disaster management capabilities. The country has participated in exercises and contributed staff to the EADRCC. Following EADRCC urgent requests for assistance, Azerbaijan has offered its disaster response capabilities (such as a fire-fighting aircraft and helicopters) to Allied and partner nations. Furthermore, the country is developing two units (Urban Search and Rescue, and CBRN) to be on high readiness for disaster relief operations.

- Since 1995, Azerbaijan has been engaged with the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme on issues including cyber defence training, energy and environmental security and disaster forecast and prevention. The NATO SPS programme also supported a project for the conversion of stocks of mélange (a highly toxic and corrosive rocket fuel oxidiser, formerly used by Warsaw Pact Countries) into a harmless chemical.

- Another key area of cooperation is improving access to information and increasing public awareness of NATO and the benefits of NATO-Azerbaijan cooperation.

- Azerbaijan’s National Agency for Mine Action has partnered with Allies on a series of NATO Trust Fund projects which assist with the demilitarization of unexploded ordnance. One such project resulted in the safe disposal of 640,000 pieces of unexploded ordnance from a 5.68 million m2 area, following an explosion at a former Soviet munitions facility.
Relations with Belarus

NATO and Belarus have established a relationship based on the pursuit of common interests, while also keeping open channels for dialogue. Key areas of cooperation include civil preparedness and defence reforms. NATO works with Belarus to implement reforms in these areas, while continuing to call on Belarus to increase the pace of its democratic reforms.

- Relations with NATO started in 1992, when Belarus joined the North Atlantic Cooperation Council. This forum for dialogue was succeeded in 1997 by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, which brings together all Allies and partner countries in the Euro-Atlantic area.
- Dialogue is facilitated by the existence of Belarus’ diplomatic mission to NATO, which was opened in April 1998.
- Bilateral cooperation began when Belarus joined the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme in 1995. Under the PfP, NATO and Belarus are developing practical cooperation in a number of areas through the Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme (IPCP) between NATO and Belarus.
- On the basis of the IPCP, Belarusian personnel are attending courses in NATO countries and practical cooperation is being developed in areas such as civil preparedness, crisis management, arms control, air defence and air traffic control, telecommunications and information processing, as well as language training and military education.
- NATO Allies have expressed their concern at the lack of progress in democratic reforms in Belarus. Nonetheless, NATO Allies believe that keeping open channels of communication, practical cooperation and dialogue is in the best interest of regional security.
Key areas of cooperation

Belarus’ cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

Building capabilities and interoperability

- Belarus participates in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP). This participation is aimed at encouraging transparency and at assisting the country in developing capabilities and interoperability for international peace-support operations. NATO helps set planning targets that will enable Belarus to develop some of its forces and capabilities for potential participation in PfP activities, including NATO-led PfP operations, and in this way contribute to security and stability.

Wider cooperation

- Belarus participated in a NATO Trust Fund project aimed at helping the country meet its obligations under the Ottawa Convention on the prohibition of the use, stockpiling, production and transfer of anti-personnel mines and on their destruction. Completed in January 2007, this joint project, led by Canada and co-funded by Belarus and Lithuania, involved the destruction of some 700,000 anti-personnel mines in Belarus.

- Since 2001, Belarus has received grant awards for about 40 cooperative activities under NATO’s Science for Peace and Security Programme (SPS). Areas of focus include telecommunications, Chernobyl-related risk assessment studies and explosive material detection systems. One notable project brought together scientists from Belarus, Norway and Ukraine to assess the hazards posed by radioactive contamination in the Polessie State Radiation-Ecological Reserve.

- NATO and Belarusian experts engage in discussions of transparency, arms control, and risk reduction, including confidence- and security-building measures.

- NATO also seeks to contribute to the development of Belarusian civil society. This takes place primarily through public diplomacy activities. Since 2013, the NATO Public Diplomacy Division has co-organised an annual seminar with the Belarusian “Foreign Policy and Security Research Center” to discuss regional security issues. Belarusian non-governmental and civil society organisations are encouraged to engage with NATO’s Public Diplomacy Division.
Relations with Bosnia and Herzegovina

Bosnia and Herzegovina aspires to join NATO. Support for democratic, institutional, security sector and defence reforms are a key focus of cooperation. The country actively supports the NATO-led mission in Afghanistan and works with the Allies and other partner countries in many other areas.

The Alliance has been committed to building long-term peace and stability in Bosnia and Herzegovina since the early 1990s, when it started supporting the international community’s efforts to end the conflict in Bosnia and Herzegovina. NATO played a key role in implementing the Dayton Peace Agreement through peacekeeping deployments over a nine-year period from December 1995 to December 2004. In December 2004, primary responsibility for military aspects of the Peace Agreement was handed over to the European Union (EU).

Bosnia and Herzegovina joined the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme in 2006.

The country’s cooperation with NATO is set out in an Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP). The first IPAP was agreed with the Alliance in September 2008. These plans are designed to bring together all the various cooperation mechanisms through which the country interacts with the Alliance, sharpening the focus of activities to better support domestic reform efforts.

Bosnia and Herzegovina was invited to join the Membership Action Plan in 2010. In 2018, Allied Foreign Ministers decided that NATO is ready to accept the submission of Bosnia and Herzegovina’s first Annual National Programme.

To facilitate cooperation, Bosnia and Herzegovina has a diplomatic mission at NATO Headquarters as well as a liaison office at Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE).

NATO retains a military headquarters in Sarajevo with the primary mission of assisting the authorities of Bosnia and Herzegovina with reforms and commitments related to the PfP and closer integration with NATO, and the secondary mission of providing logistic and other support to the European Union Force in Bosnia and Herzegovina.
Membership aspirations

- The country was invited to join the Membership Action Plan (MAP) in 2010. At the time, Allied Foreign Ministers called on the authorities in Bosnia and Herzegovina to resolve a key issue concerning the registration of immovable defence property to the state.

- At their meeting in December 2018, Allied Foreign Ministers decided that NATO is ready to accept the submission of Bosnia and Herzegovina’s first Annual National Programme (ANP). The ANP, when submitted, would replace and build upon the IPAP. This programme will focus on political, economic, defence, resource, security and legal reforms and will serve as the basis for practical cooperation and political dialogue between NATO and Bosnia and Herzegovina. The registration of immovable defence property to the state remains essential.

- Participation in the MAP does not prejudge any decision by the Alliance on future membership. Bosnia and Herzegovina needs to continue pursuing democratic and defence reforms to fulfil its NATO and EU aspirations and to become a well-functioning independent democratic state.

Key areas of cooperation

Bosnia and Herzegovina’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

Building capabilities and interoperability

- Bosnia and Herzegovina is working to develop fully professional armed forces that are interoperable with NATO forces and are manned by volunteers who meet high professional standards. To this end, the country has been participating in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) since May 2007. The role of the PARP is to provide a structured basis for identifying forces and capabilities that could be available to the Alliance for multinational training, exercises and peacekeeping and crisis-management operations. It also serves as the principal mechanism used to guide and measure defence and military reform progress.

- Bosnia and Herzegovina has declared a number of forces and assets as potentially available for PfP activities, including engineering (explosive ordnance disposal) capabilities and related equipment.

- Since 2014, under the Partnership Interoperability Initiative, Bosnia and Herzegovina has participated in the Interoperability Platform, that brings Allies together with 24 selected partners that are active contributors to NATO’s operations.

- Bosnia and Herzegovina is an active participant in the tailored Building Integrity (BI) programme, which focuses on good governance and transparent and effective use of defence resources. The country’s NATO-accredited Peace Support Operations Training Centre (PSOTC) offers expert training on building integrity and other topics to NATO and partner countries.

Support for NATO-led operations and missions

- Since 2009, Bosnia and Herzegovina has contributed officers to the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan as part of the Danish and German contingents, and now contributes to NATO’s Resolute Support Mission (RSM) in Afghanistan.

Wider cooperation

- Bosnia and Herzegovina is developing its national civil emergency and disaster management capabilities in consultation with the Allies, including developing the legal framework for coping with civil emergencies and working to establish a civil crisis information system to coordinate activities in the event of an emergency.

- In May 2014, Bosnia and Herzegovina requested assistance from NATO’s Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) following devastating floods that hit the country. NATO coordinated emergency assistance from Allied and partner countries, sending helicopters, boats, drinking water, food, shelter and funds. In 2017, the country hosted the annual EADRCC disaster preparedness and response exercise that brought together Allies, partners, and international organisations.
Bosnia and Herzegovina and NATO aim to improve public access to information on the benefits of cooperation and Bosnia and Herzegovina’s possible membership in the Alliance. To this end, a national NATO communications strategy is in place. Particular emphasis is placed on activities that entail sustainability and that link key stakeholders: government, civil society and media.

Bosnia and Herzegovina has participated in the Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme since 2007. Leading areas for cooperation include advanced technology, disaster response, explosives detection and cyber defence.
Relations with Colombia

NATO and Colombia are strengthening dialogue and cooperation to address security challenges in a number of areas of shared concern. Colombia is the Alliance’s only partner in Latin America.

NATO and Colombia have been engaged in dialogue and cooperation since 2013. Colombia is one of a range of countries beyond the Euro-Atlantic area – often referred to as “partners across the globe” – with which NATO is developing relations.

An Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme, signed in May 2017, formalised the recognition of Colombia as a partner and opened access to the full range of cooperative activities. It sets out priority areas for dialogue and cooperation.

Shared priorities are to develop common approaches to global security challenges such as cyber security, maritime security, and terrorism and its links to organised crime; to support peace and security efforts, including human security; and to build the capacities and capabilities of the Colombian armed forces.

Key areas of cooperation

Colombia’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

Building capabilities and interoperability

- Through training, education and exercises, NATO Allies and Colombia seek to develop the interoperability of their armed forces, in line with NATO norms and standards. This will facilitate possible future Colombian participation in United Nations-led operations and missions. Colombian personnel regularly take part in courses at the NATO School in Oberammergau, Germany, and the NATO Defense College in Rome, Italy. Colombia has also participated in a number of high-level military conferences.
Colombia also has a lot of expertise to offer in the areas of humanitarian demining, countering improvised explosive devices, counter-insurgency, and counter-narcotics. Work is underway to identify how Colombia’s expertise can best support NATO Allies and partners.

Colombia’s defence ministry also actively participates, since 2013, in the Building Integrity programme, which provides practical assistance and advice for strengthening integrity, accountability and transparency in the defence and security sector.

Support for NATO-led operations and missions

In 2015, Colombia supported Ocean Shield, NATO’s past maritime operation to counter piracy off the Horn of Africa, with a vessel. Further opportunities will be explored for interaction in the maritime domain to strengthen naval interoperability and information-sharing.

Wider cooperation

Colombia and NATO are seeking to develop common approaches to support peace and security efforts including human security, with a particular focus on supporting the implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 on Women, Peace and Security, as well as protecting children in armed conflict and civilians.

Colombia recently started participating in the Science for Peace and Security Programme and an advanced research workshop is due to take place in the capital Bogota in 2019, focusing on counter-terrorism lessons from maritime piracy and narcotic interdiction.
Relations with the European Union

Sharing strategic interests and facing the same challenges, NATO and the European Union (EU) cooperate on issues of common interest and are working side by side in crisis management, capability development and political consultations, as well as providing support to their common partners in the east and south. The EU is a unique and essential partner for NATO. The two organisations share a majority of members, have common values and face similar threats and challenges.

Relations between NATO and the EU were institutionalised in the early 2000s, building on steps taken during the 1990s to promote greater European responsibility in defence matters (NATO-Western European Union cooperation1).

The 2002 NATO-EU Declaration on a European Security and Defence Policy (ESDP) reaffirmed EU assured access to NATO’s planning capabilities for the EU’s own military operations.

In 2003, the so-called “Berlin Plus” arrangements set the basis for the Alliance to support EU-led operations in which NATO as a whole is not engaged.

At the 2010 Lisbon Summit, the Allies underlined their determination to improve the NATO-EU strategic partnership. The 2010 Strategic Concept committed the Alliance to working more closely with other international organisations to prevent crises, manage conflicts and stabilise post-conflict situations.

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1 At that time, the Western European Union (WEU) was acting for the European Union in the area of security and defence (1992 Maastricht Treaty). The WEU’s crisis-management role was transferred to the European Union in 1999.
In Warsaw in July 2016, the two organisations outlined areas for strengthened cooperation in light of common challenges to the east and south, including countering hybrid threats, enhancing resilience, defence capacity building, cyber defence, maritime security, and exercises. As a follow-up, in December 2016, NATO foreign ministers endorsed a statement to which were annexed 42 common measures to advance NATO-EU cooperation. A further 32 measures were agreed in December 2017.

On 10 July 2018, in a joint declaration, the two organisations agreed to focus on swift progress in the areas of military mobility, counter-terrorism and strengthening resilience to chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear-related risks as well as promoting the women, peace and security agenda.

Allied leaders welcomed this joint declaration at the Brussels Summit in July 2018 and tangible results achieved since 2016. They recognised that the development of European defence capabilities, while ensuring coherence and complementarity and avoiding unnecessary duplication, is key in joint efforts to make the Euro-Atlantic area safer and contributes to transatlantic burden-sharing.

Close cooperation between NATO and the EU is an important element in the development of an international “comprehensive approach” to crisis management and operations, which requires the effective application of both military and civilian means.

NATO and the EU currently have 22 member countries in common.

Towards a more strategic partnership

Strengthening the NATO-EU strategic partnership is particularly important in the current security environment, in which both organisations and their members are facing the same challenges to the east and south.

In Warsaw in July 2016, Allied leaders underlined that the EU remains a unique and essential partner for NATO. Enhanced consultations at all levels and practical cooperation in operations and capability development have brought concrete results. The security challenges in the two organisations' shared eastern and southern neighbourhoods make it more important than ever to reinforce the strategic partnership.

Allied leaders welcomed the joint declaration issued in Warsaw by the NATO Secretary General, the President of the European Council and the President of the European Commission, which outlines a series of actions the two organisations intend to take together in concrete areas, including countering hybrid threats, enhancing resilience, defence capacity building, cyber defence, maritime security, and exercises.

As a follow-up, in December 2016, NATO foreign ministers endorsed 42 measures to advance how NATO and the EU work together, including:

- measures to bolster resilience to hybrid threats, ranging from disinformation campaigns to acute crises;
- cooperation between NATO’s Operation Sea Guardian and the EUNAVFOR Operation Sophia in the Mediterranean;
- exchange of information on cyber threats and the sharing of best practices on cyber security;
- ensuring the coherence and complementarity of each other’s defence planning processes;
- parallel and coordinated exercises;
- efforts to support the local capacities of partner countries in the sectors of security and defence.

2 29 NATO member countries: Albania, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Montenegro, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States. 28 EU member countries: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom.
In December 2017, further steps were taken to boost NATO-EU cooperation through the addition of 32 new measures including in three new areas:

- military mobility to ensure that forces and equipment can move quickly across Europe if needed, which requires procedures for rapid border crossing, sufficient transport assets and robust infrastructure (roads, railways, ports and airports);
- information-sharing in the fight against terrorism and strengthening coordination of counter-terrorism support for partner countries;
- promoting women’s role in peace and security.

On 10 July 2018, just ahead of the NATO Summit in Brussels, the two organisations underlined the essential nature of continued cooperation to address multiple and evolving security challenges. They agree to focus on swift progress in the areas of military mobility, counter-terrorism and strengthening resilience to chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear-related risks as well as promoting the women, peace and security agenda. They also welcome the complementary and mutually reinforcing efforts of the EU and NATO to strengthen capabilities in defence and security.

At the July 2018 Brussels Summit, Allied leaders welcomed the joint declaration and the tangible results achieved in a range of areas, underlining their determination to develop and deepen cooperation by fully implementing the common set of 74 proposals. They recognised that the development of coherent, complementary and interoperable defence capabilities, avoiding duplication, is key to joint efforts to make the Euro-Atlantic area safer. Such efforts will lead to a stronger NATO, help enhance common security, contribute to transatlantic burden sharing, help deliver needed capabilities, and support an overall increase in defence spending.

Allied leaders also welcomed the call for deeper NATO-EU cooperation by the European Council in June 2018. They noted that the fullest participation of non-EU Allies in the EU’s efforts to strengthen its capacities to address common security challenges is essential for the strengthened strategic partnership between NATO and the EU.

The NATO Secretary General and the EU High Representative regularly report to NATO Allies and EU member states on progress in cooperation. (See reports: June 2017, November 2017, June 2018, June 2019)

Non-EU European Allies make a significant contribution to these efforts. For the strategic partnership between NATO and the EU, their fullest involvement in these efforts is essential.

NATO and the EU can and should play complementary and mutually reinforcing roles in supporting international peace and security. The Allies are determined to make their contribution to create more favourable circumstances through which they will:

- fully strengthen the strategic partnership with the EU, in the spirit of full mutual openness, transparency, complementarity and respect for the autonomy and institutional integrity of both organisations;
- enhance practical cooperation in operations throughout the crisis spectrum, from coordinated planning to mutual support in the field;
- broaden political consultations to include all issues of common concern, in order to share assessments and perspectives;
- cooperate more fully in capability development, to minimise duplication and maximise cost effectiveness.

Cooperation in the field

Combating illegal trafficking in humans in the Aegean and the Central Mediterranean

NATO defence ministers decided on 11 February 2016 to deploy ships to the Aegean Sea to support Greece and Turkey, as well as the European Union’s border agency Frontex in their efforts to tackle the refugee and migrant crisis. Standing NATO Maritime Group 2 (SNMG2) is conducting reconnaissance, monitoring and surveillance in the territorial waters of Greece and Turkey, as well as in international
waters. The deployment in the Aegean Sea aims to support international efforts to cut the lines of human trafficking and illegal migration. NATO ships are providing real-time information to the coastguards and relevant national authorities of Greece and Turkey, as well as to Frontex, helping them in their efforts to tackle this crisis.

In October 2016, ministers agreed to extend NATO’s deployment in the Aegean Sea and also decided that NATO’s new Operation Sea Guardian will support the EU’s Operation Sophia in the Central Mediterranean with NATO ships and planes, ready to help increase the EU’s situational awareness and provide logistical support.

The Western Balkans

In July 2003, the EU and NATO published a “Concerted Approach for the Western Balkans”. Jointly drafted, it outlines core areas of cooperation and emphasises the common vision and determination both organisations share to bring stability to the region.

The Republic of North Macedonia

On 31 March 2003, the EU-led Operation Concordia took over the responsibilities of the NATO-led mission, Operation Allied Harmony, in the country at the time known as the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. This mission, which ended in December 2003, was the first “Berlin Plus” operation in which NATO assets were made available to the EU.

Bosnia and Herzegovina

Building on the results of Concordia and following the conclusion of the NATO-led Stabilisation Force (SFOR) in Bosnia and Herzegovina, the EU deployed a new mission called Operation Althea on 2 December 2004. The EU Force (EUFOR) operates under the “Berlin Plus” arrangements, drawing on NATO planning expertise and on other Alliance’s assets and capabilities. The Vice-Chief of Staff SHAPE is the Commander of Operation Althea. The EU Operation Headquarters (OHQ) is located at SHAPE.

Kosovo

NATO has been leading a peacekeeping force in Kosovo (KFOR) since 1999. The EU has contributed civil assets to the UN Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK) for years and agreed to take over the police component of the UN Mission. The European Union Rule of Law Mission (EULEX) in Kosovo, which deployed in December 2008, is the largest civilian mission ever launched under the Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP). The central aim is to assist and support the Kosovo authorities in the rule of law area, specifically in the police, judiciary and customs areas. EULEX works closely with KFOR in the field.

Cooperation in other regions

Afghanistan

Over the past decade, NATO and the EU have played key roles in bringing peace and stability to Afghanistan, as part of the international community’s broader efforts to implement a comprehensive approach to assist the country. The NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) helped create a stable and secure environment in which the Afghan government as well as other international actors could build democratic institutions, extend the rule of law and reconstruct the country. Both ISAF and its successor Resolute Support Mission have cooperated with the EU’s Rule of Law Mission (EUPOL), which operated in Afghanistan from June 2007 to December 2016. EUPOL Advisers at the Afghan Ministry of Interior and the Afghan National Police supported the reform of the ministry and the development of civilian policing. The EU also initiated a programme for justice reform and helped to fund civilian projects in NATO-run Provincial Reconstruction Teams that were led by an EU member country.

Darfur

Both NATO and the EU supported the African Union’s mission in Darfur, Sudan in particular with regard to airlift rotations.
Piracy
For several years NATO’s naval forces deployed under Operation Ocean Shield (2008-2016) and EU naval forces (Operation Atalanta) worked side by side with other actors, off the coast of Somalia for anti-piracy missions.

Iraq
Both NATO and the EU are increasing their presence in Iraq. The EU is focusing on the civilian security sector. NATO is helping build the capacities of the Iraqi defence and security structures, and is scaling up these efforts with the launch of a non-combat NATO Training Mission launched at the Brussels Summit in July 2018, at the request of the Government of Iraq. NATO’s mission will complement the ongoing efforts of the Coalition to Defeat ISIS/Daesh and other international actors.

Other areas of cooperation

Political consultation
The range of subjects discussed between NATO and the EU has expanded considerably over the past two years, particularly on security issues within the European space or its immediate vicinity. Since the crisis in Ukraine, both organisations have regularly exchanged views on their respective decisions, especially with regard to Russia, to ensure that their messages and actions complement each other. Consultations have also covered developments in the Western Balkans, Libya and the Middle East.

Capabilities
Together with operations, capability development is an area where cooperation is essential and where there is potential for further growth. The NATO-EU Capability Group was established in May 2003 to ensure the coherence and mutual reinforcement of NATO and EU capability development efforts.

Following the creation, in July 2004, of the European Defence Agency (EDA) to coordinate work within the EU on the development of defence capabilities, armaments cooperation, acquisition and research, EDA experts contribute to the work of the Capability Group.

Among other issues, the Capability Group has addressed common capability shortfalls in areas such as countering improvised explosive devices and medical support. The Group is also playing an important role in ensuring transparency and complementarity between NATO’s work on Smart Defence and the EU’s Pooling and Sharing initiative.

Terrorism and WMD proliferation
Both NATO and the EU are committed to combating terrorism and the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction (WMD). They have exchanged information on their activities in the field of protection of civilian populations against chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear attacks.

Civil emergency planning
The two organisations also cooperate in the field of civil emergency planning by exchanging inventories of measures taken in this area.

Participation
With the enlargement of both organisations in 2004, followed by the accession of Bulgaria, Romania and Croatia to the EU, the two organisations have 22 member countries in common. Albania, Canada, Iceland, Montenegro, Norway, Turkey and the United States, which are members of NATO but not of the EU, participate in all NATO-EU meetings. So do Austria, Finland, Ireland, Sweden, and since 2008, Malta, which are members of the EU and of NATO’s Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme.

Cyprus, which is not a PfP member and does not have a security agreement with NATO on the exchange of classified documents, does however participate in official NATO-EU meetings. This is a consequence of decisions taken by NATO in December 2002.
Framework for cooperation

An exchange of letters between the NATO Secretary General and the EU Presidency in January 2001 defined the scope of cooperation and modalities of consultation on security issues between the two organisations. Cooperation further developed with the signing of the NATO-EU Declaration on ESDP in December 2002 and the agreement, in March 2003, of a framework for cooperation.

**NATO-EU Declaration on ESDP:** The NATO-EU Declaration on ESDP, agreed on 16 December 2002, reaffirmed the EU assured access to NATO's planning capabilities for its own military operations and reiterated the political principles of the strategic partnership: effective mutual consultation; equality and due regard for the decision-making autonomy of the EU and NATO; respect for the interests of EU and NATO member states; respect for the principles of the Charter of the United Nations; and coherent, transparent and mutually reinforcing development of the military capability requirements common to the two organisations.

**The “Berlin Plus” arrangements:** As part of the framework for cooperation adopted on 17 March 2003, the so-called “Berlin Plus” arrangements provide the basis for NATO-EU cooperation in crisis management in the context of EU-led operations that make use of NATO's collective assets and capabilities, including command arrangements and assistance in operational planning. In effect, they allow the Alliance to support EU-led operations in which NATO as a whole is not engaged.

NATO and the EU meet on a regular basis to discuss issues of common interest. Meetings take place at different levels including at the level of foreign ministers, ambassadors, military representatives and defence advisors. There are regular staff-to-staff talks at all levels between NATO’s International Staff and International Military Staff, and their respective EU interlocutors (the European External Action Service, the European Defence Agency, the European Commission and the European Parliament).

Permanent military liaison arrangements have been established to facilitate cooperation at the operational level. A NATO Permanent Liaison Team has been operating at the EU Military Staff since November 2005 and an EU Cell was set up at SHAPE (NATO’s strategic command for operations in Mons, Belgium) in March 2006.

Milestones

**February 1992:** The EU adopts the Maastricht Treaty, which envisages an intergovernmental Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP) and the eventual framing of a common defence policy (ESDP) with the WEU as the EU’s defence component.

Close cooperation is established between NATO and the WEU.

**June 1992:** In Oslo, NATO foreign ministers support the objective of developing the WEU as a means of strengthening the European pillar of the Alliance and as the defence component of the EU, that would also cover the “Petersberg tasks” (humanitarian search and rescue tasks, peacekeeping tasks, crisis-management tasks including peace enforcement and environmental protection).

**January 1994:** Allied leaders agree to make collective assets of the Alliance available, on the basis of consultations in the North Atlantic Council, for WEU operations undertaken by the European Allies in pursuit of their CFSP. NATO endorses the concept of Combined Joint Task Forces, which provides for “separable but not separate” deployable headquarters that could be used for European-led operations and is the conceptual basis for future operations involving NATO and other non-NATO countries.

**June 1996:** In Berlin, NATO foreign ministers agree for the first time to build up a European Security and Defence Identity (ESDI) within NATO, with the aim of rebalancing roles and responsibilities between Europe and North America. An essential part of this initiative was to improve European capabilities. They also decide to make Alliance assets available for WEU-led crisis-management operations. These decisions lead to the introduction of the term “Berlin Plus”.

**December 1998:** At a summit in St Malo, France and the United Kingdom make a joint statement affirming the EU’s determination to establish a European Security and Defence Policy (ESDP).
April 1999: At the Washington Summit, Heads of State and Government decide to develop the “Berlin Plus” arrangements.

June 1999: A European Council meeting in Cologne, Germany decides “to give the European Union the necessary means and capabilities to assume its responsibilities regarding a common European policy on security and defence”.

December 1999: At the Helsinki Council meeting, EU members establish military “headline goals” to allow the EU to deploy up to 60,000 troops by 2003 for ‘Petersberg tasks’. EU members also create political and military structures including a Political and Security Committee, a Military Committee and a Military Staff. The crisis-management role of the WEU is transferred to the EU. The WEU retains residual tasks.

September 2000: The North Atlantic Council and the EU’s interim Political and Security Committee meet for the first time to take stock of progress in NATO-EU relations.

December 2000: Signature of the EU’s Treaty of Nice containing amendments reflecting the operative developments of the ESDP as an independent EU policy (entry into force February 2003).

January 2001: Beginning of institutionalised relations between NATO and the EU with the establishment of joint meetings, including at the level of foreign ministers and ambassadors. Exchange of letters between the NATO Secretary General and the EU Presidency on the scope of cooperation and modalities for consultation.

May 2001: First formal NATO-EU meeting at the level of foreign ministers in Budapest. The NATO Secretary General and the EU Presidency issue a joint statement on the Western Balkans.

November 2002: At the Prague Summit, NATO members declare their readiness to give the EU access to NATO assets and capabilities for operations in which the Alliance is not engaged militarily.

December 2002: EU-NATO Declaration on ESDP.

March 2003: Agreement on the framework for cooperation. Entry into force of a NATO-EU security of information agreement. Transition from the NATO-led Operation Allied Harmony to the EU-led Operation Concordia in the Republic of North Macedonia (then known as the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia).

May 2003: First meeting of the NATO-EU Capability Group.

July 2003: Development of a common strategy for the Western Balkans.


February 2004: France, Germany and the United Kingdom launch the idea of EU rapid-reaction units composed of joint battle groups.

December 2004: Beginning of the EU-led Operation Althea in Bosnia and Herzegovina.


October 2005: Agreement on Military Permanent Arrangements establishing a NATO Permanent Liaison Team at the EU Military Staff and an EU cell at SHAPE.

November 2005: NATO Permanent Liaison Team set up at the EU Military Staff.

March 2006: EU cell set up at SHAPE.

April 2006: Transatlantic informal NATO-EU ministerial dinner, Sofia.

2006 - 2010: Transatlantic informal NATO-EU ministerial dinners are held in New York (Sep. 2006); Brussels (Jan. 2007); Oslo (April 2007); New York (Sep. 2007); Brussels (Dec. 2007); New York (Sep. 2008); Brussels (Dec. 2008); Brussels (March 2009); and New York (Sep. 2010).

November 2010: At the Lisbon Summit, the Allies underline their determination to improve the NATO-EU strategic partnership and welcome recent initiatives from several Allies and ideas proposed by the Secretary General in this regard.
September 2011: Transatlantic informal NATO-EU ministerial dinner, New York.

September 2012: Transatlantic informal NATO-EU ministerial dinner, New York.

11 February 2013: President of the European Commission José Manuel Barroso visits NATO Headquarters.

May 2013: The NATO Secretary General addresses the European Parliament’s Committee on Foreign Affairs and Subcommittee on Security and Defence.

June 2013: The NATO Secretary General participates in an informal meeting of EU foreign ministers.

December 2013: The NATO Secretary General addresses the European Council in Brussels.

5 March 2014: NATO and EU Political and Security Committee (PSC) ambassadors hold informal talks on Ukraine.

10 June 2014: NATO and EU PSC ambassadors hold more informal talks on Ukraine.

10 February 2016: A Technical Arrangement on Cyber Defence was concluded between the NATO Computer Incident Response Capability (NCIRC) and the Computer Emergency Response Team of the European Union (CERT-EU), providing a framework for exchanging information and sharing best practices between emergency response teams.

11 February 2016: At the request of Germany, Greece and Turkey, NATO defence ministers agree that the Alliance should join international efforts to stem illegal trafficking and illegal migration in the Aegean Sea, cooperating with the European Union’s border management agency, Frontex.

10 March 2016: Visiting the European Commission to meet Commission President Jean-Claude Juncker, NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg stresses the vital importance of the NATO-EU relationship and welcomes the organisations’ deepening ties.

12-13 May 2016: An informal EU-NATO Directors General Conference takes place at NATO Headquarters to enhance staff-to-staff interaction between the organisations’ respective military staffs on topics of current relevance and common interest related to security and defence.

20 May 2016: High Representative Federica Mogherini visits NATO Headquarters for a meeting with NATO foreign ministers to discuss areas for expanded NATO-EU cooperation ahead of upcoming EU and NATO summit meetings.

24 June 2016: In a statement on the outcome of the British referendum on membership of the EU, the NATO Secretary General underlines his confidence that the United Kingdom’s position in NATO will remain unchanged and that the country – a strong and committed NATO Ally – will continue to play its leading role in the Alliance.

July 2016: In Warsaw, a joint declaration expresses the determination to give new impetus and new substance to the NATO-EU strategic partnership in light of common challenges. Areas for strengthened cooperation include: countering hybrid threats; operational cooperation including at sea; cyber security and defence; defence capabilities; defence industrial cooperation; exercises; and building the defence capabilities of partners to the East and South.

27 October 2016: NATO defence ministers meet with EU High Representative Federica Mogherini and the defence ministers of Finland and Sweden to discuss ways to deepen NATO-EU cooperation in the areas of countering hybrid threats, cyber defence, coordinated exercises and supporting partners. Ministers agree to extend NATO’s deployment in the Aegean Sea in support of the efforts of Greece, Turkey and the EU’s border agency Frontex to break the lines of human trafficking. They also decide that NATO’s new Operation Sea Guardian will support the EU’s Operation Sophia in the Central Mediterranean with NATO ships and planes, ready to help increase the EU’s situational awareness and provide logistical support.

15 November 2016: NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg meets with EU defence ministers for talks on European defence and closer NATO-EU cooperation. He stresses that efforts to strengthen European defence can contribute to a stronger NATO, through better defence capabilities and higher defence spending in Europe.
25 November 2016: Senior officials from NATO and the EU meet to discuss the next practical steps in NATO-EU cooperation on cyber defence.

30 November 2016: The Director General of the NATO International Military Staff and the Director General of the European Union Military Staff co-chair a conference at the EUMS Headquarters focused on increasing informal dialogue and cooperation, and supporting implementation of the NATO-EU Joint Declaration signed on the margins of the NATO Summit in Warsaw.

7 December 2016: NATO foreign ministers approve a series of more than 40 measures to advance how NATO and the EU work together including on countering hybrid threats, cyber defence, and making their common neighbourhood more stable and secure.

15 December 2016: NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg meets with EU leaders for talks on European defence and closer NATO-EU cooperation. He stresses that closer cooperation between NATO and the EU is important today because of new security threats, efforts to strengthen European defence and to build the partnership between Europe and North America.

10 February 2017: NATO convenes an informal workshop on how to reinforce security dialogue in the Euro-Atlantic region, focusing on the importance of NATO, the European Union and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) supporting each other to improve existing arms control mechanisms.

24 March 2017: The North Atlantic Council and the EU’s Political and Security Committee meet to discuss NATO-EU cooperation, in particular the implementation of the joint declaration signed in Warsaw in July 2016, which led to a common set of proposals endorsed by the respective Councils of both organisations in December 2016.

19 June 2017: A first progress report on NATO-EU Cooperation – authored jointly by NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg and EU High Representative / Vice-President of the European Commission Federica Mogherini – concludes that the two organisations are making substantial progress in complementing each other’s work since the agreement in Warsaw in July 2016 to work more closely together in areas ranging from resilience to hybrid threats, through greater coherence on capability development to helping build the defence capacities of partner countries.

5 December 2017: In a meeting with EU High Representative Federica Mogherini, NATO foreign ministers agree to step up NATO’s cooperation with the European Union through an additional common set of 32 new proposals on the implementation of the Joint Declaration signed by the President of the European Council, the President of the European Commission and the Secretary General of NATO. Joint work will include three new areas: military mobility, information-sharing in the fight against terrorism, and promoting women’s role in peace and security. A second progress report on NATO-EU Cooperation is issued.

8 June 2018: A third progress report on NATO-EU Cooperation is released to the public and highlights the qualitative and quantitative increase in cooperation between NATO and the EU.

10 July 2018: In a joint declaration, the President of the European Council, the President of the European Commission and the NATO Secretary General underline the importance of continued EU-NATO cooperation to address multiple and evolving security challenges as well as steps being taken by both organisations to strengthen capabilities in defence and security.

11 July 2018: At the Brussels Summit, Allied leaders underline that the European Union remains a unique and essential partner for NATO. They welcome tangible progress made in a range of areas as well as the recent joint declaration about taking further steps to implement the common set of 74 proposals, emphasising the importance of the commitment to improve military mobility.

17 June 2019: A fourth progress report on NATO-EU Cooperation is published.
Relations with Finland

NATO and Finland actively cooperate in peace-support operations and have developed practical cooperation in many other areas. An important priority is to develop interoperable capabilities, maintaining the ability of the Finnish armed forces to work with those of NATO and other partner countries in multinational peace-support operations.

NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg and Sauli Niinistö, President of Finland

Highlights

- Finnish cooperation with NATO is based on its longstanding policy of military non-alignment and a firm national political consensus.
- Cooperation began when Finland joined the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme in 1994 and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (a multilateral forum for dialogue which brings together all Allies and partner countries in the Euro-Atlantic area) in 1997.
- An Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme (IPCP), which is jointly agreed for a two-year period, lays out the programme of cooperation between Finland and NATO.
- Finland is one of NATO’s most active partners and a valued contributor to NATO-led operations and missions in the Balkans and Afghanistan.
- Finland is one of five countries (known as ‘Enhanced Opportunity Partners’\(^1\) under the Partnership Interoperability Initiative) that make particularly significant contributions to NATO operations and other Alliance objectives. As such, the country has enhanced opportunities for dialogue and cooperation with the Allies.

\(^1\) Enhanced Opportunity Partners: Australia, Finland, Georgia, Jordan and Sweden
In the current security context of heightened concerns about Russian military and non-military activities, NATO is stepping up cooperation with partner countries Finland and Sweden, with a particular focus on ensuring security in the Baltic Sea region. This includes: regular political dialogue and consultations; exchanges of information on hybrid warfare; coordinating training and exercises; and developing better joint situational awareness to address common threats and develop joint actions, if needed. Both partners participate in the enhanced NATO Response Force (NRF) in a supplementary role and subject to national decisions. Additionally, both partners have signed a memorandum of understanding on Host Nation Support which, also following a national decision, allows for logistical support to Allied forces located on, or in transit through, their territory during exercises or in a crisis.

Key areas of cooperation

Finland’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

Building capabilities and interoperability

- Finland participates in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) and the Operational Capabilities Concept, two frameworks which assist the country with planning and evaluating the readiness of its contributions to NATO-led peace-support operations.
- Finland participates in NATO and PfP exercises and has declared a variety of infantry, engineering, naval, and air units as potentially available for exercises and operations.
- Finland regularly contributes to European Union (EU) Battlegroups, and is cooperating with other countries to develop a multinational rapid-reaction force for EU-led peace-support operations. Finland is also participating in the establishment of a multinational joint headquarters in Germany; a harbour protection system; and a deployable system for the surveillance of chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) agents.
- Finland participates in two strategic airlift initiatives: the Strategic Airlift Capability (SAC) programme and the Strategic Airlift International Solution (SALIS).
- In 2017, Finland created the Helsinki European Centre of Excellence for Countering Hybrid Threats. The centre is open to participating states and supported by NATO and the EU.
- Since 2014, under the Partnership Interoperability Initiative, Finland has participated in the Interoperability Platform, which brings Allies together with 24 selected partners that are active contributors to NATO’s operations.
- Finland and NATO signed a Political Framework Arrangement in 2017 for cooperation on cyber defence. The country also participates in the NATO Cooperative Cyber Defence Centre of Excellence, NATO cyber defence exercises, and all cyber-related ‘Smart Defence’ projects.
- In July 2001, NATO formally recognised the Finnish Defence Forces International Centre (FINCENT) as a PfP Training Centre. FINCENT provides training on military crisis management for staff employed by international organisations such as NATO, the United Nations (UN) and the EU.
- Finland has close ties with other Nordic countries and participates in Nordic Defence Cooperation (NORDEFCO), a regional defence initiative that promotes collaboration between Nordic armed forces.

Support for NATO-led operations and missions

- Finland first participated in a NATO-led operation in 1996 when it contributed a battalion to the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Bosnia and Herzegovina.
Since 2002, Finnish soldiers have been working alongside Allied forces in Afghanistan – first as part of the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF), which completed its mission at the end of 2014, and currently as part of the follow-on Resolute Support Mission (RSM) to further train, assist and advise the Afghan security forces and institutions. Finland has also contributed over USD 14 million to the Afghan National Army Trust Fund.

Finland provides personnel to the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Kosovo (KFOR).

**Wider cooperation**

Finland engages with NATO’s Civil Emergency Planning Committee and cooperates with Allies on regional assessments, security of supply, critical infrastructure protection, and in providing mutual support in dealing with the consequences of a major accident or disaster in the Euro-Atlantic area.

Finnish civil resources have been listed with NATO’s Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) and Finland has contributed to NATO’s pool of preparedness experts. Finland has also provided civil preparedness training to Allies and other partners.

Under NATO’s Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme, Finnish scientists have participated in numerous advanced research workshops and multi-year projects. Key areas of cooperation include cyber defence, explosives detection, identification of chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) agents, resilience capacity-building, and security-related advanced technology. One notable SPS project that Finland participated in was the establishment of a multinational telemedicine centre enabling medical specialists to provide real-time recommendations to first responders at emergency scenes or in combat zones.

Finland actively supports the implementation of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security (WPS), and since 2008 has developed successive National Action Plans in support of the WPS agenda.

Finland is an active supporter of NATO Trust Fund projects in other partner countries and has contributed to nearly a dozen so far, including many that fall under NATO’s Defence and Related Security Capacity Building (DCB) Initiative. Currently, it is supporting the DCB Trust Fund, and projects in Georgia, Jordan, the Republic of Moldova and Ukraine.
Relations with Georgia

Georgia is one of the Alliance’s closest partners. It aspires to join the Alliance. The country actively contributes to NATO-led operations and cooperates with the Allies and other partner countries in many other areas. Over time, a broad range of practical cooperation has developed between NATO and Georgia, which supports Georgia’s reform efforts and its goal of Euro-Atlantic integration.

 Shortly after Georgia regained independence in 1991, relations with NATO started in 1992, when the country joined the North Atlantic Cooperation Council. This forum for dialogue was succeeded in 1997 by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, which brings together all Allies and partner countries in the Euro-Atlantic area.

 Practical bilateral cooperation started when Georgia joined the Partnership for Peace (1994) and deepened after the “Rose Revolution” in 2003, when a new government pushed for more ambitious reforms.

 Allies agreed at the 2008 Bucharest Summit that Georgia will become a NATO member, provided it meets all necessary requirements – this decision has since been reconfirmed at successive NATO Summits.

 Following the Russia-Georgia crisis in August 2008, the Allies continue to support Georgia’s territorial integrity and sovereignty within its internationally recognised borders, and call on Russia to reverse its recognition of the Georgian regions of Abkhazia and South Ossetia as independent states.

 Since 2008, the NATO-Georgia Commission (NGC) provides the framework for close political dialogue and cooperation in support of reform efforts and Euro-Atlantic aspirations. In July 2018, Heads of State and Government met with Georgia and adopted a Declaration which marked the NGC’s tenth anniversary. Work is taken forward through the development and implementation of an Annual National Programme.
At the Wales Summit in September 2014, a substantial package of measures was launched to strengthen Georgia’s ability to defend itself and advance its preparations for membership. Further steps to help strengthen defence capabilities were taken at the NATO Summits in Warsaw in 2016 and in Brussels in 2018.

A NATO Liaison Office was established in Georgia in 2010 to support the country’s reform efforts and its programme of cooperation with NATO.

Georgia provides valued support for NATO-led operations, in particular in Afghanistan.

**Key areas of cooperation**

Georgia’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

**Building capabilities and interoperability**

- Since 2014, a Substantial NATO-Georgia Package (SNGP) is helping to strengthen Georgia’s ability to defend itself as well as to advance its preparations towards NATO membership. Strategic-level advice is being provided to the Georgian defence ministry and general staff in over a dozen specific areas of work by experts from NATO member states and partner countries. Since its launch, a number of initiatives have been added to the SNGP in particular crisis management and counter-mobility, as well as a deeper focus on security in the Black Sea region and NATO-Georgia cooperation in this domain.

- Participation in the Partnership for Peace ( PfP ) Planning and Review Process since 1999 has helped develop the ability of Georgian forces to work with NATO and provided planning targets that are key to security reform objectives in several areas.

- The work plan of the Military Committee with Georgia focuses on supporting implementation of military and defence-related cooperation, strategic planning and defence reforms, and increasing interoperability for deployment on NATO-led operations.

- Since 2009, the Defence Education Enhancement Programme is helping improve education and training, which is essential for Georgia’s defence reform efforts, focusing on the National Defence University and the four-year Military Academy, and supporting the Non-Commissioned Officer Training Centre.

- First launched in 2009, a Professional Development Programme for civilian personnel is strengthening the capacity for democratic management and oversight in the defence ministry and other security sector institutions.

- Georgia also participates in the Building Integrity Programme, which provides practical assistance and advice for strengthening integrity, accountability and transparency in the defence and security sector.

- A Defence Institution Building School has been established to make benefit of Georgia’s experience in reforms.

- A NATO-Georgia Joint Training and Evaluation Centre in Georgia hosts live and simulated training exercises and certification for military units from Allied and partner countries (the next NATO-Georgia exercise will be in March 2019). Another mountain training site is accredited as a Partnership Training and Education Centre.

- Since 2014 under the Partnership Interoperability Initiative, Georgia participates in the Interoperability Platform that brings Allies together with 24 partners that are active contributors to NATO’s operations. Georgia is also one of five countries which have enhanced opportunities for dialogue and cooperation with the Allies (known as ‘Enhanced Opportunity Partners’1) in recognition of their particularly significant contributions to NATO operations and other Alliance objectives.

- Georgia is also building capacity and interoperability through participation in the NATO Response Force.

1 Enhanced Opportunity Partners: Australia, Finland, Georgia, Jordan and Sweden
Support for NATO-led operations

- Georgia contributed troops to the Kosovo Force from 1999 to 2008, providing a company-sized unit as part of the German brigade and an infantry platoon within a Turkish battalion task force.

- Georgia was one of the largest non-NATO troop contributors to the International Security Assistance Force in Afghanistan, which completed its mission in 2014. It is currently one of the top overall contributors to the follow-on Resolute Support mission to train, advise and assist the Afghan forces. Georgia continues to offer transit for supplies destined for forces deployed in Afghanistan and has also pledged financial support for the further development of the Afghan National Security Forces.

- Georgia participated in Operation Active Endeavour, a counter-terrorist maritime surveillance operation in the Mediterranean, primarily through intelligence exchange. Since 2016, the country supports maritime situational awareness in the context of maritime Operation Sea Guardian.

Wider cooperation

- A number of Trust Fund projects supported by individual Allies and partner countries have helped Georgia to safely dispose of stockpiles of surplus and obsolete weapons and munitions, and to clear mines and unexploded munitions including from the ammunitions depot at Skra (near Gori).

- Georgia is strengthening its national civil preparedness and resilience with the support of NATO. Practical cooperation with the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) is also enhancing crisis management capabilities and interoperability, allowing Georgia to contribute to numerous international disaster relief efforts. The EADRCC has coordinated assistance to Georgia following an earthquake and forest fires.

- Georgia has been actively engaged in the Science for Peace and Security Programme since 1994. Today, scientists and experts from Georgia are working to address a wide range of security issues, notably in the fields of energy security, support to NATO-led operations, counter-terrorism and the Women, Peace and Security agenda.

- Georgian government and local non-governmental organisations seek to provide public information on NATO and its relations with Georgia, with the support of the NATO Liaison Office.

Response to the Russia-Georgia crisis

At an emergency meeting on 19 August 2008, NATO foreign ministers called for a peaceful and lasting solution to the conflict based on respect for Georgia’s independence, sovereignty and territorial integrity. They deplored the use of force, which is inconsistent with the commitments to the peaceful resolution of conflicts that both Georgia and Russia have made under the Partnership for Peace as well as other international agreements. The Allies expressed particular concern over Russia’s disproportionate military action, which is incompatible with its peacekeeping role in the breakaway regions of South Ossetia and Abkhazia, calling for the immediate withdrawal of its troops from the areas as required under the terms of the six-point agreement brokered by the European Union.

At Georgia’s request, the Allies agreed to provide support in a number of areas: assessing the damage to civil infrastructure and the state of the ministry of defence and armed forces; supporting the re-establishment of the air traffic system; and advising on cyber defence issues.

On 27 August 2008, the Allies condemned and called for the reversal of Russia’s decision to recognise the South Ossetia and Abkhazia regions of Georgia as independent states. They continue to support Georgia’s territorial integrity and sovereignty within its internationally recognised borders. They do not recognise elections that have since taken place in the breakaway regions, nor the signature of so-called treaties between Russia and these regions.

The Allies welcome Georgia’s efforts to seek a resolution to the crises with the regions of South Ossetia and Abkhazia through peaceful means. They also welcome the steps Georgia has taken unilaterally towards Russia in recent years.
Relations with Iraq

NATO and Iraq are engaged in political dialogue and practical cooperation aimed at developing the capacity of Iraq’s security forces, its defence and security institutions, and its national defence academies. Following the defeat of ISIL/Daesh in Iraq and the restoration of sovereign control of all its territory in late 2017, NATO is scaling up its training and advising efforts in Iraq at the government’s request.

Iraq is one of a range of countries beyond the Euro-Atlantic area – often referred to as “partners across the globe” – with which NATO is developing relations.

Relations with Iraq build on cooperation that developed through the NATO Training Mission in Iraq (NTM-I) from 2004 to 2011, during which 15,000 officers were trained.

In 2011, NATO agreed to grant Iraq partner status and a jointly agreed Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme was signed in September 2012, providing a framework for political dialogue and tailored cooperation.

At the 2014 NATO Summit, Allied leaders expressed readiness to consider undertaking measures with Iraq in the framework of NATO’s Defence and Related Security Capacity Building (DCB) Initiative.

At the request of the Iraqi government, NATO agreed in July 2015 on a package of defence capacity building measures to provide assistance in a number of priority areas where NATO could provide added value. The first phase of out-of-country training was launched in April 2016, with a ‘train-the-trainers’ course provided to 350 Iraqi officers in Jordan.
At the 2016 NATO Summit, Allied leaders decided to provide direct support to the Global Coalition to Defeat ISIL/Daesh with NATO AWACS surveillance aircraft. They also agreed to provide a training and capacity-building effort within Iraq, at the request of the Iraqi government.

In January 2017, a small Core Team of NATO civilian and military personnel was established in Baghdad to coordinate training and capacity-building activities in support of Iraqi security forces and institutions. Mobile security sector reform teams began to travel to Iraq to conduct training.

In May 2017, NATO became a full member of the Global Coalition to Defeat ISIL/Daesh, in which all individual Allies were already taking part.

NATO commended Iraqi security forces for defeating ISIL/Daesh in Iraq and restoring sovereign control over all of its territory in late 2017.

At the Brussels Summit in July 2018, Allied leaders launched a non-combat training and capacity-building mission in Iraq, in response to a request from the government of Iraq to scale up training and advising efforts. The NATO Mission Iraq is providing additional support to Iraq’s efforts to stabilise the country and fight terrorism.

More background information

Practical cooperation

Cooperation between NATO and Iraq is based on principles of respect for sovereignty, international law, joint ownership and mutual benefit. The partnership serves to anchor and bolster Iraq’s capacity to contribute constructively to regional security. It reflects NATO’s long-standing commitment to the development of Iraq’s capabilities to address shared challenges and threats.

NATO first began its relationship with Iraq by establishing a NATO Training Mission-Iraq (NTM-I) in 2004, at the request of the interim Iraqi government and in accordance with United Nations Security Council Resolution 1546, to help Iraq create effective armed forces by providing training and mentoring and donating equipment. From 2004 to 2011, NTM-I trained over 5,000 military personnel and over 10,000 police personnel in Iraq. Nearly 2,000 courses were provided in Allied countries. Over Euro 115 million worth of military equipment was donated and Euro 17.5 million in trust fund donations were provided from 26 Allies.

In April 2011, NATO agreed to grant Iraq partner status. Through a jointly agreed Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme (IPCP), NATO and Iraq undertook further efforts to develop the capacity of Iraq’s security and defence institutions. This programme provides a framework for political dialogue and for training cooperation in areas such as counter-terrorism, crisis management and critical energy infrastructure protection.

At the NATO Summit in Wales in 2014, Allied leaders reaffirmed their commitment to the NATO-Iraq partnership and expressed readiness to consider measures in the framework of NATO’s Defence and Related Security Capacity Building (DCB) Initiative. This initiative was launched to strengthen the Alliance’s contribution to international security, stability and conflict prevention. It is demand-driven and offers partners – at their request – assistance beyond what is available under existing programmes, building on NATO’s extensive expertise in providing advice, assistance, support, training, education and mentoring activities in the defence and related security sector.

Following a request from Prime Minister Al-Abadi, a DCB package for Iraq was agreed by Allies in July 2015. It includes assistance measures in the areas of countering improvised explosive devices (C-IED), explosive ordnance disposal and demining; military medicine and medical assistance; advice on security sector reform; civil-military planning support to operations; civil emergency planning and preparedness; cyber defence; and military training.

In 2016, 350 Iraqi officers were trained at the King Abdullah Special Operations Training Center in Jordan in the immediate priority areas of C-IED, military medicine and civil-military planning. Beginning with mobile team visits to Iraq in February 2016, NATO has also provided advice to Iraqi authorities on security sector reform.
At the NATO Summit in Warsaw in July 2016, Allied leaders agreed to provide a training and capacity-building effort within Iraq, alongside the ongoing training in Jordan. A NATO Core Team has been deployed to Baghdad and in-country training has been ongoing since January 2017. Key counterparts for NATO in Baghdad are the Ministry of Defence, the Ministry of Interior, the Counter-Terrorism Service and the Office of the National Security Advisor.

The focus of NATO’s efforts in Iraq is on areas agreed upon with the Iraqi authorities – tailored to the needs of the Iraqi security forces and institutions – and where NATO can provide added value. NATO’s training and capacity-building activities do not have a fixed duration. NATO Allies keep progress under regular review, in close consultation with the Iraqi authorities.

On the ground, NATO coordinates its efforts with a wide range of international actors – including the United Nations, the Global Coalition to Defeat ISIL/Daesh, the European Union and individual countries – to ensure complementarity with the activities of other members of the international community in support of Iraq’s long-term stability.

Since February 2018, NATO has been planning a non-combat training and capacity-building mission based on the request of the Iraqi government. The aim is to support Iraq in building and sustaining more effective, transparent and inclusive national security structures and institutions. This is key for the stability of Iraq and the wider region and is designed to help prevent the return of ISIS/Daesh.

The NATO Mission Iraq (NMI) was formally launched at the Brussels Summit in July 2018 and began its activities in the autumn. Building on earlier work with Iraq, the NMI’s work is expanding into additional schools and institutions. It involves around 500 trainers, advisers and support staff from Allies and partner countries, including Australia, Finland and Sweden. NATO only trains members of the Iraqi security forces under direct control of the government of Iraq. NMI will advise and train in the Baghdad area and in Iraqi military areas in Besmaya and Taji, and will not deploy personnel alongside Iraqi forces during combat operations.

### Milestones in relations

**22 June 2004:** Interim Iraqi Prime Minister Ilyad Allawi sends letter to NATO Secretary General requesting NATO support to his government through training and other forms of technical assistance.

**28 June 2004:** At NATO Summit in Istanbul, NATO heads of state and government agree to assist Iraq with training of its security forces on the day that sovereignty was formally transferred to an interim Iraqi government.

**30 July 2004:** NATO Training Implementation Mission is established to identify best methods for conducting training inside and outside Iraq. First elements deployed to Baghdad on 7 August followed by a team of 50 officers.

**22 September 2004:** North Atlantic Council agrees to expand NATO’s assistance to Iraq to include a NATO-supported Iraqi Training, Education and Doctrine Centre in Iraq.

**November 2004:** NATO military authorities prepare a detailed concept of operations for the expanded assistance, including rules of engagement for force protection.

**9 December 2004:** NATO foreign ministers authorise Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) to start next stage of the mission.

**16 December 2004:** SACEUR gives activation order paving the way to deploy an additional 300 trainers and support staff. The activation order also changes the mission name to NATO Training Mission-Iraq (NTM-I).

**End 2004:** NTM-I is now established, at the request of the Iraqi interim government and in accordance with United Nations Security Council Resolution 1546, to help Iraq create effective armed forces by providing training and mentoring, and donating equipment.

**February 2005:** NTM-I is fully staffed and funded.
2006: NATO Summit in Riga, Allied leaders agree to develop niche training options within the mandate of NTM-I.

2007: Allies decide to extend their training assistance to Iraq by including gendarmerie-type training of the federal police to bridge the gap between routine police work and military operations.

December 2008: NATO expands NTM-I to include navy and air force leadership training, defence reform, defence institution building and small arms and light weapons accountability, at the request of Iraqi Prime Minister Al-Maliki.

5 October 2010: In response to Iraqi Minister of Interior Bolani’s request, Italy announces its intention to provide specialised training in the area of oil policing to the Government of Iraq and as part of NTM-I.

April 2011: Allies agree to grant Iraq partner status.

31 December 2011: NTM-I is discontinued due to the lack of an agreement on the legal status of NATO troops operating in the country.

May 2012: Iraq officially submits its draft Individual Partnership Cooperation Programme (IPCP) to NATO.

June 2012: A temporary one-year NATO Transition Cell opens in Baghdad to ensure smooth transition from NTM-I to regular partnership programme and to assist the Iraqi government in establishing inter-agency mechanism to determine what capabilities the country needs to develop.

24 September 2012: NATO-Iraq IPCP is signed, focusing mainly on education and training, response to terrorism, countering improvised explosive devices, explosive ordnance disposal, and defence institution building.

31 July 2015: Following a request of the Iraqi government for assistance through the Defence and Related Security Capacity Building (DCB) Initiative, NATO Allies agree on DCB package, based on Iraqi requirements.

1 March 2016: NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg meets President Fouad Massoum and Prime Minister Al-Abadi during his first official visit to Iraq. He commends the success of Iraqi forces in pushing ISIL/Daesh back and welcomes the government’s ongoing efforts to build confidence across Iraq’s different communities, which is vital for the country’s long-term stability.

April 2016: Training for Iraqi security forces under DCB Initiative is launched in Jordan, with 350 officers being trained between April and December 2016.

19 May 2016: NATO foreign ministers agree that NATO should do more to project stability beyond the Alliance’s borders by training local forces to secure their own territory and push back against extremist groups.

July 2016: At NATO Summit in Warsaw, Allied leaders respond positively to a request from Iraqi Prime Minister Al-Abadi, agreeing to start training and advising Iraqi security forces and institutions in Iraq, alongside training of Iraqi officers and non-commissioned officers out of the country.

July 2016: Also at Warsaw, Allied leaders decide to provide direct support to the Global Coalition to Defeat ISIL/Daesh with NATO AWACS surveillance aircraft.

18 October 2016: Iraqi Foreign Minister Dr Ibrahim Al-Jaafari visits NATO Headquarters for talks with NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg on the Alliance’s support to Iraq as well as political and security developments, including the ongoing fight to liberate Mosul.

25 May 2017: NATO joins Global Coalition to defeat ISIL/Daesh.

January 2017: NATO Core Team is deployed to Baghdad to coordinate in-country training and capacity-building activities.

November 2017: Iraqi government announces victory against terrorist ISIL/Daesh and regains control of its territory, liberating more than 7.5 million people from Daesh oppression.
22 January 2018: US Secretary of Defense James Mattis sends letter of request, on behalf of Global Coalition to Defeat ISIL/Daesh, for NATO to scale up current training and advising activities in Iraq, with the aim to transition to a mission by the NATO Summit in Brussels in July 2018.

February 2018: The Iraq Reconstruction conference in Kuwait is attended by 70 countries and international organisations as well as 2,000 private sector companies, mobilising nearly USD 300 million to support reconstruction.

February 2018: At request of Iraqi government and Global Coalition to Defeat ISIS/Daesh, NATO defence ministers agree to start planning for a NATO training mission in Iraq to make current training efforts more sustainable.

5 March 2018: During his second official visit to Iraq, NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg meets Iraqi President and Prime Minister and visits NATO’s training facilities in Besmaya.


11 July 2018: At the Brussels Summit, Allied leaders launch a non-combat training and capacity-building mission in Iraq. The NATO Mission Iraq will provide additional support to Iraq’s efforts to stabilise the country and fight terrorism.
Relations with Ireland

Ireland cooperates with NATO in a variety of areas, including peace-support operations. An important focus is to work together to develop military capabilities and improve the interoperability of the Irish armed forces with Allied and other partners’ armed forces in NATO, EU and UN-led missions.

- NATO fully respects Ireland’s longstanding policy of military neutrality, which allows for its armed forces to be used for peacekeeping and crisis management operations where there is a UN mandate, a government decision and parliamentary approval.
- Relations with Ireland began in 1997, when Ireland deployed personnel in support of the NATO-led peacekeeping operation in Bosnia and Herzegovina.
- In 1999, Ireland joined NATO’s Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, a multilateral forum for dialogue which brings together all Allies and partner countries in the Euro-Atlantic area.
- Cooperation between NATO and Ireland is governed by Ireland’s Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme (IPCP), which is jointly agreed for a two-year period.
- Ireland contributes actively to a variety of PfP activities in areas such as generic planning for peacekeeping and peace support, operational procedures, logistics and training. The Irish Defence Forces also operate a UN peacekeeping school, which offers courses that are open to Allies and partners.
Key areas of cooperation

Ireland's cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

Building capabilities and interoperability

- Ireland’s participation in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) is aimed at enhancing the ability of the Irish Defence Forces to take part in multinational peace-support operations, including those led by the UN and EU. The PARP helps Ireland improve its capabilities and develop interoperability with Allies and other partners.

- Participation in the PARP also supports Ireland’s efforts to meet capability goals in the EU framework.

- Since 2014, under the Partnership Interoperability Initiative, Ireland has participated in the Interoperability Platform, which brings Allies together with 24 selected partners that are active contributors to NATO’s operations.

Support for NATO-led operations and missions

- Ireland began contributing to the NATO-led Kosovo peacekeeping force (KFOR) in 1999 and has provided a truck cargo support company, an infantry company and staff officers. Additionally, Ireland was in command of Multinational Task Force Centre from 2007 to 2008.

- Irish staff officers and non-commissioned officers worked alongside Allied forces in Afghanistan from 2002 to 2016. Firstly, Ireland participated in NATO’s International Security Assistance Force (ISAF), which completed its mission at the end of 2014. Subsequently, Ireland was part of the follow-on Resolute Support Mission (RSM) until spring 2016 to further train, assist and advise the Afghan security forces.

Wider cooperation

- Ireland has contributed to a large number of NATO Trust Fund projects in other partner countries. These have included the destruction of mines in Montenegro and Serbia, the destruction of ammunition for small arms and light weapons in Albania, Montenegro, Serbia and Ukraine, and the removal of dangerous chemicals in the Republic of Moldova.

- Under the Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme, scientists from Ireland have participated in numerous advanced research workshops and seminars on a range of topics, including science in the policy-making process, suicide bombing, and security and culture.

- Ireland has world-class expertise in countering improvised explosive devices (IEDs) and has provided its expertise through a number of programmes. Since 2010, the Irish Defence Forces Ordnance School has offered counter-IED training to Allies and partners. Since 2015, the school has also offered a course on countering marauding terrorist attacks (C-MTA), which provides counter-terrorism training to commanders from Allied and partner armed forces.

- Ireland has emphasised the importance of women’s participation in the conflict-resolution and peace-building process, and has helped many countries develop national action plans on the Women, Peace and Security (WPS) agenda. In 2016, Ireland hosted a NATO-sponsored conference on WPS implementation and continues to be very active in this domain within the Alliance.
Relations with Japan

NATO and Japan are currently strengthening relations to address shared security challenges. Stabilising Afghanistan has been a key focus of cooperation over the past decade.

NATO and Japan have been engaged in dialogue and cooperation since initial contacts in the early 1990s. Japan is one of a range of countries beyond the Euro-Atlantic area – often referred to as "partners across the globe" – with which NATO is developing relations.

NATO and Japan signalled their commitment to strengthening cooperation in a joint political declaration signed in April 2013.

Since 2014, work is being taken forward through an Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme.

Practical cooperation is being developed in a wide range of areas, including cyber defence, maritime security, humanitarian assistance and disaster relief, non-proliferation, defence science and technology, and women, peace and security.

Key areas of cooperation

Japan’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

Building capabilities and interoperability

- Since 2014 under the Partnership Interoperability Initiative, Japan participates in the Interoperability Platform that brings Allies together with 24 partners.
Japan is particularly interested in training and developing interoperability in the area of maritime security. Its Japan Maritime Self-Defense Force training squadron has trained with NATO ships, for example, off the coast of Spain and, most recently, in the Baltic Sea. Japan has designated a liaison officer to NATO’s Maritime Command.

Support for NATO-led operations and missions

- Japan has provided much-valued support for the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) and for wider reconstruction and development efforts in Afghanistan. It helped to mobilise international support for Afghanistan by organising the Tokyo Conference in July 2012 and itself pledging US$5 billion to this end over a five-year period (2009-2013). Earlier, Japan supported efforts to disarm, demobilise and reintegrate former combatants, and to reintegrate insurgents under the Afghanistan Peace and Reintegration Program. It also generously supports various initiatives including human security projects at grass roots level in several regions of Afghanistan; the United Nations’ Law and Order Trust Fund for Afghanistan, mainly to help finance the salaries and training of Afghan police; and the Afghan National Army Trust Fund.

- In the 1990s, Japan played a role in stabilising the Balkans, where NATO has led several peace-support operations since the mid-1990s. As a major donor nation, it contributed to the successful recovery of the Balkans region and its reintegration into the European mainstream.

Wider cooperation

- Japan has made generous contributions to Trust Fund projects in various partner countries which aimed to enhance stockpile management and physical security of ammunitions in Afghanistan and Tajikistan; destroy dangerous stocks of pesticides in Moldova; and clear an ammunition depot in Georgia as well as contaminated land in Azerbaijan. Most recently, Japan contributed to NATO’s Medical Rehabilitation Trust Fund for Ukraine.

- Japan’s participation in the Science for Peace and Security Programme has included developing technologies to enhance border and port security; infrared detection; and resilience to chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear agents.

- Reflecting Japan’s interest in developing cooperation in cyber defence, it has contributed an expert to work at the Cooperative Cyber Defence Centre of Excellence.

- Japan seeks to support the Women, Peace and Security (WPS) agenda and contributes an officer to work in the office of the Secretary General’s Special Representative for WPS.
Relations with Kazakhstan

NATO and Kazakhstan actively cooperate on democratic, institutional and defence reforms, and have developed practical cooperation in many other areas.

- Relations with Kazakhstan started in 1992, when the country joined the North Atlantic Cooperation Council. This forum for dialogue was succeeded in 1997 by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, which brings together all Allies and partner countries in the Euro-Atlantic area.
- Practical cooperation began when Kazakhstan joined the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme in 1995.
- Kazakhstan sets out its reform plans and timelines in its Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP), which is agreed for a two-year period. NATO supports Kazakhstan in achieving these reform goals by providing focused, country-specific advice and assistance.
- The NATO Secretary General’s Special Representative for the Caucasus and Central Asia conducts high-level political dialogue with Kazakhstan’s authorities through regular visits to the country.
Key areas of cooperation

Kazakhstan’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

Building capabilities and interoperability

- Kazakhstan’s participation in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) since 2002 has helped develop the interoperability between elements of its armed forces and those of NATO Allies. Joint work continues on the further development of a peacekeeping regiment to work alongside NATO Allies.

- Kazakhstan plays an active role in both hosting and participating in PfP training and exercises. Since 2006, in cooperation with NATO Allies and regional partners, Kazakhstan has hosted annual military exercises called “Steppe Eagle”.

- Kazakhstan’s PfP Training Centre (KAZCENT) was accredited by NATO as a Partnership Training and Education Centre in December 2010. KAZCENT offers annual courses open to Allies and partner countries on military English, NATO staff procedures, and a familiarisation course on the history, economy, and culture of Central Asia and Afghanistan. Moreover, two United Nations courses were certified in 2018.

- NATO’s Defence Education Enhancement Programme (DEEP) began working in Kazakhstan in 2007 with the Kazakhstan National Defence University, helping ensure that programmes and methodologies meet international standards. Cooperation was later expanded to include KAZCENT, the Non-Commissioned Officer Training Centre and the Army Defence Institute. DEEP programmes in support of KAZCENT, the Non-Commissioned Officer Training Centre, and the Army Defence Institute have all successfully concluded, while support for the National Defence University remains ongoing.

- Since 2014, under the Partnership Interoperability Initiative, Kazakhstan has participated in the Interoperability Platform, which brings Allies together with 24 selected partners that are active contributors to NATO’s operations.

Wider cooperation

- Kazakhstan is enhancing its national civil preparedness and disaster management capabilities in cooperation with NATO, and through participation in activities organised by the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC). Kazakhstan participated in five consequence management field exercises (2003-2012) and the country hosted the EADRCC’s “ZHETS-YU” exercise near Almaty in 2009. Kazakhstan also offered assistance to Allies and partner nations affected by natural and man-made disasters, following eight urgent EADRCC requests for international assistance.

- Kazakhstan has been actively engaged within the framework of the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme since 1993. At present, the leading areas for cooperation include environmental security and defence against chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear agents.

- Increasing public awareness of NATO and the benefits of its relations with Kazakhstan is also an important area of cooperation.
Relations with the Republic of Korea

NATO and the Republic of Korea are currently strengthening relations to address shared security challenges. Stabilising Afghanistan has been an important focus of cooperation in recent years.

NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg and the President of the Republic of Korea, Moon Jae-in (November 2017)

- NATO and the Republic of Korea have been engaged in dialogue and cooperation since 2005. It is one of a range of countries beyond the Euro-Atlantic area – often referred to as “partners across the globe” – with which NATO is developing relations.
- Since 2012, work is being taken forward through an Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme, which was renewed most recently in November 2017.
- Beyond cooperation in Afghanistan, political dialogue and practical cooperation are being developed across priority areas, including non-proliferation, cyber defence and counter-terrorism, security-related civil science projects, and civil preparedness and disaster relief.

Key areas of cooperation

The Republic of Korea’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

Building capabilities and interoperability
- Since 2014 under the Partnership Interoperability Initiative, the Republic of Korea participates in the Interoperability Platform that brings Allies together with 24 partners.
- The country is interested in improving mutual understanding and interoperability through exchanges of civilian and military personnel, participation in education, joint training and exercises, and cooperation in the field of standardization and logistics.
Support for NATO-led operations and missions

- The Republic of Korea is a significant contributor to stabilisation efforts in Afghanistan. From 2010 to 2013, as part of the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force, the country led an integrated civilian-military Provincial Reconstruction Team of some 470 personnel in Parwan Province, which helped build the capacity of the provincial government in the areas of health, education, rural development and governance. The Republic of Korea has also been a generous contributor to the Afghan National Army Trust Fund, with donations amounting to US$200 million to date. Moreover, the country is providing financial support for the socio-economic development of Afghanistan, having contributed US$500 million during the 2011-2016 period and pledged an additional US$255 million in 2016 at NATO’s Summit in Warsaw and the Brussels Afghanistan Conference.

- Cooperating with NATO in countering the threat of piracy in the Gulf of Aden, the naval forces of the Republic of Korea have provided escorts to merchant vessels passing through the waters off the Horn of Africa.

Wider cooperation

- NATO and the Republic of Korea continue to cooperate in the area of non-proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and their means of delivery. The Allies fully support the goal of complete, verifiable and irreversible denuclearisation of the Korean Peninsula. At the 2018 NATO Summit in Brussels, they welcomed the recent meetings and declarations between the leaders of the Republic of Korea and the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea (DPRK), and between the leaders of the United States and the DPRK, as a contribution towards reaching the final fully verified denuclearisation of the DPRK in a peaceful manner. The Allies also reiterated their strong condemnation of the DPRK’s provocative rhetoric and actions, which pose a serious threat to regional and international peace, security and stability.

- The Republic of Korea’s participation in the Science for Peace and Security Programme has included a multi-year project to improve cyber defence through cloud technology and a project aimed at developing new compact sensor systems for unmanned aerial vehicles.
Relations with the Kyrgyz Republic

NATO and the Kyrgyz Republic have developed practical cooperation in multiple areas, with the goal of enhancing regional and global security. Key areas of cooperation include security and peacekeeping, defence education reform and building integrity.

Highlights

- Relations with Kyrgyzstan started in 1992, when the country joined the North Atlantic Cooperation Council. This forum for dialogue was succeeded in 1997 by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, which brings together all Allies and partner countries in the Euro-Atlantic area.
- Practical cooperation began when Kyrgyzstan joined the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme in 1994.
- Objectives for cooperation are set out in the country’s Individual Partnership Cooperation Programme (IPCP), which is jointly agreed every two years.
- The NATO Secretary General’s Special Representative for the Caucasus and Central Asia conducts high-level political dialogue with Kyrgyz authorities.

Key areas of cooperation

Kyrgyzstan’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

Building capabilities and interoperability

- Kyrgyzstan participates in numerous PfP activities. The Kyrgyz government has identified a number of units and works towards enhancing their interoperability in view of possible future deployment in a United Nations (UN) peacekeeping operation.
Under NATO’s Defence Education Enhancement Programme (DEEP), Kyrgyzstan cooperates with NATO experts to reform its military education system and introduce Western approaches and standards, especially in the field of teaching and learning methodologies.

Since 2015, Kyrgyzstan has participated in the NATO Building Integrity (BI) programme, a capacity-building programme aimed at strengthening integrity, transparency and accountability in defence establishments.

Wider cooperation

The Kyrgyz Republic has been engaged with the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme since 1993. Leading areas for cooperation have included environmental security, cyber defence and counter-terrorism.

Kyrgyzstan and NATO work together to increase public understanding of NATO and the benefits of cooperation, including by increasing public access to NATO and security-related documents at the NATO Depository Library at the Diplomatic Academy in Bishkek.

Kyrgyzstan also participates in a NATO-supported retraining programme for released military personnel. The goal of the programme is to cushion the socio-economic consequences of the country’s restructuring armed forces by facilitating the re-entry of former military personnel into the civilian job market.
Relations with Malta

NATO values its relations with Malta, which shares the fundamental partnership principles of protecting and promoting human rights, and safeguarding freedom, justice and peace through democracy.

NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg with Maltese Prime Minister Joseph Muscat (Valletta, 26 April 2017)

- NATO fully respects Malta’s policy of neutrality.
- Malta first joined the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme in 1995. It suspended participation in 1996 but reactivated its PfP membership in 2008. Malta recognises that it can help address emerging security challenges and contribute to international peace, security and stability through the PfP framework.
- Malta is a member of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC), a forum for dialogue which brings together all Allies and partner countries in the Euro-Atlantic area.
- Participation in the PfP programme is compatible with Malta’s commitment to the principle of neutrality.
- Areas of cooperation and specific events in which Malta wishes to participate within the PfP framework are detailed in its Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme (IPCP), which is jointly agreed with NATO.
**Key areas of cooperation**

Malta’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

**Building capabilities and interoperability**

- Malta is considering future participation in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP). This process would form a basis for identifying and evaluating select national elements of the armed forces, which could provide capabilities that might be made available for multinational training, exercises and peace-support operations.

- Malta is also seeking to develop cooperation in promoting transparency in defence planning and budgeting, in assuring democratic control of the armed forces, in arms control and in the improvement of anti- and counter-terrorism capabilities.

- Malta has worked with Allies and other partner countries on issues such as border security in the Mediterranean region, and may also consider working with them to possibly enhance maritime search-and-rescue operational capabilities, as well as further develop maritime law enforcement and airspace management.

- Malta has much to offer the Alliance as its partnership with NATO develops. The country has special expertise in international maritime law, diplomatic studies and search and rescue, as well as in Arabic culture and language training.

**Wider cooperation**

- Malta participates in NATO’s Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme. The country has hosted advanced research workshops and Maltese scientists have been part of SPS projects related to undersea fibre optic cables and quantum computing, among other topics.
Relations with the Republic of Moldova

Moldova cooperates with NATO on a range of issues. The main focus of NATO's cooperation with Moldova is to support the country's efforts to reform and modernise its defence and security structures and institutions. Moldova is also a valued contributor to the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Kosovo.

- Moldova is constitutionally neutral but seeks to draw closer to Euro-Atlantic standards and institutions. NATO fully respects Moldova's constitutional neutrality.
- Relations with NATO started in 1992, when Moldova joined the North Atlantic Cooperation Council. This forum for dialogue was succeeded in 1997 by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, which brings together all Allies and partner countries in the Euro-Atlantic area.
- Bilateral cooperation started when Moldova joined the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme in 1994. The focus on support for reform has increased progressively since 2006, when the country agreed its first two-year Individual Partnership Action Plan.
- At the NATO Summit in Wales in September 2014, Allied leaders offered to strengthen support, advice and assistance to Moldova through the new Defence and Related Security Capacity Building Initiative. A tailored package of measures was agreed in June 2015.
- At the request of the Moldovan government, a civilian NATO Liaison Office in Chisinau was established in December 2017 to promote practical cooperation and facilitate support for the country's reforms.
- Moldova has contributed troops to the Kosovo Force (KFOR) since March 2014.
- NATO has no direct role in the conflict resolution process in the region of Transnistria. However, the Allies closely follow developments in the region and fully expect Russia to abide by its international obligations, including respecting the territorial integrity of neighbouring countries and their right to choose their own security agreements.
Key areas of cooperation

Moldova’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

Building capabilities and interoperability

- NATO provides tailored support for Moldova’s defence reform and modernisation efforts through the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) and, since 2015, with assistance under the Defence and Related Security Capacity Building (DCB) Initiative.
- Through the Defence Education Enhancement Programme (DEEP), NATO provides advice on how to build, develop and reform educational institutions to help Moldova build a professional military education system, with university degrees and specialised courses offered by Moldova’s Military Academy and its Continuous Training Centre.
- Participation in the Building Integrity (BI) programme helps Moldova reduce the risk of corruption in its defence and security sector, and strengthen integrity, accountability, transparency and good governance by providing training and education to civilian and military staff.
- Increasing the interoperability of the Moldovan Armed Forces is also a priority. Through a rigorous evaluation and feedback programme, the Operational Capabilities Concept (OCC) is assisting designated Moldovan units to achieve full interoperability and meet NATO standards, so that they can be made available for peacekeeping or crisis management operations.
- Since 2014, under the Partnership Interoperability Initiative, Moldova has participated in the Interoperability Platform, which brings Allies together with 24 selected partners that are active contributors to NATO’s operations.

Support for NATO-led operations and missions

- Over 40 Moldovan troops, including an infantry manoeuvre platoon and an explosive ordnance disposal team, are deployed in support of the Kosovo Force (KFOR), where they are gaining further experience of working with Allies and other partners in the field.

Wider cooperation

- From 2007 to 2018, a NATO Trust Fund project helped Moldova safely dispose of 1,269 tonnes of banned pesticides and dangerous chemicals.
- Current cooperation under the Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme focuses on defence against chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear agents, as well as activities on cyber defence, counter-terrorism and border security. For example, NATO has helped Moldova set up a cyber defence laboratory at the Technical University of Moldova and a mobile biological laboratory to counter threats from biological agents like anthrax.
- Also with assistance from the SPS Programme, the Moldovan government developed its first multi-agency National Action Plan in March 2018 to promote the role of women in defence and security. This contributes to the implementation of the Women, Peace and Security agenda set out in United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 and related resolutions.
- Moldova is developing its national civil emergency and disaster management capabilities through participation in activities organised by NATO’s Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre. Allies have also supported Moldova in establishing a civil crisis information system to coordinate the response of national authorities to emergencies.
- NATO assists Moldova by providing support for the training of public information specialists within the country’s armed forces. Furthermore, the NATO Liaison Office plays an important role in providing public information on NATO and explaining the support being provided to Moldova.
Relations with Mongolia

Over recent years, NATO has developed relations with a range of countries beyond the Euro-Atlantic area. Mongolia is counted among these countries, which are referred to as “partners across the globe.” Building on cooperation in peace-support operations that has developed since 2005, NATO and Mongolia agreed to further develop relations by launching an Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme.

In a spirit of mutual benefit and reciprocity, NATO’s partnership with Mongolia aims to promote common understanding through consultation and cooperation. Based on a shared commitment to peace, democracy, human rights, rule of law and international security, Mongolia and NATO adopted in March 2012 an Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme (IPCP) which sets out plans to enhance interoperability, address global security issues, develop mechanisms for crisis prevention and management, and build capacity.

Recent political engagement has served to identify the strategic priorities for the development of partnership relations. Mongolia has hosted high-level NATO delegations, such as those led by Director General of the International Military Staff LtGen Juergen Bornemann in September 2011 and by Deputy Assistant Secretary General James Appathurai in May 2011. In November 2010, President Tsakhia Elbegdorj attended the Lisbon Summit. These exchanges provided opportunities to discuss NATO-Mongolia cooperation and Mongolia’s current and future involvement in international crisis management.

In addition to promoting political dialogue at various levels and formats, the two-year IPCP with Mongolia foresees practical cooperation in the fields of training and education, science, emerging security challenges, public diplomacy, and peace-support operations.

Mongolia has contributed troops to the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan since March 2010, when it first deployed an infantry platoon to ISAF’s Regional Command
North. The country also supports the Training Mission in Afghanistan with infantry, artillery and air mentor trainers. In addition, Mongolia participated in the NATO-led Kosovo Force (KFOR) from December 2005 to March 2007.

To further enhance the interoperability of its armed forces with NATO forces, Mongolia plans to exchange best practices, participate in a wide range of NATO courses and training activities, and consider the possibility of select forces taking part in the Operational Capabilities Concept. The Mongolian Five Hills Peace Support Operations Training Centre has been recognised as part of the network of Partnership Training and Education Centres, since August 2014.

Cooperation in the area of emerging security challenges focuses in particular on counter-terrorism, non-proliferation and cyber defence. Proposals for cooperation in the field of science and technology – notably through the Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme – include the rehabilitation of former military sites and the development of resilience and security in information communications technology.
Relations with New Zealand

NATO and New Zealand are strengthening relations to address shared security challenges. New Zealand has made valuable contributions to NATO-led efforts in Afghanistan and in the fight against piracy.

NATO and New Zealand have been engaged in dialogue and cooperation since 2001. New Zealand is one of a range of countries beyond the Euro-Atlantic area – often referred to as “partners across the globe” – with which NATO is developing relations.

Since 2012, work is being taken forward through an Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme.

New Zealand currently provides support for NATO-led defence capacity-building efforts in Afghanistan and also seeks to continue cooperation in the maritime security sphere.

NATO and New Zealand are deepening joint work in areas of common interest, including science and technology, maritime security, cyber defence, counter-terrorism, and furthering the Women, Peace and Security agenda.

Key areas of cooperation

New Zealand’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

Building capabilities and interoperability

Since 2014 under the Partnership Interoperability Initiative, New Zealand participates in the Interoperability Platform that brings Allies together with 24 partners.
An important focus of cooperation is to develop capability between NATO and New Zealand and to project stability and build capacity in others. This includes participation in operations, exercises, training, exchanges of information, personnel and lessons learnt, as well as involvement in development of standards and science and technology cooperation.

Support for NATO-led operations and missions

New Zealand made a significant contribution to the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan, which completed its mission in December 2014. It led a Provincial Reconstruction Team in Bamyan Province. New Zealand currently contributes to the Resolute Support Mission to train, advise and assist Afghan security forces and institutions.

- New Zealand has also contributed twice to NATO’s past maritime counter-piracy operation off the Horn of Africa, Ocean Shield.

- Several New Zealand officers served in the NATO-led Stabilisation Force (SFOR) in Bosnia and Herzegovina.
Relations with the Republic of North Macedonia

At the Brussels Summit in July 2018, Allies invited the Republic of North Macedonia to begin accession talks to join NATO. Key areas of cooperation include democratic, institutional, security sector and defence reforms. The country actively supports the NATO-led missions in Afghanistan and Kosovo.

- The country was previously known as the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. Since 15 February 2019, following full implementation of an agreement between Athens and Skopje on the issue of the country’s name, it is now officially recognised as the Republic of North Macedonia.
- The country joined NATO’s Partnership for Peace (PfP) in 1995.
- In 1999, the country joined the Membership Action Plan, which sets out its reform plans and timelines in an Annual National Programme.
- At the Brussels Summit in July 2018, Allies welcomed the historic agreement between Athens and Skopje on the solution of the name issue and invited the government in Skopje to begin accession talks to join NATO. Allies also urged further progress on important reforms before and after accession.
- Following the signature by the Allies, on 6 February 2019, of the Accession Protocol of the Republic of North Macedonia, it now has to be ratified by each of the 29 Allies according to national procedures.
- For many years, the country has provided valuable support to NATO-led operations and missions in Afghanistan and Kosovo.
NATO provided assistance when violence between ethnic Albanian insurgents and security forces broke out in the west of the country in February 2001.

A NATO military headquarters created in Skopje during the operational period of the NATO-led intervention in Kosovo has since been downsized and transformed into a NATO Liaison Office, which assists with security sector reform and host nation support to the Kosovo Force. A NATO Advisory Team is located within the country’s defence ministry.

The road to accession

The Allies are committed to keeping NATO’s door open to Western Balkan partners that wish to join the Alliance, share its values and are willing and able to assume the responsibilities and obligations of membership. Euro-Atlantic integration is seen as the best way to ensure long-term, self-sustaining security and stability in the region.

At the April 2008 Bucharest Summit, Allies agreed that an invitation to join the Alliance would be extended to the country (at the time known as the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia) as soon as a mutually acceptable solution to the issue over its name has been reached with Greece. This agreement was consistently reiterated at subsequent Summits.

At the July 2018 Brussels Summit, Allied leaders welcomed the historic agreement between Athens and Skopje on the solution of the name issue. In line with NATO policy, they decided to invite the government in Skopje to begin accession talks to join the Alliance.

Following the signature by the Allies of the Accession Protocol of the Republic of North Macedonia, the country can now take part in NATO activities as an invitee. Once the Protocol has been ratified in the capitals of each of the 29 Allies, according to national procedures, the country will become a member of NATO.

An important condition for the successful conclusion of the NATO accession process was full implementation of all prescribed internal procedures with respect to the agreement on the solution of the name issue – these procedures were completed by 15 February 2019.

The Allies continue to encourage and support the continuation of reform efforts within the country, particularly with a view to ensuring effective democratic dialogue, media freedom, judicial independence and a fully functioning multi-ethnic society.

Key areas of cooperation

The Republic of North Macedonia’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

Building capabilities and interoperability

- An important focus of cooperation is to develop the ability of North Macedonia’s forces to work together with forces from NATO countries and other partners, especially in peacekeeping and crisis-management operations. Participation in joint planning, training and military exercises is essential in this regard.

- Participation in the PfP Planning and Review Process since 1999 has also helped develop interoperability, as well as providing planning targets that are key to security reform and transformation objectives for the country’s armed forces.

- In 2005, the country joined the Operational Capabilities Concept, a mechanism through which units available for operations can be evaluated and better integrated with NATO forces to increase operational effectiveness.

- Participation in the Defence Education Enhancement Programme is helping improve education and training, which is essential for the country’s defence reform efforts.

- Through participation in the Building Integrity Programme, North Macedonia is working to strengthen good governance in the defence and security sector, and reduce risks of corruption by strengthening transparency and accountability.
In 2013, the country’s Public Affairs Regional Centre in Skopje was recognised as a Partnership Training and Education Centre, opening its activities to Allies and partners.

**Support for NATO-led operations**

- North Macedonia deployed troops in support of the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force in Afghanistan from 2002 to end 2014. It is currently supporting the follow-on Resolute Support mission to train, advise and assist the Afghan security forces.

- The country was a key partner in supporting NATO-led stabilisation operations in Kosovo in 1999, as NATO forces deployed North Macedonia to halt the spread of the conflict as well as to provide logistical support to the Kosovo Force (KFOR). The Allies also provided humanitarian assistance to help the North Macedonia deal with the flood of refugees from Kosovo. The country continues to provide valuable host nation support to KFOR troops transiting its territory.

**Wider cooperation**

- North Macedonia supports implementation of the Women, Peace and Security agenda.

- The country is strengthening its national civil preparedness and resilience with the support of NATO. Practical cooperation with the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) is also enhancing crisis management capabilities and interoperability.

- North Macedonia has been actively engaged with the NATO Science for Peace and Security Programme since 1998. Recent activities have focused in particular on cyber defence and counter-terrorism, defence against chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear agents, and environmental security.

- National government and local non-governmental organisations seek to provide public information on NATO and its relations with North Macedonia, with the support of NATO, its Liaison Office, as well as individual Allies and partner countries.
Relations with the OSCE

The Organization for Security and Co-Operation in Europe (OSCE) is an important partner for NATO. Allies attach great importance to the role of the OSCE in fostering dialogue, building trust, and upholding the rules-based international order. The OSCE establishes the principles that govern international relations in the Euro-Atlantic area and embodies a comprehensive approach to human security. The two organisations play complementary roles in building security and maintaining stability in the Euro-Atlantic area. Both support the principles that underpin the European security order. Both also acknowledge the need for a coherent and comprehensive approach to crisis management, which requires effective application of both military and civilian means.

NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg meeting with OSCE Secretary General Thomas Greminger on the margins of the meeting of the UN General Assembly (Sept 2017)

Highlights

- NATO and the OSCE cooperate at both the political and operational levels in a range of areas including: conflict prevention and resolution; post-conflict rehabilitation including border security; countering the proliferation of small arms and light weapons, and arms control; promoting the Women, Peace and Security agenda; counter-terrorism; and addressing emerging security challenges.
- At the political level, NATO and the OSCE exchange views on thematic and regional security issues of common interest through exchanges by senior leadership, direct cooperation and regular staff-to-staff talks.
- The two organisations complement each other’s efforts in the field: NATO initiatives to support defence reform, mine clearance and the destruction of stockpiles of arms and munitions, dovetail with OSCE efforts aiming to build peace and stability (successful examples of such cooperation include Central Asia, the Western Balkans and South Caucasus).
At recent summits, the Allies have reiterated the importance of the OSCE’s role in regional security and as a forum for dialogue on issues relevant to Euro-Atlantic security, not least on arms control and disarmament.

NATO Allies fully support the promotion of arms control, military transparency, and confidence- and security-building measures through the modernisation of all of the political-military tools in the OSCE toolbox, especially the Vienna Document.

The Alliance aims to further enhance NATO’s cooperation with the OSCE as decided at the Warsaw Summit. A permanent liaison presence has been established to that effect in Vienna.

**More background information**

### Arms control

NATO attaches great importance to conventional arms control and provides an essential consultative and decision-making forum for its members on all aspects of arms control and disarmament. (see more on NATO’s role in conventional arms control)

### Political dialogue

NATO and the OSCE conduct regular dialogue and meetings at all levels. These contacts include meetings between the Secretary Generals of the two organisations, meetings with the OSCE Chairperson-in-Office, and attendance at the OSCE Ministerial Councils and Summits. NATO civilian and military staff also regularly brief the Forum for Security Co-operation, OSCE Security Days, and other events, upon invitation, on NATO programmes, policy and plans.

Since 1998, NATO and OSCE secretariats hold regular staff-to-staff talks (currently twice per year). These talks provide an opportunity to deepen and further develop staff contacts, as well as to exchange views and information on security-related issues of mutual interest, such as border security, security sector reform, non-proliferation, disarmament, arms control, controlling the spread of small arms and light weapons, mine action, energy security, cyber security, counter-terrorism, and the implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 on Women, Peace and Security. Through the Environment and Security Initiative (ENVSEC)¹, the two organisations also cooperate on environmental issues that are a threat to security, stability and peace.

### Cooperation in the Western Balkans and other regions

Practical cooperation between the OSCE and NATO is best exemplified by the complementary missions that have been undertaken by both organisations in the Western Balkans.

Within the framework of operations conducted in the Western Balkans region, representatives from both organisations in the field have met regularly to share information and discuss various aspects of their cooperation.

**Bosnia and Herzegovina**

In 1996, further to the Dayton Agreements and the adoption of UNSCR 1031 in December 1995, NATO and the OSCE developed a joint action programme in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The NATO-led Implementation Force (IFOR) and its successor, the Stabilisation Force (SFOR), have provided vital support for the implementation of the civilian aspects of the peace agreements.

¹ The NATO Science for Peace and Security Programme is associated with the ENVSEC, which brings together NATO, the OSCE, the Regional Environmental Center, the UN Development Programme, the UN Economic Commission for Europe and the UN Environment Programme.
NATO assisted Bosnia and Herzegovina in support of the OSCE’s work on arms control, confidence- and security-building measures, and small arms and light weapons/mine action in the country. This includes implementation support of the Dayton Agreements and the Vienna Document. Also, by providing security for OSCE personnel and humanitarian assistance, NATO has contributed to free and fair conduct of elections under the OSCE.

**Kosovo**

Between January 1998 and March 1999, the OSCE mounted a Kosovo Verification Mission to monitor compliance on the ground with the Holbrooke-Milosevic cease-fire agreement. NATO conducted a parallel aerial surveillance mission. Following a deterioration in security conditions, the verification mission was forced to withdraw in March 1999.

Since the adoption of UNSCR 1244 in June 1999, a new OSCE Mission in Kosovo was established as part of the UN Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK). It is tasked, among other things, with supervising the progress of democratisation, building of institutions, and protection of human rights. The mission – the largest of the OSCE’s field operations – has been maintaining close relations with the Kosovo Force (KFOR), which has a mandate from the United Nations to guarantee a safe environment for the work of the international community.

**The Republic of North Macedonia**

NATO pursued close cooperation with the OSCE in the country then known as the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, where a NATO Task Force provided additional security for international monitors in early 2000. Today, the NATO Liaison Office in Skopje continues to exchange information with the OSCE Mission to Skopje.

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**Border security**

NATO and the OSCE cooperated in the management and securing of borders in the Western Balkans. At a high-level conference held in Ohrid in May 2003, five Western Balkans countries endorsed a Common Platform developed by the European Union, NATO, the OSCE and the then Stability Pact for South-East Europe aiming to enhance border security in the region. Each organisation supported those players, involved in the areas within its jurisdiction.

Cooperation in the area of border security has been extended to Central Asia, where the two organisations carry out complementary projects and programmes, as well as seek to support respective activities with expertise.

**Counter-terrorism**

NATO cooperates with the OSCE to ensure that views and information are shared and that appropriate action can be taken more effectively in the fight against terrorism. The UN Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy, international conventions and protocols against terrorism, together with relevant UN resolutions provide a common framework for efforts to combat terrorism.

In this context, NATO maintains close relations with the OSCE’s Transnational Threats Department’s Action against Terrorism Unit and attends the annual OSCE-wide Counter-Terrorism Conference. The OSCE also attends relevant NATO meetings and contributes to NATO’s counter-terrorism education and training.

**Women, Peace and Security (UNSCR 1325 and related Resolutions)**

NATO recognises the disproportionate impact conflict and post-conflict situations have on women and girls, as outlined in UN Security Council Resolutions on Women, Peace and Security. NATO and its partners are committed to removing barriers for women’s participation in the prevention, management
and resolution of conflicts, and in post-conflict efforts and cooperation. Moreover, NATO is committed to addressing the protection and security needs of women and girls and to the prevention of conflict-related sexual and gender-based violence.

In this context, NATO cooperates with the OSCE on the Women Peace and Security (WPS) agenda. Consultation and collaboration with international organisations, such as the OSCE, offer considerable potential for advancing this agenda. NATO-OSCE cooperation takes place, among other things, in the framework of the Regional Acceleration of Resolution (RAR) 1325, which was established as a forum to strengthen the implementation of WPS and to share best practices among gender experts.
Relations with Pakistan

NATO and Pakistan are engaged in political dialogue and practical cooperation, in particular on Afghanistan, where there is a common interest in promoting stability in the region and in defeating extremism.

- NATO and Pakistan started strengthening dialogue and cooperation following NATO assistance to the country in the wake of a massive earthquake in 2005.
- Pakistan is one of a range of countries beyond the Euro-Atlantic area – often referred to as “partners across the globe” – with which NATO is developing relations.
- NATO has opened selected training and education courses to Pakistani officers.
- High-level political exchanges have taken place over the years, including between past NATO Secretary Generals and Presidents of Pakistan, and at the senior military leadership level.

Key areas of cooperation

Pakistan’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

Support for NATO-led operations and missions

- Pakistan has supported the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) which completed its mission in Afghanistan in 2014, by allowing for the transit of ISAF supplies through Pakistan.
- Pakistan has supported the Resolute Support Mission in Afghanistan by opening ground and air lines of communication to resupply the mission.
Wider cooperation

- Pakistan participates in a counter-narcotics training project that NATO has been developing with the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime since early 2016. The project provides a unique, combined approach to countering drugs-trafficking by connecting the target countries of the drugs trade in Europe and North America with the source and transit countries.

- Since 2009, NATO has developed an annual package of Partnership Cooperation Menu (PCM) activities, listing a series of education and training opportunities open to Pakistan’s Ministry of Defence officials.

- Civil preparedness and disaster response capabilities have been a key area of cooperation. Pakistan requested international assistance three times through the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC). In total, 56 nations, NGOs and international organisations provided support to Pakistan in response to the devastating earthquake in October 2005, and severe flooding in 2010 and 2011. Pakistan itself offered assistance through the EADRCC to Turkey and Bosnia and Herzegovina. The country also participated in the EADRCC exercises hosted by Bosnia and Herzegovina in 2017 and Serbia in 2018.

- Participation in NATO’s Science for Peace and Security Programme has focused on developing effective public safety communication in the context of terrorist attacks, and on exploring the challenges and potential of a partnership approach to regional security, including cooperation with other international actors.
Relations with partners across the globe

NATO cooperates on an individual basis with a number of countries which are not part of its regional partnership frameworks\(^1\). Referred to as “partners across the globe” or simply “global partners”, they include Afghanistan, Australia, Colombia, Iraq, Japan, the Republic of Korea, Mongolia, New Zealand and Pakistan.

**Highlights**

- The importance of reaching out to countries and organisations across the globe was underlined in the Strategic Concept adopted at the November 2010 Lisbon Summit.
- Following the Lisbon Summit, NATO revised its partnership policy in April 2011 to better engage with partners.
- Global partners now have access to the full range of activities NATO offers to all partners; each has developed an Individual Partnership Cooperation Programme, choosing the areas where they wish to engage with NATO in a spirit of mutual benefit and reciprocity.
- Most global partners contribute actively to NATO-led operations and missions.
- NATO also consults with other non-member countries which have no bilateral programme of cooperation (for example, China, India, Singapore, Indonesia, Malaysia) on issues such as counter piracy and countering narcotics in Afghanistan.

\(^1\) The Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council/Partnership for Peace, the Mediterranean Dialogue and the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative
More background information

Support for NATO-led operations

The support provided by global partners and other countries to NATO-led operations makes a significant contribution to international peace and security.

In the Balkans, Argentinean and Chilean forces have worked alongside NATO Allies to ensure security in Bosnia and Herzegovina. In Kosovo, Argentina has helped NATO personnel provide medical and social assistance to the local population and cooperated on peace agreement implementation since 1999.

In Afghanistan, a number of global partners such as Australia, the Republic of Korea and New Zealand, made important contributions to the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) from 2003 to 2014. Many continue to work alongside Allies in the follow-on mission to train, advise and assist the Afghan security forces (Resolute Support). Other countries, such as Japan, have supported stabilisation efforts in Afghanistan without being involved in combat, by funding a large number of development projects and dispatching liaison officers.

Pakistan’s support for the efforts of NATO and the international community in Afghanistan remains crucial to the success of the Alliance’s mission, despite past differences. NATO remains committed to engaging with Pakistan in an effort to enlist support to stabilise Afghanistan.

The participation of partners in NATO-led peace-support operations is guided by the Political-Military Framework (PMF), which was developed for NATO-led operations. This framework provides for the involvement of contributing states in the planning and force generation processes through the International Coordination Centre at Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE). Building on lessons learned and reinforcing the habit of cooperation established through the Kosovo Force (KFOR) and ISAF, NATO Allies decided at the 2010 Lisbon Summit to review the PMF in order to update how NATO shapes decisions and works with partner countries on the operations and missions to which they contribute.

Typically, partner military forces are incorporated into operations on the same basis as are forces from NATO member countries. This implies that they are involved in the decision-making process through their association to the work of NATO committees, and through the posting of liaison officers in the operational headquarters or to SHAPE. They operate under the direct command of the operational commander through multinational divisional headquarters. Regular meetings of the North Atlantic Council, the Alliance’s principal political decision-making body, with ambassadors, ministers and heads of state and government are held to discuss and review the operations.

Evolution of relations

NATO has maintained a dialogue with countries that are not part of its partnership frameworks, on an ad-hoc basis, since the 1990s. However, NATO’s involvement in areas outside of its immediate region – including Afghanistan and Libya – has increased the need and opportunities for enhanced global interaction. Clearly, the emergence of global threats requires the cooperation of a wider range of countries to successfully tackle challenges such as terrorism, proliferation, piracy or cyber attacks. Dialogue with these countries can also help NATO avert crises and, when needed, manage an operation throughout all phases.

Since 1998, NATO has invited countries across the globe to participate in its activities, workshops, exercises and conferences. This decision marked a policy shift for the Alliance, allowing these countries to have access, through the case-by-case approval of the North Atlantic Council, to activities offered under NATO’s structured partnerships. These countries were known as “Contact Countries”.

Significant steps were taken at the 2006 Riga Summit to increase the operational relevance of NATO’s cooperation with countries that are part of its structured partnership frameworks as well as other countries around the world. These steps, reinforced by decisions at the 2008 Bucharest Summit, defined a set of objectives for these relationships and created avenues for enhanced political dialogue, including meetings of the North Atlantic Council with ministers of the countries concerned, high-level talks, and
meetings with ambassadors. In addition, annual work programmes (then referred to as Individual Tailored Cooperation Packages of Activities) were further developed.

At the 2010 Lisbon Summit, Allies agreed to develop a more efficient and flexible partnership policy, in time for the meeting of Allied foreign ministers in Berlin in April 2011. To this end, they decided to:

- streamline NATO’s partnership tools in order to open all cooperative activities and exercises to partners and to harmonise partnership programmes;
- better engage with partners across the globe who contribute significantly to security and reach out to relevant partners to build trust, increase transparency and develop practical cooperation;
- develop flexible formats to discuss security challenges with partners and enhance existing fora for political dialogue; and
- build on improvements in NATO’s training mechanisms and consider methods to enhance individual partners’ ability to build capacity.
Relations with Russia

For more than two decades, NATO has worked to build a partnership with Russia, developing dialogue and practical cooperation in areas of common interest. Cooperation has been suspended since 2014 in response to Russia’s military intervention in Ukraine but political and military channels of communication remain open. Concerns about Russia’s continued destabilising pattern of military activities and aggressive rhetoric go well beyond Ukraine.

NATO is pursuing a dual-track approach towards Russia: meaningful dialogue on the basis of a strong deterrence and defence posture. (NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg meets Russian Foreign Minister Sergey Lavrov, September 2017)

- Relations started after the end of the Cold War, when Russia joined the North Atlantic Cooperation Council (1991). This forum for dialogue was succeeded in 1997 by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, which brings together all Allies and partner countries in the Euro-Atlantic area.
- Practical cooperation started after Russia joined the Partnership for Peace programme (1994) and deployed peacekeepers in support of NATO-led peace-support operations in the Western Balkans in the late 1990s.
- The 1997 NATO-Russia Founding Act provided the formal basis for bilateral relations.
- Dialogue and cooperation were strengthened in 2002 with the establishment of the NATO-Russia Council (NRC) to serve as a forum for consultation on current security issues and to direct practical cooperation in a wide range of areas.
Russia’s disproportionate military action in Georgia in August 2008 led to the suspension of formal meetings of the NRC and cooperation in some areas, until spring 2009. The Allies continue to call on Russia to reverse its recognition of the Georgian regions of Abkhazia and South Ossetia as independent states.

All practical civilian and military cooperation under the NRC with Russia has been suspended since April 2014, in response to Russia’s military intervention and aggressive actions in Ukraine, and its illegal occupation and annexation of Crimea, which Allies condemn in the strongest terms. But channels of political and military communication remain open to exchange information on issues of concern, reduce misunderstandings and increase predictability.

Allies’ concerns about Russia’s destabilising actions and policies go beyond Ukraine and include provocative military activities near NATO’s borders stretching from the Baltic to the Black Sea; irresponsible and aggressive nuclear rhetoric, military posture and underlying posture; the risks posed by its military intervention and support for the regime in Syria; and the nerve agent attack in the United Kingdom in March 2018, a clear breach of international norms.

On 2 August 2019, the North Atlantic Council issued a statement supporting the United States decision to withdraw from the Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces (INF) Treaty in response to Russia’s material breach of the Treaty. The Allies regret that Russia has shown no willingness and taken no steps to comply with its international obligations. NATO will respond in a measured and responsible way to the significant risks posed by Russia’s SSC-8 system. At the same time, Allies are firmly committed to the preservation of effective international arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation.

NATO has responded to this changed security environment by enhancing its deterrence and defence posture, while remaining open to dialogue. The Alliance does not seek confrontation and poses no threat to Russia.

More background information

Response to the Russia-Ukraine conflict

After Russia’s illegal and illegitimate annexation of Crimea in March 2014, the Allies suspended all practical civilian and military cooperation in April 2014, while keeping open channels of political and military communication. The NATO-Russia Council (NRC) remains an important forum for dialogue, on the basis of reciprocity, and has met ten times since 2016.

At the NATO Summit in Wales in September 2014 and at successive summits since then, Allied leaders have condemned in the strongest terms Russia’s military intervention in Ukraine, calling on Russia to stop and withdraw its forces from Ukraine and along the country’s border. Allies continue to demand that Russia comply with international law and its international obligations and responsibilities; end its illegitimate occupation of Crimea; refrain from aggressive actions against Ukraine; halt the flow of weapons, equipment, people and money across the border to the separatists; and stop fomenting tension along and across the Ukrainian border. NATO does not and will not recognise Russia’s illegal and illegitimate annexation of Crimea.

The Allies have also noted that violence and insecurity in the region led to the tragic downing of Malaysia Airlines passenger flight MH17 on 17 July 2014, calling for those directly and indirectly responsible to be held accountable and brought to justice as soon as possible. In May 2018, the Joint Investigation Team, which is investigating the MH17 crash, concluded that the BUK-TELAR that was used to down the aircraft originated from the 53rd Anti-Aircraft Missile Brigade, a unit of the Russian army from Kursk. Allies stand in solidarity with the Netherlands and Australia, which call on Russia to take State responsibility for the downing of flight MH17.

Allies strongly support the settlement of the conflict in eastern Ukraine by diplomatic and peaceful means and welcome the ongoing diplomatic efforts to this end. All signatories of the Minsk Agreements must comply with their commitments and ensure their full implementation. Russia has a significant responsibility in this regard.
Wider concerns about Russia’s behaviour

NATO’s concerns go well beyond Russia’s activities in Ukraine. The Allies continue to express their support for the territorial integrity of Georgia and the Republic of Moldova within their internationally recognised borders and call on Russia to withdraw the forces it has stationed in all three countries without their consent. Russia’s military activities, particularly along NATO’s borders, have increased and its behaviour continues to make the Euro-Atlantic security environment less stable and predictable, in particular its practice of calling snap exercises, deploying near NATO borders, conducting large-scale training and exercises and violating Allied airspace. Russia is also challenging Euro-Atlantic security and stability through hybrid actions, including attempted interference in the election processes and the sovereignty of nations, widespread disinformation campaigns and malicious cyber activities. The Allies also condemn the use of a military-grade nerve agent in Salisbury in March 2018, and express solidarity with the United Kingdom. In the wake of this attack, the maximum number of personnel in the Russian Mission at NATO Headquarters was reduced by 10 people.

This is compounded by Russia’s continued violation, non-implementation and circumvention of numerous obligations and commitments in the realm of arms control and confidence- and security-building measures. Allies have long been concerned about Russia’s ongoing selective implementation of the Vienna Document and the Open Skies Treaty, and its long-standing non-implementation of the Conventional Forces in Europe Treaty which undermine Euro-Atlantic security. Moreover, in December 2018, NATO foreign ministers supported the finding of the United States that Russia was in material breach of its obligations under the Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces (INF) Treaty not to possess, produce or flight-test a ground-launched cruise missile with a range capability of 500 to 5,500 kilometres, or to possess or produce launchers of such missiles. The Allies concluded that Russia had developed and fielded a missile system, the SSC-8 (9M729), which violated the Treaty and posed significant risks to Euro-Atlantic security, and called on Russia to return urgently to full and verifiable compliance. On 1 February 2019, the United States suspended its obligations under the INF Treaty, providing the requisite six-month written notice to Treaty Parties of its withdrawal. The Allies remained open to dialogue and engaged Russia on its violation, including at two NATO-Russia Council meetings in January and July 2019. However, Russia continued to deny its INF Treaty violation, refused to provide any credible response, and took no demonstrable steps toward returning to full and verifiable compliance. As a result, on 2 August, the United States decided to withdraw from Treaty with the full support of the Allies. NATO will respond in a measured and responsible way to the significant risks posed by Russia’s SSC-8 system. At the same time, Allies are firmly committed to the preservation of effective international arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation. For over three decades, the INF Treaty was a landmark in arms control. It entered into force in 1988 with the aim to reduce threats to security and stability in Europe – in particular the threat of short-warning attack on targets of strategic importance – by requiring the verifiable elimination of an entire class of missiles possessed by the United States and the former Soviet Union.

Russia’s military intervention and considerable military presence in Syria have posed further risks for the Alliance. On 5 October 2015, in response to Russia’s military intervention in Syria, the Allies called on Russia to immediately cease their attacks on the Syrian opposition and civilians, to focus its efforts on fighting so-called Islamic State, and to promote a solution to the conflict through a political transition. In April 2018, Allies expressed strong support to the US, UK and French joint military action in response to the use of chemical weapons in Syria.

For more than two decades, NATO has worked to build a partnership with Russia, including through the mechanism of the NRC, based upon the 1997 NATO-Russia Founding Act and the 2002 Rome Declaration. Russia has breached its commitments, as well as violated international law, breaking the trust at the core of its cooperation with NATO.

The Allies continue to believe that a partnership between NATO and Russia, based on respect for international law, would be of strategic value. They continue to aspire to a cooperative, constructive relationship with Russia – including reciprocal confidence-building and transparency measures and increased mutual understanding of NATO’s and Russia’s non-strategic nuclear force postures in Europe – based on common security concerns and interests, in a Europe where each country freely chooses its future. They regret that the conditions for that relationship do not currently exist. Meeting at the Brussels Summit in July 2018, Allied leaders underlined that there can be no return to ‘business as usual’ until there
is a clear, constructive change in Russia’s actions that demonstrates compliance with international law and its international obligations and responsibilities.

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Key areas of cooperation prior to April 2014

To facilitate regular contacts and cooperation, Russia established a diplomatic mission to NATO in 1998. NATO opened an Information Office in Moscow in 2001 and a Military Liaison Mission in 2002.

Until the suspension of activities in April 2014, the NRC provided a framework for consultation on current security issues and practical cooperation in a wide range of areas of common interest:

**Support for NATO-led operations:** For a number of years, Russia supported the NATO-led, UN-mandated International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan through various arrangements to facilitate the transit of non-military equipment for ISAF contributors across Russian territory. Several Russian ships were deployed in support of Operation Active Endeavour, NATO’s maritime operation against terrorism in the Mediterranean, and as part of Operation Ocean Shield, NATO’s counter-piracy operation off the Horn of Africa. Until the withdrawal of its peacekeepers in early 2003, Russia supported the NATO-led peace-support operations in Bosnia and Herzegovina and Kosovo.

**Support for the Afghan Armed Forces:** The NRC Helicopter Maintenance Trust Fund project, launched in 2011, helped train Afghan Armed Forces to operate and maintain their helicopter fleet and to conduct medical evacuations. Some 40 Afghan helicopter maintenance staff were trained by the end of 2013.

**Counter-narcotics training of Afghan and Central Asian personnel:** The NRC Counter-Narcotics Training Project, launched in December 2005, helped to build local capacity and promote regional networking and cooperation among mid-level officers from Afghanistan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan. Pakistan joined in 2010. Implemented in cooperation with the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), fixed training took place in one of four institutes in Turkey, Russia or the United States and mobile courses were conducted in each of the seven participating countries. Over 3,500 officers were trained under the project. (Since the suspension of cooperation with Russia, NATO has organised a new project with the UNODC.)

**Combating terrorism:** An NRC Action Plan on Terrorism was launched in December 2004. Cooperation in this area included exercises and regular exchanges of information and in-depth consultations on various aspects, such as consequence management, countering improvised explosive devices, and hosting and securing high-visibility events. Under the Cooperative Airspace Initiative, an information exchange system was developed to provide air traffic transparency and early notification of suspicious air activities to help prevent terrorist attacks such as the 9/11 attacks on the United States. The STANDEX project developed technology to enable the stand-off detection of explosive devices in mass transport environments, and successful live trials took place in June 2013.

**Theatre missile defence/ ballistic missile defence:** A common concern was the unprecedented danger posed to deployed forces by the increasing availability of ever more accurate ballistic missiles. A study, launched in 2003, assessed the possible levels of interoperability among the theatre missile defence systems of the Allies and Russia, and command post and computer-assisted exercises were organised to develop mechanisms and procedures for joint operations. At the 2010 Lisbon Summit, NRC leaders approved a joint ballistic missile threat assessment and agreed to develop a joint analysis of the future framework for missile defence cooperation. (While Russia continues to voice concerns about NATO’s planned missile defence capability, Allies underline that it is not directed against Russia, nor will it undermine Russia’s strategic deterrent but is intended to defend against potential threats from beyond the Euro-Atlantic area.)

**Non-proliferation and arms control:** Expert discussions focused on issues related to the non-proliferation of weapons of mass destruction, developing recommendations to strengthen existing non-proliferation arrangements and exploring possible practical cooperation in the protection against nuclear, biological and chemical weapons. Frank discussions took place on issues related to conventional arms control, such as the Treaty on Conventional Armed Forces in Europe (CFE), the Open Skies Treaty and confidence- and security-building measures. A key priority was to work towards the ratification of the Adapted CFE Treaty – so the Allies expressed concern over Russia’s unilateral “suspension” of its
participation in the treaty in December 2007 and its subsequent decision in March 2015 to suspend participation in the joint consultative group that meets in Vienna regularly to discuss the implementation of the CFE Treaty.

**Nuclear weapons issues:** Several seminars focused on nuclear doctrine and strategy, lessons learned from nuclear weapons incidents and accidents, and potential responses to the detection of improvised nuclear or radiological devices. Between 2004 and 2007, experts and representatives from NRC countries also observed four nuclear weapon accident response field exercises, which took place in Russia and each of NATO’s nuclear weapon states (France, the United Kingdom and the United States). Such activities increased transparency, developed common understanding of nuclear weapons accident response procedures, and built confidence that the nuclear weapon states were fully capable of responding effectively to any emergency involving nuclear weapons.

**Military-to-military cooperation:** Military liaison arrangements were enhanced under the NRC at the Allied Commands for Operations and for Transformation, as well as in Moscow. A key objective of military-to-military cooperation was to build trust, confidence and transparency, and to improve the ability of NATO and Russian forces to work together in preparation for possible future joint military operations. Areas of cooperation included logistics, combating terrorism, search and rescue at sea, countering piracy, theatre missile defence/missile defence and military academic exchanges – and related military activities.

**Submarine crew search and rescue:** Work in the area of submarine crew search and rescue at sea grew steadily following the signing of a framework agreement on cooperation in this area in February 2003. Russia participated in three NATO-led search-and-rescue exercises between 2005 and 2011.

**Defence transparency, strategy and reform:** Aimed at building mutual confidence and transparency, dialogue took place on doctrinal issues, strategy and policy, including their relation to defence reform, nuclear weapons issues, force development and posture. Initiatives launched in the area of defence reform focused on the evolution of the military, management of human and financial resources, reform of defence industries, managing the consequences of defence reform, and defence-related aspects of combating terrorism. From 2002 to 2008, a NATO-Russia Resettlement Centre helped facilitate the integration of former Russian military personnel into civilian life by providing information regarding job search and resettlement, training and job placement services. Initially set up in Moscow, its operations were gradually expanded into the regions. Some 2,820 former military personnel from the Russian armed forces were retrained and over 80 per cent found civilian employment.

**Defence industrial cooperation:** A broad-based “Study on NATO-Russia Defence Industrial and Research and Technological Cooperation”, launched in January 2005 and completed in 2007, concluded that there was potential in combining scientific and technological capabilities to address global threats.

**Logistics:** Opportunities for logistics cooperation were pursued on both the civilian and military side, including areas such as air transport, air-to-air refuelling, medical services and water purification. Meetings and seminars focused on establishing a sound foundation of mutual understanding in the field of logistics by promoting information-sharing in areas such as logistics policies, doctrine, structures and lessons learned.

**Civil emergencies:** NATO and Russia cooperated between 1996 and 2014 to develop a capacity for joint action in response to civil emergencies, such as earthquakes and floods, and to manage the consequences of terrorist attacks. Moreover, a Russian proposal led to the establishment in 1998 of the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre.

**Scientific cooperation:** Russia was actively engaged with the NATO Science for Peace and Security Programme from 1992. Scientists and experts from Russia sought to address a wide range of security issues, notably in the fields of defence against chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear agents, mine detection and counter-terrorism (including explosives detection such as the STANDEX project mentioned above), and environmental and security hazards posed by oil spills and munitions dump sites in the Baltic Sea.

**Terminology and language training:** To facilitate better understanding of terms and concepts used by NATO and Russia, glossaries were developed on the entire spectrum of NATO-Russia cooperation.
Language cooperation was expanded in 2011 with the launch of a project to harmonise language training for military and selected civilian experts at the Russian defence ministry.

**Raising public awareness of the NRC:** An NRC website was launched in June 2007 to increase public awareness of NRC activities. It was suspended in April 2014.
Relations with Serbia

Serbia is deepening its political dialogue and cooperation with NATO on issues of common interest, with an important focus on support for democratic, institutional and defence reforms. Unlike other Western Balkan partners, Serbia does not aspire to join the Alliance.

- NATO fully respects Serbia’s policy of military neutrality.
- Cooperation and dialogue have developed steadily since 2006, when the country joined the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC), a multilateral forum for dialogue which brings together all Allies and partner countries in the Euro-Atlantic area.
- Cooperation has deepened since 2015, when the country agreed its first two-year Individual Partnership Action Plan.
- The NATO Military Liaison Office in Belgrade, established in December 2006, supports Serbian defence reforms, facilitates Serbian participation in activities of the PfP programme and provides assistance to NATO’s public diplomacy activities in the region.
- Kosovo remains a key subject for dialogue, given the presence of the NATO-led Kosovo Force (KFOR), which continues to ensure a safe and secure environment on the basis of United Nations (UN) Security Council Resolution 1244. The Serbian armed forces have cooperated with KFOR for many years through the Joint Implementation Council, based on the 1999 Military Technical Agreement.
- NATO fully supports the continuation of the European Union-facilitated dialogue aimed at normalising relations between Belgrade and Pristina.
Key areas of cooperation

Serbia’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

Building capabilities and interoperability

- Serbia joined the Planning and Review Process (PARP) in 2007 to develop the capacity of its forces to participate in UN-mandated multinational operations and EU crisis management operations. PARP also serves as a planning tool to guide and measure progress in defence and military transformation efforts.

- Since 2012, Serbia is actively engaged in Building Integrity (BI) to strengthen integrity, transparency and accountability and reduce the risk of corruption in its defence and related security sector. The ministry of defence also offers its experience to other countries engaged in the NATO BI Self-Assessment and Peer Review Process and was actively engaged in the development of the NATO BI Reference Curriculum published in 2016.

- Since 2014, Serbia is engaged in the Defence Education Enhancement Programme (DEEP), which is supporting Serbia’s efforts to develop a comprehensive and modern defence education system. Thanks to DEEP, Serbia is now a net security provider in the field of education and training, and is supporting other DEEP programmes such as the one with Armenia.

- Also since 2014, under the Partnership Interoperability Initiative, Serbia has participated in the Interoperability Platform, which brings Allies together with 24 selected partners.

- Serbia is offering expertise and training to Allies and partners at the Chemical, Biological, Radiological and Nuclear (CBRN) Training Centre in Kruševac, which was recognised as a Partnership Training and Education Centre in 2013.

- In December 2017, in coordination with several NATO Allies, Serbia conducted a course to train Iraqi military and civilian medical personnel as part of the NATO Defence and Related Security Capacity Building Initiative.

Wider cooperation

- The Allies have supported a number of NATO Trust Fund projects in Serbia. These include a project to destroy 28,000 surplus small arms and light weapons, which was completed in 2003, and another for the safe destruction of 1.4 million landmines and ammunition, which was completed in 2007. A third project for the destruction of approximately 8,000 tonnes of surplus ammunition and explosives is underway. Another five-year project, completed in 2011 and implemented by the International Organization for Migration (IOM), helped almost 6,000 discharged defence personnel in Serbia start small businesses.

- Serbia has been actively engaged in the Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme since 2007. Today, scientists and experts from Serbia are working to address a wide range of security issues, notably in the fields of energy security, counter-terrorism, and defence against chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear agents.

- Serbia actively engages with NATO’s Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) to develop its national civil preparedness and disaster management capabilities, and to improve interoperability in international disaster response operations. In December 2015, Serbia requested international assistance through the EADRCC in the context of an influx of refugees. Six Allied nations provided support. Serbia hosted the SRBIJA 2018 consequence management field exercise, which brought together approximately 2,000 participants from 40 countries to practise international cooperation in an earthquake scenario. As a participating country, Serbia also took part in five other EADRCC exercises.

- In 2017, Serbia launched its second National Action Plan on Women, Peace and Security for the period 2017-2020. Serbia is associated with the NATO/EAPC Policy and Action Plan on Women, Peace and
Security, which was endorsed at the NATO Brussels Summit in 2018. Moreover, together with the United States, Serbia led a series of NATO-funded expert workshops to develop a scorecard, or set of indicators, to help assess how NATO and partner countries are mainstreaming gender in military operations.

- Serbia and NATO aim to improve public information on NATO-Serbia cooperation. The NATO Military Liaison Office in Belgrade plays an important role in this process.
Relations with Sweden

NATO and Sweden actively cooperate in peace and security operations, and have developed practical cooperation in many other areas. An important priority is to develop interoperable capabilities and maintain the ability of the Swedish Armed Forces to work with those of NATO and other partner countries in multinational peace-support operations.

NATO fully respects Sweden’s longstanding policy of military non-alignment.

Cooperation began when Sweden joined the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme in 1994 and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (a multilateral forum for dialogue which brings together all Allies and partner countries in the Euro-Atlantic area) in 1997.

NATO and Sweden detail areas of cooperation and timelines in Sweden’s Individual Partnership Cooperation Programme (IPCP), which is jointly agreed for a two-year period.

Sweden is one of NATO’s most active partners and a valued contributor to the NATO-led Resolute Support Mission in Afghanistan and the Global Coalition to Defeat ISIS.

Sweden is one of five countries (known as ‘Enhanced Opportunity Partners’1 under the Partnership Interoperability Initiative) that make particularly significant contributions to NATO operations and other Alliance objectives. As such, the country has enhanced opportunities for dialogue and cooperation with the Allies.
In the current security context of heightened concerns about Russian military and non-military activities, NATO is stepping up cooperation with partner countries Sweden and Finland, with a particular focus on ensuring security in the Baltic Sea region. This includes: regular political dialogue and consultations; exchanges of information on hybrid warfare; coordinating training and exercises; and developing better joint situational awareness to address common threats and develop joint actions, if needed. Both partners participate in the enhanced NATO Response Force (NRF) in a supplementary role and subject to national decisions. Additionally, both partners have signed a memorandum of understanding on Host Nation Support which, also following a national decision, allows for logistical support to Allied forces located on, or in transit through, their territory during exercises or in a crisis.

Key areas of cooperation

Sweden’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

Building capabilities and interoperability

- Sweden participates in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP), which helps the country develop its military capabilities and enhance the interoperability of the Swedish Armed Forces with Allies and other partners.
- Sweden participates in NATO’s Operational Capabilities Concept (OCC), which uses an evaluation and feedback programme to develop and train partner land, maritime, air or Special Operations Forces units that seek to meet NATO standards.
- Sweden participates in numerous PfP exercises and has also participated in NATO Cyber Coalition exercises.
- Sweden is cooperating with several other countries to develop a multinational rapid-reaction force for peace-support operations led by the European Union (EU). When the Swedish units are not on stand-by for EU needs, they will be available for operations led by the United Nations (UN) or NATO.
- Sweden participates in two strategic airlift initiatives: the Strategic Airlift Capability (SAC) programme and the Strategic Airlift International Solution (SALIS).
- Sweden’s role in training the forces of other NATO partner countries is greatly valued by the Allies. The Swedish Armed Forces International Centre (SWEDINT) provides exercises and training with a focus on humanitarian assistance, rescue services, peace-support operations, civil preparedness and the democratic control of the armed forces.
- Sweden has close ties with other Nordic countries and participates in Nordic Defence Cooperation (NORDEFCO), a regional defence initiative that promotes collaboration between Nordic armed forces.

Support for NATO-led operations and missions

- Sweden first contributed to a NATO-led operation in 1995 when it sent a battalion to the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Bosnia and Herzegovina.
- Sweden has supported the peacekeeping force in Kosovo (KFOR) since 1999.
- Swedish personnel worked alongside Allied forces as part of the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan from 2003 to the completion of ISAF’s mission in 2014. Sweden is currently supporting the follow-on Resolute Support Mission (RSM) to further train, assist and advise the Afghan security forces and institutions. Sweden has also contributed over USD 13 million to the Afghan National Army Trust Fund.
Wider cooperation

Sweden engages with NATO’s Civil Emergency Planning Committee and cooperates with Allies on regional assessments, critical infrastructure protection, and providing support in dealing with the consequences of a major accident or disaster in the Euro-Atlantic area.

Sweden has participated in numerous NATO crisis management exercises, and Swedish civil resources have been listed with the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC), including search and rescue teams, medical experts and protection and decontamination units. Sweden regularly conducts major multifunctional civil-military police exercises (the Viking exercises), which involve many other nations as well as participants from international organisations, non-governmental organisations and agencies.

Under NATO’s Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme, Swedish scientists have participated in numerous advanced research workshops and seminars on a range of topics. Key areas of cooperation include chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) defence, energy security, and critical infrastructure protection against hybrid threats.

NATO Allies have approved a multi-year project co-led by Sweden and the United States in the field of counter-terrorism. The project aims to create long-term capacity for the evaluation of programmes to counter violent extremism (CVE) and to contribute to overall effectiveness, transparency and accountability of CVE programmes.

Sweden actively supports the implementation of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security (WPS), and since 2012 has hosted the Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations at the Swedish Armed Forces International Centre, to make sure that gender perspectives continue to be integrated into military operations.

Sweden supports a number of NATO Trust Fund projects in other partner countries, focused on areas such as training and evaluation of military units; medical rehabilitation of injured military personnel; explosive ordnance disposal and countering improvised explosive devices; and professional development of security sector employees.
Relations with Switzerland

NATO and Switzerland actively cooperate in several important areas, including the development and maintenance of capabilities of the Swiss armed forces to work with those of NATO and other partner countries in multinational peace-support operations.

Swiss Liaison and Monitoring Team (LMT) officers in contact with Kosovo residents.

- Swiss cooperation with NATO is based on a longstanding policy of military neutrality and areas of practical cooperation that match joint objectives. NATO fully respects Switzerland’s neutrality.
- Switzerland is a longstanding, valued partner for NATO. Bilateral cooperation began when Switzerland joined the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme in 1996 and became a member of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) in 1997.
- NATO and Switzerland detail areas of cooperation in the country’s Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme (IPCP).
- Swiss law excludes participation in combat operations for peace enforcement, and Swiss units will only participate in operations under the mandate of the United Nations (UN) or Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE). As Switzerland does not have standing military units, no specific units can be identified for such operations; contingents are tailored to any given mission’s needs and manned solely with volunteers.
- Switzerland has supported NATO-led operations in the Balkans, where it contributes to the Kosovo Force. The country also supported the operation in Afghanistan from 2004 to 2007.
- Switzerland shares its expertise with NATO by offering education and training to Allies and other partner countries. Areas of speciality include: humanitarian missions, international humanitarian law, human rights and civil-military cooperation, search and rescue training, security policy, arms control and disarmament, and transparency and democratic control of armed forces.
Key areas of cooperation

Switzerland's cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

Building capabilities and interoperability

- Swiss participation in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) sets targets to help develop the interoperability and capabilities which might be made available for NATO training, exercises and multinational crisis-management and peace-support operations.

- Switzerland has been a strong supporter of the Partnership Action Plan on Defence Institution Building (PAP-DIB), since its inception. The PAP-DIB aims to build capacity and reduce corruption in the defence sectors of other partner countries, including through the NATO Building Integrity (BI) Programme and Defence Education Enhancement Programme (DEEP).

- Switzerland is a generous contributor to a number of NATO Trust Fund projects in other partner countries, and has supported projects focused on munitions stockpile management; the safe destruction of mines, arms and ammunition; and the reintegration of demobilised military personnel into the civilian workforce.

- Switzerland has declared a number of training facilities available for PfP training activities, including the international training centre of the Swiss Army (SWISSINT). Switzerland has also made a number of civilian training facilities available under the PfP framework.

- Switzerland also promotes the application of the law on armed conflicts and humanitarian law. The country took on a leading role in promoting international standards for the regulation of private security companies.

Support for NATO-led operations and missions

- In late 1995, during the crises in Bosnia and Herzegovina and in Kosovo, Switzerland opened its airspace, rail and road networks to the NATO-led Implementation Force (IFOR), which was responsible for implementing military aspects of the Dayton Peace Agreement.

- Switzerland participated in its first NATO-led peace-support operation in 1999, when the Swiss government decided to contribute to the Kosovo Force (KFOR). Several hundred Swiss personnel have served within KFOR as part of the Multinational Task Force - South. In addition, Switzerland plays an important role in supporting the development of Kosovo through bilateral and multilateral programmes.

- From February 2004 to February 2007, a small number of Swiss staff officers joined the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan. They provided expertise and assistance in cultivating contacts with local leaders within the German-led Provincial Reconstruction Team in Kunduz Province.

Wider cooperation

- Through the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC), Switzerland has contributed to disaster-response operations in NATO member states and partner countries. Civil emergency planning is a major area of cooperation, and Switzerland participates in numerous training events and exercises, including several crisis-management exercises.

- Switzerland has been actively engaged with the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme since 1990. Leading areas of cooperation include counter-terrorism, cyber defence and advanced technology.
Relations with Tajikistan

NATO and Tajikistan have developed practical cooperation in many areas, including security and peacekeeping cooperation, the fight against terrorism, border security, crisis management and civil preparedness.

Relations with Tajikistan started in 1992, when the country joined the North Atlantic Cooperation Council. This forum for dialogue was succeeded in 1997 by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, which brings together all Allies and partner countries in the Euro-Atlantic area.

Practical cooperation began when Tajikistan joined the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme in 2002.

Objectives for practical cooperation are set out in an Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme (IPCP), which is jointly agreed for a two-year period.

The NATO Secretary General’s Special Representative for the Caucasus and Central Asia has conducted high-level political dialogue with Tajik authorities.

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**Key areas of cooperation**

Tajikistan’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

**Building capabilities and interoperability**

- Tajikistan has been working in consultation with NATO to reform its armed forces, including by developing greater coordination and democratic control between the government, parliament, and the military. This work aimed to enhance the country’s ability to take part in peacekeeping or other operations alongside NATO forces. Tajikistan has also participated in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) mechanism.
Tajikistan has participated in a number of PfP exercises with NATO Allies and other partner countries. Participation requires a government decision in each individual case.

NATO and Tajikistan have cooperated on strengthening the country’s border security and countering cross-border crime, especially drug trafficking.

Cooperation in the area of military education activities has included sending Tajik officers to participate in NATO familiarisation courses to prepare them for NATO-related activities, as well as exploring the possible introduction of Alliance standards in the country’s military education programmes.

Wider cooperation

Tajikistan has worked with NATO to further develop its civil emergency and disaster response capabilities. Through NATO’s Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC), the country has participated in consequence management field exercises and offered assistance to nations stricken by earthquakes. When struck by natural disasters in 2009 and 2010, Tajikistan received assistance coordinated via the EADRCC from 14 nations and international organisations.

Tajikistan has sought to better familiarise itself with Allied disaster-relief organisation and procedures, including by participating in NATO-run tactical and operational civil-military cooperation courses.

Tajikistan has been engaged with the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme since 1996. Leading areas for cooperation have included environmental security and disaster forecast and prevention.

Another focus of cooperation has been to increase public understanding of NATO and the benefits of partnership. The Alliance has supported international conferences to enhance networking between universities, non-governmental organisations and the press and media, as well as educational activities aimed at university students.

A NATO Trust Fund project to help eliminate stockpiles of large munitions and assess the security of weapons storage facilities was completed in 2015. An earlier Trust Fund project, completed in 2004, supported the destruction of over 1,000 anti-personnel landmines.
Relations with Turkmenistan

Turkmenistan’s cooperation with NATO aims to introduce and familiarise Turkmen personnel with key NATO security-related issues, as well as enhance cooperation in areas such as border control and security, science and environmental issues, and civil preparedness.

Highlights

- Turkmenistan adheres to a policy of permanent neutrality and does not offer any armed forces units or infrastructure for use in the context of NATO-led operations.
- Relations with Turkmenistan started in 1992, when the country joined the North Atlantic Cooperation Council. This forum for dialogue was succeeded in 1997 by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, which brings together all Allies and partner countries in the Euro-Atlantic area.
- Practical cooperation began when Turkmenistan joined the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme in 1994.
- Objectives for practical cooperation are set out in an Individual Partnership Cooperation Programme (IPCP), which is renewed every two years.

Key areas of cooperation

Turkmenistan’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

Building capabilities and interoperability

- Based on its policy of permanent neutrality, Turkmenistan does not offer any armed forces units to NATO-led operations.
Officials from Turkmenistan participate in a range of courses provided by NATO and NATO member states. Topics covered include arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation, the law of armed conflicts, courses aimed at familiarising officers with combating terrorism techniques and illegal trafficking issues, border security and control, defence planning and budgeting, language training, medical services and other areas.

Wider cooperation

Civil preparedness and disaster-relief coordination is also an area of cooperation. It is also working to prepare Turkmenistan's units to contribute to international disaster relief operations. In 2014, Turkmenistan responded to an urgent request for assistance by NATO's Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC), contributing humanitarian aid to Bosnia and Herzegovina following major flooding and landslides.

Turkmenistan has been engaged with the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme since 1993. Fostering internet connectivity of the academic community and distance learning has been a priority area of cooperation.

NATO continues its information and outreach activities with Turkmenistan. In 2015, Turkmenistan hosted a landmark forum on NATO-Central Asian relations, which included participants from Turkmen universities and other security experts.
Relations with Ukraine

A sovereign, independent and stable Ukraine, firmly committed to democracy and the rule of law, is key to Euro-Atlantic security. Relations between NATO and Ukraine date back to the early 1990s and have since developed into one of the most substantial of NATO’s partnerships. Since 2014, in the wake of the Russia-Ukraine conflict, cooperation has been intensified in critical areas.

Highlights

- Dialogue and cooperation started after the end of the Cold War, when newly independent Ukraine joined the North Atlantic Cooperation Council (1991) and the Partnership for Peace programme (1994).
- Relations were strengthened with the signing of the 1997 Charter on a Distinctive Partnership, which established the NATO-Ukraine Commission (NUC) to take cooperation forward.
- The Declaration of 2009 to Complement the NATO-Ukraine Charter mandated the NUC, through Ukraine’s Annual National Programme, to underpin Ukraine’s efforts to take forward reforms aimed at implementing Ukraine’s Euro-Atlantic aspirations, in line with the decisions of the 2008 NATO Summit in Bucharest.
- Cooperation has deepened over time and is mutually beneficial with Ukraine actively contributing to NATO-led operations and missions.
- Priority is given to support for comprehensive reform in the security and defence sector, which is vital for Ukraine’s democratic development and for strengthening its ability to defend itself.
In response to the Russia-Ukraine conflict, NATO has reinforced its support for capability development and capacity-building in Ukraine. The Allies continue to condemn Russia’s illegal annexation of Crimea, and its destablising and aggressive activities in eastern Ukraine and the Black Sea region. NATO has increased its presence in the Black Sea and stepped up maritime cooperation with Ukraine and Georgia.

Since the NATO Summit in Warsaw in July 2016, NATO’s practical support for Ukraine has been subsumed in the Comprehensive Assistance Package (CAP) for Ukraine.

In June 2017, the Ukrainian Parliament adopted legislation reinstating membership in NATO as a strategic foreign and security policy objective.

President Volodymyr Zelenskyy has underlined his eagerness to give new impetus to his country’s engagement with NATO.

More background information

Response to the Russia-Ukraine conflict

From the very beginning of the Russia-Ukraine conflict, NATO has adopted a firm position in full support of Ukraine’s sovereignty and territorial integrity within its internationally recognised borders. The Allies immediately condemned – and have since then repeatedly stated that they will not recognise – Russia’s illegal and illegitimate “annexation” of Crimea in March 2014. They also condemned Russia’s deliberate destabilisation of eastern Ukraine caused by its military intervention and support for the militants. The Allies decided to suspend all practical civilian and military cooperation with Russia, while leaving political and military channels of communication open. Since then, Allied Ambassadors reiterate NATO’s firm position on Ukraine’s territorial integrity and sovereignty at meetings of the NATO-Russia Council, which continues to meet periodically.

Throughout the crisis, regular consultations have taken place in the NATO-Ukraine Commission (NUC) in view of the direct threats faced by Ukraine to its territorial integrity, political independence and security. Allied leaders met with President Petro Poroshenko at the NATO summits in Wales (2014), Warsaw (2016) and Brussels (2018). Foreign and defence ministers as well as ambassadors regularly discussed the security situation in and around Ukraine. Joint statements issued by NUC foreign ministers in April 2014, December 2014 and May 2015 and by Heads of State and Government at the NATO summit meetings in Wales and Warsaw demonstrate NATO’s unwavering support for and solidarity with Ukraine.

The Allies have also pledged to support the efforts of the Ukrainian government to implement wide-ranging reforms to meet the aspirations of Ukrainian people to see their country firmly anchored among European democracies.

In parallel to its political support to Ukraine, NATO has significantly stepped up its practical assistance to Ukraine. Immediately following the illegal and illegitimate “annexation” of Crimea by Russia, NATO foreign ministers agreed on measures to enhance Ukraine’s ability to provide for its own security. They also decided to further develop their practical support to Ukraine, based on a significant enhancement of existing cooperation programmes as well as the development of substantial new programmes. At the summit in Warsaw, NATO’s measures in support of Ukraine became part of the Comprehensive Assistance Package (CAP). The CAP is designed to support Ukraine’s ability to provide for its own security and to implement wide-ranging reforms, including as set out in Ukraine’s Strategic Defence Bulletin of 2016. It comprises eight Trust Funds set up exclusively for Ukraine, working in critical areas of reform and capability development in Ukraine’s security and defence sector. (see “Key areas of cooperation” below for more details).

Key areas of cooperation

Consultations and cooperation between NATO and Ukraine cover a wide range of areas including peace-support operations, defence and security sector reform, military-to-military cooperation, defence technology, interoperability and industry, civil preparedness, science and environment, and public
diplomacy. Cooperation in many areas is being intensified to enhance Ukraine’s ability to provide for its own security in the wake of the conflict with Russia and its efforts to implement wide-ranging reforms.

**Peace-support operations**

Ukraine has long been an active contributor to Euro-Atlantic security by deploying troops that work with peacekeepers from NATO and other partner countries. In spite of the Russia-Ukraine conflict, Ukraine continues to contribute to NATO-led operations and missions.

Ukraine has supported NATO-led peace-support operations in the Balkans – both Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Kosovo. It continues to contribute to the Kosovo Force (KFOR), currently with a heavy engineering unit with counter-improvised explosive devices capabilities.

In support of the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan, Ukraine allowed for over-flight clearance and the transit of supplies for forces deployed there. Ukraine also contributed medical personnel to support Provincial Reconstruction Teams in Afghanistan and instructors to the NATO Training Mission in Afghanistan. Following the completion of ISAF’s mission at the end of 2014, Ukraine is currently supporting the NATO-led mission to train, advise and assist Afghan security forces, known as the Resolute Support mission.

From March 2005, Ukraine contributed officers to the NATO Training Mission in Iraq, which terminated in December 2011.

Ukraine has deployed ships in support of Operation Active Endeavour – NATO’s maritime operation in the Mediterranean aiming to help deter, disrupt and protect against terrorism – six times since 2007, most recently in November 2010. At the end of 2013, it also contributed a frigate to NATO’s Operation Ocean Shield, which fought piracy off the coast of Somalia. Since the creation of maritime operation Sea Guardian in 2016, Ukraine continues to provide information in support of NATO’s maritime situational awareness in and around the Black Sea.

Ukraine is also the first partner country to have participated in the NATO Response Force (NRF), contributing a platoon specialised in nuclear, biological and chemical threats in 2011 and strategic airlift capabilities in 2011. In 2015 and 2016, Ukraine provided strategic airlift, naval and medical capabilities. Currently, Ukraine is contributing with strategic airlift capabilities.

**Lessons learned from hybrid warfare**

Against the background of Russia’s actions against Ukraine, the NATO-Ukraine Platform on Countering Hybrid Warfare was established at the Warsaw Summit in July 2016. It provides a mechanism to be better able to identify hybrid threats and to build capacity in identifying vulnerabilities and strengthening resilience of the state and society. High-level conferences held under the Platform in Warsaw, Vilnius and Kyiv in 2017 and 2018 have contributed to this objective and raised public awareness. Further projects in support of research, training and expert consultations are ongoing.

**Defence and security sector reform**

Ukraine’s cooperation with NATO in the area of defence and security sector reform is crucial to the ongoing transformation of Ukraine’s security posture and remains an essential part of its democratic transition.

NATO has supported Ukraine’s defence and related security sector reform through the Joint Working Group on Defence Reform, and the Planning and Review Process, the NATO Building Integrity Programme, the NATO Defence Education Enhancement Programme, the Joint Working Group on Defence Technical Cooperation and the advisory mission at the NATO Representation in Kyiv.

Through the Comprehensive Assistance Package for Ukraine endorsed by the NATO-Ukraine Commission at the NATO Summit in Warsaw in 2016, NATO pledged to support Ukraine’s goal to implement security and defence sector reforms according to NATO standards by providing strategic-level advice as well as 40 tailored support measures.

A key overarching objective of cooperation in this area is to strengthen democratic and civilian control of Ukraine’s armed forces and security institutions, as set out in the Ukrainian Law on National Security of June 2018. Allies contribute to the transformation of Ukraine’s defence and security institutions into...
modern and effective organisations under civilian and democratic control, able to provide a credible deterrence to aggression and defence against military threats. NATO assists Ukraine in the modernisation of its force structure, command and control arrangements, the reform of its logistics system, defence capabilities, and plans and procedures. NATO also provides tailored assistance to strengthen good governance and fight against corruption.

The Planning and Review Process

Its participation in the Planning and Review Process (PARP) provides Ukraine with a fundamental mechanism to set realistic reform objectives and to improve its defence and security forces' functional ability to operate alongside Allies in crisis-response operations and other national and international activities to promote security and stability.

The PARP helps guide transformation and reform in the defence and related security sector. The 2018 Partnership Goal package – which sets out goals agreed with the Ukrainian ministries of defence and the interior – explicitly aims to support Ukraine’s strategic organisational reforms and institution-building for defence and security sector organisations. This will support Ukraine in pursuing the reforms mandated in its 2015 National Security Strategy and Military Doctrine as well as the Strategic Defence Bulletin approved in 2016. Among the Partnership Goals, 26 are assigned to the defence ministry and the armed forces; 15 to the interior ministry and its subordinate security organisations; and one to cyber defence.

Capacity-building and civilian control

NATO programmes and initiatives contribute to specific aspects of strengthening civilian control over defence and related security institutions, including in the intelligence sector. Improving the capacity of these institutions is of fundamental importance for Ukraine’s development as a democratic country. These issues are key deliverables under NATO’s Comprehensive Assistance Package for Ukraine and the Partnership Goals agreed under the PARP. As part of wider cooperation in this area, a number of specific initiatives have been taken.

A Professional Development Programme (PDP) for civilians working in Ukraine’s defence and security institutions was launched in October 2005. The budget for this programme was doubled in 2014, with a focus on supporting transformation and reform processes by introducing NATO standards and best practices, building Ukraine’s own self-sustained capacity for professional development, and improving inter-agency cooperation and information-sharing. In 2017, the Programme also launched implementation of new concepts including the “Champions 100” project providing support to a pool of Ukrainian civil servants directly responsible for Euro-Atlantic integration processes.

In 2007, Ukraine joined the NATO Building Integrity (BI) Programme to strengthen integrity, transparency and accountability. The recent completion of the new BI Self-Assessment and Peer Review Process (October 2019) provides a thorough assessment of the previous anti-corruption package and a set of recommendations to improve good governance and pursue sustainable anti-corruption reforms in the defence and related security sectors. On this basis, a tailored programme of activities will continue to provide two levels of assistance – specific expertise to the institutions to enhance the good governance and management of defence resources (financial, human and material) and education and training activities to develop individual capacities.

A specific BI educational programme to raise awareness on corruption risks and embed BI principles in existing programmes of instruction was launched in 2015 with the military and related security institutions of Kharkiv, Khmelnytskyi, Kyiv, Lviv, Odesa and Zhytomyr, as well as the National Defence University of Kyiv. This work is being enhanced through a joint project with the Defence Education Enhancement Programme (see below). Additional capacity-building assistance is being provided to civilian institutions like the National Anti-Corruption Bureau, the National Agency for Corruption Prevention as well as representatives of civil society. The BI Programme benefits from the expertise and support of the European Union.

Defence Education Enhancement Programme (DEEP)

NATO developed a DEEP programme with Ukraine in response to a request from the Ukrainian Defence Minister in 2012. The programme is the biggest of its kind with any of NATO’s partner countries. It aims to improve and restructure the military education and professional training systems. It focuses specifically
on eight defence education institutions in Kharkiv, Kyiv, Lviv, Odesa and Zhytomyr (this includes restoring some Navy Academy capacity in Odesa) and five training centres for Non-Commissioned Officers (NCOs) in Desna, Mykolayv, Starychi, Vasylkyv and Yavoriv.

Additionally, DEEP advises on management of the academies and universities, including supporting faculty on how to teach and development of courses on leadership and decision-making processes. Support has also focused on building e-learning capacity and improving the English language skills of military professors. These efforts expanded to other areas such as organising simulation exercises and courses for demining instructors.

Starting in 2017, DEEP has shifted its assistance into curriculum development in the areas of civilian and democratic control, personnel management, strategic communication, leadership, quality management and NATO operational planning. Following a request from the defence ministry, the programme has been extended until 2020.

Training and professionalisation of enlisted soldiers and NCOs is critically important for the success of overall reform in the armed forces. DEEP identified four gap areas in which it now facilitates Allied bilateral support: a) basic soldier combat training; b) training of instructors; c) development of a professional NCO career system; and d) creation of a professional military education for NCOs.

Military career transition and resettling of former military personnel

NATO supports the reintegration of former military personnel into civilian life through a wide range of projects, adjusted to the new challenges brought up by the Russia-Ukraine conflict. NATO provides concrete assistance in the form of professional retraining and provides psychological rehabilitation services to mitigate post-traumatic stress syndrome among demobilised conscripts. Additionally, NATO is advising on the set-up of an integrated, comprehensive military career transition system through one of the Trust Funds launched at the Wales Summit in 2014 to support security and defence sector reform (see below).

Destroying stockpiles of weapons and munitions

Individual Allies are supporting the destruction of Ukraine’s stockpiles of anti-personnel mines, munitions and small arms and light weapons through Partnership Trust Fund projects. Phase 1 of the Trust Fund led by the United States involved the safe destruction of 400,000 small arms and light weapons (SALW), 15,000 tons of munitions and 1,000 man-portable air defence systems (MANPADS) in the 2006-2011 timeframe. A second phase started in 2012. As of May 2018, it has successfully destroyed more than 130,000 SALW, 27,200 tonnes of conventional ammunition and 1.7 million anti-personnel landmines. Its scope was extended in 2017-2018 to support enhanced ammunition safety management.

Another Trust Fund led by Germany supports the disposal of radioactive waste from former Soviet military sites in Ukraine. A project enabling Ukraine to recover and secure radioactive material according to international standards and to restore the site to its original condition was carried out in 2016-17. A follow-on project was launched in December 2017.

Air Situation Data Exchange (ASDE)

Ukraine joined the ASDE programme in July 2006. Through the exchange of filtered air situation information it reduces the risk of potential cross-border incidents and optimises responses to terrorist attacks using civil airplanes. Connections between NATO and Ukraine have been in operation via Hungary since end 2008 and via Turkey since mid-2011. Following the Russia-Ukraine crisis, air data information provided by NATO has been extended to cover a larger area. Work is ongoing to provide Ukraine with a connection for the transfer of classified information.

Trust Funds promoting security and defence sector reform and capability development

At the Wales Summit in 2014, Allies decided to launch substantial new programmes to enhance NATO’s assistance to capability development and sustainable capacity-building in Ukraine’s security and defence sector. Six Trust Funds were set up, making use of a mechanism which allows individual Allies and partner countries to provide financial support for concrete projects on a voluntary basis. Subsequently, all Allies have contributed in one way or the other to the development of these Trust Funds. They include:
**Trust Fund on Command, Control, Communications and Computers (C4)**

The C4 Trust Fund assists Ukraine in reorganising and modernising its C4 structures and capabilities, facilitates their interoperability with NATO to contribute to NATO-led exercises and operations, and enhances Ukraine’s ability to provide for its own defence and security.

The Trust Fund is led by Canada, Germany and the United Kingdom, with the NATO Communications and Information Agency as executing agent. NATO conducted a C4 Feasibility Study to assess Ukraine’s capabilities and needs based on fact-finding trips to Ukraine to identify priority C4 requirements through consultations with Ukrainian authorities. A final report on recommendations for reform, reorganisation and modernisation of Ukraine’s Armed Forces and capabilities in the C4 area was delivered in September 2016.

Four projects have been agreed and are at various stages of implementation:

- **Regional Airspace Security Programme (RASP)** – to promote regional airspace security cooperation and interoperability with NATO, improve Ukraine’s internal civil-military airspace cooperation, and to establish cross-border coordination capability with Allies for better handling of air security incidents. The project will be implemented by Spring 2020 and a follow-up project to allow for continued support is under development.

- **Secure Tactical Communications Project** – to assist Allies in providing secure communications equipment to enhance Ukraine’s capabilities for secure command and control and situational awareness for its armed forces. The project has been implemented, providing a resilient communications capability at the tactical level. A follow-up project to provide additional equipment is under development.

- **Knowledge Sharing** – to provide NATO subject-matter expertise, documentation, training, standards, best practices, mentoring and advice to C4 project teams and subject-matter experts in Ukraine. The first phase of this project has been finalised and a follow-up project is currently being implemented.

- **Situational Awareness (SA)** – to provide a reference for the implementation of NATO standards, software SA tools (JOCWatch, JCHAT, iGeoSit), procedures as well as support through mentoring and subject-matter experts for Ukrainian capability development.

**Trust Fund on Logistics and Standardization**

This Trust Fund aims to support the ongoing reform of Ukraine’s logistics and standardization systems for the armed forces as well as other national military formations, including the National Guard and the State Border Security Service, as appropriate.

Led by the Czech Republic, the Netherlands and Poland, the project builds on the findings of a Strategy Level Gap Analysis conducted in the course of 2015.

It complements and is aligned with other NATO activities performed in these areas such as those under the Planning and Review Process, Joint Working Group on Defence Technical Cooperation and Joint Working Group on Defence Reform.

Over the course of three years, the project aims will be achieved through the implementation of three capability-driven initiatives in support of long-term developments, with a focus on National Codification Capability Enhancement, Supply Chain Management Capability Improvement, and Standardization Management Capability Improvement.

**Trust Fund on Cyber Defence**

This Trust Fund, led by Romania, aimed to help Ukraine develop strictly defensive, technical capabilities to counter cyber threats. Assistance included the establishment of an incident management centre for monitoring cyber security incidents and laboratories to investigate cyber security incidents. The project was completed in 2017. Current efforts focus on identifying follow-up activities in the area of cyber defence.
**Trust Fund on Medical Rehabilitation**

This Trust Fund aims to ensure that patients – active and discharged Ukrainian servicemen and women and civilian personnel from the defence and security sector – have rapid access to appropriate care. Furthermore, it seeks to support Ukraine in enhancing its medical rehabilitation system to ensure that long-term sustainable services are provided.

The project, led by Bulgaria and executed by the NATO Support and Procurement Agency (NSPA), started in 2015 and runs over 48 months.

As of May 2018, the medical rehabilitation of 270 servicemen has been supported and 15 servicemen have been provided with prostheses. Support to an additional 100 servicemen will be provided in 2018-2019. Moreover, 13 servicemen from the defence ministry have benefited from vocational rehabilitation services. Another 148 former servicemen and 140 civilians/internally displaced persons from the Donbas have accessed rehabilitation through sport. In partnership with the NATO-sponsored project on resettling former military personnel, more than 6,000 former servicemen have benefited from psychological support services. In 2017, support was also provided for Ukraine to participate at their first Invictus Games.

Five medical rehabilitation units in hospitals have received appropriate equipment to improve the quality of services. The first occupational therapy kitchen in Ukraine, the first modern rehabilitation swimming pool and the first wheelchair workshop in a governmental institution were delivered in 2016. More than 2,200 Ukrainian physical and psychological professionals from the medical rehabilitation sector, both from government and non-governmental organisations, have benefitted from professional development activities. Since March 2018, the Trust Fund is also supporting the development of internationally recognised academic curricula for prosthetists/orthotists and orthopaedic technologists, professions newly recognised in 2016.

**Trust Fund on Military Career Transition**

This Trust Fund, led by Norway, assists Ukraine in developing and implementing a sustainable, effective and integrated approach to the resettlement of military personnel embedded in the personnel management of the armed forces.

The project aims to increase understanding among Ukrainian officials of the main organisational and managerial concepts of social adaptation systems, and develop their professional skills. It will also help define parameters for the assistance for resettlement within the armed forces through a combination of seminars, workshops, study tours and analytical surveys.

**Trust Fund on Explosive Ordnance Disposal (EOD) and Countering Improvised Explosive Devices (C-IED)**

This Trust Fund, led by Slovakia, directly supports specific selected recommendations in the NATO EOD and C-IED Assistance Plan to Ukraine. The project selectively supports civil humanitarian activities in the clearance of explosive hazards, including IEDs. It will assist in setting the foundations for transformation of EOD and development of C-IED in Ukraine based on NATO policy and practice, particularly regarding multi-agency cooperation. Three primary initiatives covering doctrine, interoperability and civil support will be initiated over a two-year period, starting in summer 2018.

**Military-to-military cooperation**

Helping Ukraine implement its defence reform objectives is also a key focus of military-to-military cooperation, complementing the work carried out under the Joint Working Group on Defence Reform and the Planning and Review Process with military expertise.

Another important objective is to develop operational capabilities and interoperability with NATO forces through a wide range of activities and military exercises. These exercises allow military personnel to gain hands-on experience in working with forces from NATO countries and other partners. Ukraine is part of the Partnership Interoperability Initiative, launched at the 2014 Wales Summit, which aims to maintain the levels of interoperability developed by international forces serving in the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force in Afghanistan (2003-2014).
An important part of practical military-to-military cooperation is carried out under the Military Committee with Ukraine Work Plan, making use of the educational, training, exercise, assistance, and advisory activities which NATO offers to partner countries. The Military Partnerships Directorate of Allied Command Operations is responsible for the Work Plan’s implementation. All these activities focus on improving the interoperability and reinforcing the operational capabilities of Ukraine’s armed forces, but also substantially contribute to ongoing security and defence reform.

Ukraine’s active participation in the NATO Operational Capabilities Concept Evaluation and Feedback Programme supports the further development of the armed forces, while also enabling the Alliance to put together tailored force packages that can be deployed in support of NATO-led operations and missions.

The military side has also taken the lead in developing a legal framework to enable NATO and Ukraine to further develop operational cooperation:

- A Partnership for Peace (PfP) Status of Forces Agreement facilitates participation in PfP military exercises by exempting participants from passport and visa regulations and immigration inspection on entering or leaving the territory of the country hosting the event (entered into force in May 2000).
- A Host Nation Support Agreement addresses issues related to the provision of civil and military assistance to Allied forces located on, or in transit through, Ukrainian territory in peacetime, crisis or war (ratified in March 2004).
- A Strategic Airlift Agreement enables Ukraine to make a substantial contribution to NATO’s capability to move outsized cargo by leasing Antonov aircraft to Allied armed forces – an arrangement which also brings economic benefits to Ukraine (ratified in October 2006).

Senior Ukrainian officers also regularly participate in courses at the NATO Defense College in Rome, Italy and the NATO School in Oberammergau, Germany. Contacts with these establishments have been instrumental in setting up a new multinational faculty at the Ukrainian Defence Academy.

Defence technical cooperation

Defence technical cooperation focuses on enhancing the interoperability of Ukrainian contributions to international operations with the forces of NATO nations.

Cooperation in this area began with the entry of Ukraine to the Partnership for Peace and, in particular, their participation in a number of groups that meet under the auspices of the Conference of National Armaments Directors (CNAD) – the senior NATO body responsible for promoting cooperation between Allies and partners in the armaments field. Since December 2014, Ukraine’s participation in the CNAD and its substructure has been taking place in the context of the Interoperability Platform. The CNAD identifies opportunities for cooperation between nations in capability development, defence equipment procurement processes and the development of technical standards.

The Joint Working Group on Defence Technical Cooperation, which met for the first time in March 2004, works toward increased cooperation in this area between NATO and Ukraine on the basis of a Roadmap on Defence Technical Cooperation. Current priorities include:

- Standardization and codification as a means for increasing interoperability of the Ukrainian armed forces with Allied forces.
- Implementation of the Trust Fund projects on command, control, communications and computers (C4) and demilitarization of expired ammunition and excess small arms and light weapons (see above).
- Cooperation in the framework of the CNAD and with the NATO Science and Technology Organization.
- Sharing of expertise in the area of life cycle management, with Ukraine having hosted a related workshop in July 2019.
- Ukraine’s participation in NATO’s Smart Defence projects, including “Malware Information Sharing Platform”, “NATO Multinational Cyber defence education and training”, “Flexible and interoperable Toolbox meeting the future operational requirements in confined and shallow waters”, and “Female Leaders in Security and Defence”.
- Support provided to Ukraine in the modernisation of their defence industry.
Continued use and enhancement of the Air Situation Data Exchange (ASDE) programme.

Civil preparedness

Civil preparedness remains an important driver of NATO cooperation with Ukraine. Since the start of the 2014 crisis in Crimea and eastern Ukraine, it has been at the forefront of Alliance solidarity and support. In April 2014, a team of civil experts visited Kyiv to provide advice on Ukraine’s contingency plans and crisis-management measures related to critical energy infrastructure and civil protection risks.

Today, NATO-Ukraine cooperation in the area of civil preparedness focuses on improving national capacity for civil preparedness and resilience in facing hybrid threats through the exchange of lessons learned, best practices and the provision of expert advice.

Ukraine is also a regular participant in disaster preparedness and response exercises organised by the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC). Ukraine already hosted three such exercises in 2000, 2005 and 2015. The 2015 EADRCC exercise – which was inaugurated by NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg and President Petro Poroshenko – was one of the largest field exercises organised by the EADRCC, with over 1,100 participants from 26 Allies and partner countries.

NATO’s Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme

Active engagement between Ukraine and the SPS Programme dates back to 1991. A Joint Working Group on Scientific and Environmental Cooperation oversees cooperation in this area. In April 2014, in response to the crisis in Ukraine, practical cooperation with Ukraine in the field of security-related civil science and technology has been further enhanced.

Today, SPS activities in Ukraine address a wide variety of emerging security challenges such as counter-terrorism, advanced technologies, cyber defence, energy security, and defence against chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) agents. SPS activities also deal with human and social aspects of security, such as the implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security; support the development of advanced technologies with security applications; and assist with the detection and clearance of mines and unexploded ordnance. Many current activities help Ukraine to deal with the negative effects of the crisis, engaging Allied and Ukrainian scientists and experts in meaningful, practical cooperation, forging networks and supporting capacity-building in the country.

Through tailored capability and capacity-building measures, the SPS Programme provided support to the Comprehensive Assistance Package (CAP) for Ukraine, endorsed at the 2016 NATO Summit in Warsaw. One important project assisted Ukraine in the area of humanitarian demining by enhancing the capacity of the State Emergency Service of Ukraine (SESU) in undertaking demining operations in eastern parts of the country. Through this project, the SPS Programme was also able to immediately respond to an urgent request for equipment following the Balaklia Arms Depot explosion in Ukraine in March 2017. Moreover, an ongoing multi-year initiative for the development of a 3D mine detector will ensure the sustainability of the activities.

The Programme also helped to build capacity in the sphere of telemedicine and paramedicine in the framework of the CAP. As part of the project, two paramedic centres in Ukraine were equipped and 30 Ukrainian paramedics took part in a ‘train-the-trainer’ course in Romania. During the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre’s (EADRCC) field exercise in Tuzla, Bosnia and Herzegovina, in 2017, the telemedicine capabilities were successfully live-tested, allowing medical specialists to engage in disasters or incidents across national borders. The project has now been brought to a successful completion.

Ukrainian experts are also involved in a significant new SPS initiative developing innovative technologies for the stand-off detection of explosives, a project that is contributing to NATO’s enhanced role in the international fight against terrorism. Ukraine is a key contributor to the SPS flagship programme DEXTER (Detection of EXPlosives and firearms to counter TERrorism) along with eight Allies and partner countries developing an integrated system that can detect explosives and firearms in public places, remotely and in real time without disrupting the flow of pedestrians.
Since 2014, Ukraine has been the largest beneficiary of the SPS Programme in line with the Allies’ decision to intensify cooperation with Ukraine. As a result, in the past five years, a total of 69 SPS activities with Ukraine as leading partner were launched, with Ukrainian scientists and experts participating in a number of additional SPS-supported projects or workshops as researchers or speakers. In 2019, Ukraine remains the lead partner with 32 ongoing SPS projects, which represents 17 per cent of the overall SPS Programme.

The importance of the SPS cooperation programme with Ukraine was highlighted, in November 2018, at NATO Headquarters, on the occasion of the 60th anniversary of the NATO Science Programme. A Ukrainian professor of the National Academy of Science received the SPS Partnership Prize for the Compact Sensor for Unmanned Aerial Vehicles Project. (More on Ukraine’s ongoing cooperation under the SPS Programme)

Public information/strategic communications

It is important for the Ukrainian administration and for the Alliance to inform its people about NATO-Ukraine relations and the benefits of cooperation in terms of the country’s reform programme. The Allies cooperate with the national authorities of Ukraine in raising awareness about what NATO is today and explaining the NATO-Ukraine relationship.

The NATO Information and Documentation Centre, based in Kyiv, is NATO’s principal public information facility organising seminars, round tables and other communications projects as well as coordinating visits by NATO officials to Ukraine and representatives of Ukrainian civil society to NATO Headquarters in Belgium.

NATO also provides advisory and funding support to building the capacity of the Ukrainian authorities in public diplomacy, media relations and strategic communications. In particular, NATO supported the Ukraine Crisis Media Centre and the Kyiv Post newspaper in their efforts to provide an accurate and factual coverage of events in the occupied Crimea peninsula as well as in eastern Ukraine.

On 22 September 2015, the Strategic Communications Partnership Roadmap was signed by the Secretary of the Ukrainian National Security and Defence Council, Oleksandr Turchynov, and NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg. The objective is to provide the Ukrainian authorities with more structured and long-term advice, training support and expertise in the area of strategic communications.

Legal dialogue

As part of the Annual National Programme, NATO and Ukraine have conducted legal dialogues, at the expert level, in 2015 and 2016, to ensure that their mutually agreed activities are supported by a proper legal framework. Topics of discussion have included the status of the NATO Representation in Kyiv; the ongoing implementation of the SOFA Agreement; the delivery of Science for Peace and Security Trust Fund projects in Ukraine; and other topics of mutual interest.

Framework for cooperation

The 1997 Charter on a Distinctive Partnership remains the basic foundation underpinning NATO-Ukraine relations. The NATO-Ukraine Commission (NUC) directs cooperative activities and provides a forum for consultation between the Allies and Ukraine on security issues of common concern. The NUC can meet at various levels, including heads of state and government, ministers of foreign affairs or defence, ambassadors and in various working-level formats.

The Declaration to Complement the Charter, signed in 2009, gave the NUC a central role in deepening political dialogue and cooperation to underpin Ukraine’s reform efforts. The principal tool to support this process is the Annual National Programme (ANP), which reflects Ukraine’s national reform objectives and annual implementation plans. The ANP is composed of five chapters focusing on: political and economic issues; defence and military issues; resources; security issues; and legal issues.

Allies assess progress under the ANP annually. The responsibility for implementation falls primarily on Ukraine and is coordinated by the office of the Vice Prime Minister for European and Euro-Atlantic Integration, who also chairs Ukraine’s Commission for Cooperation with NATO. Through the ANP
process, Allies encourage Ukraine to take the reform process forward vigorously to strengthen democracy, the rule of law, human rights and the market economy. Helping Ukraine achieve a far-reaching transformation of the defence and security sector is another priority.

Joint working groups have been set up under the auspices of the NUC, to take work forward in specific areas. They include the Joint Working Group on Defence Reform (JWGDR), the Joint Working Group on Defence Technical Cooperation (JWGDT), the Joint Working Group on Scientific and Environmental Cooperation (JWGSEC) and the Joint Working Group on Civil Emergency Planning (JWGCEP).

The NATO Representation to Ukraine supports cooperation on the ground. It consists of the NATO Information and Documentation Centre, established in 1997 to support efforts to inform the public about NATO’s activities and the benefits of NATO-Ukraine cooperation, and the NATO Liaison Office, established in 1999 to facilitate Ukraine’s participation in NATO’s Partnership for Peace programme and to support its defence and security sector reform efforts by liaising with the foreign ministry, defence ministry, National Security and Defence Council, and other Ukrainian agencies. The NATO Representation to Ukraine leads on the provision of strategic-level advice under NATO’s Comprehensive Assistance Package for Ukraine.

### Milestones in relations

1991: Immediately upon achieving independence with the break-up of the Soviet Union, Ukraine joins the North Atlantic Cooperation Council (the NACC was replaced in 1997 by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council).

1994: Ukraine joins Partnership for Peace (PfP), becoming the first of the Commonwealth of Independent States to do so.

1996: Ukrainian soldiers deploy as part of the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

May 1997: The NATO Information and Documentation Centre opens in Kyiv.

July 1997: At a summit meeting in Madrid, Spain, the Allies and Ukraine sign the Charter on a Distinctive Partnership, which sets out principles and arrangements for the further development of relations, identifies areas for consultation and cooperation, and establishes the NATO-Ukraine Commission.

1997: Ukraine establishes a diplomatic mission to NATO.

1998: The NATO-Ukraine Joint Working Group on Defence Reform is established.

1999: The NATO Liaison Office opens in Kyiv.

1999: The Polish-Ukrainian Battalion deploys as part of the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Kosovo.

May 2000: The Ukrainian parliament ratifies the PfP Status of Forces Agreement.


May 2002: President Leonid Kuchma announces Ukraine’s goal of eventual NATO membership. At a NUC meeting in Reykjavik, Iceland, foreign ministers underline their desire to take the relationship forward to a qualitatively new level.

July 2002: A project for the safe destruction of 400,000 landmines is inaugurated in Donetsk.

November 2002: The NATO-Ukraine Action Plan is adopted at a NUC meeting of foreign ministers in November in Prague, the Czech Republic. The Action Plan aims to deepen and broaden the NATO-Ukraine relationship and to support Ukraine’s reform efforts on the road towards Euro-Atlantic integration.

March 2004: The Ukrainian parliament ratifies the Host Nation Support Agreement with NATO.

June 2004: Ukraine signs a Strategic Airlift Agreement with NATO.

Autumn 2004: The Allies closely follow political developments surrounding the presidential elections in Ukraine and the “Orange Revolution”, stressing the importance of respect for free and fair elections.
February 2005: The Allies invite newly-elected President Viktor Yushchenko to a summit meeting at NATO Headquarters. They express support for his ambitious reform plans and agree to refocus NATO-Ukraine cooperation in line with the new government's priorities.

April 2005: NUC foreign ministers meeting in Vilnius, Lithuania, launch an Intensified Dialogue on Ukraine’s aspirations to NATO membership and a package of short-term actions to strengthen support for key reforms.


October 2005: The North Atlantic Council visits Kyiv to discuss the Intensified Dialogue with Ukraine’s foreign and defence ministers.

February 2006: A Resettlement and Retraining Centre is inaugurated in Khmelnytskyi.

June 2006: A contract is signed for the launch of a project with Ukraine to destroy 133,000 tons of conventional munitions, 1.5 million small arms and 1,000 man-portable air defence systems over an estimated 12 years.

September 2006: During a visit to NATO, Prime Minister Viktor Yanukovych reassures Allies of Ukraine’s commitment to ongoing cooperation with NATO. However, he says the Ukrainian people are not yet ready to consider possible NATO membership.

October 2006: The Ukrainian parliament ratifies the Strategic Airlift Agreement.

June 2007: Ukraine deploys a ship for the first time in support of Operation Active Endeavour, NATO’s maritime counter-terrorist operation in the Mediterranean. This is followed by a second deployment in the autumn.

2007: Ukraine sends medical personnel to support a Provincial Reconstruction Team in Afghanistan.

April 2008: At the Bucharest Summit, Allied leaders agree that Ukraine will become a NATO member in future.

2008: Ukraine deploys a vessel in support of Operation Active Endeavour. This is followed by a second deployment in the autumn.

December 2008: NUC foreign ministers agree to enhance opportunities for assisting Ukraine in its efforts to meet membership requirements and to develop an Annual National Programme (ANP).

December 2008: The first Air Situation Data Exchange (ASDE) connection between Command Post Air Command West in L’viv and the NATO Command and Reporting Centre in Veszprem, Hungary becomes operational.


21 August 2009: A “Declaration to Complement the Charter on a Distinctive Partnership between NATO and Ukraine” is signed to reflect decisions taken at the Bucharest Summit and the foreign ministers’ meeting in December 2008.

February 2010: The new Ukrainian government under President Viktor Yanukovych decides to continue present cooperation with NATO. However, Alliance membership for the country is taken off the agenda.

May 2010: A memorandum of understanding on Air Situation Data Exchange (ASDE) is signed, which aims to reduce airspace conflicts by minimising potential cross-border incidents and optimising responses to renegade situations with civil airplanes.

November 2010: Ukraine deploys a ship in support of Operation Active Endeavour.

April 2011: At their meeting in Berlin, NUC foreign ministers reaffirm their distinct partnership and agree to take forward practical cooperation activities.

May 2012: President Yanukovych attends NATO’s Summit in Chicago to participate in a meeting with counterparts from countries that are contributing troops to ISAF.
November 2012: NATO initiates the Defence Education Enhancement Programme (DEEP) with Ukraine in response to a request from the Ukrainian defence minister.

November 2012: The second ASDE connection between Command Post Air Command South in Odesa and the NATO Command and Reporting Centre in Erzurum, Turkey becomes operational.

February 2013: NUC defence ministers agree to reinforce NATO-Ukraine cooperation, including in training and exercises; retraining of former military officers in Ukraine; and the neutralisation of radioactive sources from former Soviet military sites. Ukraine becomes the first partner country to contribute to NATO’s counter-piracy operation off the coast of Somalia, Operation Ocean Shield.

December 2013: NATO foreign ministers discuss developments in Ukraine. In a statement, they condemn the use of excessive force against peaceful demonstrators in Ukraine and call on all parties to refrain from provocations and violence.

March 2014: With its independence and territorial integrity under threat, Ukraine invokes a provision of the 2009 Declaration to Complement the NATO-Ukraine Charter and requests a meeting of the NUC. In a statement, the North Atlantic Council states that it considers the so-called referendum held on 16 March in Ukraine’s Autonomous Republic of Crimea to be both illegal and illegitimate, urging Russian to de-escalate the situation, including by ceasing all military activities against Ukraine.

April 2014: NUC foreign ministers meet in Brussels. In their joint statement they are united in their condemnation of Russia’s illegal military intervention in Ukraine, stating that they do not recognise Russia’s illegal and illegitimate “annexation” and calling on Russia to reverse it.

April and June 2014: At ministerial meetings in spring and summer, NATO agrees on concrete support measures for Ukraine to strengthen its ability to provide for its own security. Measures include a number of immediate and short-term actions to help Ukraine cope with the current conflict, and longer-term measures geared towards capacity-building, capability development, and deep reform of the armed forces and the security sector.

4-5 September 2014: At the NATO Summit in Wales, Allied leaders meet Ukrainian President Petro Poroshenko, reaffirming their support for Ukraine’s sovereignty and territorial integrity and reiterating their condemnation of Russia’s actions; they pledge to step up strategic consultations in the NUC to further reinforce support for Ukraine, including substantial new programmes to be based on Trust Funds.

2 December 2014: NUC foreign ministers meet to discuss the developments in Ukraine and to review progress made in joint work since the Wales Summit.

15 December 2014: Ukrainian Prime Minister Arseniy Yatsenyuk visits NATO Headquarters to discuss the Alliance’s efforts to support Ukraine’s government. NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg underlines that NATO will stand by the country as it works towards the goal of a sovereign and stable Ukraine, firmly committed to democracy and the rule of law.

29 December 2014: Ukrainian President Petro Poroshenko signs into law a bill to cancel the non-bloc status of Ukraine and announces that Ukraine will start a process to achieve the criteria needed for NATO membership and also integrate into the Euro-Atlantic security space. He also indicates that a referendum would be held if his country were to apply for NATO membership.

January 2015: Following the completion of the ISAF operation in Afghanistan in December 2014, Ukraine starts contributing to the follow-on NATO-led mission (“Resolute Support”) to train, advise and assist the Afghan security forces and institutions.

29 January 2015: In talks with Ukrainian Foreign Minister Pavlo Klimkin, NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg expresses concern about the escalation of violence in the country and says that NATO will continue its strong political and practical support for Ukraine.

13 May 2015: In Antalya, Turkey, NUC foreign ministers reaffirm their firm support for Ukraine’s sovereignty and territorial integrity, call on Russia to reverse the illegal and illegitimate “annexation” of Crimea, welcome the Package of Measures for the Implementation of the Minsk Agreements signed on 12 February 2015, and encourage Ukraine to continue reform efforts.
21-25 September 2015: Ukraine hosts a major consequence-management field exercise near Lviv, jointly organised by NATO’s Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre and Ukraine’s State Emergency Service. NATO’s Secretary General and the Ukrainian President attend the opening ceremony.

22 September 2015: During a visit to Kyiv, NATO’s Secretary General addresses the National Security and Defence Council and has meetings with key members of the government and the speaker of the parliament. An agreement is signed to formalise the diplomatic status of NATO’s Representation in Ukraine.

2 December 2015: NATO foreign ministers meet their Ukrainian counterpart, Pavlo Klimkin, to review NATO’s assistance to Ukraine as well as the current security situation in the country.

17 December 2015: Ukrainian President Petro Poroshenko visits NATO Headquarters for a bilateral meeting with NATO’s Secretary General to discuss the outlook for NATO-Ukraine cooperation in 2016.

8 March 2016: Defence Minister Stepan Poltorak briefs the NATO-Ukraine Commission in Brussels on progress with defence reform in Ukraine.

11 March 2016: Following its ratification by the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine, the Agreement between NATO and the Government of Ukraine on the Status of the NATO Representation to Ukraine enters into force.

15 June 2016: NATO defence ministers agree to boost NATO’s support for Ukraine with a Comprehensive Assistance Package, which aims to help Ukraine strengthen its defences by building stronger security structures. They also exchange views with Ukrainian Defence Minister Stepan Poltorak on the current security situation in eastern Ukraine and the progress of government reforms.

9 July 2016: At the NATO Summit in Warsaw, Allied leaders meet President Poroshenko and agree to step up support for Ukraine, endorsing a Comprehensive Assistance Package which aims to help make the country’s defence and security institutions more effective, efficient and accountable. They also review the security situation and welcome the government’s plans for reform.

20 October 2016: NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg and Ukrainian President Petro Poroshenko meet at NATO Headquarters to discuss the security situation in Ukraine and how the Alliance can continue to support Kyiv. Stoltenberg welcomes the recent efforts by leaders of the Normandy Format in Berlin to create a new roadmap for implementing the Minsk Agreements.

15 November 2016: At a meeting of the NUC at NATO Headquarters, Vadym Chernysh, Minister of Ukraine for the Temporarily Occupied Territories and Internally Displaced Persons, briefs Allies on the security situation in eastern Ukraine, as well as the challenges faced by refugees and internally displaced people.

7 December 2016: The NUC meets at the level of foreign ministers at NATO Headquarters to discuss Russia’s continued aggressive actions, the importance of implementing the Minsk Agreements and NATO’s enduring support for Ukraine.

9 February 2017: Ukrainian Prime Minister Volodymyr Groysman meets NATO Deputy Secretary General Rose Gottemoeller at NATO Headquarters. In a joint press conference, she underlines the deep concern over the recent spike in violence in eastern Ukraine and the continued strong support for Ukraine’s sovereignty and territorial integrity, which had been expressed by all Allies during a special meeting of the NUC the previous evening. She also commends Ukraine for continuing on the path of reform and anti-corruption despite these very difficult circumstances.

31 March 2017: At a meeting of the NUC at NATO Headquarters, Allied foreign ministers reaffirm their strong support for the territorial integrity and sovereignty of Ukraine, and review NATO’s ongoing political and practical support to the country. Ministers welcome the opening in Kharkiv of a rehabilitation facility for wounded service personnel, paid for by NATO’s Medical Rehabilitation Trust Fund. Several Allies also announce that they will offer assistance to Ukraine following the explosions at the Balaklia arms depot.
8 June 2017: The Ukrainian parliament votes to restore NATO membership as the country’s strategic foreign policy objective, passing a bill to amend Ukrainian laws on national security and internal and foreign policies.

9-10 July 2017: The North Atlantic Council visits Ukraine to mark the 20th anniversary of the Distinctive Partnership between NATO and Ukraine. The NATO Ambassadors take part in a meeting of the NUC, hosted by President Poroshenko. During the two-day visit, Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg has bilateral meetings with the President, the Prime Minister and other senior officials. As the first NATO Secretary General to do so, he also addresses the plenary of the Verkhovna Rada -- the Ukrainian Parliament -- with a speech on NATO’s support for Ukraine’s independence and the country’s reform path in line with Euro-Atlantic principles.

18-19 April 2018: At the invitation of Chief of Defence of the General Staff General Viktor Muzhenko, the Military Committee (MC) pays a two-day visit to Ukraine (Lviv). The main aim of this visit is to provide the Military Committee with first-hand knowledge of the state of progress in defence reform in the Ukrainian Armed Forces and to underline NATO’s steady support for Ukraine. Apart from holding a meeting of the MC in Permanent Session with Ukraine, the visit provides an opportunity for the MC to enhance military-to-military relations with the Ukrainian Armed Forces; to witness military training; and to engage with the multinational training group members.

12 July 2018: Following a meeting of Allied leaders with the Presidents of Ukraine and Georgia at the Brussels Summit, the Allies release a statement reiterating their commitment to the Distinctive Partnership with Ukraine. They underline their unwavering support for the country’s sovereignty and territorial integrity within its internationally recognised borders, and its right to decide on its future and foreign policy course free from outside interference.

26-27 November 2018: The NATO-Ukraine Commission meets to discuss Russia’s use of military force against Ukraine near the Sea of Azov and the Kerch Strait. The following day, NATO Allies release a statement calling on Russia to ensure unhindered access to Ukrainian ports and allow freedom of navigation. They underline that there can be no justification for Russia’s use of military force against Ukrainian ships and sailors and condemn the building of the Kerch Straight bridge.

4 December 2018: NATO Foreign Ministers meet with the Foreign Ministers of Georgia and Ukraine to address the security situation in the Black Sea region and the Alliance’s support for both nations.

13 December 2018: President Petro Poroshenko meets NATO’s Secretary General to discuss heightened tensions in and around the Sea of Azov.

6 March 2019: The NATO-Ukraine Commission meets at NATO Headquarters to discuss the current situation in Crimea, five years after Russia’s illegal annexation.

4 June 2019: President Volodymyr Zelensky visits NATO Headquarters for bilateral talks with NATO’s Secretary General as well as a meeting of the NATO-Ukraine Commission focused on the security situation in the country.

30-31 October 2019: The members of the North Atlantic Council pay a two-day visit to Ukraine to demonstrate the Alliance’s continuing support for the country. They visit Odesa and take part in a meeting of the NATO-Ukraine Commission in Kyiv, where the Secretary General also addresses the Ukrainian parliament.
Relations with the United Nations

NATO and the United Nations (UN) share a commitment to maintaining international peace and security. The two organisations have been cooperating in this area since the early 1990s, in support of peace-support and crisis-management operations. The complexity of today’s security challenges has required a broader dialogue between NATO and the UN. This has led to reinforced cooperation and liaison arrangements between the staff of the two organisations, as well as UN specialised agencies.

Highlights

- NATO’s 2010 Strategic Concept commits the Alliance to preventing crises, managing conflicts and stabilising post-conflict situations, including by working more closely with NATO’s international partners, most importantly the UN and the European Union (EU).
- UN Security Council Resolutions have provided the mandate for NATO’s operations in the Western Balkans, Afghanistan and Libya. They have also provided the framework for NATO’s training mission in Iraq.
- NATO has also provided support to UN-sponsored operations, including logistical assistance to the African Union’s UN-endorsed peacekeeping operations in Darfur, Sudan, and in Somalia; support for UN disaster-relief operations in Pakistan, following the massive earthquake in 2005; and escorting merchant ships carrying World Food Programme humanitarian supplies off the coast of Somalia.
- Practical cooperation between NATO and the UN extends beyond operations to include: crisis assessment and management, civil-military cooperation, training and education, tackling corruption in the defence sector, mine action, mitigating the threat posed by improvised explosive devices, civilian capabilities, promoting the role of women in peace and security, the protection of civilians, including children, in armed conflict, combating sexual and gender-based violence, arms control and non-proliferation, and the fight against terrorism.
At the 2015 Leaders’ Summit on Peacekeeping, held on the margins of the 70th UN General Assembly, NATO also pledged enhanced support to the UN in the area of peace operations.

An updated Joint Declaration setting out plans for future cooperation between NATO and the UN was signed on 26 October 2018. Building on the original Joint Declaration, signed in September 2008, it sets out priority areas for future cooperation, including support to UN peace operations, countering terrorism, the protection of civilians, and promoting the Women, Peace and Security agenda.

In 2010, NATO reinforced its liaison arrangements by establishing the post of NATO Civilian Liaison Officer to the United Nations, in addition to that of a Military Liaison Officer, established in 1999.

Enhanced cooperation with the UN – and other international actors such as the EU and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe – is an integral part of NATO’s contribution to a “Comprehensive Approach” to crisis management and operations.

More background information

Framework for cooperation

In September 2008, building on the experience of over a decade of working together, the Secretaries General of the two organisations agreed to establish a framework for expanded consultation and cooperation.

Since the signing of the 2008 framework, cooperation has continued to develop in a practical way, taking into account each organisation’s specific mandate, expertise, procedures and capabilities. Regular exchanges and dialogue at senior and working levels on political and operational issues have become a standard feature of the inter-institutional relationship. NATO’s Secretary General reports regularly to the UN Secretary-General on progress in UN-mandated NATO-led operations and on other key decisions of the North Atlantic Council, including in the area of crisis management and in the fight against terrorism. The UN is frequently invited to attend NATO ministerial meetings and summits; the NATO Secretary General participates in the UN General Assembly; and staff level meetings, covering the broad range of cooperation and dialogue, take place on an annual basis between the secretariats of NATO and the UN.

Key areas of cooperation

Peace operations

NATO’s unique capabilities and experience can be a valuable source of support to the UN, whose peacekeepers operate in increasingly challenging and dangerous environments. NATO and UN staffs have worked to build practical cooperation in this domain.

At the 2015 Leaders’ Summit on Peacekeeping, the NATO Secretary General pledged to enhance support to the UN, in particular in the areas of countering improvised explosive devices, training and preparedness, supporting the UN’s efforts to deploy more rapidly and working more closely on capacity building in countries at risk, both with the UN Nations and the EU. As the UN reforms its approach to peace operations, NATO will continue to look for where its support can make a difference.

Counter-terrorism

The UN Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy, international conventions and protocols against terrorism, together with relevant UN Security Council Resolutions provide the framework for NATO’s efforts to combat terrorism. NATO works closely at staff and committee level with the UN Counter-Terrorism Committee (UN CTC) and its Executive Directorate, as well as with the Counter-Terrorism Implementation Task Force and many of its component organisations. The Terrorism Prevention Branch of the UN Organisation for Drugs and Crime is also an important partner for NATO.
Non-proliferation

NATO contributes to the work of the UN Security Council Committee established following the adoption of UNSCR 1540 (2004), which addresses the threat to international peace and security posed by the proliferation of nuclear, chemical and biological weapons and their means of delivery. In this context, since 2004 the Alliance has been organising a string of international non-proliferation conferences and seminars with the active participation of partner countries and international organisations, latest in Ljubljana, Slovenia on 9 and 10 May 2016.

NATO has also addressed the implementation of UNSCR 1540 at regional and sub-regional levels, including through its Science for Peace and Security Programme, and will continue to address the need for assistance of partner countries upon request.

Women, Peace and Security

NATO remains committed to the full implementation of UNSCR 1325 on Women, Peace and Security and related Resolutions, which aim to protect and promote women’s rights, role and participation in preventing and ending conflict. In line with the policy developed by NATO Allies together with partners in the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC), significant progress has been made in implementing the goals set out in these Resolutions.

In this regard, NATO has endorsed a Strategic Report on mainstreaming UNSCR 1325 and related Resolutions across NATO’s core activities: collective defence; crisis management and operations; and cooperative security. An updated NATO Action Plan for the Implementation of the UNSCR 1325/EAPC Policy on Women, Peace and Security was also agreed.

In October 2015, NATO’s Deputy Secretary General participated in the UN Security Council Open Debate on Women, Peace and Security, and pledged to do more in this area, including sharing best practices and lessons learned on increasing female participation at decision-making levels with Allies and partners; encouraging Allies to submit female candidates for NATO’s most senior decision-making positions; strengthening partnerships with international organisations like the UN, OSCE, the EU and the African Union on gender equality, as well as institutionalising the engagement of civil society in the development, execution and monitoring of the NATO/EAPC Action Plan on Women, Peace, and Security.

NATO also committed to financing evidence-based research aimed at understanding the role of gender in preventing and countering violent extremism, which complimented the adoption in 2015 of UNSCR 2242 at the 15th anniversary commemoration of UNSCR 1325.

Protecting children in armed conflict

NATO is committed to the implementation of UNSCR 1612 and related Resolutions on the protection of children affected by armed conflict. At the 2014 NATO Summit in Wales, NATO leaders decided more could be done to ensure the Alliance is sufficiently prepared whenever and wherever the issue of Children and Armed Conflict is likely to be encountered. The result was the NATO policy document “The Protection of Children in Armed Conflict - Way forward”.

Prepared in cooperation with the UN, the policy aims to deepen the implementation of the UNSCR 1612 into NATO operations and missions. These efforts include training the Alliance’s deployed troops to recognise, monitor and report violations against children and to incorporate child protection issues into NATO exercise scenarios. When it is invited to train local forces, NATO also emphasises the importance of protecting children in armed conflict. NATO also recently appointed a Children and Armed Conflict Advisor as part of the Resolute Support Mission in Afghanistan.

Small arms and light weapons

NATO supports the implementation of the UN Programme of Action to Prevent, Combat and Eradicate the Illicit Trade in Small Arms and Light Weapons (SALW), adopted in July 2001 by nearly 150 countries, including all NATO member states. The Alliance also participates in UN experts’ meetings and review conferences. The NATO/EAPC Ad Hoc Working Group on SALW and Mine Action as well as the Trust Fund mechanism were established in 1999 to support partner countries in implementing provisions of the Ottawa Convention (also known as the Antipersonnel Mine Ban Convention). Moreover, NATO supports nations in implementing the Arms Trade Treaty that entered into force in December 2014 through training and application of standards.
NATO has also worked closely with UN agencies to develop international standards for ammunition life-cycle management, such as the International Ammunition Technical Guidelines. The Alliance also strives to support regional and sub-regional efforts with the UN and partners beyond the EAPC area in managing SALW, ammunition, explosive remnants of war. In this context, NATO developed some capacities through its Science for Peace and Security Programme.

Disaster relief

NATO also cooperates with the UN in support of disaster-relief operations. Through the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC), NATO coordinates consequence-management efforts with UN and other bodies and shares information on disaster assistance. All the EADRCC’s tasks are performed in close cooperation with the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UN OCHA), which retains the primary role in the coordination of international disaster-relief operations.

The EADRCC is a regional coordination mechanism, supporting and complementing the UN efforts. In the case of a disaster requiring international assistance, it is up to individual NATO member and partner countries to decide whether to provide assistance, based on information received from the EADRCC.

Evolution of NATO-UN cooperation in the field

Working relations between the United Nations and the Alliance were limited during the Cold War. This changed in 1992, against the background of growing conflict in the Western Balkans, where their respective roles in crisis management led to an intensification of practical cooperation in the field.

Bringing peace to the former Yugoslavia

In July 1992, NATO ships belonging to the Alliance’s Standing Naval Force Mediterranean, assisted by NATO maritime patrol aircraft, began monitoring operations in the Adriatic in support of a UN arms embargo against all republics of the former Yugoslavia. A few months later, in November 1992, NATO and the Western European Union (WEU) began enforcement operations in support of UN Security Council Resolutions aimed at preventing the escalation of the conflict.

The readiness of the Alliance to support peacekeeping operations under the authority of the UN Security Council was formally stated by NATO foreign ministers in December 1992. A number of measures were subsequently taken, including joint maritime operations under the authority of the NATO and WEU Councils: NATO air operations; close air support for the United Nations Protection Force (UNPROFOR); air strikes to protect UN “Safe Areas”; and contingency planning for other options which the UN might take.

Following the signature of the General Framework Agreement for Peace in Bosnia and Herzegovina (the Dayton Agreement) on 14 December 1995, NATO was given a mandate by the United Nations, on the basis of UN Security Council Resolution 1031, to implement the military aspects of the peace agreement. NATO’s first peacekeeping operation – the Implementation Force (IFOR) – began operations in Bosnia and Herzegovina to fulfil this mandate in December 1995. One year later, it was replaced by the NATO-led Stabilisation Force (SFOR). Throughout their mandates both multinational forces worked closely with other international organisations and humanitarian agencies on the ground, including UN agencies such as the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and the UN International Police Task Force (IPTF).

From the onset of the conflict in Kosovo in 1998 and throughout the crisis, close contacts were maintained between the UN Secretary-General and NATO’s Secretary General. Actions were taken by the Alliance in support of UN Security Council Resolutions both during and after the conflict. The Kosovo Force (KFOR) was deployed on the basis of UN Security Council Resolution 1244 of 12 June 1999 to provide an international security presence as the prerequisite for peace and reconstruction of Kosovo. Throughout its deployment, KFOR has worked closely with the UN Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK) as well as with other international and local stakeholders.

In 2000 and 2001, NATO and the United Nations also cooperated successfully in containing major ethnic discord in southern Serbia and preventing a full-blown civil war in the Republic of North Macedonia (then known as the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia).
Afghanistan

Cooperation between NATO and the UN is playing a key role in Afghanistan. The Alliance formally took over the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF), a UN-mandated force, in August 2003. Originally tasked with helping to provide security in and around Kabul, ISAF was subsequently authorised by a series of UN Security Council Resolutions to expand its presence into other regions of the country to extend the authority of the central government and to facilitate development and reconstruction.

NATO and ISAF worked closely with the United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan (UNAMA) and other international actors that are supporting governance, reconstruction and development. The close cooperation took place in various settings, in Afghanistan as well as in UN and NATO capitals. It included co-membership of the Joint Coordination and Monitoring Board (JCMB) overseeing the implementation of the internationally endorsed Afghanistan Compact, co-chairmanship together with the Afghan Government of the Executive Steering Committee for Provincial Reconstruction Teams, and other joint Afghan-international community bodies.

NATO and the UN continue consulting closely on their respective postures in Afghanistan. NATO is keeping the UN well informed on the Resolute Support Mission.

Iraq

Under the terms of UN Security Council Resolution 1546 and at the request of the Iraqi Interim Government, NATO provided assistance in training and equipping Iraqi security forces through the NATO Training Mission-Iraq (NTM-I) from 2004 to end 2011.

Supporting African Union missions

In June 2005, following a request from the African Union (AU) and in close coordination with the United Nations and the European Union, NATO agreed to support the AU’s Mission in Sudan (AMIS), which is trying to end the continuing violence in the Darfur region. NATO assisted by airlifting peacekeepers from African troop-contributing countries to the region and also helped train AU troops in how to run a multinational military headquarters and how to manage intelligence.

Following a request from the AU in 2007, NATO accepted to assist the AU Mission in Somalia (AMISOM) by providing airlift support to AU member states willing to deploy on this mission. NATO is also providing capacity-building assistance for the AU via a Senior Military Liaison Office in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Deterring piracy

In October 2008, NATO agreed to a request from the UN Secretary-General to deploy ships off the coast of Somalia to deter piracy and escort merchant ships carrying World Food Programme cargo.

Libya

On 27 March 2011, NATO Allies decided to take on the whole military operation in Libya under United Nations Security Council Resolution 1973. The purpose of Operation Unified Protector was to protect civilians and civilian-populated areas under threat of attack. NATO implemented all military aspects of the UN Security Council Resolution. Allies moved swiftly and decisively to enforce the arms embargo and no-fly zone called for in the resolution, and to take further measures to protect civilians and civilian-populated areas from attack. Operation Unified Protector was concluded on 31 October 2011.

The North Atlantic Treaty and the UN Charter

The Charter of the United Nations, signed in San Francisco on 26 June 1945, establishes the overall responsibility of the UN Security Council for international peace and security. NATO’s North Atlantic Treaty signed four years later – on 4 April 1949 – makes clear that the UN Charter is the framework within which the Alliance operates. In the Treaty, Allies reaffirm their faith in the purposes and principles of the Charter and commit themselves to the peaceful resolution of conflicts. They also commit themselves to the principle of collective defence, in line with Article 51 of the UN Charter, which establishes the inherent right of individual or collective defence of all UN member countries. Collective defence is central to NATO’s founding treaty and commits Allies to protecting each other, setting a spirit of solidarity within the Alliance.
Relations with Uzbekistan

Uzbekistan cooperates with NATO in a broad range of areas, including civil preparedness, the development of armed forces and countering current security threats. NATO supports the democratic and institutional reform processes in Uzbekistan, specifically in the area of defence and security sector reform.

Key areas of cooperation

Uzbekistan’s cooperation with NATO is mutually beneficial and includes:

- **Building capabilities and interoperability**
  - Uzbekistan participates in NATO’s Defence Education Enhancement Programme (DEEP), which provides expertise on how to build, develop and reform educational institutions in the security, defence and military domains. Uzbek officers have participated in numerous military education activities, including seminars and workshops on defence policy and strategy within the PfP framework, counter-terrorism training, and English language training.
  - Uzbekistan has participated in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) mechanism.
Support for NATO-led operations and missions

- Uzbekistan offered support to the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) troops in Afghanistan with transit agreements. Also, Uzbekistan hosted the Office of the NATO Liaison Officer for Central Asia in Tashkent from 2013 until 2017, when the Office was closed for budgetary reasons.

Wider cooperation

- Uzbekistan developed its civil response capacity for natural and man-made emergency situations in consultation with the Allies. In April 2003, Uzbekistan hosted the first Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) exercise held in Central Asia, which simulated an international response to a major earthquake in the region, and also participated in another consequence management field exercise held in Romania the same year. Uzbekistan offered assistance through the EADRCC to several nations struck by natural disasters.

- Uzbekistan has been actively engaged within the framework of the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme since 1993. Leading areas for cooperation include energy security, environmental security, and disaster forecast and prevention.
Report of the Committee of Three

The Committee on Non-Military Cooperation, more frequently referred to as the “Committee of Three” or the “Three Wise Men”, was convened in 1956 and instructed to “advise the Council on ways and means to improve and extend NATO cooperation in non-military fields and to develop greater unity within the Atlantic Community”. It produced a report entitled “The Report of the Committee of Three on Non-Military Cooperation in NATO”, which was considered as a “major step forward in the development of NATO in the non-military field” and, more broadly, in the development of political consultation between members of the Alliance.

Highlights

- The Report of the Three Wise Men (December 1956) had a resounding impact on NATO by helping to introduce areas of cooperation beyond the military, encouraging regular political consultation among member countries and broadening the strategic framework within which the Alliance operated.
- It also reinforced NATO’s political role at a time when the Organization was hardening its military and strategic stance, advocating massive retaliation as a key element of its new strategy.
- In 1956, the adoption of political consultation as a key component of the Alliance permanently characterised NATO as a political and military organisation.
- The Report examined and redefined the objectives and needs of the Alliance and made recommendations for strengthening its internal solidarity, cohesion and unity.
Recommendations included the peaceful settlement of inter-member disputes and cooperation in the following areas: economic, scientific and technical, cultural, and in the information field.

Ironically, the Report was published during the Suez crisis, which due to a lack of political consultation among members, had jeopardised Alliance unity and solidarity at the time.

The “Three Wise Men” were Lester B. Pearson, Foreign Minister of Canada, Gaetano Martino, Foreign Minister of Italy, and Halvard Lange, Foreign Minister of Norway.

Aim and political context

Cooperation and cohesion

The aim of the report was two-fold: to broaden areas of cooperation beyond the military to include non-military cooperation and encourage regular political consultation among member countries so as to reinforce unity and cohesion.

On 5 May 1956, the North Atlantic Council appointed Lester B. Pearson, Gaetano Martino and Halvard Lange to write a report by the end of the year that would offer ways and means of reaching these objectives.

Encouraging regular political consultation and non-military cooperation

Although Articles 2 and 4 of NATO’s founding Washington Treaty held the promise of more than a military Alliance, by 1956 members were not regularly using the Alliance’s framework to consult each other or to cooperate on non-military matters. In April 1954, a resolution on political consultation had nonetheless been put forward by Canada:

“...all member governments should bear constantly in mind the desirability of bringing to the attention of the Council information on international political developments whenever they are of concern to other members of the Council or to the Organization as a whole; and
(…) the Council in permanent session should from time to time consider what specific subject might be suitable for political consultation at one of its subsequent meetings when its members should be in a position to express the views of their governments on the subject”. Council Memorandum, C-M(54)38

However, even if this resolution was approved by the Council, not all member countries were comfortable with the idea of consulting more systematically on international affairs.

Reservations and resistance

John Foster Dulles of the United States, although supportive of the resolution, expressed reservations in a Council meeting on 23 April 1954:

“Countries like his own with world-wide interests might find it difficult to consult other NATO governments in every case. For a sudden emergency, it was more important to take action than to discuss the emergency.” Council Record, C-R(54)18

Improving conditions for consultation within the Alliance meant that smaller Allies felt their voices could be heard, but that larger powers, such as the United States, were concerned that they would not have the freedom to act as they saw fit if they were forced to consult on foreign policy.

Additionally, the United States argued that developing a political pillar within the Alliance could divert attention from the “straight defence arrangements” they wanted to put into place. This was an argument they had already put forward during the drafting of Article 2 of the Washington Treaty in 1949.

A political and a military alliance

Nonetheless, the Report of the Three Wise Men was to become a landmark in the evolution of NATO’s political consultation process as well as being instrumental in reinforcing NATO’s political pillar:

“A direct method of bringing home to public opinion the importance of the habit of political consultation within NATO may be summed up in the proposition "NATO is a political as well as a military alliance". The
The Committee of Three agreed that the two aspects of security – civil and military – were no longer separate, and that the needs and objectives of NATO had changed. It therefore set about consulting with members on how the Alliance could improve non-military cooperation.

The Suez Crisis – a case at hand

Ironically, just six weeks after the Committee began consulting, France and the United Kingdom collaborated with Israel in the invasion of Egypt to secure the Suez Canal on 29 October 1956. This was the most serious dispute faced by the Allies since the establishment of NATO and it took place while the “Three Wise Men” were working on the report.

France and the United Kingdom argued that Gamal Abdul Nasser’s nationalisation of the canal on 26 July 1956 was a threat to European industry and oil supplies. The French also accused Nasser of supporting the rebellion in Algeria and of threatening regional security. However, the United States maintained it would not support military action.

When Israel launched the attack, supported by the British and French, no advanced warning was given to the United States or NATO. Although there had been tripartite discussions between the United Kingdom, the United States and France regarding the crisis, they were not explicit.

The danger of the Suez Crisis was not a war between these powers but that the member countries would fail to act as a community. This could have endangered the Alliance. The North Atlantic Council first convened on the subject after the first London Conference in August 1956, which had brought together the signatories of the 1888 Constantinople Convention and states that shipped considerable cargo through the canal. The discussions at NATO were not very fruitful. It was observed that neither France nor the United Kingdom were interested in keeping the Allies informed of their actions.

Eventually, debate in the United Nations Security Council turned from condemnation of the action to the idea of a United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF). This force, the brainchild of Lester Pearson, moved into the Canal zone in mid-November and by Christmas French and British troops were extracted from the region. The UNEF was the archetype for future peacekeeping missions run by the United Nations and Lester Pearson later received the Nobel Peace Prize for his role in defusing the crisis and according to the Nobel selection committee, “sav[ing] the world.”

Although the crisis was rapidly resolved, it shook the Alliance and clearly demonstrated the need for greater consultation and cooperation.

Methodology

The Committee of Three looked at five areas:

1. political cooperation;
2. economic cooperation;
3. cultural cooperation;
4. cooperation in the information field; and
5. organisation and functions.

At its first meetings on 20-22 June 1956 at NATO Headquarters, located at the time in Paris, the Committee established the procedures that would be followed. Each member country received a questionnaire from the Committee on 28 June, which touched on each topic area. In addition, a memorandum containing explanatory notes and guidance to assist members with the questionnaires was issued. Member countries had to send their replies by 10 August, after which there was a period of two weeks for the Committee to consider the responses.

Following this examination the Committee held consultations with each member country individually in order to clarify, where necessary, positions taken by governments in their replies and to discuss preliminary views of the Committee.
NATO’s International Staff were tasked with producing a study on how other international organisations dealt with disputes between members and what NATO had done so far in the field of non-military cooperation. This included ways of improving the coordination of the foreign policies of member countries. A 15-page report was drafted with the help of Professor Lincoln Gordon (Harvard University), Professor Guido Carli (Rome) and Mr Robert Major (Oslo). It identified areas where increased cooperation could be implemented and how political consultation on matters of common concern could aid dispute resolution within the Alliance framework thereby promoting solidarity among members.

The “Committee of Three” met again in New York on 14 November 1956 and re-examined the report in the light of the tensions surrounding the Suez Crisis. It re-wrote the report in the last three weeks of November in response to the Suez Crisis. Although many of the points remained the same, the language used was made stronger to reflect the deterioration in Allied relations that had taken place. The final draft of the report was delivered to the North Atlantic Council on 13 December 1956.

Main conclusions

Speaking at a Council meeting in Paris on 11 December 1956, Paul-Henri Spaak, Belgian Minister of Foreign Affairs, said that the events of the Suez Crisis had “shattered many illusions” within the NATO framework. “The action taken by the United Kingdom and France risked setting up chain reactions which would have had the most serious consequences,” he said. “It was no excuse to say that these events were taking place south of a given parallel. To preserve the substance of the Alliance and its very existence, the concept of a geographical limit had to be discarded. The conclusions reached by the ‘Committee of Three Ministers’ were an imperative necessity, without acceptance of which there was no salvation for NATO.” Council Record, C-R(56)70, Item II.

The Committee found that unless greater cohesion was achieved “the very framework of cooperation in NATO, which has contributed so greatly to the cause of freedom, and which is so vital to its advancement in the future, will be endangered.”

It acknowledged that the “first essential, then, of a healthy and developing NATO lies in the whole-hearted acceptance by all its members of the political commitment for collective defence”, stating further on that: “There cannot be unity in defence and disunity in foreign policy.”

The core of the report focused on defining security in a broad sense, going well beyond military matters alone. “From the very beginning of NATO, then, it was recognised that while defence cooperation was the first and most urgent requirement, this was not enough. It has also become increasingly realised since the Treaty was signed that security is today far more than a military matter. The strengthening of political consultation and economic cooperation, the development of resources, progress in education and public understanding, all these can be as important, or even more important, for the protection of the security of a nation, or an alliance, as the building of a battle-ship or the equipping of an army.”

Within the five areas examined – political, economic, cultural, cooperation in the field of information and organisation and functions – the principal recommendations were the following:

Political cooperation

- Members should inform the North Atlantic Council of any development significantly affecting the Alliance; they should do this not as a formality, but as a preliminary to effective political consultation;
- Both individual member governments and the Secretary General should have the right to raise in the North Atlantic Council any subject which is of common NATO interest and not of a purely domestic character;
- A member government should not, without adequate advance consultation, adopt firm policies or make major political pronouncements on matters which significantly affect the Alliance or any of its members, unless circumstances make such prior consultation obviously and demonstrably impossible;
- In developing their national policies, members should take into consideration the interests and views of other governments, particularly those most directly concerned, as expressed in NATO consultation, even where no community of view or consensus has been reached in the North Atlantic Council;
Where a consensus has been reached, it should be reflected in the formation of national policies. When, for national reasons, the consensus is not followed, the government concerned should offer an explanation to the Council. It is even more important that, when an agreed and formal recommendation has emerged from the North Atlantic Council’s discussions, governments should give it full weight in any national action or policies related to the subject of that recommendation.

The “Three Wise Men” also recommended that the Council adopt a resolution on the peaceful settlement of inter-member disputes and made some specific recommendations to strengthen the consultation procedure. These included initiatives such as submitting disputes between member countries to NATO before resorting to another international agency, except disputes of a legal or an economic character.

Economic cooperation

The report highlighted the importance of close economic relations between members, as well a good understanding of each other's interests and concerns:

“... there must be a genuine desire among the members to work together and a readiness to consult on questions of common concern based on the recognition of common interests”.

However, even if the report did not recommend that NATO take on a lead role in this area, it suggested that there should be “... NATO consultation whenever economic issues of special interest to the Alliance are involved; particularly those which have political or defence implications or affect the economic health of the Atlantic Community as a whole.” The report recommended that a Committee of Economic Advisers be established and also encouraged cooperation in the field of science and technology.

Cultural cooperation

The Three Wise Men underlined the importance of cultural cooperation between member countries. “A sense of community must bind the people as well as the institutions of the Atlantic nations. This will exist only to the extent that there is a realization of their common cultural heritage and of the values of their free way of life and thought.”

To put this in practice, they proposed straightforward initiatives such as preparing NATO courses and seminars for teachers; broadening support to other educational initiatives such as NATO fellowships; the use of NATO information material in schools; promoting closer relations between NATO and youth organisations; and financing cultural projects, with a common benefit.

Cooperation in the information field

The NATO Information Service was established in 1950, but to bolster its efforts, the “Three Wise Men” recommended that national information officers be designated to disseminate information material. Other initiatives were suggested, such as having this material translated into as many non-official languages of the Alliance as possible (English and French being the two official languages) and broadening NATO’s target audiences to include youth leaders, teachers and lecturers.

Organisation and functions

The proposals under this section were formulated with the full implementation of the report recommendations in mind. They included suggestions for improvement such as encouraging discussion rather than just declarations of policy at ministerial meetings, strengthening links between the Council and member countries and reinforcing the role of the Secretary General and the International Staff.

Impact of the report

The Council approved the report on 13 December 1956 and in May 1957 inaugurated procedures based on the Committee’s recommendations.

Immediate results were mixed. As a direct result, the NATO Science Programme was launched that year. It sought to promote collaborative projects, facilitate exchange and maximise return for resources spent on research. Another immediate impact was the creation of national information officers (within the
International Staff) and targeted national information programmes, and the establishment of the Committee of Political Advisers (later to become the Political Committee) and the Committee of Economic Advisers in 1957.

Paul-Henri Spaak, a proponent of non-military cooperation, became Secretary General of NATO the same year. However, even though a strong advocate of consultation was now at the head of the Organization, members continued to avoid bringing controversial issues to the attention of the Council.

Political consultation itself was a gradual process, which took many years to come to fruition. In a NATO monograph on the issue in 1963 the International Staff noted:

"the creation of the NATO consultation system is, in itself, an achievement of the highest order. In fact, seen against the background of the centuries-old history of frustrated efforts in organizing and using political cooperation as an instrument to prevent armed aggression, NATO's success in a) achieving continuity of consultation, and in b) creating the necessary permanent consultative organs is all the more impressive." NATO Historical Officer, NHO(63)1

While there have been occasions where timing, security and geographical responsibilities have made using the consultative NATO framework problematic for members, the number of these cases remain few, said the monograph. "The criteria of the 'Three Wise Men' may have been in the nature of ideal objectives. If they have not been realised, this may have been due in certain cases to a lack of imagination among governments, unable at times to recognise 'the common interest' of certain problems."

In addition and similarly to the Harmel Report published in 1967, the Report of the Three Wise Men contributed to broadening the strategic framework within which the Alliance operated. Both reports could be perceived as NATO's first steps toward a more cooperative approach to security issues.

The Alliance continues to build upon the principles set out in the Committee's report to this day.
Reserve forces

As threats to global security have evolved, so too has the role of reserve forces in NATO. Reservists combine a civilian career with a military function and therefore play a crucial role in building bridges between military and non-military personnel across the Alliance. They are recognised as indispensable to the Alliance’s defence at the earliest stages of a conflict since their main role is to be available to fight as soon as there is the need to mobilise forces.

**Highlights**

- NATO does not have or control its own reserve forces – it works on reservist issues through three different entities.
- NATO works with the National Reserve Forces Committee (NRFC), which focuses on military policy and concepts, and is an advisory body for the Military Committee on these questions.
- It also works with the Interallied Confederation of Reserve Officers (known by its French acronym CIOR), which concentrates on developing an inter-allied common spirit and the training and education of reservists.
- NATO also works with the Interallied Confederation of Medical Reserve Officers (CIOMR), which brings together medical officers from the reserve forces of member countries.
- Together, these entities seek to complement efforts and harmonise their respective programmes and projects.
- All three serve as a platform to exchange views and best practices and, whenever possible, they convene at the same time and place.
- The Military Committee is briefed once a year on the activities of these organisations.
National Reserve Forces Committee (NRFC)

Up to the early 1980s, reserve forces and related policy matters were considered a national issue only, so they did not come within the remit of NATO. In 1981, a central forum for reservist matters called the National Reserve Forces Committee (NRFC) was founded, but it was not until 1996 that it was officially recognised as a NATO committee.

Objectives and responsibilities

The NRFC has the task of preparing conceptual proposals and developing approaches as an advisory body for the Military Committee in this area. It does not, however, address strategic, tactical or operational issues.

Its objectives and responsibilities were approved by the Military Committee (MC 392) on 18 November 1996 and have since been amended several times. These are defined as:
1. Providing policy advice on reserve issues to the Military Committee;
2. Strengthening the readiness and effectiveness of Alliance reserves by providing a forum for the exchange of information and sharing of best practices;
3. Maintaining awareness of relevant issues and identifying common activities that may be of interest to Alliance and partner reserves by liaising with entities that have an interest in these issues. In particular, the NRFC cooperates with the CIOR.

Functioning of the committee

The NRFC consists of a chairman and a secretariat, as well as the national delegations of NATO members and observer countries (Australia, Austria, Georgia, New Zealand, the Republic of Korea and Sweden). Liaison officers represent the International Military Staff, Allied Command Operations and Allied Command Transformation. National ministries of defence appoint their respective committee delegations.

Chairmanship is held for a period of two years by one of the member countries. The chairman organises and conducts meetings and coordinates the activities of the committee. He/she is the correspondent between the NRFC and the Military Committee, speaks on behalf of the NRFC and is in charge of tasks and studies requested by the Military Committee.

The NRFC holds plenary conferences at least twice a year.

Interallied Confederation of Reserve Officers (CIOR)

The Interallied Confederation of Reserve Officers (Confédération interalliée des officiers de réserve or CIOR) is an independent body that represents the reserve officers from 26 NATO members and eight associated countries. It was founded in 1948 and officially recognised by NATO in 1976 (MC 248/1) with the aim of providing advice on the best use of reservists, continuing to improve the knowledge of NATO authorities about national reserve forces, and exchange information between member states. It is a non-political, non-governmental, non-profit-making organisation which cooperates with the Alliance on reservists issues.

The members of the CIOR associations are active civilians and professionals, in addition to their role as reserve officers. This dual role allows them to contribute to a better understanding of security and defence issues within their national populations, as well as bringing civilian expertise and experiences to the challenges facing reserve forces at NATO.

Delegates to the CIOR are elected by their national reserve officer associations. The head of each delegation is a CIOR vice-president. The Confederation is structured around a constitution that provides for a rotating presidency, an executive council comprised of vice-presidents, key committees and several annual events that promote training, education and professional development of reserve forces.

CIOR’s main roles:

- Improving “NATO understanding of CIOR goals and activities, by informing NATO authorities, periodically briefing the Military Committee”.
To increase cooperation between NATO and CIOR “by providing advice from CIOR’s perspective on the best utilisation of reservists in the defence of NATO and in non-Art. 5 operations.”

“To contribute to improving the knowledge of NATO authorities about national reserve forces and the role of the reserve forces in common NATO defence and new missions, particularly from the CIOR perspective.”

“To utilise CIOR knowledge of reserve affairs within each member nation in order to inspire developments in the organisation, administration and social aspects, where appropriate, of reserve forces and in particular of reserve Officers.”

CIOR committees:
1. Defence Attitudes & Security Issues Committee
2. Civil Military Cooperation Committee
3. Military Competitions Committee
4. Legal Committee
5. Partnership for Peace & Outreach Committee
6. Language Academy Committee
7. Seminar Committee
8. Young Reserve Officers Committee

The main meetings of the CIOR are held on an annual basis in the summer, with locations alternating among member countries. It also organises a winter conference each year in Brussels, Belgium, for the CIOR Council and Committees. The Confederation is financed by annual subscriptions from its component national associations. The CIOR has a permanent representative at NATO Headquarters (in Brussels Belgium) in the International Military Staff.

Interallied Confederation of Medical Reserve Officers (CIOMR)

The Interallied Confederation of Medical Reserve Officers (Confédération interalliée des officiers médicaux de réserve or CIOMR) is a confederation in its own right. Established in 1948, the CIOMR is the official organisation of healthcare professionals within the reserve forces from countries that were to become NATO members. Originally founded by Belgium, France and the Netherlands, the Confederation now includes other NATO members and affiliated countries, including associate members.

The CIOMR works to establish close relations with NATO’s Committee of the Chiefs of Military Medical Services (COMEDS) and with medical professionals and services of all member countries. It also promotes effective collaboration with the active forces of the Alliance.
Each NATO member country needs to be resilient to resist and recover from a major shock such as a natural disaster, failure of critical infrastructure, or a hybrid or armed attack. Resilience is a society’s ability to resist and recover easily and quickly from such shocks and combines both civil preparedness and military capacity. Robust resilience through civil preparedness in Allied countries is essential to NATO’s collective security and defence.

The principle of resilience is firmly anchored in Article 3 of the Alliance’s founding treaty: “In order more effectively to achieve the objectives of this Treaty, the Parties, separately and jointly, by means of continuous and effective self-help and mutual aid, will maintain and develop their individual and collective capacity to resist armed attack.”

Resilience is first and foremost a national responsibility and each member country needs to be sufficiently robust and adaptable to support the entire spectrum of crises envisaged by the Alliance. In this context, Article 3 complements the collective defence clause set out in Article 5, which stipulates that an attack against one Ally is an attack against all. Allies need to give NATO the means to fulfil its core tasks and, in particular, that of collective defence.

The individual commitment of each and every Ally to maintain and strengthen its resilience reduces the vulnerability of NATO as a whole. Members can strengthen resilience through the development of home defence and niche skills such as cyber defence or medical support combining civilian, economic, commercial and military factors. When Allies are well prepared, they are less likely to be attacked, making NATO as a whole stronger.

Moreover, military forces, especially those deployed during crises and war, heavily depend on the civilian and commercial sectors for transport, communications and even basic supplies such as food and water, to fulfil their missions. Military efforts to defend Alliance territory and populations therefore need to be complemented by robust civil preparedness. However, civil capabilities can be vulnerable to disruption.
and attack in both peacetime and during war. By reducing these vulnerabilities, NATO reduces the risk of a potential attack. A high level of resilience is therefore an essential aspect of credible deterrence and defence.

Vulnerabilities in a changing security environment

Today’s security environment is unpredictable. Threats can come from state and non-state actors, including terrorism and other asymmetrical threats, cyber attacks and hybrid warfare, which blur the lines between conventional and unconventional forms of conflict. They can also come from natural disasters such as floods, fires and earthquakes. The challenge of adapting and responding to these hazards is compounded by trends that have radically transformed the security environment.

Falling defence budgets since the end of the Cold War have gradually increased the overall reliance on civil and commercial assets and capabilities. As a consequence, civil resources and critical infrastructure are now, in many areas, owned and operated by the private sector. A few figures illustrate the extent of this: around 90 per cent of military transport for large military operations is chartered or requisitioned from the commercial sector; on average, over 30 per cent of satellite communications used for defence purposes are provided by the commercial sector; and some 75 per cent of host nation support to NATO operations is sourced from local commercial infrastructure and services.

Driven by the objective of maximising efficiency and making profits, the private sector has eliminated most redundancies, which are costly for business. However, these redundancies are critical for governments to maintain continuity of government and essential services and for use as an emergency back-up in times of crises. During the Cold War for instance, there were territorial defence mechanisms and capabilities in place ready to support a war effort, but they no longer exist.

In sum, with the reduction in military investment and the privatisation of previously government-owned assets, a heavy reliance on civilian enablers, bound by commercial practices, has developed.

Moreover with the widespread use of new technologies, our societies have become interconnected and interdependent in the economic, financial, information and cyber domains. Such interdependence has been a great strength and of significant benefit to our societies, but it can also be a weakness, making Allies vulnerable to the implications of rapid change in these domains.

Strengthening resilience

The vulnerabilities Allies have to contend with are numerous, complex and multidirectional. NATO’s work to improve resilience is not specific to any single vulnerability. It contributes to protecting citizens from all potential hazards. At the 2016 Summit in Warsaw, Allied leaders decided to boost NATO’s resilience to the full spectrum of threats and continue developing individual and collective capacity to resist any form of armed attack. They agreed seven baseline requirements for national resilience against which member states can measure their level of preparedness. These requirements reflect the core functions of continuity of government, essential services to the population and civil support to the military, which must be maintained under the most demanding circumstances. They are all connected, which means if one area is impacted, another may suffer as a result:

- Assured continuity of government and critical government services: for instance the ability to make decisions, communicate them and enforce them in a crisis;
- Resilient energy supplies: back-up plans and power grids, internally and across borders;
- Ability to deal effectively with uncontrolled movement of people, and to de-conflict these movements from NATO’s military deployments;
- Resilient food and water resources: ensuring these supplies are safe from disruption or sabotage;
- Ability to deal with mass casualties: ensuring that civilian health systems can cope and that sufficient medical supplies are stocked and secure;
- Resilient civil communications systems: ensuring that telecommunications and cyber networks function even under crisis conditions, with sufficient back-up capacity. This requirement was updated
in November 2019 by NATO Defence Ministers, who stressed the need for reliable communications systems including 5G, robust options to restore these systems, priority access to national authorities in times of crisis, and the thorough assessments of all risks to communications systems;

- Resilient transport systems: ensuring that NATO forces can move across Alliance territory rapidly and that civilian services can rely on transportation networks, even in a crisis.

Implementing this commitment is a top priority for Allies. Since 2016, the resilience of Allied members has improved, but challenges and shortfalls remain. At the same time, Allies are confronted with new challenges, such as foreign investments and ownership in critical infrastructures, which could undermine the assured access of these essential critical infrastructures by national governments and military leaders in times of crisis. Allies agreed to revise the baseline requirement in the field of communications to be better prepared to deal with the challenges presented by emerging communications technologies, such as 5G. NATO will further assess, as part of the 2020 Report on the State of Civil Preparedness, whether other baseline requirements from the 2016 Resilience Commitment require updating in the face of these new challenges, particularly in the field of transport and energy.

**Role of civil preparedness in support of military operations**

When military forces need to deploy, they rely on the civilian and commercial sectors for support. In concrete terms this means that they need support to deploy rapidly and freely across Alliance territory. Military forces are reliant for instance on civilian transport facilities, satellite communication and power supplies, not to mention food and water supplies, to conduct their operations.

The range of functions and facilities the civilian sector covers is broad, and includes: continuity of government, of essential services to the population and support to military operations as the three critical civilian functions that a country must be able to uphold under all circumstances.

Exercises are an effective way to conduct stress tests of national arrangements, in particular when it comes to large-scale problems such as an attack with weapons of mass destruction or dealing with hybrid warfare.

**Partnering to strengthen resilience**

Enhancing resilience and civil preparedness is also part of NATO’s support to partners and a way to project stability in the Alliance’s neighbourhood. Examples of practical cooperation include the deployment of teams of civil preparedness experts in support of Georgia and Iraq, and the establishment of a joint UN-NATO three-year project to assist Jordan in improving its preparedness in the field of chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear weapons.

NATO also partners with the private sector and other international organisations, in particular the European Union, to further reinforce the efficiency and effectiveness of civil preparedness.
Resolute Support Mission in Afghanistan

Following the completion of the mission of the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) at the end of 2014, a new, follow-on, NATO-led mission called Resolute Support was launched on 1 January 2015 to provide further training, advice and assistance for the Afghan security forces and institutions. At the 2016 NATO Summit in Warsaw, Allied leaders decided to extend the presence of RSM beyond 2016. Two years later, at the Brussels Summit in July 2018, they committed to sustaining the mission until conditions indicate a change is appropriate.

Over 16,000 personnel from 39 NATO member states and partner countries are deployed in support of the Resolute Support Mission (RSM). At the 2018 Brussels Summit, NATO welcomed two new troop-contributing nations, the United Arab Emirates and Qatar, which are currently finalising the details of their offers to contribute.

RSM operates with one central hub (in Kabul/Bagram) and four spokes in Mazar-e Sharif, Herat, Kandahar and Laghman. It focuses primarily on training, advice and assistance activities at the security-related ministries, in the country’s institutions and among the senior ranks of the army and police. The Resolute Support Mission works closely with different elements of the Afghan army, police and air force.
Key functions include:

- Supporting planning, programming and budgeting;
- Assuring transparency, accountability and oversight;
- Supporting the adherence to the principles of rule of law and good governance;
- Supporting the establishment and sustainment of such processes as force generation, recruiting, training, managing and development of personnel.

**Key decisions on RSM**

The decision to launch a follow-on, NATO-led non-combat mission to continue supporting the development of the Afghan security forces after the end of ISAF’s mission in December 2014 was jointly agreed between Allies and partners with the Afghan government at the NATO Summit in Chicago in 2012. This commitment was reaffirmed at the Wales Summit in 2014.

The legal framework for RSM is provided by a Status of Forces Agreement (SOFA), which was signed in Kabul on 30 September 2014 by the Afghan President and NATO’s Senior Civilian Representative to Afghanistan, and later ratified by the Afghan Parliament on 27 November 2014. The SOFA defines the terms and conditions under which NATO forces will be deployed in Afghanistan as part of Resolute Support, as well as the activities that they are set to carry out under this agreement.

The agreement between NATO and Afghanistan on the establishment of the new mission was welcomed by United Nations Security Council Resolution 2189. Unanimously adopted on 12 December 2014, it underscores the importance of continued international support for the stability of Afghanistan.

In December 2015, at the foreign ministers’ meeting of NATO Allies and their RSM partners, it was agreed to sustain the RSM presence, including in the regions of Afghanistan, during 2016. Six months later, in May 2016, they agreed to sustain the RSM presence beyond 2016 – a decision that was confirmed by Allied leaders at the NATO Summit in Warsaw in July.

At a meeting of defence ministers in November 2017, RSM troop-contributing nations confirmed that the number of troops deployed would increase from around 13,000 to around 16,000 troops.

Beyond the training, advice and assistance mission, Allies and partner countries are committed to the broader international community’s support for the long-term financial sustainment of the Afghan security forces until the end of 2020 (see ANA Trust Fund). At the 2018 Brussels Summit, Allies and partners agreed to extend their commitment to supporting the financial sustainment of the Afghan security forces through 2024.
The Resource Policy and Planning Board (RPPB) is the senior advisory body to the North Atlantic Council (NAC) on the management of all NATO resources. It has responsibility for the overall management of NATO’s civil and military budgets, as well as the NATO Security Investment Programme (NSIP) and manpower.

The Budget Committee and the Investment Committee report to the RPPB. The Budget Committee reviews and recommends civil and military budgets, while the Investment Committee is responsible for the implementation of the NSIP, which finances the provision of the installations and facilities needed to support the roles of the two strategic commands that exceed national defence requirements of individual member countries.

**Main roles and functions**

The RPPB is responsible for resource policy, including eligibility and affordability, and is tasked with planning and performance assessment. The RPPB receives strategic guidance from the NAC and provides coherence and guidance to the work of resource committees. It advises the NAC on the resource implications of new initiatives, operations and missions, as it does the Military Committee on the cost and investment implications of any of the committee’s decisions.

The RPPB was set up in July 2010 as the only financial committee reporting directly to the North Atlantic Council. It succeeded the Senior Resource Board, which was one of four financial committees (Senior Resource Board, Civil Budget Committee, Military Budget Committee and Infrastructure Committee) reporting to the NAC. The Senior Resource Board itself was created in the 1990s in an effort to optimise the allocation of military common-funded resources and reinforce management structures. At the same time, capability packages were established to identify the assets available to and required by NATO military commanders.

These capability packages are a means to assess identified Alliance capabilities in terms of both capital investment and recurrent operating and maintenance costs as well as the civilian and military workforce required to accomplish the task.

The Board reviews these capability packages and endorses them from the point of view of their resource implications and eligibility for common funding prior to their approval by the NAC.

Each year, the RPPB also recommends for approval by the NAC a comprehensive Medium Term Resource Plan, which sets financial ceilings for the following year and planning figures for the four subsequent years. This five-year Medium Term Resource Plan sets the parameters within which the Budget and the Investment Committees oversee the preparation and execution of their respective budgets and plans.

The Board also produces an Annual Report, which allows the North Atlantic Council to monitor the adequacy of resource allocations in relation to requirements.

**Working mechanisms**

All NATO member countries are represented on the Board, which is chaired by a national chairman selected on a rotational basis.

Besides national representatives, representatives of the International Military Staff, NATO Strategic Commanders, and Chairmen of the Budget and Investment Committees also attend the Board’s meetings.

The Board is supported by the NATO Office of Resources.
NATO’s response to hybrid threats

Hybrid methods of warfare, such as propaganda, deception, sabotage and other non-military tactics have long been used to destabilise adversaries. What is new about attacks seen in recent years is their speed, scale and intensity, facilitated by rapid technological change and global interconnectivity. NATO has a strategy on its role in countering hybrid warfare and stands ready to defend the Alliance and all Allies against any threat, whether conventional or hybrid.

Highlights

- The primary responsibility to respond to hybrid threats or attacks rests with the targeted nation.
- NATO is prepared to assist any Ally against hybrid threats as part of collective defence. The Alliance has developed a strategy on its role in countering hybrid warfare to help address these threats.
- In July 2018, NATO leaders agreed to set up counter-hybrid support teams, which provide tailored targeted assistance to Allies upon their request, in preparing against and responding to hybrid activities.
- NATO is strengthening its coordination with partners, including the European Union, in efforts to counter hybrid threats.
- NATO’s Joint Intelligence and Security Division has a hybrid analysis branch that helps improve situational awareness.
- It also actively counters propaganda – not with more propaganda, but with facts – online, on air and in print.
More background information

What are the hybrid threats NATO faces?

Hybrid threats combine military and non-military as well as covert and overt means, including disinformation, cyber attacks, economic pressure, deployment of irregular armed groups and use of regular forces. Hybrid methods are used to blur the lines between war and peace, and attempt to sow doubt in the minds of target populations.

The speed, scale and intensity of hybrid threats have increased in recent years. Being prepared to prevent, counter and respond to hybrid attacks, whether by state or non-state actors, is a top priority for NATO.

NATO’s strategy: prepare, deter, defend

Since 2015, NATO has had a strategy on its role in countering hybrid warfare. NATO will ensure that the Alliance and Allies are sufficiently prepared to counter hybrid attacks in whatever form they may materialise. It will deter hybrid attacks on the Alliance and, if necessary, will defend Allies concerned.

To be prepared, NATO continuously gathers, shares and assesses information in order to detect and attribute any ongoing hybrid activity. The Joint Intelligence and Security Division at NATO Headquarters improves the Alliance’s understanding and analysis of hybrid threats. The hybrid analysis branch provides decision-makers with improved awareness on possible hybrid threats.

The Alliance supports Allies’ efforts to identify national vulnerabilities and strengthen their own resilience, if requested. NATO also serves as a hub for expertise, providing support to Allies in areas such as civil preparedness and chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) incident response; critical infrastructure protection; strategic communications; protection of civilians; cyber defence; energy security; and counter-terrorism.

Training, exercises and education also play a significant role in preparing to counter hybrid threats. This includes exercising of decision-making processes and joint military and non-military responses in cooperation with other actors.

To deter hybrid threats, NATO is resolved to act promptly, whenever and wherever necessary. It continues to increase the readiness and preparedness of its forces, and has strengthened its decision-making process and its command structure as part of its deterrence and defence posture. This sends a strong signal that the Alliance is improving both its political and military responsiveness and its ability to deploy appropriate forces to the right place at the right time.

If deterrence should fail, NATO stands ready to defend any Ally against any threat. To this end, NATO forces have to be able to react in a quick and agile way, whenever and wherever needed.

Cooperation beyond NATO

NATO continues to strengthen its cooperation and coordination with such partners as Finland, Sweden, Ukraine and the European Union (EU) to counter hybrid threats and enhance resilience. As part of their increasingly closer cooperation, NATO and the EU have stepped up their cooperation on dealing with hybrid threats, with a special focus on countering cyber attacks.

In addition, Centres of Excellence work alongside and contribute knowledge and expertise to the Alliance. They are international research centres that are nationally or multi-nationally funded and staffed.

The European Centre of Excellence for Countering Hybrid Threats located in Helsinki, Finland serves as a hub of expertise, assisting participating countries in improving their civil-military capabilities, resilience and preparedness to counter hybrid threats. It was inaugurated in October 2017 by NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg, together with European Union High Representative for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy/Vice-President of the European Commission Federica Mogherini. The Centre is an initiative of the Government of Finland, supported by 23 other nations, as well as NATO and the EU.
Other Centres of Excellence contribute to NATO’s efforts to counter hybrid threats, including the Strategic Communications Centre of Excellence in Riga, Latvia; the Cooperative Cyber Defence Centre of Excellence in Tallinn, Estonia; and the Energy Security Centre of Excellence in Vilnius, Lithuania.
NATO’s role in conventional arms control

NATO is committed to and attaches great importance to conventional arms control. The Alliance provides an essential consultative and decision-making forum for its members on all aspects of arms control and disarmament.

Highlights

- NATO’s 2010 Strategic Concept highlights the continued importance of harmonising defence and arms control policies and objectives, and the Alliance’s commitment to the development of future arms control agreements.
- The 1990 Treaty on Conventional Armed Forces in Europe (CFE) is considered as a landmark arms control agreement, to which Allies have repeatedly stated their commitment.
- Russia’s selective implementation of the Vienna Document and Open Skies Treaty and long-standing non-implementation of the CFE Treaty have eroded the positive contributions of these arms control instruments. Allies have called on Russia to fully adhere to all its arms control commitments.
- NATO Allies support the implementation of various confidence- and security-building measures, which include: the Vienna Document, the Open Skies Treaty and the humanitarian demining goals of the Ottawa Convention.
All NATO Allies are party to the UN Programme of Action to Prevent, Combat and Eradicate the Illicit Trade in Small Arms and Light Weapons (SALW) in All Its Aspects, which seeks to improve national legislation and controls over illicit small arms.

The Arms Trade Treaty establishes common international standards for the import, export and transfer of conventional arms and came into force in December 2014. NATO stands ready to support the implementation of the treaty as appropriate.

NATO Allies assist partner countries in the destruction of surplus stocks of mines, arms and munitions.

Conventional arms control agreements

Conventional Armed Forces in Europe Treaty

The 1990 Treaty on Conventional Armed Forces in Europe (CFE) is referred to as a “cornerstone of European security” and imposes for the first time in European history legal and verifiable limits on the force structure of its 30 States Parties, which stretch from the Atlantic Ocean to the Ural Mountains.

Since the Treaty’s entry into force in 1992, the destruction of over 100,000 pieces of treaty-limited equipment (tanks, armoured personnel carriers, artillery, attack helicopters and combat aircraft) has been verified and almost 6,000 on-site inspections have been conducted, thereby reaching its objective of creating balance and mitigating the possibility of surprise conventional attacks within its area of application.

At the first CFE Review Conference in 1996, negotiations began to adapt the CFE Treaty to reflect the realities of the post-Cold War era. This process was completed in conjunction with the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) Summit in Istanbul in 1999. States Parties also agreed to additional commitments, called the Istanbul Commitments. Although the Adapted CFE (ACFE) Treaty went far in adjusting the Treaty to a new security environment, it was not ratified by Allied countries because of the failure of Russia to fully meet commitments regarding withdrawal of Russian forces from Georgia and the Republic of Moldova, on which Allies’ agreement to the Adapted Treaty was based.

Since 2000 at NATO summits and ministerial meetings, the Allies have reiterated their commitment to the CFE Treaty and have reaffirmed their readiness and commitment to ratify the Adapted Treaty.

During the third CFE Review Conference in June 2006, Russia expressed its concerns regarding ratification of the adapted CFE Treaty and claimed that even the ACFE was outdated.

After the June 2007 Extraordinary Conference of the States Parties to the CFE Treaty, the Russian president signed legislation on 14 July 2007 to unilaterally “suspend” its legal obligations under the CFE Treaty as of 12 December 2007. In response to these events, NATO offered a set of constructive and forward-looking actions.

In 2008 and 2009, consultations were held between the United States – on behalf of the Alliance – and Russia, but with limited development. Further efforts to resolve the impasse were pursued on the basis of the United States’ initiative, which sought an agreement on a framework for negotiations on a modernised CFE Treaty, in consultations at 36 between all CFE States Parties and NATO member states not party to the CFE Treaty. The process stalled in the autumn of 2011 because of the lack of agreement among parties.

In a situation where no agreement could be reached to overcome the impasse, towards the end of November 2011, NATO CFE Allies announced their decisions to cease implementing certain CFE obligations vis-à-vis Russia, while still continuing to fully implement their obligations with respect to all other CFE States Parties. However, in the December 2011 foreign ministers’ communiqué, Allies stated that these decisions were reversible should the Russian Federation return to full implementation.

At the Chicago Summit in May 2012, Allies reiterated their commitment to conventional arms control and expressed determination to preserve, strengthen and modernise the conventional arms control regime in Europe, based on key principles and commitments.
At the Wales Summit in September 2014, Allies reaffirmed their long-standing commitment to conventional arms control as a key element of Euro-Atlantic security and emphasised the importance of full implementation and compliance to rebuild trust and confidence. They underscored that Russia's unilateral military activity in and around Ukraine has undermined peace, security and stability across the region, and its selective implementation of the Vienna Document and Open Skies Treaty and long-standing non-implementation of the CFE Treaty have eroded the positive contributions of these arms control instruments. Allies called on Russia to fully adhere to its commitments. On 11 March 2015, the Russian Federation announced that it was suspending its participation in the meetings of the Joint Consultative Group (JCG) on the CFE Treaty, which meets regularly in Vienna.

**Vienna Document**

The Vienna Document (VD), that includes all European and Central Asian participating States, is a politically binding agreement designed to promote mutual trust and transparency about a state’s military forces and activities. Under the VD, thousands of inspections and evaluation visits have been conducted as well as airbase visits and visits to military facilities; also new types of major weapon and equipment systems have been demonstrated to the participating States of the VD.

In 2019, NATO Allies, together with Finland and Sweden, introduced a new proposal to modernise the Vienna Document. The proposal aims to restore confidence, build mutual predictability, reduce risks and help prevent unintentional conflict.

**Open Skies Treaty**

The Open Skies Treaty is legally binding and allows for unarmed aerial observation flights over the territory of its participants. So far, more than 1,500 observation missions have been conducted since the Treaty’s entry into force in January 2002. Aerial photography and other material from observation missions provide transparency and support verification activities carried out on the ground under other treaties.

This Treaty provides for extensive cooperation regarding the use of aircraft and their sensors, thereby adding to openness and confidence. Following long-lasting negotiations the States Parties to the Open Skies Treaty agreed, at the 2010 review conference, to allow the use of digital sensors in the future. However, these have to undergo a certification process, as foreseen by the Open Skies Treaty.

**UN Programme of Action to Prevent, Combat and Eradicate the Illicit Trade in Small Arms and Light Weapons in All Its Aspects**

The proliferation of small arms and light weapons (SALW) not only feeds global terrorist activities, but also encourages violence, thus affecting local populations and preventing constructive development and economic activities.

SALW proliferation needs to be addressed as broadly as possible and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) is a well-suited framework for that. The NATO/EAPC Ad Hoc Working Group on SALW and Mine Action contributes to international efforts to address the illicit trade in SALW and encourages full implementation of international regulations and standards, including the United Nations Programme of Action (UN PoA).

The UN PoA was adopted in July 2001 by nearly 150 countries, including all NATO member countries, and contains concrete recommendations for improving national legislation and controls over illicit small arms, fostering regional cooperation and promoting international assistance and cooperation on the issue. It was developed and agreed as a result of the growing realisation that most present-day conflicts are fought with illicit small arms and light weapons, and that their widespread availability has a negative impact on international peace and security, facilitates violations of international humanitarian law and human rights, and hampers economic and social development. It includes measures at the national, regional and global levels, in the areas of legislation, destruction of weapons that were confiscated, seized, or collected, as well as international cooperation and assistance to strengthen the ability of states in identifying and tracing illicit arms and light weapons. The UN holds the Biennial Meeting of States to Consider the Implementation of the PoA, in which NATO participates. National delegations from all member states gather every six years to review the progress made in the implementation of the PoA.
Mine action

Although not all member states of the Alliance are a party to the Ottawa Convention on anti-personnel mines, they all fully support its humanitarian demining goals.

The Alliance assists partner countries in the destruction of surplus stocks of mines, arms and munitions through a NATO/Partnership Trust Fund mechanism.

The EAPC Ad Hoc Working Group on SALW and Mine Action also supports mine action efforts through these Trust Fund projects, as well as through information-sharing. In particular, its guest speaker programme provides an opportunity for mine action experts to share their expertise with the Working Group. These speakers originate from national mine action centres, non-governmental organisations and international organisations and have included high-profile experts, such as Nobel Laureate Ms Jody Williams, Director of the International Campaign to Ban Landmines. The Group has broadened its focus to also incorporate issues related to explosive remnants of war and cluster munitions onto its agenda.

Convention on Cluster Munitions

The Convention on Cluster Munitions prohibits all use, stockpiling, production and transfer of cluster munitions. Separate articles in the Convention concern assistance to victims, clearance of contaminated areas and destruction of stockpiles. It became a legally binding international instrument when it entered into force on 1 August 2010. As of September 2019, a total of 108 had signed the Convention while 107 States Parties had acceded to it.

Arms Trade Treaty

In July 2012, UN member states gathered in New York to negotiate an arms trade treaty that would establish high common standards for international trade in conventional arms. After two years of negotiations, the Conference reached an agreement on a treaty text. Governments signed the treaty and after ratification of 50 states it came into force in December 2014. Since then, over 100 states have ratified the treaty. It establishes common international standards for the import, export and transfer of conventional arms. NATO stands ready to support the Arms Trade Treaty as necessary.

Trust Fund projects

The Partnership for Peace Trust Fund mechanism was originally established in 2000 to assist partner countries with the safe destruction of stocks of anti-personnel land mines. It was later extended to include the destruction of surplus munitions, unexploded ordnance and SALW, and assisting partner countries in managing the consequences of defence reform, training and building integrity. So far, NATO has contributed to the destruction of 5.65 million anti-personnel landmines, 46,750 tonnes of various munitions, 2 million hand grenades, 15.95 million cluster submunitions, 1,635 man-portable air defence systems (MANPADS), 3,530 tonnes of chemicals and 626,000 SALW, alongside 164.4 million rounds of SALW ammunition.

Over the years, NATO has trained thousands of explosive ordnance disposal experts, giving, for instance, assistance to more than 12,000 former military personnel through defence reform Trust Fund projects. Trust Fund projects are initiated by a NATO member or partner country and funded by voluntary contributions from individual Allies, partners and organisations. A web-based information-sharing platform allows donors and recipient countries to share information about ongoing and potential projects.

NATO bodies involved in conventional arms control

There are a number of NATO bodies that provide a forum to discuss and take forward arms control issues. Arms control policy is determined within the deliberations of the High-Level Task Force (HLTF) on Conventional Arms Control that was established for CFE and confidence- and security-building measures (CSBMs).

Implementation and verification of arms control agreements fall under the purview of the Verification Coordinating Committee (VCC), including overseeing a designated CFE verification database.
Other fora include the Partnerships and Cooperative Security Committee (PCSC) and the EAPC Ad Hoc Working Group on SALW and Mine Action, in which implementing organisations like the UN, the European Union, the OSCE, the South Eastern and Eastern Europe Clearinghouse for the Control of SALW – or SEESAC – and the NATO Support and Procurement Agency (NSPA) can share information on projects.

The NATO-Russia Council (NRC) also has a working group for Arms Control, Disarmament and Non-Proliferation. However, work of the NRC has been suspended since spring 2014 due to Russia’s actions in Ukraine.

The NATO School in Oberammergau (Germany) conducts several courses in the fields of arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation. They are related to CFE, VD, Open Skies, weapons of mass destruction (WMD), SALW and Mine Action. Most of them are also open to NATO’s partners.
NATO’s role in energy security

The disruption of energy supply could affect the security of societies of Allies and partners, and have an impact on NATO’s military operations. While these issues are primarily the responsibility of national governments, NATO Allies continue to consult on energy security and further develop NATO’s capacity to contribute to energy security, concentrating on areas where it can add value. NATO seeks to enhance its strategic awareness of energy developments with security implications; develop its competence in supporting the protection of critical energy infrastructure; and work towards significantly improving the energy efficiency of the military.

Highlights

- NATO’s role in energy security was first defined in 2008 at the Bucharest Summit and has since been strengthened.
- Energy security is a vital element of resilience and has become more important in the past years due to the new security context.
- Energy efficiency is important not only for logistics and cost-saving in theatres of operation, but also for the environment.
Activities

Enhancing strategic awareness of the security implications of energy developments

While NATO is not an energy institution, energy developments affect the international security environment and can have far-reaching security implications for some Allies. A stable and reliable energy supply, the diversification of routes, suppliers and energy resources, and the interconnectivity of energy networks are of critical importance and increase resilience.

NATO closely follows relevant energy trends and developments, and seeks to raise its strategic awareness in this area. This includes consultations on energy security among Allies and partner countries, intelligence-sharing, and expanding links with relevant international organisations, such as the International Energy Agency and the European Union. NATO also organises specific events, such as workshops, table-top exercises and briefings by external experts. Of particular importance in this regard are the North Atlantic Council’s annual seminars on global energy developments, as well as the Energy Security Strategic Awareness Course, which takes place annually since 2015.

Supporting the protection of critical energy infrastructure

All countries are increasingly reliant on vital energy infrastructure, including in the maritime domain, on which their energy security and prosperity depend. Energy infrastructure is also one of the most vulnerable assets, especially in areas of conflict. Since infrastructure networks extend beyond borders, attacks on complex energy infrastructure by hostile states, terrorists or hacktivists can have repercussions across regions. For this reason, NATO seeks to increase its competence in supporting the protection of critical energy infrastructure, mainly through training and exercises.

Protecting energy infrastructure is, however, primarily a national responsibility. Hence, NATO’s contribution focuses on areas where it can add value, notably the exchange of best practices with partner countries, many of which are important energy producers or transit countries, and with other international institutions and the private sector.

By protecting important sea lanes, NATO’s counter-piracy operations have also made an indirect contribution to energy security. Moreover, NATO is also supporting national authorities in enhancing their resilience against energy supply disruptions that could affect national and collective defence.

Enhancing energy efficiency in the military

Enhancing energy efficiency in the military focuses on reducing the energy consumption of military vehicles and camps, as well as on minimising the environmental footprint of military activities. Work in this area concentrates on bringing together experts to examine existing national endeavours, exchanging best practices, and proposing multinational projects. It also includes studying the behavioural aspects of saving energy in exercises and operations, as well as developing common energy-efficiency standards and procedures.

A significant step forward in this area was the adoption of NATO’s “Green Defence” framework in February 2014. It seeks to make NATO more operationally effective through changes in the use of energy, while saving resources and enhancing environmental sustainability. Finally, NATO is also instrumental in showcasing energy-efficient solutions in military exercises and exhibitions.

Evolution

At the Bucharest Summit in 2008, Allies noted a report on “NATO’s Role in Energy Security”, which identified guiding principles and outlined options and recommendations for further activities. These were reiterated at subsequent summits, while at the same time giving NATO’s role clearer focus and direction.

The 2010 Strategic Concept, the setting up of an Energy Security Section in the Emerging Security Challenges Division at NATO Headquarters that same year, and the accreditation of the NATO Energy Security Centre of Excellence in Lithuania in 2012 were major milestones in this process.

The decision of Allies to “integrate energy security considerations in NATO’s policies and activities” (2010 Lisbon Summit Declaration) also meant the need for NATO to reflect energy security in its education and training efforts, as well as in its exercise scenarios. Since then, several exercises have included
energy-related developments, and several training courses have been stood up, both nationally and at the NATO School in Oberammergau, Germany.

At the Brussels Summit in July 2018, Allies underlined the important role energy security plays in their common security and that it is essential to ensure that the members of the Alliance are not vulnerable to political or economic manipulation. In the years to come, they will continue to seek diversification in energy supplies, further enhance the strategic dialogue both among Allies and with partner countries, offer more education and training opportunities, and deepen ties with other international organisations, academia and the private sector.

Work on enhancing the resilience of energy infrastructure, notably in hybrid scenarios, will be given greater attention. With increased awareness of energy risks, enhanced competence to support infrastructure protection, and enhanced energy efficiency in the military, NATO will be better prepared to respond to the emerging security challenges of the 21st century.
NATO’s role in Kosovo

NATO has been leading a peace-support operation in Kosovo since June 1999 in support of wider international efforts to build peace and stability in the area.

**Highlights**

- NATO has been leading a peace-support operation in Kosovo – the Kosovo Force (KFOR) – since June 1999.
- KFOR was established when NATO’s 78-day air campaign against Milosevic’s regime, aimed at putting an end to violence in Kosovo, was over.
- KFOR’s original objectives were to deter renewed hostilities, establish a secure environment and ensure public safety and order, demilitarize the Kosovo Liberation Army, support the international humanitarian effort and coordinate with the international civil presence.
- Today, KFOR continues to contribute towards maintaining a safe and secure environment in Kosovo and freedom of movement for all.
- NATO strongly supports the Belgrade-Pristina EU-brokered Normalisation Agreement (2013).
KFOR’s objectives

KFOR deployed into Kosovo on 12 June 1999, in the wake of a 78-day air campaign. This air campaign was launched by the Alliance in March 1999 to halt and reverse the humanitarian catastrophe that was then unfolding.

KFOR derives its mandate from United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1244 of 10 June 1999 and the Military-Technical Agreement between NATO and the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and Serbia. KFOR operates under Chapter VII of the UN Charter and, as such, is a peace enforcement operation.

Today, KFOR consists of approximately 4,000 troops provided by 28 countries. It continues to help maintain a safe and secure environment and freedom of movement for all people and communities in Kosovo, according to its mandate, which is to:

- deter renewed hostility and threats against Kosovo by Yugoslav and Serb forces;
- establish a secure environment and ensure public safety and order;
- demilitarize the Kosovo Liberation Army;
- support the international humanitarian effort; and
- coordinate with, and support, the international civil presence.

Over time, as the security situation has improved, NATO has been gradually adjusting KFOR’s force posture towards a smaller and more flexible force with fewer static tasks. All adjustments to the KFOR force posture are decided by the North Atlantic Council as the security situation on the ground evolves. KFOR is also cooperating and coordinating with the United Nations (UN), the European Union (EU) and other international actors to support the development of a stable, democratic, multi-ethnic and peaceful Kosovo.

KFOR’s tasks

Initial tasks

KFOR tasks have included and, in some cases, still include assistance with the return or relocation of displaced persons and refugees; reconstruction and de-mining; medical assistance; security and public order; protection of patrimonial sites; border security; interdiction of cross-border weapons smuggling; implementation of a Kosovo-wide weapons, ammunition and explosives amnesty programme; weapons destruction; and support for the establishment of civilian institutions, law and order, the judicial and penal system, the electoral process and other aspects of the political, economic and social life of Kosovo.

Special attention continues to be paid to the protection of minorities. This includes regular patrols near minority enclaves, check points, escorts for minority groups, protection of heritage sites such as monasteries, and donations including food, clothes and school supplies.

Additional tasks

On 12 June 2008, NATO agreed to start implementing additional tasks in Kosovo, i.e. assist in the standing down of the Kosovo Protection Corps (KPC) and in the establishment of the Kosovo Security Force (KSF), as well as a civilian structure to oversee the KSF. The following tasks have been implemented in close coordination and consultation with the relevant local and international authorities:

- **Stand-up of the Kosovo Security Force (KSF)**
  NATO has supervised the stand-up and training of a multi-ethnic, professional and civilian-controlled KSF. The KSF is a lightly armed volunteer force. It has primary responsibility for security tasks that are not appropriate for the police such as emergency response, explosive ordnance disposal, management of hazardous material, fire-fighting and civil protection. The KSF’s total strength is mandated to a maximum of 2,500 active personnel and 800 reservists.

- **Capacity-building**
  NATO’s presence in Kosovo also covers capacity-building efforts with the security organisations in Kosovo through the NATO Advisory and Liaison Team (NALT), that reached full operational capability.
in January 2017. This team was created following the merger of:
– the NATO Liaison and Advisory Team (NLAT), that continued to support the KSF beyond the North Atlantic Council’s declaration of the KSF’s full operational capability in July 2013; and
– the NATO Advisory Team (NAT), created in 2008 to supervise the establishment of a civilian-led organisation of the Kosovo authorities to exercise civilian control over the KSF.

The NALT is a team of 41 military and civilian personnel, coming from 13 Allied and partner countries. The Team provides practical assistance and advice to the security organisations in Kosovo from the executive to the force level in areas such as logistics, procurement and finance, force development and planning, as well as leadership development. In order to fulfil its mission, the Team is currently designed along three lines of development: Strategy & Plans, Operations, and Support. The NALT is also playing a key role in the implementation of the enhanced interaction with Kosovo that was approved by the North Atlantic Council in December 2016. This enhanced interaction is focusing on important topics such as building integrity, cyber defence, public diplomacy or Science for Peace and Security.”

Command and structure of KFOR

The Multinational Battle Groups (MNBG)

A Battle Group is a military unit at the level of a battalion, consisting of numerous companies. These companies are highly mobile, flexible and rapidly deployable to potential trouble spots all over Kosovo. There are currently two MNBGs:
- HQ MNBG East, located at Camp Bondsteel, located near Urosevac;
- HQ MNBG West, located at Camp Villagio Italia in Pec.

HQ KFOR continues to be located at Camp Film City, Pristina. In addition to the KFOR troops in Kosovo, NATO continues to maintain reserve forces ready to deploy if necessary.

KFOR comes under a single chain of command, under the authority of Commander KFOR (COMKFOR). COMKFOR reports to the Commander of Joint Force Command Naples (COM JFCN), Italy. The current COMKFOR is Maj. Gen. Michele Risi. He assumed command of the Kosovo Force on 19 November 2019.

Former KFOR commanders

| Lt. Gen. Thorstein Skiaker, NO A | 06 Apr 2001 - 03 Oct 2001 |
| Lt. Gen. Markus Bentler, GE A | 08 Sep 2009 – 1 Sep 2010 |
The evolution of NATO’s role in Kosovo

KFOR deploys

UNSCR 1244 was adopted on 10 June 1999, and on 12 June the first elements of the NATO-led Kosovo Force, or KFOR, entered Kosovo. By 20 June, the withdrawal of Serbian forces was complete.

KFOR was initially composed of some 50,000 men and women from NATO member countries, partner countries and other non-NATO countries under unified command and control. By early 2002, KFOR was reduced to around 39,000 troops. The improved security environment enabled NATO to reduce KFOR troop levels to 26,000 by June 2003, then to 17,500 by the end of 2003.

An improved security situation

In recent years, the security situation has continued to improve steadily. As a result, on 11-12 June 2009, NATO defence ministers decided to gradually adjust KFOR’s force posture towards what is called a deterrent presence. At their informal meeting in Istanbul on 3-4 February 2010, NATO defence ministers were informed by the NATO Military Authorities that KFOR had successfully achieved the so-called Gate 1 in its transition to a deterrent presence, reducing the number of troops on the ground to some 10,200. The move to Gate 2, allowing for a total of approximately 5,000 troops was recommended by the NATO Military Authorities and authorised by the North Atlantic Council on 29 October 2010. Gate 2 was declared on 28 February 2011.

Any future decision on further reducing KFOR’s footprint in Kosovo will require the approval of the North Atlantic Council. Nations have been clear that any such decision should be dictated by continued positive conditions on the ground.

In a separate development, the improved security situation on the ground in Kosovo also allowed NATO to continue with the implementation of the so-called unfixing process: the gradual transfer of security for religious and cultural heritage sites under KFOR protection to Kosovo Police responsibility. By the end of 2013, KFOR had unfixed eight properties with Designated Special Status: the Gazimestan Monument, Gracanica Monastery, Zociste Monastery, Budisavci Monastery, Gorioc Monastery, the Archangel site, Devic Monastery, and the Pec Patriarchate. Only one designated site – the Decani Monastery – currently remains under fixed KFOR protection.

NATO’s support to the EU-facilitated dialogue

On 19 April 2013, Belgrade and Pristina reached an EU-facilitated First Agreement of Principles Governing the Normalisation of Relations; an implementation plan was agreed on 22 May 2013. NATO played an important role in securing the Agreement, and Allies continue to strongly support the accord. In support of the Agreement, Belgrade and Pristina have initiated a programme of high-level talks, hosted by the European Union. This dialogue remains key to solving the political deadlock between the two parties, and has helped improve relations between them. The dialogue has also given fresh momentum to the
Euro-Atlantic integration of the Western Balkans. In June 2013, the European Council decided to open accession negotiations with Belgrade and negotiations with Pristina on a Stabilisation and Association Agreement (SAA). The SAA agreement was signed on 27 October 2015 and entered into force on 1 April 2016. NATO continues to offer strong political support to the Belgrade-Pristina Agreement, and KFOR stands ready to support its implementation – by ensuring a climate of peace and security – within its current mandate.
SATCOM Post-2000

Improved satellite communications for NATO

The NATO SATCOM Post-2000 (NSP2K) programme gives the Alliance improved satellite communication capabilities, which is important as NATO forces take on expeditionary missions far beyond the Alliance’s traditional area of operations.

Under the programme, a consortium formed by the British, French and Italian governments will provide NATO with advanced satellite communication (SATCOM) capabilities for a 15-year period from January 2005 until the end of 2019.

The satellite capacity is provided on the three nations’ satellites under a capability provision agreement which has the flexibility to be changed depending on evolving operational requirements. Compared to previous generation SATCOM capabilities, the programme benefits include increased bandwidth, coverage and expanded capacity for voice and data communications, including communications with ships at sea, air assets and troops deployed across the globe.
Components

Under a memorandum of understanding (MOU), the programme provides NATO with access to the military segments of three national satellite communications systems – the French SYRACUSE 3, the Italian SICRAL 1 and 1Bis, and the British Skynet 4 and 5.

This new satellite capability has replaced the two NATO-owned and -operated NATO IV communications satellites, which stopped their operational services in 2007 and 2010, respectively, after a combined operational life of 19 years.

The NSP2K programme provides NATO access to Super High Frequency (SHF) and Ultra High Frequency (UHF) communications. UHF (300 MHz) is used for tactical communications, while SHF (7-8 GHz) is used for static and deployed ground stations with larger antenna dishes.

The SYRACUSE, SICRAL, and Skynet 4/5 satellites can all provide SHF communications with military hardening features, while UHF communications are only provided by the SICRAL and Skynet satellites.

Contract Evolution

In May 2004, the NATO Consultation, Command and Control Agency (NC3A) selected the Franco-British-Italian proposal to provide SHF and UHF communications.

The proposal submitted by the consortium was determined by NATO to be the lowest priced, technically compliant bid. It came in below the Alliance’s funding ceiling of EUR 457 million for SHF and UHF.

The NSP2K Initial Operating Capability (IOC) started on January 2005 with limited SHF and UHF capacity and coverage, which was followed with a Final Operational Capability (FOC) as of 2008 with the full SHF and UHF capacity and extended coverage.

Mechanisms

The NSP2K capability provisioning is controlled through a Joint Programme Management Office (JPMO) in Paris staffed by officials from the British, French and Italian governments who report to NC3A, which administers the memorandum of understanding on behalf of NATO.

NATO’s Allied Command Operations (ACO), in conjunction with NC3A, plans and prepares the NATO operational requirements which are then discussed with the JPMO to ensure that suitable satellite capacity is made available to meet NATO’s changing requirements.

Day-to-day communications requests are handled by the NATO Communications and Information Systems Agency (NCSA) at NATO’s Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE) in Mons, Belgium. NCSA allocates user traffic to the satellite capacity. NCSA liaises with the co-located NATO Mission Access Centre (NMAC), which is manned by national contractors who provide the point of contact between national satellite control centres and the operators of the NATO network to manage and gain access to the allocated capacity.
The NATO Science and Technology Organization (STO) delivers innovation, advice and scientific solutions to meet the Alliance’s ever-changing needs. It ensures NATO maintains its military and technological edge to face current and future security challenges.

### Highlights

- The STO is the world’s largest collaborative research forum in the field of defence and security.
- It supports the defence and security posture of the Alliance and its partners through scientific and technological research.
- It nurtures a community of more than 5,000 actively engaged scientists. The STO network draws upon the expertise of more than 200,000 people in Allied and partner nations.
- Its annual programme of work includes over 300 projects that cover a wide range of fields such as autonomous systems, anti-submarine warfare, hypersonic vehicles, quantum radar, and the impact of social media on military operations.

### Main tasks and responsibilities

The STO generates and exploits a leading-edge science and technology programme of work, delivering timely results and advice that advance the defence capabilities of Allies, partners and NATO in support of the core tasks of collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security.

It also supports decisions made at both national and NATO level by providing advice to the North Atlantic Council and national leadership.

The STO achieves its mission by nurturing a community of more than 5,000 actively engaged scientists. The STO network draws upon the expertise of more than 200,000 people in Allied and partner nations.

### Structure

The STO is governed by the NATO Science and Technology Board (STB). The Board administers the STO’s scientific and technical committees and its three executive bodies: the Centre for Maritime
Research and Experimentation (CMRE) in La Spezia, Italy; the Collaboration Support Office in Paris, France; and the Office of the Chief Scientist at NATO Headquarters in Brussels, Belgium.

The Chief Scientist is the chairman of the STB and the senior science advisor to the North Atlantic Council.

The scientific and technical committees, composed of members from national and NATO bodies, direct and execute NATO’s collaborative science and technology activities.

The CMRE organises and conducts scientific research and technology development, centred on the maritime domain, delivering innovative solutions to address the Alliance’s defence and security needs.

The CMRE conducts hands-on scientific and engineering research for the direct benefit of both NATO and such customers as research entities and industry. The Centre operates NATO’s two research vessels that enable science and technology solutions to be explored and developed at sea. This allows unique and specialised research to be conducted in core areas of interest for NATO. The CMRE’s engineering capability enables rapid exploitation of concept prototypes for use in trials and military experiments. The Centre also has a scientific and engineering knowledge base composed of a dedicated science platform and publications, for use across NATO.

Evolution

To safeguard Alliance freedom and shared values, it is of critical importance for NATO and its partner nations to maintain the edge in defence and security. Discovering, developing and utilising advanced knowledge and cutting-edge science and technology is fundamental to maintaining the technological edge that has enabled Alliance forces to succeed across the full spectrum of operations over the past decades.

The STO was created through the amalgamation of the Research and Technology Organization and the NATO Undersea Research Centre. These bodies were brought together following a decision at the 2010 NATO Summit in Lisbon to reform the NATO agency structure.

The STO, along with its predecessor organisations, has been instrumental in enabling that success, both within the nations and for NATO itself.

By providing a critical venue for knowledge development and delivery, the STO remains committed to its foundational principle: bringing together subject matter experts from across the scientific spectrum with military end users in order to inform decision-makers on emerging challenges and opportunities, and to ensure the technological advantage of the Alliance and its partners.
Science for Peace and Security Programme

The Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme promotes dialogue and practical cooperation between NATO member states and partner nations based on scientific research, technological innovation and knowledge exchange. The SPS Programme offers funding, expert advice and support to tailor-made, security-relevant activities that respond to NATO’s strategic objectives.

Highlights

- The SPS Programme enhances practical, result-oriented cooperation involving scientists, experts and government officials from NATO member and partner countries alike.
- It responds and adapts to the changing security environment in order to support NATO’s strategic objectives and political priorities in its relations with partners.
- The SPS Programme makes contributions to NATO’s efforts to project stability and build defence capacity in partner countries.
- SPS activities are guided by key priorities that address security challenges such as counter-terrorism and cyber defence, develop innovative security-related technologies, provide support to NATO-led missions and operations, and consider human and social aspects of security.
- Over the past five years, the Programme has initiated more than 450 collaborative activities among its 29 member states and 41 partner countries ranging from cyber defence in Jordan to humanitarian demining in Ukraine.
More background information

Introduction to the SPS Programme

The SPS Programme promotes security-related practical cooperation based on scientific research, innovation and knowledge exchange within NATO’s wide network of partner countries.

It connects scientists, experts and officials from Allied and partner countries to address security challenges, such as cyber defence, counter-terrorism or defence against CBRN agents; to support NATO-led missions and operations; to foster the development of security-related advanced technologies such as sensors and detectors, nanotechnologies, unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs); and to address human and social aspects of security such as the implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security (UNSCR 1325).

In this regard, the SPS Programme greatly benefits from the expertise of other NATO agencies, divisions and delegations, and bodies such as centres of excellence.

The Programme provides the Alliance with a unique channel for non-military communication, including in situations or regions where other forms of dialogue are difficult to establish. It enables NATO to become actively involved in such regions, often serving as the first concrete link between NATO and a new partner.

The SPS Programme has evolved continuously since its foundation in 1958. To this end, a comprehensive reorientation of the Programme took place in 2013, which gave SPS a renewed focus on larger-scale strategic activities beyond purely scientific cooperation.

SPS grant mechanisms

Funded by NATO’s civil budget, the SPS Programme supports collaboration through four established grant mechanisms: Multi-Year Research Projects, Advanced Research Workshops, Advanced Training Courses and Advanced Study Institutes. Interested applicants should develop proposals for activities that fit within one of these formats. Moreover, all activities funded within the framework of the SPS Programme must follow the rules and regulations outlined in the SPS Programme Management Handbooks.

To that end, interested parties submit an application for funding that must be led by project directors from at least one NATO Ally and one partner country. Any application must also directly address at least one of the SPS key priorities and have a clear link to security. Once an application has been received by the SPS Programme it will undergo a comprehensive evaluation and peer review process, taking into account expert, scientific and political guidance.

This process ensures that all SPS applications approved for funding have been thoroughly evaluated for their scientific merit and security impact by NATO experts, independent scientists and NATO nations themselves.

SPS support to NATO’s political priorities

SPS flagship projects contribute to several of NATO’s key partnership initiatives and priorities and have been reflected as deliverables in various NATO Summit documents.

Defence and Related Security Capacity Building (DCB) Initiative

The DCB Initiative was launched at the 2014 NATO Summit in Wales in order to reinforce NATO’s commitment to partners by providing support to nations requesting defence capacity assistance from NATO. The SPS Programme is currently supporting the DCB packages for Iraq, Jordan and the Republic of Moldova.

- In Iraq, security forces were trained in the area of Counter-Improvised Explosive Devices (C-IED) and were provided with related specialist equipment. Iraq’s C-IED operations support humanitarian efforts to return displaced populations safely to their homes. Furthermore, an advanced level, hands-on cyber defence training course was organised for Iraqi system/network administrators to directly respond to requirements of the Iraqi authorities.
In Jordan, the SPS Programme supported the development of a national cyber defence strategy. It thereby significantly enhanced Jordan’s cyber defence posture and established a Computer Emergency Response Team (CERT) for the Jordanian Armed Forces (JAF). SPS further supported the JAF in the domain of C-IED through tailor-made training courses that have been designed and implemented in collaboration with the NATO C-IED Centre of Excellence in Spain.

In the Republic of Moldova, an SPS multi-year project established a cyber defence laboratory to serve as a training centre for civil servants of the defence and security relevant institutions. System and network administrators of the Moldovan Ministry of Defence also received a comprehensive cyber defence training. Furthermore, a multi-year project launched in 2016 is supporting the Moldovan government and civil society actors in creating a multi-agency national strategy to implement UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security.

Projecting stability in NATO’s neighbourhood through practical cooperation

At the 2016 Warsaw Summit, NATO leaders emphasised their commitment to contributing more to the efforts of the international community in projecting stability and strengthening security beyond NATO borders. Through dialogue and practical cooperation with partner nations, the SPS Programme actively contributes to these efforts. It thereby assumes a balanced and flexible 360-degree approach to help address the security challenges to the east and south of the Alliance, including terrorism.

Enhanced explosive remnants of war (ERW) detection and access capability in Egypt

This project, launched in 2014, provides Egypt with an enhanced operational detection and clearance capability for ERW. Provision of this capability will enhance the safety of Egyptian deminers, reducing the number of casualties from ERW clearance and improving their individual confidence and credibility. This will have an immediate effect on the safety and security of the local population, lowering the threat from ERW and releasing land for economic development.

Next Generation Incident Command System in the Western Balkans

This flagship project, supported by the SPS Programme and the US Department of Homeland Security, Science & Technology Department, is developing and implementing a system to facilitate the coordination among first responders and improve civil emergency management across the Western Balkans. The new technology will allow responders to share all kinds of information about an incident, including the GPS location or images, via mobile devices. This will maximise real-time situational awareness and help find a coordinated, appropriate response to natural or man-made disasters.

CBRN first responders live agent training

The overarching goal of this live agent train-the-trainer course hosted by the Joint CBRN Defence Centre of Excellence (JCBRN CoE) in Vyškov, Czech Republic, was to enable 17 first responders from Egypt, Jordan and Tunisia to survey, monitor and manage the consequences of a CBRN incident. Experts from the Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW) reinforced the JCBRN CoE and provided instructor support. The training was designed to assist the partner nations to improve their civil emergency plans, complement national training systems and improve cooperation between first responders.

Comprehensive Assistance Package (CAP) for Ukraine

At their meeting in Warsaw on 9 July 2016, the Heads of State and Government of the NATO-Ukraine Commission endorsed the CAP for Ukraine. The objective of the Package is to consolidate and enhance NATO’s assistance for Ukraine in order to make the country’s defence and security institutions more effective, efficient and accountable. As part of the CAP, the SPS Programme implemented several activities in Ukraine’s priority areas of cooperation.

A multinational telemedicine system enables medical specialists to engage in major disasters or incidents across national borders. Portable medical kits allow first responders at the scene to connect to the system to receive expert advice from medical specialists in case of an emergency, even in remote
areas. Through the use of modern communications technologies, an international network of medical specialists is able to assess patients, diagnose them and provide real-time recommendations. This allows the right aid and care to reach those who need it most quickly, with the potential to save many lives.

Another SPS project to support humanitarian demining in Ukraine enhanced the capacity of the State Emergency Service of Ukraine (SESU) in undertaking demining operations in the eastern part of the country. The overall aim was to safeguard the civilian population within areas affected by the conflict and allow the return of displaced persons. The project will be complemented by a multi-year initiative to develop an innovative 3D landmine detection radar.
Security Committee (SC)

The Security Committee (SC) examines all questions concerning NATO security policy and acts as an advisory body to the North Atlantic Council (NAC). It reviews the NATO security policy, makes recommendations for changes and examines questions related to the subject.

The SC also reviews and approves the supporting directives and guidance documents in the areas of personnel security, physical security, security of information, industrial security and INFOSEC; and considers security matters referred to it by the NAC, a member country, the NATO Secretary General, the Military Committee, the NC3 (consultation, command and control) Board or the heads of NATO civil and military bodies, preparing appropriate recommendations on related subjects.

The SC is composed of representatives from each member nation’s National Security Authority (NSA) supported, where required, by additional member country security staff. Representatives of the International Military Staff, Strategic Commands and NATO C3 Board are present at meetings of the SC, as may be representatives of NATO civil and military bodies when matters of interest to them are addressed.

The SC is chaired by the Director of the NATO Office of Security (NOS) and the day-to-day work of the committee is supported by the NOS. The SC meets in different formats: at Principal’s level; in Security Policy Format (SP); and in Information Assurance Format (IA). The SC may meet with partner countries, as appropriate.

The SC meets on a regular basis, holding a minimum of two meetings per year at Principal’s level. The SC in SP and IA Formats also meets on a regular basis, as required. Chairmanship may be delegated to duly appointed staff members from the NOS. The SC is directly responsible to the NAC, to which it reports at least once a year on the progress of its work.
NATO’s Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan

The Senior Civilian Representative carries forward the Alliance’s political-military objectives in Afghanistan, representing the political leadership of the Alliance in Kabul officially and publicly. He liaises with the Afghan Government, civil society, representatives of the international community and neighbouring countries. The post is currently held by Ambassador Sir Nicholas Kay.

Working closely with NATO’s Resolute Support mission, the Senior Civilian Representative (SCR) provides a direct channel of communication between the theatre, NATO Headquarters in Brussels, and the North Atlantic Council, the Alliance’s principal decision-making body.

He provides the Council with advice on the most effective means of ensuring the overall coherence of the Alliance’s relations with Afghanistan, which includes responsibilities related to upholding NATO’s public perception.

He liaises with senior members of the Afghan Government and coordinates with representatives of the international community and other international organisations engaged in Afghanistan, in particular the United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan and the European Union.

The SCR also maintains contacts with representatives of neighbouring countries, as well as with various political actors, representatives of Afghan civil society and representatives of international non-governmental organisations.

Appointed by the NATO Secretary General on an ad-hoc basis, the SCR’s mandate is limited in time and renewable in light of political developments in Afghanistan. The position was originally created in October 2003, when NATO took the lead of the UN-mandated International Security Assistance Force in Afghanistan.
Overview of current and past NATO’s Senior Civilian Representatives

- Ambassador Sir Nicholas Kay, NATO Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan 2019
- Cornelius Zimmermann, NATO Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan 2017 - 2019
- Ismail Aramaz, NATO Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan 2015 - 2016
- Ambassador Maurits R. Jochems, NATO Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan (SCR) 2012 - 2014
- Simon Gass, NATO’s Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan 2011 - 2012
- Mark Sedwill, NATO’s Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan 2010 - 2011
- Ambassador Fernando Gentilini, NATO Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan 2008 - 2010
- Daan W. Everts, NATO Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan 2006 - 2007
- Hikmet Çetin, NATO Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan 2003 - 2006
SILK-Afghanistan: expanding internet connectivity (Archived)

Named after the Great Silk Road trading route linking Asia and Europe, the SILK-Afghanistan project provided high-speed internet access via satellite and fibre optics to Afghan universities as well as some governmental institutions in Kabul. Over a period of 10 years, the project assisted the Afghan authorities in developing their educational system. It became operational at Kabul University in 2006 and concluded in June 2016, following the expansion of the network to the provinces of Afghanistan.

SILK-Afghanistan was the sole source for providing high-speed internet access originally via satellite and later through fibre optic cable. In 2014, this NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme flagship project covered about 90 per cent of the bandwidth costs for Afghan universities and other academic and governmental institutions. These included 34 out of 36 public Afghan universities, as well as the Ministry of Higher Education itself. In 2015, SILK-Afghanistan had already connected about 150,000 students to the internet; it was estimated that in total over two million Afghans had access to the internet.

SILK-Afghanistan was jointly funded by the NATO SPS Programme and the US Department of State. In addition to internet connectivity, it contributed extra funding to build information technology (IT) infrastructure and to train IT staff at the universities.
The programme built on NATO’s experience of initiating and running the Virtual Silk Highway project, which provided high-speed internet access (via satellite) in NATO’s partner countries in the South Caucasus and Central Asia. Initiated in 2002 under the SPS Programme, the Virtual Silk Highway project provided free high-speed internet access via satellite to the academic communities in the Caucasus and Central Asian countries. Afghanistan’s Kabul University was included in 2006.

Afghanistan became a member of the TEIN4 network (Trans-Eurasia Information Network, phase 4) in 2014. This regional academic network provides a dedicated high-capacity internet network between research and education communities in the region. Co-funded by the European Commission, it was to take over the provision of internet connectivity following the conclusion of the SPS project. In 2016, NATO funding for the SILK-Afghanistan came to an end after a one-year extension to bridge the handover to the European Union.
Situation Centre (SITCEN)

The NATO Situation Centre (SITCEN) is designed to alert and provide situational awareness to the North Atlantic Council (NAC) and the Military Committee (MC) to help them fulfil their respective functions during times of peace, tension and crisis, as well as during high-level exercises. It does this by receiving, exchanging and disseminating information from all possible internal and external sources that are available.
SITCEN’s structure and working mechanism

The SITCEN is uniquely positioned between the International Staff (civilian) and the International Military Staff (IMS) at NATO Headquarters, Brussels, Belgium. Its staff consists of both civilian and military personnel.

The NATO Secretary General is responsible – on behalf of the NAC – for the overall policy, general organisation and effective functioning of the SITCEN.

The Assistant Secretary General for Operations is – on behalf of the Secretary General – the senior staff official responsible for the development and control of the SITCEN. Acting on behalf of the MC, the Director General of the IMS is responsible for the coordination of the Centre’s operations together with the Chief of the SITCEN. For day-to-day operations, this role is carried out by the Director Operations, IMS, on behalf of the Director General.

The SITCEN has an Admin Support/Registry office, which is the Centre’s central point for information management and control, training coordination and financial management.

It also has the Watch Staff Support Branch, which is responsible for the receipt, exchange and dissemination of political, economic, terrorist and military information 24 hours a day, 7 days a week. The Watch Staff Support Branch also provides geographic information services to NATO Headquarters and acts as a focal point for GEO matters in support of senior decision-makers, task forces and exercises.

The SITCEN was established in 1968 and has since been restructured to adapt to the demands of the environment in which it functions.
Small arms and light weapons (SALW) and mine action (MA)

The proliferation of small arms and light weapons (SALW) affects security while anti-personnel mines and explosive remnants of war kill and maim both people and livestock long after the end of hostilities. Both can have destabilising effects on social, societal and economic development and can represent major challenges to regional and national security.

**Highlights**

- Landmines and explosive remnants of war are a major barrier to post-conflict recovery and development.
- So far, NATO has helped to clear 4,120 hectares of land and destroy 5.6 million anti-personnel landmines and 2 million hand grenades.
- NATO also supports the international community’s efforts to eradicate the illicit trade of conventional weapons.
- NATO has been contributing to the safety of civilian populations by focusing on weapon surplus clearance since the late 1990s.
More background information

The challenges posed by SALW and mines

The illicit proliferation of SALW can fuel and prolong armed violence and support illegal activities and the emergence of violent groups. Access to illicit SALW contributes to the development of terrorism, organised crime, human trafficking, gender violence and piracy; and the diversion of weapons is closely linked to corruption and poor management practices. Small arms are weapons intended for use by an individual. They include pistols, rifles, submachine guns, assault rifles and light machine guns; light weapons are designed for use by two or more persons serving as a crew and include heavy machine guns, grenade launchers, mortars, anti-aircraft guns and anti-tank guns, all less than 100 mm in calibre.

Anti-personnel mines and explosive remnants of war kill and maim both people and livestock long after the cessation of hostilities and are a major barrier to post-conflict recovery and development. Beyond the human tragedy they can cause, they also overload local and national health services, reduce the available workforce and disrupt the social and societal structures. In many countries, stockpiles of weapons and ammunition are not always properly managed, allowing illicit access or accidents that may affect security personnel and nearby populations.

NATO is helping to address these issues by encouraging dialogue and cooperation among Allies and partners to seek effective solutions. It has two very effective mechanisms: the Ad Hoc Working Group on SALW and Mine Action (AHWG SALW/MA) and the NATO/Partnership Trust Fund mechanism. NATO also supports initiatives led by other international bodies, such as the United Nations (UN) Programme of Action to Prevent, Combat, and Eradicate the Illicit Trade in SALW in All Its Aspects (commonly known as the PoA) as well as the UN Arms Trade Treaty (ATT). In the area of anti-personnel mines, the Alliance and its partners also assist signatories of the “Convention on the Prohibition of the Use, Stockpiling, Production and Transfer of Anti-Personnel Mines and Their Destruction” (Ottawa Convention). Allies who are not party to this Convention facilitate efforts in the general realm of what is commonly called mine action, which includes: clearance of mine fields, providing victim assistance, raising mine risk awareness through education, and assistance in destroying mine stockpiles.

Tackling both issues together

In 1999, the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC), which groups Allies and partner countries, established the AHWG on SALW. Originally, this Working Group focused only on issues related to the impact of the proliferation of SALW on Alliance’s peacekeeping operations.

In April 2004, the Working Group’s mandate was broadened to include mine action issues (therefore becoming the AHWG SALW/MA). It is one of the few forums in the world that meets on a regular basis to address these specific issues. The objective of the Working Group is to contribute to international efforts to reduce the threats caused by the illicit trade of SALW and the impact of mines and other unexploded ordnance.

An annual work programme

The Working Group organises itself around an annual work programme. In practice, it uses a four-pronged approach to accomplish its work by:

- providing a forum in which EAPC members and certain implementing organisations can share information on SALW and ammunition projects they are conducting. These organisations include but are not limited to the European Union (EU), the NATO Support and Procurement Agency (NSPA), the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), the South Eastern and Eastern Europe Clearinghouse for the Control of Small Arms and Light Weapons (SEESAC) and the United Nations (UN). This exchange of information helps to improve coordination with donor countries and implementing organisations, with the aim of increasing effectiveness and avoiding duplication of work. The information is consolidated into the Project Information Matrix, a web-based information-sharing platform, which is regularly updated by the members of the AHWG SALW/MA;
inviting partners from the Mediterranean Dialogue (MD), the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative (ICI), as well as partners across the globe, to share information and identify national and regional approaches;

inviting speakers from non-governmental organisations (NGOs), regional and international organisations, and research institutes to share their views and recent research with delegations;

facilitating the management and creation of the Trust Fund projects. This includes updating delegations on the status of Trust Fund projects and highlighting where more effort or volunteer donations are needed;

organising regular international workshops, seminars and conferences on topics particularly pertinent to SALW and mine action.

NATO’s International Staff (IS) functions as the Working Group’s executive agent and implements the annual work programmes of the AHWG SALW/MA and organises its quarterly meetings.

Training

NATO conducts an annual course related to SALW and mine action that is usually held at the NATO School in Oberammergau, Germany. The “SALW and Mine Action Course”, aimed at mid-level management personnel, provides students with an overview of the most significant political, practical and regulatory issues needed to deal with SALW and their ammunition and their life-cycle management, as well as mine action from a national, regional and global perspective. It includes cross-cutting issues, such as capacity-building, defence education, gender mainstreaming and good governance that affect the various facets of issues related to the risks and challenges caused by SALW and mine action. The course is open to military and civilian personnel from all NATO partner countries, as well as to relevant international organisations.

NATO support to global efforts

The UN Programme of Action to Prevent, Combat and Eradicate the Illicit Trade in Small Arms and Light Weapons in All its Aspects (known as the PoA) was adopted in July 2001 by nearly 150 countries, including all NATO member countries. It consists of measures at the national, regional and global levels, in the areas of legislation, destruction of weapons that were confiscated, seized or collected, as well as international cooperation and assistance to strengthen the ability of states in identifying and tracing illicit arms and light weapons. The NATO Ad Hoc Working Group supports the implementation of the PoA and related international instruments through its activities and will continue to support major global events of this nature.

On 1 August 2010, the Convention on Cluster Munitions (CCM) entered into force and became a legally binding instrument. The CCM prohibits, for its signatories, all use, stockpiling, production and transfer of cluster munitions. Separate articles in the Convention concern assistance to victims, clearance of contaminated areas and the destruction of stockpiles. The NATO Working Group provides an additional forum for the discussion and facilitation of its implementation.

The landmark Arms Trade Treaty (ATT), regulating the international trade in conventional arms, from small arms to battle tanks, combat aircraft and warships, entered into force on 24 December 2014. The treaty aims to foster peace and security by interrupting the destabilising flow of arms to conflict regions. NATO supports the implementation of the ATT in particular through the activities of the Working Group on SALW and Mine Action and constitutes an additional forum for discussion and information-sharing on the issue.

Trust Funds projects

The end of the Cold War left a dangerous legacy of ageing arms, ammunition, anti-personnel mines, missiles, rocket fuel, chemicals and unexploded ordnance. In 1999, NATO established the NATO Partnership for Peace (PIP) Trust Fund mechanism to assist partners with these problems. The NATO PIP Trust Fund Policy was established in September 2000 in order to assist partners in meeting the Ottawa Convention obligations. The policy expanded to include disposal of conventional ammunition, small arms, defence reform, training and building integrity. Since then, Trust Fund projects have produced tangible results and, as such, represent the operational dimension of the Working Group’s efforts.
Trust Fund projects focus on the destruction of SALW, ammunition and mines, improving their physical security and stockpile management, and also address the consequences of defence reform. Allies and partners fund and execute these projects through NSPA as the main executive agent. Each project has a lead nation(s), which oversees the development of project proposals along with the NATO International Staff and the executive agent. This ensures a mechanism with a competitive bidding process, transparency in how funds are expended and verifiable project oversight, particularly for projects involving the destruction of munitions.

Trust Funds may be initiated by a NATO member or partner country to tackle specific, practical issues linked to the demilitarization process of a country or to the introduction of defence reform projects. They are funded by voluntary contributions from individual NATO Allies, partner countries, and more recently NGOs. They are often implemented in cooperation with other international organisations and NGOs.

So far, Allies and partners, through the Trust Fund projects, have destroyed or cleared:

- 164 million rounds of ammunition
- 15.9 million cluster sub-munitions
- 5.6 million anti-personnel landmines
- 2 million hand grenades
- 626,000 small arms and light weapons (SALW)
- 643,000 pieces of unexploded ordnance (UXO)
- 46,750 tonnes of various ammunition
- 94,500 surface-to-air missiles and rockets
- 1,635 man-portable air defence systems (MANPADS)
- 3,530 tonnes of chemicals, including rocket fuel oxidiser (“mélange”)
- 4,120 hectares cleared

In addition, over 12,000 former military personnel have received retraining assistance through defence reform Trust Fund projects.

The Trust Fund mechanism is open to countries where NATO is leading a crisis management operation and to countries participating in NATO’s PIP programme, the Mediterranean Dialogue, the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative, and to partners from across the globe. For instance, in 2018, NATO launched the implementation of the fourth phase of the Jordan Trust Fund project on ammunition stockpile management and ammunition destruction, and continued to cooperate on physical security and stockpile management, and ammunition demilitarization in Serbia, thus enhancing safety and security of local communities.

Once the project proposal is agreed by the lead nation and the partner country concerned, it is presented to the Partnerships and Cooperative Security Committee (PCSC), which is the formal forum to discuss projects and attract volunteer donor support and resources. The Luxembourg-based NSPA has been selected by lead nations of most Trust Fund projects to be the executing agent, particularly for demilitarization projects. It plays a key role in the development and implementation of Trust Fund projects and offers technical advice and a range of management services.
Smart Defence

In these times of austerity, each euro, dollar or pound sterling counts. Smart Defence is a cooperative way of thinking about generating the modern defence capabilities that the Alliance needs for the future. In this renewed culture of cooperation, Allies are encouraged to work together to develop, acquire, operate and maintain military capabilities to undertake the Alliance’s essential core tasks agreed in NATO’s Strategic Concept. That means harmonising requirements, pooling and sharing capabilities, setting priorities and coordinating efforts better.

Highlights

- Smart Defence is a cooperative way of generating modern defence capabilities that the Alliance needs, in a more cost-efficient, effective and coherent manner.
- Allies are encouraged to work together to develop, acquire, operate and maintain military capabilities to undertake the Alliance’s core tasks.
- Projects cover a wide range of efforts addressing the most critical capability requirements such as precision-guided munitions, cyber defence, ballistic missile defence, and Joint Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance to name a few.

More background information

Context

From 2008 onwards, the world economy has been facing its worst financial period since the end of the Second World War. Governments have been applying budgetary restrictions to tackle this serious recession, which is having a considerable effect on defence spending.
Furthermore, the Alliance’s security environment has been changing, and has become more diverse and unpredictable. The most recent crisis in Ukraine serves as a reminder that peace and stability cannot be taken for granted, and that the Alliance needs to invest in sufficient defence capabilities.

Rebalancing defence spending and the capabilities that are generated between the European member countries, Canada and the United States is a necessity now more than ever. The other Allies must reduce the gap with the United States by equipping themselves with capabilities that are deemed to be critical, deployable and sustainable, and must demonstrate political determination to achieve that goal. There must be equitable sharing of the defence burden. Smart Defence is one of NATO’s tools to meet this challenge.

## Components

Allied nations must give priority to those capabilities which NATO needs most, specialise in what they do best, and look for multinational solutions to shared problems. NATO can act as intermediary, helping the nations to establish and build on what they can do together at lower cost.

### Prioritisation

Aligning national capability priorities with those of NATO has been a challenge for some years. Smart Defence is the opportunity for a transparent, cooperative and cost-effective approach to meet essential capability requirements.

### Specialisation

With budgets under pressure, nations often make unilateral decisions when shaping their equipment plans. When this happens, other nations can fall under an increased obligation to maintain certain capabilities. Such specialisation “by default” is the inevitable result of uncoordinated budget cuts. NATO should encourage specialisation “by design” so that members concentrate on their national strengths and agree to coordinate planned defence budget cuts with the Allies.

### Cooperation

Acting together, nations can develop capabilities which they could not afford individually, for example by sharing the often considerable development costs of complex military capabilities, and achieving savings simply through economies of scale. Cooperating groups of nations may take different forms, such as a small group of nations led by another nation, or strategic sharing by those who are close together in terms of geography, culture or common equipment requirements.

## Mechanisms

### Special Envoys

The NATO Secretary General has designated the Supreme Allied Commander, Transformation (SACT), General Denis Mercier, and the Deputy Secretary General, Ms Rose Gottemoeller, as Special Envoys for Smart Defence. National support is essential, regarding both the concept of Smart Defence and the development of concrete multinational projects. The Special Envoys engage with senior military and political leaders to encourage participation by Allied nations.

### Coordination with partners

Working together as Allies also means seeking cooperation with players outside NATO. NATO and the European Union (EU) are facing a similar challenge, that of reconciling the urgency of savings with the financial challenges of maintaining a modern and capable defence capability. NATO and the EU, specifically the European Defence Agency, are coordinating their efforts to avoid needless duplication of work and to seek synergies. Concrete opportunities for cooperation have already been identified, in particular in the areas of medical support, combating improvised explosive devices (IEDs), as well as...
nuclear, biological and chemical weapons. The Alliance is also involving partner nations in specific Smart Defence efforts when the participating nations agree.

Smart Defence also benefits from innovative multinational cooperation by industry. Our industrial partners are essential players in this enterprise, and work is underway within the Framework for NATO-Industry Engagement to develop new ways of harnessing the innovation and creativity that our suppliers can provide.

Smart Defence in the long term

At the Chicago Summit in May 2012, NATO leaders agreed to embrace Smart Defence to ensure that the Alliance can develop, acquire and maintain the capabilities required to achieve the goals of ‘NATO Forces 2020’: modern, tightly connected forces that are properly equipped, trained, exercised and led.

Since then, Smart Defence has developed into a major consideration by Allies to deliver needed capabilities in a cost-effective and efficient manner. This is reflected through an extensive portfolio of evolving projects and proposals and an ever-growing number of successfully completed efforts. The latter have been delivering real benefits to Allies through the formula of doing things together instead of doing them alone.

The Smart Defence mindset has started to take hold. NATO will continue to capitalise on the momentum gained over the last few years through implementation and evolution of Smart Defence projects.
Special Operations Forces

NATO Special Operations Forces (SOF) provide capabilities that complement those of NATO air, maritime and land forces and are relevant across the full range of military operations. These SOF capabilities are also applicable to the Alliance’s core tasks of collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security. The NATO Special Operations Headquarters (NSHQ) is the primary point of development, coordination and direction for all NATO Special Operations activities.

Lithuanian Special Forces

Located at Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE) in Mons, Belgium and under the daily direct operational command of the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR), the NSHQ focuses on ensuring Allied Joint SOF personnel possess a multinational foundation to allow them to operate as effectively, efficiently and coherently as possible in support of the Alliance’s objectives from the strategic to the tactical level. Twenty-six NATO member countries and three partners (Austria, Finland and Sweden) are represented among 200 plus headquarters staff.

The NSHQ is a unique hybrid organisation. It is involved in a very diverse set of activities such as NATO SOF policy, doctrine, capabilities, standards, training and education. On a daily basis the NSHQ is actively coordinating, advocating and advising reference SOF across NATO. These activities include areas such as SOF-specific intelligence, aviation, medical support and communications.

1 ‘Joint’ refers to activities, operations and organisations in which elements of at least two services participate (land, air, maritime, SOF).
The NSHQ also supports SOF involvement in NATO operations. This includes assisting with SOF force generation, integration into strategic and operational planning, and SOF-specific intelligence analysis. There is a Special Operations Component Command element responsible for command and control of SOF within the NATO Response Force (NRF). This element is provided on a rotational basis by a handful of countries which possess the requisite SOF capacity and capability. Enhancing SOF command and control mechanisms is also an area where the NSHQ works diligently to better integrate SOF into NATO exercises from their initial inception and design all the way through gathering of lessons learned.

The NSHQ provides an additional deployable NATO SOF command and control option to complement other existing mechanisms provided by NATO member countries for the NRF. At the Wales Summit in September 2014, Allies declared the NSHQ’s Special Operations Component Command – Core element at full operational capability. This is a scalable expeditionary NATO SOF command and control capability under the daily command of SACEUR that is agile, responsive and capable of deploying to support NATO operations on very short notice. The NSHQ is also a pillar of the CFI, which aims to ensure that Allies and partners retain the progress made in terms of interoperability and collaboration from their experience working together during multinational deployments, such as in Afghanistan, Libya, the Horn of Africa and the Balkans.

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Connecting forces

The NSHQ plays a vital part in connecting forces – planning and coordinating missions, and improving cooperation and connectivity between the countries’ SOF personnel. The raison d’être for the NSHQ is the need to better connect SOF personnel from NATO Allies so as to enable their coherent deployment on NATO operations.

The SOF network is underpinned by a sophisticated technological network and associated tools that enable real-time collaboration from the strategic to the tactical level. These ingredients collectively allow NATO SOF personnel to operate with confidence in today’s complex and uncertain operational security environment.

Training and education

Training and education is the main effort at the NSHQ because these efforts create the long-term effect of building a coherent framework for NATO SOF.

NSHQ training largely takes place at the purpose-built NATO SOF School on nearby Chièvres Air Base, where the students are exposed to a wide array of subjects, common doctrine and current NATO processes. These tools enable NATO SOF personnel from multiple countries to seamlessly come together on operations and in exercises employing common methods.

While most of the SOF relationships are formed in the field or during training, the NSHQ also uses advanced communications connectivity such as secure video teleconferencing to complement face to face interaction and bring together personnel from all areas of operations for conferences, workshops and exchanges of views on a daily basis.

While the origins of the NSHQ stem from the NATO SOF Transformation Initiative announced at the 2006 Riga Summit, the NSHQ has only really been on the scene since March 2010. In that short time, the NSHQ and its precursor organisation, the NATO SOF Coordination Centre, have made immense, rapid strides in bringing SOF capabilities to the fore in the Alliance.
Standardization

The ability to work together is more important than ever for the Alliance. States need to share a common set of standards, especially among military forces, to carry out multinational operations. By helping to achieve interoperability among NATO’s forces, as well as with those of its partners, standardization allows for more efficient use of resources and thus enhances the Alliance’s operational effectiveness.

**Highlights**

- To work together effectively and efficiently, NATO forces as well as partner forces need to share common set of standards.
- Standardization allows for more efficient use of resources and thus enhances the effectiveness of the Alliance’s defence capabilities.
- A Standardization Agreement (STANAG) is a NATO standardization document that specifies the agreement of member nations to implement a standard.

**Definitions**

**Interoperability**

The ability to act together coherently, effectively and efficiently to achieve Allied tactical, operational and strategic objectives.

**Standardization**

NATO standardization is the development and implementation of concepts, doctrines and procedures to achieve and maintain the required levels of compatibility, interchangeability or commonality needed to achieve interoperability.

Standardization affects the operational, procedural, material and administrative fields. This includes a common doctrine for planning a campaign, standard procedures for transferring supplies between ships at sea, and interoperable material such as fuel connections at airfields. It permits NATO countries to work together, as well as with their partners, preventing duplication and promoting better use of economic resources.

**Standard**

A document, established by consensus and approved by a recognised body which provides, for common and repeated use, rules, guidelines or characteristics for activities or their results, aimed at the achievement of the optimum degree of order in a given context.

**NATO Standardization Agreement**

A Standardization Agreement (STANAG) is a NATO standardization document that specifies the agreement of member nations to implement a standard, in whole or in part, with or without reservation, in order to meet an interoperability requirement.

**Allied Publication**

The name given to both standards and standards-related documents published by NATO.
NATO standardization bodies

Committee for Standardization (CS)

The Committee for Standardization (CS) is the senior NATO committee for Alliance standardization, composed primarily of representatives from all NATO countries. Operating under the authority of the North Atlantic Council (NAC), it issues policy and guidance for all NATO standardization activities. Its mission is to exert domain governance for standardization policy and management within the Alliance to contribute to Allies’ development of interoperable and cost-effective military forces and capabilities.

NATO Standardization Office

The NATO Standardization Office (NSO) initiates, coordinates, supports and administers NATO standardization activities conducted under the authority of the Committee for Standardization (CS). It also assists NATO’s Military Committee in developing military operational standardization. Its mission is to foster NATO standardization with the goal of enhancing the operational effectiveness of Alliance military forces.

NATO Standardization Staff Group

The NATO Standardization Staff Group (NSSG) assists the Director of the NSO. It is a staff-level forum which facilitates coherence of NATO standardization activities and procedures across NATO bodies, especially the standardization tasking authorities. The tasking authorities are senior NATO committees that can task subordinate groups to produce Standardization Agreements and Allied Publications.

Achievements and products

Alliance operations cannot be effective or efficient without common standards. Partners’ force contributions to NATO-led operations can only succeed by using the Alliance’s proven portfolio of standards in all standardization fields – operational, procedural, material and administrative.

The products of NATO’s standardization tasking authorities ensure that the armed forces of the Alliance and their force-contributing partners can operate efficiently and effectively together.

The NATO Standardization Documents Database (NSDD) provides consolidated storage of all NATO standardization documents and their related information, including national ratification data.

The NATO Standardization Office (NSO) facilitates standardization planning domain involvement in the NATO Defence Planning Process (NDPP) to achieve interoperability. The NDPP aims to coordinate national and multi-national development of forces and capabilities for the full range of Allied missions. Standardization contributions to the NDPP enhance the interoperability of those forces and capabilities.

STANAGs and Allied Publications promulgated by the NSO are essential for the NATO Evaluation Programme which is under the responsibility of the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR). This programme provides SACEUR with a statement describing a unit’s capability to execute its assigned mission. Furthermore, NATO standards are needed to certify units that are selected to become part of the NATO Response Force.

NATO terminology is stored and managed by the NATO Terminology Database, called NATOTerm, which contains more than ten thousand definitions of NATO terms, helping to promote common understanding.
Strategic airlift

NATO member countries are pooling their resources to charter special aircraft that give the Alliance the capability to transport troops, equipment and supplies across the globe. Robust strategic airlift capabilities are vital to ensure that NATO countries are able to deploy their forces and equipment rapidly to wherever they are needed.

Highlights

- By pooling resources, NATO countries make significant financial savings and have the potential of acquiring assets collectively that would be prohibitively expensive to purchase as individual countries.
- There are currently two initiatives aimed at providing the Alliance with strategic airlift capabilities: the Strategic Airlift International Solution (SALIS) initiative, and the Strategic Airlift Capability (SAC).

More background information

Strategic Airlift International Solution (SALIS)

Context

A multinational consortium of 10 countries is chartering Antonov AN-124-100 aircraft as a Strategic Airlift International Solution (SALIS). SALIS provides assured access to up to six AN-124-100 aircraft (mission-ready within nine days in case of crisis) in support of NATO and European Union operations.
In December 2016, the NATO Support and Procurement Agency (NSPA) placed two contracts with two companies based at Leipzig-Halle Airport, Germany (Antonov SALIS Gmbh and Ruslan SALIS Gmbh). Under these contracts, SALIS participating countries are provided with access to strategic airlift capability for outsized cargo based on agreed quota of flying hours per annum.

This new solution - awarded for 2017/2018 and with options to extend the agreements for an additional five years - replaces the initial interim SALIS contract, which ended in December 2016.

**Components**

The SALIS contracts provide two Antonov AN-124-100 aircraft on charter, two more on six days' notice and another two on nine days' notice. The consortium countries have committed to using the aircraft for a minimum of 1,600 flying hours per year.

A single Antonov AN-124-100 can carry up to 120 tons of cargo. SALIS participating countries have used Antonov aircraft in the past to transport equipment to and from Afghanistan, deliver aid to the victims of the October 2005 earthquake in Pakistan, and airlift African Union peacekeepers in and out of Darfur.

**Participants**

The consortium consists of 10 NATO Allies: Belgium, the Czech Republic, France, Germany, Hungary, Luxembourg, Norway, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia.

**Mechanisms**

The capability is coordinated on a day-to-day basis by the Strategic Airlift Coordination Cell, which is co-located with the NATO Movement Coordination Centre Europe (MCCE) based in Eindhoven, the Netherlands. The NSPA provides support by managing the SALIS contracts and partnership.

**Evolution**

- In June 2003, NATO defence ministers signed letters of intent on strategic air- and sealift.
- In January 2006, 15 countries tasked the NATO Maintenance and Supply Agency (now the NATO Support and Procurement Agency) to sign a contract with Ruslan SALIS GmbH, a joint venture between the Russian company Volga-Dnepr Airlines and the Ukrainian company (formerly) Antonov Design Bureau, based in Leipzig, Germany.
- In March 2006, the 15 original signatories were joined by Sweden at a special ceremony in Leipzig to mark the entry into force of the multinational contract. This also marked the launch of the Strategic Airlift Interim Solution (SALIS) initiative in order to ensure strategic airlift for consortium nations until a long-term procurement solution could be found. The contract’s initial duration was for three years. Finland and Poland also joined the SALIS programme.
- The SALIS contract was re-competed in 2012, and Ruslan SALIS GmbH was awarded a new contract (2013/2014). The SALIS contract was renewed and then expired end December 2016.
- At the end of 2016, SALIS nations signed a memorandum of understanding which established the Strategic Airlift International Solution as a consortium with 10 countries.
- In December 2016, the NSPA placed two contracts with two companies based at Leipzig-Halle Airport (Antonov SALIS Gmbh and Ruslan SALIS Gmbh), assuring access to strategic airlift capability for outsized cargo based on agreed quota of flying hours per year.

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**Strategic Airlift Capability (SAC)**

**Context**

The second initiative aimed at providing NATO nations as well as partners with access to strategic airlift is the Strategic Airlift Capability (SAC), which has procured several Boeing C-17 transport aircraft on behalf of a group of 10 NATO Allies and two partner nations.
The first C-17 was delivered in July 2009 with the second and third aircraft following in September and October 2009, respectively. Its operational arm, the Heavy Airlift Wing (HAW) at Pápa Airbase in Hungary, operates the aircraft.

The HAW is manned by personnel from all participating nations and its missions support national requirements. Operations have included support to the International Security Assistance Force (Afghanistan), the Kosovo Force (KFOR), Operation Unified Protector in Libya, humanitarian relief in Haiti and Pakistan, African peacekeeping, and assistance to the Polish authorities following the air disaster in Russia. More recently, two humanitarian SAC flights were organised to bring relief to victims in Barbados and Guadalupe in the aftermath of Hurricane Irma.

In addition, there are national procurement programmes in place to improve airlift capabilities, including the acquisition by seven NATO nations of 180 Airbus A400M aircraft, and the purchase by Canada, the United Kingdom and the United States of C-17s for national use.

**Components**

The C-17 is a large strategic transport aircraft capable of carrying 77,000 kilograms (169,776 pounds) of cargo over 4,450 kilometres (2,400 nautical miles) and is able to operate in difficult environments and austere conditions.

The planes are configured and equipped to the same general standard as C-17s operated by the US Air Force. The crews and support personnel are trained for mission profiles and standards agreed by the countries.

These strategic lift aircraft are used to meet national requirements, but could also be allocated for NATO, United Nations and European Union missions, or for other international purposes.

**Participants**

The participants include 10 NATO nations (Bulgaria, Estonia, Hungary, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Romania, Slovenia and the United States) and two NATO partner nations (Finland and Sweden). Membership in the airlift fleet remains open to other countries upon agreement by the consortium members.

**Mechanisms**

The Multinational SAC Steering Board has the overall responsibility for the guidance and oversight of the programme and formulates its requirements. The NATO Airlift Management Programme provides administrative support to the Heavy Airlift Wing at Pápa Airbase.

**Evolution**

- On 12 September 2006, a Letter of Intent to launch contract negotiations was publicly released by 13 NATO countries. In the intervening period, Finland and Sweden joined the consortium and NATO participation evolved to the current 10 members.

- In June 2007, the North Atlantic Council approved the Charter of a NATO Production and Logistics Organisation (NPLO), which authorises the establishment of the NATO Airlift Management Organisation (NAMO).

- The Charter came into effect upon signature to the memorandum of understanding and notification to the North Atlantic Council, in September 2008. The Charter authorised the establishment of the NATO Airlift Management Agency (NAMA), which acquired, manages and supports the airlift assets on behalf of the SAC nations.

- On 1 July 2012, in line with NATO Agencies Reform decisions, NAMO/NAMA became part of the NATO Support and Procurement Agency (NSPA).
The Strategic Concept is an official document that outlines NATO’s enduring purpose and nature, and its fundamental security tasks. It also identifies the central features of the new security environment, specifies the elements of the Alliance’s approach to security and provides guidelines for the adaptation of its military forces.

**Highlights**

- Strategic Concepts equip the Alliance for security challenges and guide its future political and military development.
- They reiterate NATO’s enduring purpose and nature, and its fundamental security tasks.
- They are reviewed to take account of changes to the global security environment to ensure the Alliance is properly prepared to execute its core tasks, making transformation in the broad sense of the term, a permanent feature of the Organization.
- Over time, the Alliance and the wider world have developed in ways that NATO’s founders could not have envisaged, and these changes have been reflected in each and every strategic document that NATO has ever produced.

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**The current Strategic Concept**

New and emerging security threats, especially since the 9/11 terrorist attacks, NATO’s crisis management experience in the Balkans and Afghanistan, and the value and importance of working with partners from across the globe all drove NATO to reassess and review its strategic posture.
The 2010 Strategic Concept “Active Engagement, Modern Defence” is a very clear and resolute statement on NATO’s core tasks and principles, its values, the evolving security environment and the Alliance’s strategic objectives for the next decade.

After having described NATO as “a unique community of values committed to the principles of individual liberty, democracy, human rights and the rule of law”, it presents NATO’s three essential core tasks - collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security. It also emphasises Alliance solidarity, the importance of transatlantic consultation and the need to engage in a continuous process of reform.

The document then describes the current security environment and identifies the capabilities and policies it will put into place to ensure that NATO’s defence and deterrence, as well as crisis management abilities, are sufficiently well equipped to face today’s threats. These threats include, for instance, the proliferation of ballistic missiles and nuclear weapons, terrorism, cyber attacks and fundamental environmental problems. The Strategic Concept also affirms how NATO aims to promote international security through cooperation. It will do this by reinforcing arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation efforts, emphasising NATO’s open door policy for all European countries, and significantly enhancing its partnerships in the broad sense of the term. Additionally, it affirms that NATO will continue its reform and transformation process.

**NATO’s essential core tasks and principles**

After having reiterated NATO’s enduring purpose and key values and principles, the Strategic Concept highlights the Organization’s core tasks.

“The modern security environment contains a broad and evolving set of challenges to the security of NATO’s territory and populations. In order to assure their security, the Alliance must and will continue fulfilling effectively three essential core tasks, all of which contribute to safeguarding Alliance members, and always in accordance with international law:

1. **Collective defence.** NATO members will always assist each other against attack, in accordance with Article 5 of the Washington Treaty. That commitment remains firm and binding. NATO will deter and defend against any threat of aggression, and against emerging security challenges where they threaten the fundamental security of individual Allies or the Alliance as a whole.

2. **Crisis management.** NATO has a unique and robust set of political and military capabilities to address the full spectrum of crises – before, during and after conflicts. NATO will actively employ an appropriate mix of those political and military tools to help manage developing crises that have the potential to affect Alliance security, before they escalate into conflicts; to stop ongoing conflicts where they affect Alliance security; and to help consolidate stability in post-conflict situations where that contributes to Euro-Atlantic security.

3. **Cooperative security.** The Alliance is affected by, and can affect, political and security developments beyond its borders. The Alliance will engage actively to enhance international security, through partnership with relevant countries and other international organisations; by contributing actively to arms control, non-proliferation and disarmament; and by keeping the door of membership in the Alliance open to all European democracies that meet NATO’s standards.”

**Deterrence and defence**

The 2010 Strategic Concept states that collective defence is the Alliance’s greatest responsibility and “deterrence, based on an appropriate mix of nuclear and conventional capabilities, remains a core element” of NATO’s overall strategy. While stressing that the Alliance does not consider any country to be its adversary, it provides a comprehensive list of capabilities the Alliance aims to maintain and develop to counter existing and emerging threats. These threats include the proliferation of nuclear weapons, ballistic missiles and other weapons of mass destruction and their means of delivery; terrorism, cyber attacks and key environmental and resource constraints.

**Crisis management**

NATO is adopting a holistic approach to crisis management, envisaging NATO involvement at all stages of a crisis: “NATO will therefore engage, where possible and when necessary, to prevent crises, manage crises, stabilize post-conflict situations and support reconstruction.” It is encouraging a greater number of actors to participate and coordinate their efforts and is considering a broader range of tools to be more
effective across the crisis management spectrum. This comprehensive, all-encompassing approach to crises, together with greater emphasis on training and developing local forces goes hand-in-hand with efforts to enhance civil-military planning and interaction.

Cooperative security

The final part of the 2010 Strategic Concept focuses on promoting international security through cooperation. At the root of this cooperation is the principle of seeking security “at the lowest possible level of forces” by supporting arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation. NATO states that it will continue to help reinforce efforts in these areas and cites a number of related initiatives. It then recommits to NATO enlargement as the best way of achieving “our goal of a Europe whole and free, and sharing common values”.

A fundamental component of its cooperative approach to security is partnership, understood between NATO and non-NATO countries, as well as with other international organisations and actors. The Strategic Concept depicts a more inclusive, flexible and open relationship with the Alliance’s partners across the globe and stresses its desire to strengthen cooperation with the United Nations and the European Union. It also reiterates its commitment to developing relations with countries of the Mediterranean and the Gulf region.

Finally, the Strategic Concept describes the means NATO will use to maximise efficiency, improve working methods and spend its resources more wisely in view of the priorities identified in this concept.

The drafters and decision-makers behind the strategies

Over time and since 1949, the decision-making process with regard to the Strategic Concept has evolved, but ultimately it is the North Atlantic Council (NAC) that adopts the Alliance’s strategic documents. Of the seven Strategic Concepts issued by NATO since 1949, all were approved by the NAC, with the exception of MC 14/3.

Issued in 1968, MC 14/3 was adopted by the then Defence Planning Committee (DPC), which had the same authority as the NAC in its area of responsibility. After the withdrawal of France from the integrated military structure in 1966, it was decided that responsibility for all defence matters in which France did not participate was given to the DPC, of which France was not a member. However, shortly after France decided to fully participate in NATO’s military structures (April 2009), the DPC was dissolved during a major overhaul of NATO committees, June 2010, which aimed to introduce more flexibility and efficiency into working procedures.

Before reaching the NAC, there are many stages of discussion, negotiating and drafting that take place. Interestingly, during the Cold War, strategic concepts were principally drawn up by the military for approval by the political authorities of the Alliance. They were classified documents with military references (MC), which are now accessible to the public. Since the end of the Cold War, the drafting has clearly been led by political authorities, who have been advised by the military. This reversal stems from the fact that since 1999, NATO has adopted a far broader definition of security, where dialogue and cooperation are an integral part of NATO’s strategic thinking. In addition, the 1991, 1999 and the 2010 Strategic Concepts were conceived and written to be issued as unclassified documents and released to the public.

The added novelty of the 2010 Strategic Concept was the importance given to the process of producing the document. The process of reflection, consultations and drafting of the Strategic Concept was perceived as an opportunity to build understanding and support across numerous constituencies and stakeholders so as to re-engage and re-commit NATO Allies to the renewed core principles, roles and policies of the Alliance. In addition, the debate was broadened to invite the interested public, as well as experts, to contribute.

Furthermore, it was the first time that a NATO Secretary General initiated and steered the debate. He designated a group of high-level experts who were at the core of the reflection and produced a report “NATO 2020: Assured Security; Dynamic Engagement” that guided the debate, before eventually consulting with member country representatives and drafting the document. Final negotiations took place before the document was officially adopted by the NAC meeting at the level of Heads of State and Government at the 2010 summit in Portugal.
Generally speaking, since the birth of NATO, there have been three distinct periods within which NATO’s strategic thinking has evolved:

- the Cold War period;
- the immediate post-Cold War period; and
- the security environment since 9/11.

One could say that from 1949 to 1991, NATO’s strategy was principally characterised by defence and deterrence, although with growing attention to dialogue and détente for the last two decades of this period. From 1991 a broader approach was adopted where the notions of cooperation and security complemented the basic concepts of deterrence and defence.

- From 1949 until the end of the Cold War, there were four Strategic Concepts, accompanied by documents that laid out the measures for the military to implement the Strategic Concept (Strategic Guidance; The Most Effective Pattern of NATO Military Strength for the Next Few Years; Measures to Implement the Strategic Concept);

- In the post-Cold War period, three unclassified Strategic Concepts have been issued, complemented by classified military documents (MC Directive for Military Implementation of the Alliance’s Strategic Concept; MC Guidance for the Military Implementation of the Alliance Strategy; and MC Guidance for the Military Implementation of NATO’s Strategic Concept).

- Since the terrorist attacks of 9/11, NATO’s military thinking, resources and energy had given greater attention to the fight against terrorism and the spread of weapons of mass destruction; NATO had committed troops beyond the Euro-Atlantic area and reached a membership of 28; new threats emerged such as energy security and cyber-attacks. These were among the factors that brought Allied leaders to produce a new Strategic Concept in 2010.
From 1949 until the end of the Cold War

From 1949 to 1991, international relations were dominated by bipolar confrontation between East and West. The emphasis was more on mutual tension and confrontation than it was on dialogue and cooperation. This led to an often dangerous and expensive arms race.

As mentioned above, four Strategic Concepts were issued during this period. In addition, two key reports were also published during those four decades: the Report of the Committee of Three (December 1956) and the Harmel Report (December 1967). Both documents placed the Strategic Concepts in a wider framework by stressing issues that had an impact on the environment within which the Strategic Concepts were interpreted.

**NATO’s first Strategic Concept**

NATO started producing strategic documents as early as October 1949. But the first NATO strategy document to be approved by the NAC was “The Strategic Concept for the Defense of the North Atlantic area (DC 6/1), 6 January 1950 - the Alliance's first strategic concept.

DC 6/1 provided an overall strategic concept for the Alliance. The document stated that the primary function of NATO was to deter aggression and that NATO forces would only be engaged if this primary function failed and an attack was launched. Complementarity between members and standardization were also key elements of this draft. Each member’s contribution to defence should be in proportion to its capacity – economic, industrial, geographical, military – and cooperative measures were to be put into place by NATO to ensure optimal use of resources. Numerical inferiority in terms of military resources vis-à-vis the USSR was emphasised, as well as the reliance on US nuclear capabilities. DC 6/1 stated that the Alliance should “insure the ability to carry out strategic bombing promptly by all means possible with all types of weapons, without exception”.

Although DC 6/1 was quite detailed, more guidance was needed for use by the five Regional Planning Groups that existed at the time. As a consequence, the Strategic Guidance paper (SG 13/16) was sent to the Regional Planning Groups on 6 January 1950. Entitled “Strategic Guidance for North Atlantic Regional Planning”, SG 13/16 was formally approved by the Military Committee on 28 March 1950 as MC 14.

MC 14 enabled Regional Planning Groups to develop detailed defence plans to meet contingencies up to July 1954, a date by which the Alliance aimed to have a credible defence force in place. Its key objectives were to “convince the USSR that war does not pay, and should war occur, to ensure a successful defence” of the NATO area.

In parallel, SG 13/16 was also being used by the Regional Planning Groups as the basis for further, more comprehensive defence plans. These plans were consolidated into “The North Atlantic Treaty Organization Medium Term Plan” (DC 13), which was approved by the Defence Committee on 1 April 1950, just one year after the signing of the Washington Treaty.

NATO’s strategy was effectively contained in three basis documents:

- DC 6/1 which set forth the overall strategic concept;
- MC 14/1 which provided more specific strategic guidance for use in defence planning; and
- DC 13 which included both of these aspects as well as considerable detailed regional planning.

**The Korean War and NATO’s second Strategic Concept**

The invasion of South Korea by North Korean divisions on 25 June 1950 had an immediate impact on NATO and its strategic thinking. It brought home the realisation that NATO needed to urgently address two fundamental issues: the effectiveness of NATO’s military structures and the strength of NATO forces.

On 26 September 1950, the North Atlantic Council (NAC) approved the establishment of an integrated military force under centralised command; on 19 December 1950, the NAC requested the nomination of General Dwight D. Eisenhower as NATO’s first Supreme Allied Commander, Europe (SACEUR); in January 1951, from Hotel Astoria in Paris, Allies were already working to get the Supreme Headquarters, Allied Forces, Europe (SHAPE) into place and on 2 April 1951, the new SHAPE HQ was activated. Other
structural changes were implemented, including the abolition of the three European Regional Planning Groups, and the replacement in 1952 of the North Atlantic Ocean Regional Planning Group by Allied Command Atlantic (SACLANT), leaving only the Canada-US Regional Planning Group in existence.

These structural changes, together with the accession of Greece and Turkey, needed to be reflected in the Strategic Concept. This led to the drafting of NATO’s second Strategic Concept: “The Strategic Concept for the Defense of the North Atlantic Area”, which was approved by the NAC on 3 December 1952 (MC 3/5(Final)). The new Strategic Concept respected the core principles outlined in DC 6/1 and, in this sense, did not differ fundamentally from this document.

Consequently, the strategic guidance also needed updating. MC 14 was thoroughly revised and reviewed so as to include the information that had been previously contained in DC 13. MC 14 and DC 13 became one document: “Strategic Guidance” (MC 14/1) approved by the NAC at the 15-18 December 1952 Ministerial Meeting in Paris. It was a comprehensive document, which stated that NATO’s overall strategic aim was “to ensure the defense of the NATO area and to destroy the will and capability of the Soviet Union and her satellites to wage war...”. NATO would do this by initially conducting an air offensive and, in parallel, conducting air, ground and sea operations. The Allied air attacks would use “all types of weapons”.

There was another issue which the Korean invasion raised, but was only addressed years later: the need for NATO to engage in a “forward strategy”, which meant that NATO wanted to place its defences as far east in Europe as possible, as close to the Iron Curtain as it could. This immediately raised the delicate issue of Germany’s role in such a commitment. This issue was not resolved until 1954 when NATO invited the Federal Republic of Germany to become a member, which it effectively did on 6 May 1955.

The “New Look”

In the meantime, while structural issues had moved forward, the strength of NATO forces remained a problem. At its meeting in Lisbon, in February 1952, the NAC set very ambitious force goals that proved to be financially and politically unrealistic. As a consequence, the United States, under the leadership of NATO’s former SACEUR, Dwight D. Eisenhower, decided to shift the emphasis of their defence policy to greater dependency on the use of nuclear weapons. This “New Look” policy offered greater military effectiveness without having to spend more on defence (NSC 162/2, 30 October 1953).

However, although alluded to in the strategic documents, nuclear weapons had not yet been integrated into NATO’s strategy. SACEUR Matthew B. Ridgway stated in a report that this integration would imply increases instead of decreases in force levels. His successor, General Alfred Gruenther, established a “New Approach Group” at SHAPE in August 1953 to examine this question. In the meantime, the United States, together with a number of European members, called for the complete integration of nuclear policy into NATO strategy.

Massive retaliation and NATO’s third Strategic Concept

The work of the “New Approach Group”, combined with other submissions gave birth to “The Most Effective Pattern of NATO Military Strength for the Next Five Years” (MC 48), approved by the Military Committee on 22 November 1954 and by the NAC on 17 December 1954. It provided strategic guidance pending the review of MC 14/1 and contained concepts and assumptions that were later included in NATO’s third strategic concept.

MC 48 was the first official NATO document to explicitly discuss the use of nuclear weapons. It introduced the concept of massive retaliation, which is normally associated with MC 14/2 – NATO’s third Strategic Concept.

An additional report entitled “The Most Effective Pattern of NATO Military Strength for the Next Few Years – Report 2” was issued, 14 November 1955. It did not supersede MC 14/1 but added that NATO was still committed to its “forward strategy” even if there were delays in German contributions that would push the implementation of the “forward strategy” to 1959 at the earliest.

After considerable discussion, MC 14/2, “Overall Strategic Concept for the Defence of the NATO Area” was issued in its final form on 23 May 1957 and was accompanied by MC 48/2, “Measures to Implement the Strategic Concept”, on the same day.
MC 14/2 was the Alliance’s first Strategic Concept which advocated “massive retaliation” as a key element of NATO’s new strategy.

While some Allies strongly advocated massive retaliation since it had the advantage of helping to reduce force requirements and, therefore, defence expenditures, not all member countries wanted to go so far. A degree of flexibility was introduced in the sense that recourse to conventional weapons was envisaged to deal with certain, smaller forms of aggression, “without necessarily having recourse to nuclear weapons.” This was also reflected in the accompanying strategic guidance. Despite this flexibility, it was nonetheless stated that NATO did not accept the concept of limited war with the USSR: “If the Soviets were involved in a hostile local action and sought to broaden the scope of such an incident or prolong it, the situation would call for the utilisation of all weapons and forces at NATO’s disposal, since in no case is there a concept of limited war with the Soviets.”

In addition to including the doctrine of “massive retaliation”, MC 14/2 and MC 48/2 reflected other concerns including the effects on the Alliance of Soviet political and economic activities outside the NATO area. This was particularly relevant in the context of the Suez crisis and the crushing of the Hungarian uprising by the Soviet Union in 1956. The importance of out-of-area events was reflected in a political directive, CM(56)138, given from the NAC to NATO’s Military Authorities, 13 December 1956: “Although NATO defence planning is limited to the defence of the Treaty area, it is necessary to take account of the dangers which may arise for NATO because of developments outside that area.”

**The Report of the Three Wise Men**

While NATO was hardening its military and strategic stance, in parallel, it decided to reinforce the political role of the Alliance. A few months before the adoption of MC 14/2, in December 1956, it published the Report of the Committee of Three or Report on Non-Military Cooperation in NATO.

This report, drafted by three NATO foreign ministers – Lester Pearson (Canada), Gaetano Martino (Italy) and Halvard Lange (Norway) - gave new impetus to political consultation between member countries on all aspects of relations between the East and West.

The Report was adopted in the midst of the Suez Crisis, when internal consultation on security matters affecting the Alliance was particularly low, jeopardising Alliance solidarity. This was the first time since the signing of the Washington Treaty that NATO had officially recognised the need to reinforce its political role. The Report put forward several recommendations, including the peaceful settlement of inter-member disputes, economic cooperation, scientific and technical cooperation, cultural cooperation and cooperation in the information field.

Similarly to the Harmel Report, published in 1967, the Report of the Three Wise Men contributed to broadening the strategic framework within which the Alliance operated. Both reports could be perceived as NATO’s first steps toward a more cooperative approach to security issues.

**Massive retaliation put into question**

As soon as NATO’s third Strategic Concept was adopted, a series of international developments occurred that put into question the Alliance’s strategy of massive retaliation.

This strategy relied heavily on the United States’ nuclear capability and its will to defend European territory in the case of a Soviet nuclear attack. Firstly, Europeans started to doubt whether a US President would sacrifice an American city for a European city; secondly, the USSR had developed intercontinental ballistic missile capabilities and, more generally, its nuclear capability. As the USSR’s nuclear potential increased, NATO’s competitive advantage in nuclear deterrence diminished. Terms such as “Mutually Assured Destruction or MAD” started to be used.

The outbreak of the second Berlin crisis (1958-1962), provoked by the Soviet Union, reinforced these doubts: how should NATO react to threats that were below the level of an all-out attack? NATO’s nuclear deterrent had not stopped the Soviets from threatening the position of Western Allies in Berlin. So what should be done?

In 1961, J.F. Kennedy arrived at the White House. He was concerned by the issue of limited warfare and the notion that a nuclear exchange could be started by accident or miscalculation. In the meantime, the
Berlin crisis intensified, leading to the construction of the Berlin Wall, and in October 1962, the Cold War peaked with the Cuban missile crisis.

The United States started advocating a stronger non-nuclear posture for NATO and the need for a strategy of “flexible response”. Initial discussions on a change of strategy were launched among NATO member countries, but there was no consensus.

**The Athens Guidelines**

NATO Secretary General Dirk Stikker presented a special report on NATO Defence Policy (CM(62)48), 17 April 1962, on the issue of the political control of nuclear weapons. It was basically NATO’s first attempt to temper its policy of massive retaliation by submitting the use of nuclear weapons to consultation under varying circumstances.

Other attempts at introducing greater flexibility followed, but these caused resistance from several member countries. This internal resistance combined with the fact that the US Administration had been shaken by the assassination of Kennedy and was increasingly concerned by US military involvement in Vietnam, momentarily froze all discussions on a revised Strategic Concept for NATO.

**NATO’s fourth Strategic Concept and the doctrine of flexible response**

NATO’s fourth Strategic Concept – Overall Strategic Concept for the Defence of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization Area (MC 14/3) – was adopted by the Defence Planning Committee (DPC) on 12 December 1967 and the final version issued on 16 January 1968. It was drafted after the withdrawal of France from NATO’s integrated military structure in 1966.

There were two key features to the new strategy: flexibility and escalation. “The deterrent concept of the Alliance is based on a flexibility that will prevent the potential aggressor from predicting with confidence NATO’s specific response to aggression and which will lead him to conclude that an unacceptable degree of risk would be involved regardless of the nature of his attack”. It identified three types of military responses against aggression to NATO:

1. Direct defence: the aim was to defeat the aggression on the level at which the enemy chose to fight.
2. Deliberate escalation: this added a series of possible steps to defeat aggression by progressively raising the threat of using nuclear power as the crisis escalated.
3. General nuclear response, seen as the ultimate deterrent.

The companion document, “Measures to Implement the Strategic Concept for the Defence of the NATO Area (MC 48/3) was approved by the DPC on 4 December 1969 and issued in final form on 8 December 1969.

Both MC 14/3 and MC 48/3 were so inherently flexible, in substance and interpretation, that they remained valid until the end of the Cold War.

**The Harmel Report**

As NATO was setting its strategic objectives for the next 20 years, it also decided to draw up a report that provided a dual-track approach to security: political and military. In the context of the questioning, by some, of the relevancy of NATO, the “Harmel Report” or the “Report on the Future Tasks of the Alliance” was drawn up.

It provided a broad analysis of the security environment since the signing of the North Atlantic Treaty in 1949 and advocated the need to maintain adequate defence while seeking a relaxation of tensions in East-West relations and working towards solutions to the underlying political problems dividing Europe.

It defined two specific tasks: political and military; political, with the formulation of proposals for balanced force reductions in the East and West; military, with the defence of exposed areas, especially the Mediterranean.

The Harmel Report introduced the notion of deterrence and détente. In that respect, as already stated in the context of the Report of the Three Wise Men, it set the tone for NATO’s first steps toward a more cooperative approach to security issues that would emerge in 1991.
However, between 1967 and 1991, there were still moments of great tension between the two blocs, as there were instances that gave rise to hope of a less turbulent relationship.

Tensions increased with the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan and the deployment of Soviet SS-20 missiles to which NATO reacted by initiating its Double-Track Decision, December 1979: it offered the Warsaw Pact a mutual limitation of medium and intermediate-range ballistic missiles and, failing a positive reaction from Moscow, threatened to deploy Pershing and cruise missiles, which it eventually did.

Détente increased with the signing of the US-Soviet agreements on Strategic Arms Limitations (SALT I) and anti-ballistic missile systems, and SALT II (although not ratified), as well as the signing of US-Soviet Strategic Arms Reduction Talks (START) and the Intermediate-range Nuclear Forces (INF) Treaty. By the mid- to late 80s, both blocs moved to confidence-building. However, mutual distrust still characterised East-West relations and it was not until the fall of the Berlin Wall, the dissolution of the Warsaw Pact and the break-up of the Soviet Union that relations could start on a new basis.

The immediate post-Cold War period

In 1991, a new era commenced. The formidable enemy that the Soviet Union had once been was dissolved and Russia, together with other former adversaries, became NATO partners and, in some case, NATO members. For the Alliance, the period was characterised by dialogue and cooperation, as well as other new ways of contributing to peace and stability such as multinational crisis management operations.

During the immediate post-Cold War period, NATO issued two unclassified Strategic Concepts that advocated a broader approach to security than before:

- The Alliance’s Strategic Concept, November 1991;
- The Alliance’s Strategic Concept, April 1999.

Both of these were accompanied by a classified military document: respectively MC 400 and MC 400/2.

**NATO’s first unclassified Strategic Concept**

The 1991 Strategic Concept differed dramatically from preceding strategic documents. Firstly, it was a non-confrontational document that was released to the public; and secondly, while maintaining the security of its members as its fundamental purpose (i.e., collective defence), it sought to improve and expand security for Europe as a whole through partnership and cooperation with former adversaries. It also reduced the use of nuclear forces to a minimum level, sufficient to preserve peace and stability:

“This Strategic Concept reaffirms the defensive nature of the Alliance and the resolve of its members to safeguard their security, sovereignty and territorial integrity. The Alliance’s security policy is based on dialogue; co-operation; and effective collective defence as mutually reinforcing instruments for preserving the peace. Making full use of the new opportunities available, the Alliance will maintain security at the lowest possible level of forces consistent with the requirements of defence. In this way, the Alliance is making an essential contribution to promoting a lasting peaceful order.”

The 1991’s Strategic Concept’s accompanying document was - and still is - classified. It is entitled: “MC Directive for Military Implementation of the Alliance’s Strategic Concept (MC 400), 12 December 1991.

**NATO’s second unclassified Strategic Concept**

In 1999, the year of NATO’s 50th anniversary, Allied leaders adopted a new Strategic Concept that committed members to common defence and peace and stability of the wider Euro-Atlantic area. It was based on a broad definition of security which recognised the importance of political, economic, social and environmental factors in addition to the defence dimension. It identified the new risks that had emerged since the end of the Cold War, which included terrorism, ethnic conflict, human rights abuses, political instability, economic fragility, and the spread of nuclear, biological and chemical weapons and their means of delivery.

The document stated that the Alliance’s fundamental tasks were security, consultation, and deterrence and defence, adding that crisis management and partnership were also essential to enhancing security and stability in the Euro-Atlantic area. It noted that NATO had managed to adapt and play an important role in the post-Cold War environment, and established guidelines for the Alliance’s forces, translating the
purposes and tasks of the preceding sections into practical instructions for NATO force and operational planners. The strategy called for the continued development of the military capabilities needed for the full range of the Alliance’s missions, from collective defence to peace support and other crisis-response operations. It also stipulated that the Alliance would maintain for the foreseeable future an appropriate mix of nuclear and conventional forces.

The 1999 Strategic Concept was complemented by a strategic guidance document that remains classified: “MC Guidance for the Military Implementation of the Alliance Strategy” (MC 400/2), 12 February 2003.

The security environment since 9/11

The 9/11 terrorist attacks against the United States brought the threat of terrorism and weapons of mass destruction to the fore. NATO needed to protect its populations both at home and abroad. It therefore underwent major internal reforms to adapt military structures and capabilities to equip members for new tasks, such as leading the UN-mandated International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan.

NATO also proceeded to deepen and extend its partnerships and, essentially, accelerate its transformation to develop new political relationships and stronger operational capabilities to respond to an increasingly global and more challenging world.

These radical changes needed to be reflected in NATO’s strategic documents.

A first step in that direction was taken in November 2006 when NATO leaders endorsed the “Comprehensive Political Guidance”. This is major policy document set out the framework and priorities for all Alliance capability issues, planning disciplines and intelligence for the next 10 to 15 years. It analysed the probable future security environment and acknowledged the possibility of unpredictable events. Against that analysis, it set out the kinds of operations the Alliance must be able to perform in light of the Alliance’s Strategic Concept and the kinds of capabilities NATO needed.

Later, at the Strasbourg-Kehl Summit in April 2009, NATO leaders endorsed the “Declaration on Alliance Security” which, inter alia, called for a new Strategic Concept. This provoked a thorough debate and analysis of NATO issues and, together with the economic context, presented an opportunity for rethinking, reprioritising and reforming NATO. The 2010 Strategic Concept was issued at the Lisbon Summit in November 2010 and is accompanied by the Military Committee Guidance MC 400/3, March 2012.
Strategic sealift

NATO member countries have pooled their resources to assure access to special ships, giving the Alliance the capability to rapidly transport forces and equipment by sea.

This multinational consortium finances the charter of up to 11 special “roll-on/roll-off” ships (commonly, Ro/Ro; so called because equipment can be driven onto and off of the ships via special doors and ramps into the hold). The consortium includes Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Germany, Hungary, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Slovenia and the United Kingdom.

Components

The Sealift Consortium provides the Alliance with access to the Sealift Capability Package (SCP), which consists of:

- three Ro/Ro ships on assured access;
- residual capacity of five Danish/German ARK Ro/Ro ships on full-time charter;
- residual capacity of four UK Ro/Ro ships;
- and a Norwegian Ro/Ro ship on dormant contract.

The three assured access ships are covered by an Assured Access Contract (AAC) through the NATO Support Agency (NSPA) based in Luxembourg. Finance is provided by eight of the eleven signatories (all but Denmark, Germany and the United Kingdom).

Denmark and Germany provide the residual capacity of five ARK Ro/Ro vessels, which are chartered on a full-time contract basis until 2021. The United Kingdom offers the residual capacity of their four Ro/Ro vessels being provided to its Ministry of Defence under a Private Finance Initiative contract. This contract lasts until December 2024. In addition, Norway has a dormant contract for one Ro/Ro ship.
As an example of the capacity of the ships, the Danish/German ARK ships and UK ships can each carry around 2,500 lane meters of vehicles and equipment – in other words, if the vehicles and equipment were parked one behind the other in single file, the line would stretch for two and a half kilometres.

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**Evolution**

To overcome the shortfall in Alliance strategic sealift capabilities, a High Level Group on Strategic Sealift was established at the NATO Prague Summit in 2002. NATO countries agreed to increase their multinational efforts to reduce the strategic sealift shortfalls for rapidly deployable forces by using a combination of full-time charter and multinational assured access contracts.

In June 2003, at the annual spring meeting of NATO Defence Ministers in Brussels, 11 ministers signed a letter of intent on addressing the sealift shortfalls on behalf of Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain and Turkey.

Six months later at the autumn meeting of NATO Defence Ministers, nine countries (Canada, Denmark, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain and the United Kingdom) signed an agreement to implement the letter of intent, which resulted in the formation of the Multinational Sealift Steering Committee (MSSC).

In February 2004, the consortium, led by Norway, signed a contract with the NATO Support Agency (NSPA) (formerly the NATO Maintenance and Supply Agency (NAMSA)) for the provision of the sealift capability.

The countries pursued an incremental approach, using 2004 as the trial year, with the aim of developing further capacity for subsequent years.

At the 2004 Istanbul Summit, the defence ministers of Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Romania and Slovenia signed a supplementary letter of intent on strategic sealift, where they declared their intent to improve strategic sealift and to provide additional sealift capacity for rapidly deployable forces.

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**Mechanisms**

The SCP has been coordinated by the Sealift Coordination Centre (SCC) since its establishment in September 2002. Since July 2007, this role has been taken over by the Movement Coordination Centre Europe (MCCE). Through improved coordination, the SCC and, now, the MCCE have managed to establish many sealift requirement matches between nations. By making more efficient use of available assets, these nations have made, and are making, significant financial savings.

The activation of the Assured Access Contract can be undertaken by either an authorised national representative, or by NSPA, under bilateral arrangements between the activating nation and NSPA.
Summit meetings

NATO summit meetings provide periodic opportunities for Heads of State and Government of member countries to evaluate and provide strategic direction for Alliance activities.

**Highlights**

- Summit meetings are often held at key moments in the Alliance’s evolution – they are not regular meetings, but important junctures in the Alliance’s decision-making process.
- Summits are used, for instance, to introduce new policy, invite new members into the Alliance, launch major initiatives and reinforce partnerships.
- They are meetings of the North Atlantic Council at its highest level possible – that of Heads of State and Government.
- Since 1949, there have been 28 NATO summits. The last one took place in Brussels, Belgium on 11-12 July 2018.
- NATO summits are always held in a NATO member country and are chaired by the NATO Secretary General.

**More background information**

**Summit meeting agendas**

NATO summit meetings are effectively meetings of the North Atlantic Council (NAC) - the Alliance’s principal political decision-making body - at its highest level, that of Heads of State and Government.
Due to the political significance of summit meetings, agenda items typically address issues of overarching political or strategic importance. Items can relate to the internal functioning of the Alliance as well as NATO’s relations with external partners.

Major decisions

Many of NATO’s summit meetings can be considered as milestones in the evolution of the Alliance. For instance, the first post-Cold War summit was held in London, in 1990, and outlined proposals for developing relations with Central and Eastern European countries. A year later, in Rome, NATO Heads of State and Government published a new Strategic Concept that reflected the new security environment. This document was issued as a public document for the first time ever. At the same summit, NATO established the North Atlantic Cooperation Council – a forum that officially brought together NATO and partner countries from Europe, Central Asia, and the Caucasus.

The 1997 Madrid and Paris Summits invited the first countries of the former Warsaw Pact – the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland – to join NATO, and established partnerships between NATO and Russia and Ukraine, while the 2002 Prague Summit saw major commitments to improving NATO’s capabilities and transformed the military command structure.

These are just a few of the many decisions that have been taken over the decades (a full summary of all NATO summit meetings can be found below under “Previous summit meetings”).

Implementation of summit decisions

Typically, the decisions taken at a summit meeting are issued in declarations and communiqués. These are public documents that explain the Alliance’s decisions and reaffirm Allies’ support for aspects of NATO policies.

The decisions are then translated into action by the relevant actors, according to the area of competency and responsibility: the NAC’s subordinate committees and NATO’s command structure, which cover the whole range of the Organization’s functions and activities.

Timing and location

Timing

Summits are convened upon approval by the NAC at the level of Permanent Representatives (or Ambassadors) or foreign and defence ministers. They are usually called on an ad-hoc basis, as required by the evolving political and security situation.

From the founding of NATO until the end of the Cold War – over 40 years – there were ten summit meetings. Since 1990, their frequency has increased considerably in order to address the changes brought on by the new security challenges. In total, 28 summit meetings have taken place since 1949.

Location

NATO summit meetings are held in one of the member countries, including Belgium, at NATO HQ. Members volunteer to host a summit meeting and, after evaluating all offers, the NAC makes the final decision concerning the location.

In recent years, summit locations have held some thematic significance. For example, the Washington Summit of 1999 commemorated the 50th anniversary of the signing of the North Atlantic Treaty in that city. Istanbul – which hosted a summit meeting in 2004 — connects Europe and Asia and is where the Alliance launched the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative. This initiative is intended to foster linkages between NATO and the broader Middle East.

Previous summit meetings

The first time that Heads of State and Government from NATO countries met was at the actual signing ceremony of the North Atlantic Treaty on 4 April 1949, but this was not a summit meeting. The first summit meeting was held eight years later, in Paris in 1957, and subsequent summits occurred at key junctures in the history of the Alliance.
Paris, 16-19 December 1957
Reaffirmation of the principal purposes and unity of the Atlantic alliance; Improvements in the coordination and organisation of NATO forces and in political consultation arrangements; Recognition of the need for closer economic ties and for cooperation in the spirit of Article 2 of the Treaty, designed to eliminate conflict in international policies and encourage economic collaboration (Report of the Committee of the Three on Non-Military Cooperation in NATO, the so-called report of the Three Wise Men).

Brussels, 26 June 1974
Signature of the Declaration on Atlantic Relations adopted by NATO foreign ministers in Ottawa on 19 June, confirming the dedication of Allies to the aims and ideals of the Treaty in the 25th anniversary of its signature; Consultations on East-West relations in preparation for US-USSR summit talks on strategic nuclear arms limitations.

Brussels, 29-30 May 1975
Affirmation of the fundamental importance of the Alliance and of Allied cohesion in the face of international economic pressures following the 1974 oil crisis; Support for successful conclusion of negotiations in the framework of the Conference on Security and Co-operation in Europe (CSCE) (to result in 1975 in the signing of the Helsinki Final Act).

London, 10-11 May 1977
Initiation of study on long-term trends in East-West relations and of a long-term defence programme (LTDP) aimed at improving the defensive capability of NATO member countries.

Washington D.C., 30-31 May 1978
Review of interim results of long-term initiatives taken at the 1977 London Summit; Confirmation of the validity of the Alliance’s complementary aims of maintaining security while pursuing East-West détente; Adoption of three per cent target for growth in defence expenditures.

Bonn, 10 June 1982
Accession of Spain; Adoption of the Bonn Declaration setting out a six-point Programme for Peace in Freedom; Publication of a statement of Alliance’s goals and policies on arms control and disarmament and a statement on integrated NATO defence.

Brussels, 21 November 1985
Special meeting of the North Atlantic Council for consultations with US President Reagan on the positive outcome of the US-USSR Geneva Summit on arms control and other areas of cooperation.

Brussels, 2-3 March 1988
Reaffirmation of the purpose and principles of the Alliance (reference to the Harmel Report on the Future Tasks of the Alliance published in 1967) and of its objectives for East-West relations; Adoption of a blue print for strengthening stability in the whole of Europe through conventional arms control negotiations.

Brussels, 29-30 May 1989
Declaration commemorating the 40th anniversary of the Alliance setting out Alliance policies and security objectives for the 1990s aimed at maintaining Alliance defence, introducing new arms control initiatives, strengthening political consultation, improving East-West cooperation and meeting global challenges; Adoption of a Comprehensive Concept of Arms Control and Disarmament.

Brussels, 4 December 1989
Against the background of fundamental changes in Central and Eastern Europe and the prospect of the end of the division of Europe, US President Bush consults with Alliance leaders following his summit meeting with Soviet President Gorbachev in Malta. While the NATO summit meeting is taking place, Warsaw Pact leaders denounce the 1968 invasion of Czechoslovakia and repudiate the Brezhnev Doctrine of limited sovereignty.

London, 5-6 July 1990
Publication of the London Declaration on a Transformed North Atlantic Alliance, outlining proposals for developing cooperation with the countries of Central and Eastern Europe across a wide spectrum of political and military activities including the establishment of regular diplomatic liaison with NATO.
Rome, 7-8 November 1991
Publication of several key documents: the Alliance’s new Strategic Concept, the Rome Declaration on Peace and Cooperation and statements on developments in the Soviet Union and the situation in Yugoslavia.

Brussels, 10-11 January 1994
Launching of the Partnership for Peace (PfP) initiative; All North Atlantic Cooperation Council partner countries and members of the Conference on Security and Co-operation in Europe (CSCE) are invited to participate; Publication of the PfP Framework Document; Endorsement of the concept of Combined Joint Task Forces (CJTFs) and other measures to develop the European Security and Defence Identity (ESDI); Reaffirmation of Alliance readiness to carry out air strikes in support of United Nations objectives in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Paris, 27 May 1997
Signing of the Founding Act on Mutual Relations, Cooperation and Security between the Russian Federation and the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. The Founding Act states that NATO and Russia are no longer adversaries and establishes the NATO-Russia Permanent Joint Council.

Madrid, 8-9 July 1997
Invitations to the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland to begin accession talks; Reaffirmation of NATO’s Open Door Policy; Recognition of achievement and commitments represented by the NATO-Russia Founding Act; Signature of the Charter on a Distinctive Partnership between NATO and Ukraine; First meeting of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) at summit level that replaces the North Atlantic Cooperation Council; An enhanced PfP; Updating of the 1991 Strategic Concept and adoption of a new defence posture; Reform of the NATO military command structure; Special Declaration on Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Washington D.C., 23-24 April 1999
Commemoration of NATO’s 50th Anniversary; Allies reiterate their determination to put an end to the repressive actions by Yugoslav President Milosevic against the local ethnic Albanian population in Kosovo; The Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland participate in their first summit meeting; Adoption of the Membership Action Plan; Publication of a revised Strategic Concept; Enhancement of the European Security and Defence Identity within NATO; Launch of the Defence Capabilities Initiative; Strengthening of the PfP and the EAPC, as well as the Mediterranean Dialogue; Launch of the Weapons of Mass Destruction (WMD) Initiative.

Rome, 28 May 2002
NATO Allies and the Russian Federation create the NATO-Russia Council, where they meet as equal partners, bringing a new quality to NATO-Russia relations. The NATO-Russia Council replaces the NATO-Russia Permanent Joint Council.

Prague, 21-22 November 2002
Invitation of Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia to begin accession talks; Adoption of measures to improve military capabilities (The Prague Capabilities Commitment, the NATO Response Force and the streamlining of the military command structure); Adoption of a Military Concept for Defence against Terrorism; Decision to support NATO member countries in Afghanistan; Endorsement of a package of initiatives to forge new relationships with partners.

Istanbul, 28-29 June 2004
Summit held at 26, with seven new members; Expansion of NATO’s operation in Afghanistan with the establishment of Provincial Reconstruction Teams throughout the country; Agreement to assist the Iraqi Interim Government with the training of its security forces; Maintaining support for stability in the Balkans; Decision to change NATO’s defence-planning and force-generation processes, while strengthening contributions to the fight against terrorism, including WMD aspects; Strengthening cooperation with partners and launch of the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative with countries from the broader Middle East region.

Brussels, 22 February 2005
Leaders reaffirm their support for building stability in the Balkans, Afghanistan and Iraq, and commit to strengthening the partnership between NATO and the European Union.
Riga, 28-29 November 2006
Review of progress in Afghanistan in light of the expansion of the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) to the entire country and call for broader international engagement; Confirmation that the Alliance is prepared to play its part in implementing the security provisions of a settlement on the status of Kosovo; Measures adopted to further improve NATO’s military capabilities; NATO Response Force declared operational; Comprehensive Political Guidance published; Initiatives adopted to deepen and extend relations with partners; Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro and Serbia invited to join PfP.

Bucharest, 2-4 April 2008
Allied leaders review the evolution of NATO’s main commitments: operations (Afghanistan and Kosovo); enlargement and the invitation of Albania and Croatia to start the accession process (the Republic of North Macedonia, known at the time as the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, to be invited as soon as negotiations over its name lead to an agreement); the continued development of military capabilities.

Strasbourg/Kehl, 3-4 April 2009
Against the backdrop of NATO’s 60th anniversary, adoption of a Declaration on Alliance Security calling for a new Strategic Concept; adherence to basic principles and shared values, as well as the need for ongoing transformation; in-depth discussion on Afghanistan; welcoming of two new members: Albania and Croatia, and the pursuit of NATO’s open door policy (invitation extended to North Macedonia, known at the time as the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia); France’s decision to fully participate in NATO structures and the impact of this decision on the Alliance’s relations with the European Union; NATO’s relations with Russia.

Lisbon, 19-20 November 2010
Publication of a new Strategic Concept; Transition to full Afghan security responsibility to start in 2011; Agreement on a long-term partnership with Afghanistan; Decision to develop a NATO missile defence system to protect populations and territory in Europe, in addition to deployed troops; Russia invited to cooperate as part of a “reset” of relations with NATO; Adoption of a comprehensive approach to crisis management, including a greater role in stabilisation and reconstruction and more emphasis on training and developing local forces; Continue to support arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation efforts, and maintain an appropriate mix of nuclear and conventional forces; Adoption of the Lisbon Capabilities Package; Agreement to develop a cyber defence policy and action plan; Reform of NATO’s military command structure and agencies; New impetus given to relations with partners and NATO’s partnership policy.

Chicago, 20-21 May 2012
NATO leaders set out a strategy to conclude the transition of security responsibility to Afghan forces by end 2014 and commit to a post-2014 mission to train, advise and assist Afghan forces; Talks on Afghanistan bring together over 60 countries and organisations in Chicago; Approval of the Deterrence and Defence Posture Review and adoption of a Defence Package and new policy guidelines on counter-terrorism; An Interim Ballistic Missile Capability was declared and initiatives taken in other key capability areas (intelligence, surveillance and reconnaissance, and air policing); Commitment to pursue cooperative security and engage with partners across the globe as well as countries that aspire to NATO membership.

Wales (Newport), 4-5 September 2014
Renewed commitment to the Transatlantic Bond and to a robust defence capability; Pledge to reverse defence cuts and adoption of a Readiness Action Plan, including a Very High Readiness Joint Task Force; Increased support to Ukraine in the wake of the crisis with Russia; Continued condemnation of Russia’s illegal and illegitimate “annexation” of Crimea and destabilisation of eastern Ukraine; Strengthened relations with partners through the Partnership Interoperability Initiative and the Defence and Related Security Capacity Building Initiative; Reassertion of NATO’s commitment to Afghanistan through the Resolute Support Mission, financial contributions to the Afghan National Security Forces, and the NATO-Afghanistan Enduring Partnership; Tribute to the Armed Forces as NATO marks its 65th anniversary and two decades of operations on land, sea and air.

Warsaw, 8-9 July 2016 Focus on two pillars: strengthening NATO’s deterrence and defence, and projecting stability beyond NATO’s borders. Measures, such as the positioning of four multinational battalions in Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Poland in 2017 and the development of a tailored forward
presence in the south-eastern part of NATO, were adopted; Initial Operational Capability of NATO’s ballistic missile defence declared; pledge to strengthen national cyber defences while cyberspace is recognised as a new operational domain like land, air and maritime; support to be provided to partners, especially in the fields of training and capacity-building; decision to use AWACS aircraft in service until 2035 and use them to provide information to the Global Coalition to Counter ISIL; agreement on changing NATO’s counter-terrorism Operation Active Endeavour to a broader Maritime Security Operation; agreement to extend Resolute Support Mission in Afghanistan beyond 2016 and funding for Afghan forces until 2020; endorsement of a Comprehensive Assistance Package for Ukraine; NATO Secretary General Stoltenberg signs a Joint Declaration with the Presidents of the European Council and the European Commission.

Brussels, 11-12 July 2018

Three principal issues: reinforcing the Alliance’s deterrence and defence, stepping up the fight against terrorism and fairer burden-sharing between NATO members. Decisions were taken on raising the readiness of NATO forces, modernising the military command structure and setting up a cyberspace operations centre and counter-hybrid support teams. Leaders remained committed to a dual-track approach to Russia – defence and dialogue – and addressed challenges from the Middle East and North Africa. NATO launched a new training mission in Iraq and offered more support to Jordan and Tunisia. The financing for Afghan security forces was also extended until 2024. The government of Skopje was invited for accession talks to become NATO’s 30th member.

Organising and holding these events

NATO summit meetings are centred on the activities of the North Atlantic Council (NAC or Council). As with all NAC meetings, the Secretary General chairs them and plays an important role in coordination and deliberations to help members reach consensus on the issues at hand.

As with meetings at the levels of Permanent Representatives and ministers, the work of the NAC is prepared by subordinate committees with responsibility for specific areas of policy. The Deputies Committee, which consists of Deputy Permanent Representatives, is responsible for drafting declarations and communiqués after meetings of heads of state and government, as well as foreign and defence ministers.

Other aspects of political work may be handled by the Political Committee and the Partnerships and Cooperative Security Committee. Depending on the topic under discussion, the respective senior committee with responsibility for the subject assumes the lead role in preparing Council meetings and following up Council decisions.

Support to the Council is provided by the Secretary of the Council, who is also Director of the ministerial and summit meeting task forces. The Secretary of the Council ensures that NAC mandates are executed and its decisions recorded and circulated. A small Council Secretariat ensures the bureaucratic and logistical aspects of the Council’s work, while the relevant divisions of the International Staff support the work of committees reporting to the NAC.

Participation

NATO summit meetings normally involve member countries only. However, on occasion, and provided Allies agree, meetings can be convened in other formats. They include, for instance, meetings of defence or foreign ministers, heads of state and government of countries belonging to the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, the NATO-Russia Council, the NATO-Ukraine Commission or the NATO-Georgia Commission. They can also include leaders from countries contributing troops to a NATO-led operation, as was the case for ISAF troop-contributing countries at the 2010 Lisbon Summit or top representatives from international organisations such as the United Nations, the European Union or the World Bank.
The Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) is one of NATO’s two strategic commanders and is the head of Allied Command Operations (ACO). He is responsible to NATO’s highest military authority, the Military Committee (MC), for the conduct of all NATO military operations.

**Highlights**

- The Supreme Allied Commander Europe – or SACEUR – is one of NATO’s two strategic commanders.
- SACEUR is at the head of Allied Command Operations (ACO) and, as such, is responsible to the Military Committee (MC) for the conduct of all NATO operations.
- He is traditionally a US commander, dual-hatted as Commander of the US European Command.
- The current SACEUR is Tod D. Wolters, United States Air Force, who took up his functions on 3 May 2019.
- His NATO command is exercised from the Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE) at Casteau, near Mons, Belgium.
Role and responsibilities

SACEUR is responsible for the overall command of NATO military operations. He conducts the necessary military planning for operations, including the identification of forces required for the mission and requests these forces from NATO countries, as authorised by the North Atlantic Council and as directed by the MC. SACEUR analyses these operational needs in cooperation with the Supreme Allied Commander Transformation (SACT).

The Supreme Commander makes recommendations to NATO's political and military authorities on any military matter that may affect his ability to carry out his responsibilities. For day-to-day business, he reports to the MC, composed of Military Representatives for Chiefs of Defence of NATO member countries. He also has direct access to the Chiefs of Defence and may communicate with appropriate national authorities, as necessary, to facilitate the accomplishment of his tasks.

In the case of an aggression against a NATO member state, SACEUR, as Supreme Commander, is responsible for executing all military measures within his capability and authority to preserve or restore the security of Alliance territory.

SACEUR also has an important public profile and is the senior military spokesman for ACO. Through his own activities and those of his public information staff he maintains regular contacts with the media. He also undertakes official visits to NATO countries and countries where NATO is conducting operations, or with which NATO is developing dialogue, cooperation and partnership.

Other tasks that come under the responsibility of the Supreme Allied Commander Europe include:

- contributing to stability throughout the Euro-Atlantic area by developing and participating in military-to-military contacts and other cooperation activities and exercises undertaken with partner countries;
- conducting analysis at the strategic level designed to identify capability shortfalls and to assign priorities to them;
- managing the resources allocated by NATO for operations and exercises; and
- in conjunction with Allied Command Transformation (ACT), developing and conducting training programmes and exercises in combined and joint procedures for the military headquarters and forces of NATO and partner countries.

Selection process

SACEUR is appointed by the US President, confirmed by the US Senate, and approved by the North Atlantic Council (NATO's highest political decision-making body).

There is no assigned term for SACEUR. It has ranged from one to eight years.

Evolution of the function

On 2 April 1951, the five-star general in the US Army who served during the Second World War, General Dwight D. Eisenhower, became the Alliance’s first SACEUR. This post, together with that of the Supreme Allied Commander Atlantic (SACLANT), was created before that of the Secretary General’s, which followed a year later in March 1952.

SACEUR had the responsibility of safeguarding the area extending from the northern tip of Norway to southern Europe, including the whole of the Mediterranean, and from the Atlantic coastline to the eastern border of Turkey.

Following the overall process of reform in 2002, when the Supreme Allied Commander Atlantic (SACLANT) became the Supreme Allied Commander Transformation (SACT), the Supreme Allied Commander Europe did not change name but saw his responsibilities extended to cover all NATO operations, regardless of their geographical location.
The Supreme Allied Commander Transformation (SACT) is one of NATO’s two strategic commanders and the commanding officer of Allied Command Transformation.

**Highlights**

- The Supreme Allied Commander Transformation - or SACT - is one of NATO’s two strategic commanders.
- SACT is at the head of Allied Command Transformation and, as such, is responsible to NATO’s highest military authority - the Military Committee - for promoting and overseeing the continuing transformation of Alliance forces and capabilities.
- He helps to identify and prioritise future capability and interoperability requirements and channels the results into NATO’s defence planning process.
- SACT explores new concepts and doctrines by conducting experiments and supporting the research & development and acquisition of new technologies and capabilities.
- He is also responsible for NATO’s training and education programmes.
- The current SACT is French Air Force General André Lanata.

**Role and responsibilities**

SACT has the lead role at the strategic level for the transformation of NATO’s military structures, forces, capabilities and doctrines in order to improve the military effectiveness of the Alliance.
The incumbent makes recommendations to NATO’s political and military authorities on transformation issues. For day-to-day business, SACT does this by reporting to the Military Committee, composed of Military Representatives for Chiefs of Defence of NATO member countries; by having direct access to the Chiefs of Defence and communicating with appropriate national authorities, as necessary, to facilitate the accomplishment of designated tasks.

In cooperation with Allied Command Operations, SACT analyses NATO’s operational needs, in order to identify and prioritise the type and scale of future capability and interoperability requirements and to channel the results into NATO’s overall defence planning process.

The Supreme Allied Commander Transformation also leads efforts to explore new concepts and doctrines by conducting experiments and supporting the R&D and acquisition of new technologies and capabilities, while carrying the responsibility for NATO’s training and education programmes, designed to ensure the Alliance has at its disposal staffs trained to common NATO standards and capable of operating effectively in a combined and joint force military environment.

Other tasks that come under the responsibility of the Supreme Allied Commander Transformation include:

- managing commonly funded resources allocated for NATO’s transformation programmes in order to provide timely, cost-effective solutions for operational requirements;
- supporting the exercise requirements of Allied Command Operations throughout their planning, execution and assessment phases.

### Selection process

SACT is proposed by a NATO member country and approved by the North Atlantic Council of NATO. There is no assigned term for SACT.

### Evolution of the function

SACT’s command is exercised from the Headquarters of Allied Command Transformation in Norfolk, Virginia, United States. Since 2009 – the year France decided to fully participate in NATO structures following its withdrawal from the integrated military structure in 1966 – a French General Officer has held the position of SACT: General Stéphane Abrial (2009-2012), General Jean-Paul Paloméros (2012-2015), General Denis Mercier (2015-2018) and currently General André Lanata.

From 2002 to 2009, SACT was a United States Flag or General Officer, and dual-hatted as Commander of the U.S. Joint Forces Command, the post responsible for maximising future and present military capabilities of the United States. The first SACT was Admiral Edmund P. Giambastiani Jr. from 2002 to 2005, followed by General Lance L. Smith from 2005 to 2007, and then General James Mattis from 2007 to 2009.

Prior to the reform of the NATO Command Structure in 2002, the then Supreme Allied Commander Atlantic (SACLANT), was responsible for safeguarding the Allies’ sea lines of communication, supporting land and amphibious operations, and protecting the deployment of the Alliance’s sea-based nuclear deterrent. Allied Command Atlantic extended from the North Pole to the Tropic of Cancer and from the coastal waters of North America to those of Europe and Africa, including Portugal, but not including the Channel and British Isles, which were part of what was Allied Command Europe at the time (now Allied Command Operations).
Transparency and accountability

NATO is an intergovernmental organisation that is funded by its member countries. NATO is therefore accountable to its member governments and their taxpayers for the financial resources provided to make the Organization function.

Publication of NATO budgets

In the spirit of transparency, each year NATO publishes the civilian and military budget totals, as well as the NATO Security Investment Programme (NSIP) budget. It also publishes an annual compendium of financial, personnel and economic data for all member countries. Since 1963, the latter has formed a consistent basis of comparison of the defence effort of Alliance members based on a common definition of defence expenditure.

NATO’s civilian budget (running costs for NATO Headquarters), military budget (costs of the integrated Command Structure) and NSIP (military capabilities) are commonly funded, i.e., they cover requirements which are not the responsibility of any single member, such as NATO-wide air defence or the command structure. All 29 members contribute according to an agreed cost-share formula, based on Gross National Income, which represents a small percentage of each country’s defence budget. This cost-share formula is published every year. Projects can also be jointly funded, which means that the participating countries can identify the requirements, the priorities and the funding arrangements, but NATO provides political and financial oversight.

Auditing of NATO accounts

Another measure of transparency was the establishment, in 1953, of the independent International Board of Auditors for NATO (IBAN), just four years after the creation of NATO. IBAN is responsible for auditing the accounts of the different NATO bodies. Its main task is to provide the North Atlantic Council - NATO’s principal political decision-making body - and member governments with the assurance that joint and
common funds are used properly. The Board, composed of officials normally drawn from the national audit bodies of member countries, not only performs financial audits but also performance audits which review management practices in general.

**Ongoing reforms**

In September 2014 at the Wales Summit, NATO leaders agreed to task “*further work in the areas of delivery of common funded capabilities, reform governance and transparency and accountability, especially in the management of NATO’s financial resources*”. With this renewed drive for transparency and accountability, a number of key reference documents are being made public:

- the NATO Financial Regulations, which govern financial administration;
- the Guidelines on Corporate Governance, which establish the principles to be followed to strengthen transparency and accountability; and
- the NATO Accounting Framework, which provides the minimum requirements for financial reporting in NATO.

This initiative builds on measures taken by Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen (2009-2014), who introduced a NATO-wide reform process not only reflecting austerity measures taken in member countries, but seeking to make the Alliance more modern, efficient and effective. Each and every one of NATO’s political and military structures was streamlined and the acquisition of critical capabilities reassessed to ensure the Allies can provide greater security with more value for money. There ensued a reform of the military command structure, NATO agencies and committees, and of the working practices of staff at NATO Headquarters in Brussels, including financial procedures.

Secretary General Fogh Rasmussen reported, *inter alia*, on this NATO-wide reform in an Annual Report published every year of his tenure. He was the first secretary general to make this report public. Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg has continued the practice. Although the obligation to report to the North Atlantic Council is inherent to the Secretary General’s mandate (C9-D/4(Final) 1952), the report itself was always classified until its drafting was discontinued in 1984. However, in the same vein as Mr Fogh Rasmussen and Mr Stoltenberg, NATO’s first Secretary General, Lord Ismay (1952-1957), decided to make public a running account of the progress made by the Alliance during its first five years of existence (with only a cover note of confidential nature for the Council). “NATO - The first five years, 1949-1954” was released in booklet form in 1957.

Internal reform efforts continue to help improve governance, transparency and accountability. In 2016, NATO leaders at the Warsaw Summit made a pledge to develop a stronger and more consistent approach to prioritisation. The aim was to improve the link between political and military priorities and resource requirements. More recent initiatives therefore include, for instance, measures to accelerate the delivery of commonly funded capabilities across NATO and to reinforce the Organization’s risk assessment measures.
Troop contributions

When a NATO operation or mission is deemed necessary, NATO member and partner countries volunteer personnel, equipment and resources for the mission. These national contributions operate under the aegis of the Alliance.

Highlights

- An alliance of 29 sovereign countries, NATO relies on the military forces of its member countries to carry out an operation or mission because it does not possess military forces of its own.
- Personnel serving in a NATO operation are referred to as “NATO forces”, but are actually multinational forces from NATO countries and, in some cases, partner or other troop-contributing countries.
- “Force generation” is the procedure by which Allies (and partner countries) resource the personnel and equipment needed to carry out North Atlantic Council-approved operations and missions.
- National capitals take the final decision on whether to contribute to a NATO-led operation or mission.
- Allied Command Operations (ACO), commanded by the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR), is responsible for executing all NATO operations and missions, and the Deputy SACEUR coordinates troop contributions.
More background information

Obtaining troop contributions

When the North Atlantic Council consents to an operation or mission, NATO’s military authorities draft a concept of operations – referred to as CONOPS – which outlines the minimum military requirements that are needed. Force generation is the procedure in which those required resources are obtained from Allies (and partners) to provide the Operational Commander with the necessary capabilities at the right scale and readiness to accomplish the mission. Force generation applies to all current NATO-led operations and missions.

The force generation process

The force generation process follows a standard procedure and is handled by the Allied Command Operations (ACO) Force Generation Branch and National Military Representatives (NMRs). For a given operation or mission, the Operational Commander sends his requirements in terms of equipment, manpower and resources (referred to as the Combined Joint Statement of Requirements) to ACO. It is then passed to NATO member countries and, in some cases, partner countries. While the Force Generation Branch at ACO is responsible for resourcing the required capabilities, the final decision on contributions is taken by national capitals.

At the subsequent Force Generation Conference, NATO and partner countries then make formal offers of personnel and equipment to support the operation or mission. Since 2003, a Global Force Generation Conference has been held as required to discuss all NATO-led operations and missions.

These contributions may be subject to some national limitations (known as “caveats”) such as rules of engagement. These restrictions influence NATO’s operational planning. Therefore, the Alliance seeks national contributions with as few caveats as possible.

The force generation process is complete when nations reply with a Force Preparation (FORCEPREP) message, which provides the details of the national contributions as well as any caveats on the employment of forces.

Countries that provide leadership for an entire operation or mission, or take responsibility for central elements such as the land brigade in the Very High Readiness Joint Task Force (VJTF), are identified as “framework nations”. They typically provide the command element and a significant part of the forces, and will coordinate with other Allies to fill the remainder of the force required.

Although NATO as an alliance does own and maintain some specialised equipment, such as the AWACS aircraft and strategic communications equipment, troop-contributing countries generally commit the equipment necessary to support their personnel in pursuit of operational objectives.

Coordinating troop contributions for non-NATO operations

Over the years, the Alliance has developed significant expertise in coordinating troop contributions for multinational operations and has offered this expertise in support of non-NATO operations.

Under the Berlin Plus agreement, the Alliance cooperates closely with the European Union (EU) in the resourcing of selected operations. When requested by the EU, NATO’s Deputy SACEUR and his staff provide support in coordinating member countries’ troop contributions. For example, the Deputy SACEUR was identified as operational commander for Operation Althea, the EU-led operation in Bosnia and Herzegovina, and was responsible for force generation.

NATO also provided force generation support to Germany and the Netherlands, during their leadership of the UN-mandated International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in 2003 in Afghanistan, prior to its conversion into a NATO-led operation.

Force generation through time

For much of NATO’s history, the Alliance’s primary operational commitment was focused on the former border between East and West Germany. For over 40 years, NATO strategists spoke of medium- and
long-term “force plans” because during that time, the Alliance maintained static, “conventional” forces in former West Germany, poised for an attack from the former Soviet Union. Beginning in 1986, conventional forces were reduced and bases of individual NATO countries in Germany were largely dismantled or converted to other use after the Cold War.

NATO’s first major land expeditionary operation took place in Bosnia and Herzegovina as a result of the 1995 Dayton Peace Accords. The NATO force generation process, which is still in use today, was developed during the NATO-led operations in Bosnia and Herzegovina, and later in Kosovo.

Transforming to meet operational needs

While the core procedures for contributing troops and equipment remain the same, the force generation process has been refined to reflect changes in the types of operations and missions that NATO conducts.

For example, the Provincial Reconstruction Teams (PRTs) established in Afghanistan under the NATO-led ISAF operation, were comprised of a unique combination of military and civilian personnel who worked to extend the authority of the central Afghan government in remote areas, and to facilitate development and reconstruction. NATO was involved in generating forces for the military component of a PRT, while it was the responsibility of the contributing country to staff the civilian components. As a result, PRTs were a hybrid of personnel who fell under either NATO or national chains of command. Although PRTs were gradually phased out by end 2014 in agreement with the Afghan authorities, they illustrate the need for great flexibility in force generation processes in order to achieve operational objectives.

Today, NATO military planners are looking beyond immediate needs, allowing both the Alliance and troop-contributing countries to plan their resources better. The goal is to understand the relationships at play in order to achieve fair and realistic burden-sharing during NATO-led operations and missions.
Trust Funds: supporting demilitarization and defence transformation projects

Individual NATO member states and partners set up Trust Funds to provide resources to help partner countries implement practical projects in the areas of demilitarization, defence transformation or capacity building. Any partner country with an individual programme of partnership and cooperation with NATO may request assistance. A specific Trust Fund can then be established to allow other countries to provide financial support on a voluntary basis or to make in-kind contributions, such as equipment or expertise.

Highlights
- Many Trust Funds assist countries with the safe destruction of surplus and obsolete landmines, weapons and munitions, and build capacity in areas such as demining and munitions stockpile management.
- Another priority is to support wider defence transformation through projects such as easing the transition to civilian life of former military personnel, converting military bases to civilian use, and promoting transparency, accountability and gender mainstreaming.
- The Trust Fund mechanism is also being used to support defence capacity-building packages for certain countries facing significant security challenges, with a view to strengthening their defence and security institutions and capabilities.
More background information

The evolving scope and use of Trust Funds

Mines, small arms and light weapons, and munitions

Trust Funds were first developed in the framework of NATO’s Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme, which promotes bilateral cooperation with non-member countries in Europe, the South Caucasus and Central Asia. However, over the years, the use of the NATO/PfP Trust Fund mechanism has been opened to all NATO’s partners, including countries on the southern Mediterranean rim and in the broader Middle East region as well as partners from further across the globe. Some partners are beneficiaries of Trust Funds, others contribute as donors.

Launched in September 2000, the original aim of NATO/PfP Trust Funds was to provide the Alliance with a practical mechanism to assist partners with the safe destruction of stockpiled anti-personnel landmines. This helped the countries meet their obligations under the Ottawa Convention on the prohibition of the use, stockpiling, production and transfer of anti-personnel mines and their destruction. The first such project was launched in Ukraine, followed by others in a number of Balkan countries as well as in other countries in the European neighbourhood.

Initial success in the safe destruction of anti-personnel landmines led to an extension of the use of Trust Funds to include projects to destroy conventional munitions, as well as small arms and light weapons (SALW). These include the largest demilitarization project of its kind in the world – a 12-year project that is still ongoing in Ukraine, with projected costs of some €25 million. The destruction of surplus stockpiles of arms and munitions reduces the threat to individual partner countries as well as the wider region. It also ensures that such materials are put beyond the reach of terrorists and criminals.

**Destruction of SALW, mines and ammunition**

- 162,000,000 rounds of ammunition
- 5,200,000 anti-personnel landmines
- 2,000,000 hand grenades
- 641,000 unexploded ordnance
- 626,000 small arms and light weapons
- 37,600 tonnes of various ammunition
- 83,000 surface-to-air missiles and rockets
- 1,470 MANPADS
- 2,620 tonnes of *mélanj*
- 4,100 hectares cleared of mines or unexploded ordnance

(info as of February 2017)

**Wider defence transformation and capacity building**

Within a few years, the scope of the NATO/PfP Trust Funds was further expanded to support wider defence transformation initiatives. Projects for the resettlement of former military personnel have, for example, been supported in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia and Ukraine. By early 2015, some 12,000 former military personnel have received retraining assistance through Trust Fund projects.

Currently, 16 countries are benefiting from a Trust Fund set up to support the implementation of the Building Integrity (BI) Programme. This capacity-building programme aims to provide practical tools and tailor-made assistance to nations – Allies and partners – to strengthen integrity, transparency and accountability and embed good governance in the defence and security sector. In this regard, it contributes to reduce the risk of corruption in defence institutions.
Over the past decade, Afghanistan has been a major beneficiary of support channelled through Trust Funds. Allies and partners have pledged around US$450 million per year to the NATO-Afghan National Army Trust Fund until the end of 2017. Moreover — until the suspension of practical cooperation with Russia in April 2014, following its intervention in Ukraine — two Trust Funds under the NATO-Russia Council provided valuable assistance for two important initiatives in Afghanistan: one provided support for the operation and maintenance of helicopters; another helped build capacity among mid-level personnel from Afghanistan and six Central Asian countries to address the threats posed by trafficking in Afghan narcotics.

As part of their response to the Russia-Ukraine crisis, NATO member states decided at the Wales Summit in September 2014 to launch five Trust Funds to assist Ukraine in five critical areas: command, control, communications and computers (C4); logistics and standardization; cyber defence; military career transition; and medical rehabilitation. Another Trust Fund is currently being considered to build capacity in the area of demining and countering improvised explosive devices.

Finally, a NATO Trust Fund has been set up to help implement packages of capacity-building support in a number of countries under the new Defence and Related Security Capacity Building Initiative, which was also launched at the 2014 Summit. Currently, packages offering tailored support, advice, assistance, training and mentoring are being developed with Georgia, Iraq, Jordan and the Republic of Moldova.

### Project development

Trust Funds are an integral part of NATO’s policy of developing practical security cooperation with partners. Any partner country with an individual programme of partnership and cooperation with NATO may request assistance. A specific Trust Fund can then be established to allow individual NATO and partner countries to provide financial support on a voluntary basis.

Projects may be initiated by either NATO member states or partner countries. Each project is led on a voluntary basis by a lead nation, which is responsible for gathering political and financial support for the project as well as selecting the executive agent for the project. There can be several lead nations, and a partner country can also take that role. The beneficiary host nation is expected to provide maximum support to the project within its means.

Informal discussions with the NATO International Staff help determine the scope of the project. Project proposals set out in detail the work to be undertaken, the costs involved and the implementation schedule. The formal launch of a project is the trigger to start raising funds. Subject to completion of formal legal agreements, work can start once sufficient funds have been received.

### Project oversight and implementation

When it comes to implementing and overseeing projects, each project has an executive agent appointed by the lead nation(s), according to the expertise required.

The NATO Support and Procurement Agency (NSPA) – formerly the NATO Maintenance and Supply Agency (NAMSA) – has often served as the executive agent, playing an essential role in the development and implementation of many Trust Fund projects. In other cases, this role has been performed by divisions of NATO’s International Staff or by the NATO Communications and Information Agency — or even by external organisations. Executive agents offer technical advice and a range of management services, such as overseeing the development of project proposals as well as the competitive bidding process to ensure transparency and value for money in the execution of projects.

Trust Fund projects seek to ensure adherence to the highest environmental, health and safety standards, and recycling of materials is an integral part of many projects. Local facilities and resources are used to implement projects, where possible, so as to build local capacity in the partner countries concerned, ensuring sustainability. Trust Fund projects are also committed to promoting transparency and good governance. In this context, where appropriate, NATO strives to implement United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 on gender mainstreaming in its projects.
Working with other organisations and actors

NATO cooperates actively with other international organisations and other relevant actors on Trust Fund projects to ensure coherence and effective implementation, as well as to avoid duplication of efforts. In some cases, other organisations have been actively involved in implementation. For example, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) was the executive agent for the retraining Trust Fund projects in the Balkans. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) implemented a NATO-initiated Trust Fund for safe destruction of anti-personnel landmines in Tajikistan. The NATO-Russia Council’s counter-narcotics project in Afghanistan was implemented in cooperation with the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC).

Other organisations with which NATO has worked closely on Trust Fund projects include the European Union (EU) and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE).
Verification Coordinating Committee (VCC)

The Verification Coordinating Committee (VCC) is responsible for coordinating and making recommendations on all activities in arms control verification, which have been agreed by countries as being appropriate for handling on a cooperative basis within the Alliance.

In sum, it is the principal body for decisions on matters of conventional arms control implementation and verification activities. It coordinates Alliance monitoring and verification efforts for conventional arms control agreements and treaties. It also provides a forum in which national plans can be coordinated to ensure that cooperative verification measures are carried out without unwanted duplication of national efforts and that the most efficient use is made of the collective resources of Alliance countries.

While the VCC is responsible for Alliance coordination of implementation and verification of arms control, arms control policy is formulated within the High-Level Task Force on Conventional Arms Control.

The VCC reports directly to and receives guidance from the North Atlantic Council.

Representation

All member countries are represented on this committee, as well as the International Military Staff which provides military advice as necessary. It is chaired by the Assistant Secretary General for Political Affairs.
and Security Policy (PASP) from the International Staff at NATO Headquarters, Brussels. PASP is also the supporting division for this committee.

Meetings
It meets as required and works in different configurations and at different levels: in plenary sessions, working groups, expert groups and seminars and workshops. Participants can include experts from ministries of foreign affairs and from ministries of defence, as well as experts from verification units and secretaries of delegations.

Creation
The VCC was created in 1990 during the CFE negotiations between NATO member countries and members of the Warsaw Pact. It was considered that cooperation on verification of a CFE treaty would be preferable within the framework of the existing NATO framework. The committee was therefore created to: “oversee cooperation in inspection co-ordination and data management, and to examine further opportunities for cooperation in verification.”
The proliferation of nuclear weapons and other weapons of mass destruction (WMD), and their delivery systems, could have incalculable consequences for national, regional and global security. During the next decade, proliferation will remain most acute in some of the world’s most volatile regions. The potential effects of WMD proliferation on NATO Allies are one of the greatest threats NATO faces.

**Highlights**

- NATO Allies seek to prevent the proliferation of WMD through an active political agenda of arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation.
- The Arms Control, Disarmament, and WMD Non-proliferation Centre (ACDC) at NATO Headquarters, strengthens dialogue among Allies, assesses risks to Allied populations, forces and territories, and supports chemical, biological, radiological or nuclear defence efforts.
- NATO is strengthening its capabilities to defend against chemical, biological, radiological or nuclear (CBRN) attacks, including terrorism and warfare.
- NATO conducts training and exercises designed to test interoperability and prepare forces to operate in a CBRN environment.

**More background information**

### NATO’s counter-WMD initiatives

NATO Allies engage in preventing the proliferation of WMD by state and non-state actors through an active political agenda of arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation. They also do this by developing and harmonising defence capabilities and, when necessary, by employing these capabilities, consistent with political decisions in support of non-proliferation objectives. Both political and defence elements are essential to NATO’s security.

NATO is prepared for recovery efforts, should it suffer a WMD attack or CBRN event, through a comprehensive political-military approach.

Despite significant progress, however, major challenges remain.

Since the launch of the 1999 WMD Initiative, which was designed to integrate political and military aspects of NATO work in responding to WMD proliferation, Allies have continued to intensify and expand NATO’s contribution to global non-proliferation efforts. Through cooperation with partners and relevant international organisations, NATO has historically provided strong support to the negotiations and implementation of a number of arms control and non-proliferation regimes. Allies have also intensified NATO’s defence response to the risk posed by WMD by improving civil preparedness and consequence-management capabilities in the event of WMD use or a CBRN accident or incident.

### The Arms Control, Disarmament, and WMD Non-proliferation Centre (ACDC)

The ACDC was created in 2017, merging NATO’s Arms Control and Coordination Section with the WMD Non-Proliferation Centre. The ACDC resides in the Political Affairs and Security Policy Division at NATO Headquarters and comprises national experts as well as personnel from NATO’s International Staff and International Military Staff.
Improving CBRN defence capabilities

NATO continues to significantly improve its CBRN defence posture with the establishment of the Combined Joint CBRN Defence Task Force (CJ-CBRND-TF), the NATO CBRN Reachback capability, the Joint CBRN Defence Centre of Excellence (JCBRN Defence COE), the Defence against Terrorism COE, and other COEs and agencies that support NATO’s response to the WMD threat. Allies continue to invest significant resources in capabilities ranging from CBRN reconnaissance and decontamination to warning and reporting, individual protection, and CBRN hazard management.

Combined Joint CBRN Defence Task Force

The NATO Combined Joint CBRN Defence Task Force is designed to perform a full range of CBRN defence missions. It comprises the multinational CBRN Defence Battalion and the Joint Assessment Team.

The Task Force is led by an individual Ally on a 12-month rotational basis. Under normal circumstances, it operates within the NATO Response Force (NRF), which is a multinational force designed to respond rapidly to emerging crises across the full spectrum of Alliance missions. However, the Task Force may operate independently of the NRF on other tasks as required, for example, helping civilian authorities in NATO member countries.

Joint Centre of Excellence on CBRN Defence

The JCBRN Defence COE in Vyškov, Czech Republic, was activated in July 2007. It is an international military organisation sponsored and manned by the Czech Republic, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, the United Kingdom and the United States. It is also open for partners that want to become contributing nations. Austria joined the Centre as the first such contributing nation in 2016.

The COE offers recognised expertise and experience in the field of CBRN to the benefit of the Alliance. It provides opportunities to improve interoperability and capabilities by enhancing multinational education, training and exercises; assisting in concept, doctrine, procedures and standards development; and testing and validating concepts through experimentation. It has thus supported NATO’s transformation process.

The COE integrates a CBRN Reachback Element (RBE), which has reached Full Operational Capability (FOC) in January 2016. This Reachback capability provides timely and comprehensive scientific (technical) and operational CBRN expertise, assessments and advice to NATO commanders, their staff and deployed forces during planning and execution of operations. The RBE, together with its secondary network which comprises various civilian and military institutions, is able, if needed, to operate 24/7.

Standardization, training, research and development

NATO creates and improves necessary standardization documents, conducts training and exercises, and develops necessary capability improvements in the field of CBRN defence through the work of many groups, bodies and institutions, including:

- CBRN Medical Working Group;
- Joint CBRN Defence Capability Development Group;
- NATO Research and Technology Organisation; and
- Partnerships and Cooperative Security Committee (taking over the task of developing and implementing science activities, which were formerly managed under the auspices of the Science for Peace and Security Committee).

The Alliance also continues to create and improve standard NATO agreements that govern Allied operations in a CBRN environment. These agreements guide all aspects of preparation, ranging from standards for disease surveillance to rules for restricting troop movements. In addition, the Organization conducts training exercises and senior-level seminars that are designed to test interoperability and prepare NATO leaders and forces for operations in a CBRN environment.
Building capacity and scientific collaboration

The NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme enables collaboration between NATO and partner countries on issues of common interest to enhance their mutual security by facilitating international research efforts to meet emerging security challenges, supporting NATO-led operations and missions, and advancing early warning and forecast for the prevention of disasters and crises.

The central objective of SPS activities in WMD non-proliferation and CBRN defence is to improve the ability of NATO and its partners to protect their populations and forces from CBRN threats. The Programme supports research towards the development of CBRN defence capabilities, training activities and workshops in the following fields:

- protection against CBRN agents, as well as diagnosing their effects, detection, decontamination, destruction, disposal and containment;
- risk management and recovery strategies and technologies; and
- medical counter-measures for CBRN agents.

Arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation

Arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation are essential tools in preventing the use of WMD and the spread of these weapons and their delivery systems. That is why Allies will continue to support numerous efforts in the fields mentioned above, always based on the principle to ensure undiminished security for all Alliance members.

Since the end of the Cold War, Allies have dramatically reduced the number of nuclear weapons stationed in Europe and their reliance on nuclear weapons in the NATO strategy. No NATO member country has a chemical or biological weapons programme. Additionally, Allies are committed to destroying stockpiles of chemical agents and have supported a number of partners and other countries in this work.

NATO members are resolved to seek a safer world for all and create the conditions for a world without nuclear weapons in accordance with the goal of the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT). That is why the Alliance will seek to create the conditions for further reductions in the future. One important step towards this goal is the implementation of the New Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty (START) between the United States and the Russian Federation.

With respect to the new Treaty on the Prohibition of Nuclear Weapons, the North Atlantic Council declared that the treaty disregards the realities of the increasingly challenging international security environment. At a time when the world needs to remain united in the face of growing threats, in particular the grave threat posed by North Korea’s nuclear programme, the treaty fails to take into account these urgent security challenges. This new treaty risks undermining the NPT, which has been at the heart of global non-proliferation and disarmament efforts for almost 50 years, and the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) Safeguards regime which supports it. In view of this and a number of other arguments including their commitment to advancing security through deterrence, defence, disarmament, non-proliferation and arms control, the Allied nations cannot support this treaty.

Improving civil preparedness

National authorities are primarily responsible for protecting their populations and critical infrastructure against the consequences of terrorist attacks, CBRN incidents and natural disasters. Within NATO, Allies have agreed baseline requirements for national resilience and are developing guidelines to help nations achieve them. The Alliance also serves as a forum to exchange best practices and lessons learned to improve preparedness and national resilience.

A network of 380 civil experts from across the Euro-Atlantic area exists to support these efforts. Their expertise covers all civil aspects relevant to NATO planning and operations, including crisis management, consequence management and critical infrastructure protection. Drawn from government and industry, experts participate in training and exercises, and respond to requests for assistance.

Under the auspices of NATO’s Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC), Allies have established an inventory of national civil and military capabilities that could be made available to assist stricken countries following a CBRN terrorist attack. Originally created in 1998 to coordinate
responses to natural and man-made disasters, the EADRCC has since 2001 been given an additional coordinating role for responses to potential terrorist acts involving CBRN agents. It organises major international field exercises to practise responses to simulated disaster situations and consequence management.

Cooperating with partners

The Alliance engages actively to enhance international security through partnership with relevant countries and other international organisations. NATO’s partnership programmes are therefore designed as a tool to provide effective frameworks for dialogue, consultation and coordination. They contribute actively to NATO’s arms control, non-proliferation and disarmament efforts.

Examples of institutionalised fora of the aforementioned cooperation include the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, the NATO-Ukraine Commission, the NATO-Georgia Commission and the Mediterranean Dialogue. NATO also consults with countries in the broader Middle East region which take part in the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative, as well as with partners across the globe.

International outreach activities

Outreach to partners, international and regional organisations helps develop a common understanding of the WMD threat and encourages participation in and compliance with international arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation efforts to which they are party. It also enhances global efforts to protect and defend against CBRN threats and improve crisis management and recovery if WMD are employed against the Alliance or its interests.

Of particular importance is NATO’s outreach to and cooperation with the United Nations (UN), the European Union (EU), and other regional organisations and multilateral initiatives that address WMD proliferation. Continued cooperation with regional organisations such as the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) can contribute to efforts to encourage member states to comply with relevant international agreements.

On the practical side, NATO organises an annual non-proliferation conference involving a significant number of non-member countries from six continents. This event is unique among international institutions’ activities in the non-proliferation field, as it provides a venue for informal discussions among senior national officials on all types of WMD threats, as well as potential political and diplomatic responses. The conference has been hosted by both Allies and partners since it first took place at the NATO Defense College in Rome in 2004, followed by events in Sofia, Vilnius, Berlin, Warsaw, Prague, Bergen, Budapest, Split, Interlaken, Doha, Ljubljana and Helsinki.

The Alliance also participates in relevant conferences organised by other international institutions, including the UN Office for Disarmament Affairs, the EU, the Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons, the Biological and Toxin Weapons Convention, the OSCE, and others.

Many of NATO’s activities under the SPS Programme focus on the civilian side of nuclear, chemical and biological technology. Scientists from NATO and partner countries are cooperating in research that impacts on these areas. Some examples include the decommissioning and disposal of WMD or their components, the safe handling of materials, techniques for arms control implementation, and the detection of CBRN agents.

The decision-making bodies

The North Atlantic Council, NATO’s principal political decision-making body, has overall authority on Alliance policy and activity in countering WMD proliferation. The Council is supported by a number of NATO committees and groups, which provide strategic assessments and policy advice and recommendations.

The Committee on Proliferation is the senior advisory body for discussion of the Alliance’s political and defence efforts against WMD proliferation. It brings together senior national officials responsible for political and security issues related to non-proliferation with experts on military capabilities needed to discourage WMD proliferation, to deter threats and the use of such weapons and to protect NATO
populations, forces and territories. The Committee on Proliferation is chaired by NATO’s International Staff when discussing political-military aspects of proliferation, and by national co-chairs when discussing defence-related issues.

## Evolution

The use or threatened use of WMD significantly influenced the security environment of the 20th century and will also impact international security in the foreseeable future. Strides in modern technology and scientific discoveries have opened the door to even more destructive weapons.

**During the Cold War**, the use of nuclear weapons was prevented by the prospect of mutually assured destruction. The nuclear arms race slowed in the early 1970s following the negotiation of the first arms control treaties.

The improved security environment of the 1990s enabled nuclear weapon states to dramatically reduce their nuclear stockpiles. However, the proliferation of knowledge and technology has enabled other countries to build their own nuclear weapons, extending the overall risks to new parts of the world.

**At the Washington Summit in 1999**, Allied leaders launched a Weapons of Mass Destruction Initiative to address the risks posed by the proliferation of these weapons and their means of delivery. The initiative was designed to promote understanding of WMD issues, develop ways of responding to them, improve intelligence and information-sharing, enhance existing Allied military readiness to operate in a WMD environment and counter threats posed by these weapons. Consequently, the WMD Non-Proliferation Centre was established in 2000.

**At the 2002 Prague Summit**, Allies launched a modernisation process which aimed to ensure that the Alliance is able to effectively meet the new challenges of the 21st century. This included the creation of the NATO Response Force, the streamlining of the Alliance command structure and a series of measures to protect NATO populations, forces and territories from chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) threats.

**In 2003**, NATO created the Multinational CBRN Defence Battalion and Joint Assessment Team, which have been part of the Combined Joint CBRN Defence Task Force since 2007.

**At the Riga Summit in 2006**, Allied leaders endorsed a Comprehensive Political Guidance (CPG) that provides an analysis of the future security environment and a fundamental vision for NATO’s ongoing transformation. It explicitly mentions the proliferation of WMD and their means of delivery as major security threats, which are particularly dangerous when combined with the threats of terrorism or failed states.

In July 2007, NATO activated a Joint CBRN Defence Centre of Excellence in Vyškov, Czech Republic.

In April 2009, NATO Heads of State and Government endorsed NATO’s “Comprehensive Strategic-Level Policy for Preventing the Proliferation of WMD and Defending against CBRN Threats”. On 31 August 2009, the North Atlantic Council decided to make this document public.

At the November 2010 Lisbon Summit, Allied leaders adopted a new Strategic Concept. They also agreed at Lisbon to establish a dedicated committee providing advice on arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation. This committee started work in March 2011.

In May 2012 at the Chicago Summit, NATO leaders approved and made public the results of the Deterrence and Defence Posture Review. This document reiterates NATO’s commitment “to maintaining an appropriate mix of nuclear, conventional and missile defence capabilities for deterrence and defence to fulfil its commitments as set out in the Strategic Concept”. The Summit also reaffirmed that “arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation play an important role in the achievement of the Alliance’s security objectives” and therefore Allies will continue to support these efforts.

Allied Heads of State and Government further emphasised that “proliferation threatens our shared vision of creating the conditions necessary for a world without nuclear weapons in accordance with the goals of the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT)”.

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At the 2016 Warsaw Summit, Allies stated that they will ensure that NATO continues to be both strategically and operationally prepared with policies, plans and capabilities to counter a wide range of state and non-state CBRN threats.
Women, peace and security

NATO demonstrates its commitment to gender equality through the implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolutions (UNSCRs) on Women, Peace and Security (WPS). These Resolutions (1325, 1820, 1888, 1889, 1960, 2106, 2122 and 2422) recognise the disproportionate impact that conflict has on women and girls, and call for full and equal participation of women at all levels of conflict prevention to post-conflict reconstruction, and protection of women and girls from sexual violence in conflict.

Highlights

- At the 2014 Wales Summit, Allied leaders acknowledged that the integration of gender perspectives throughout NATO’s three essential core tasks (i.e. collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security) will contribute to a more modern, ready and responsive NATO.
- NATO and its partners recognise the importance of ensuring women’s active and meaningful participation in decision-making and security institutions.
- NATO promotes the inclusion of gender perspectives in its tasks and functions.
- In the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC), NATO Allies and partners launched work in this area in 2007 with the adoption of a specific policy to support implementation of the UNSCRs on WPS.
- Over the years, the policy has been updated to reflect the changing international priorities, related action plans have strengthened implementation and more partner countries from around the globe have become associated with these efforts.
- Gender is an important focus of NATO’s cooperation with other international organisations – in particular the African Union (AU), the European Union (EU), the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) and the United Nations (UN) – as well as civil society.
NATO’s Civil Society Advisory Panel provides space for women to engage with NATO on security and defence.

The NATO Secretary General’s Special Representative serves as the high-level focal point for NATO’s contributions to the Women, Peace and Security agenda.

More background information

Responding to the call for action

The WPS mandate is fundamental to NATO’s common values of individual liberty, democracy, human rights and obligations under the Charter of the United Nations. In line with the UNSCRs on WPS, NATO aims to address gender inequality and integrate WPS priorities through the Alliance’s three core tasks of collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security.

NATO is actively seeking to incorporate gender perspectives within the analysis, planning, execution and evaluation of its operations and missions. This is also an important focus in NATO’s cooperation with partner countries, both in the preparation of troops that will deploy in NATO-led operations and missions, as well as in wider cooperation on defence capacity building. NATO is also seeking to promote greater gender equality and increase the participation of women in defence and security institutions within the Organization and its member countries.

NATO cooperates with other international organisations to advance the overall agenda on WPS. The Regional Acceleration of Resolution 1325 (RAR) framework serves as a joint platform for NATO, the EU, OSCE, UN and AU for sharing best practices on WPS. NATO also recognises the important role civil society organisations continue to play in overseeing the promotion of women’s and girls’ empowerment and the protection of their rights. To better support NATO’s implementation of the UNSCRs on WPS, the Civil Society Advisory Panel (CSAP) was established. The CSAP provides overarching recommendations on the integration of a gender perspective into NATO’s core tasks and liaises with women’s organisations in national settings.

A number of gender-related projects under the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme involve civil networks of experts from Allied and partner countries, providing a forum for sharing knowledge and solving issues of common interest.

Overarching policy and action plan

NATO and its partners’ active commitment to the UNSCRs on WPS resulted in a formal NATO/EAPC Policy on Women, Peace and Security to support the implementation of these Resolutions, first issued in December 2007.

A first Action Plan to support the implementation of this Policy was endorsed at the Lisbon Summit in 2010 on the occasion of the 10th anniversary of UNSCR 1325. The Action Plan has been revised on a biannual basis since 2014 to reflect its implementation. The Policy and the Action Plan were both revised in 2018, ahead of endorsement by Heads of State and Government at the Brussels Summit in July 2018. The Allies, together with their EAPC partners, as well as Afghanistan, Australia, Japan, Jordan, New Zealand and the United Arab Emirates have signed up for their implementation. Other interested partners will be invited to also adhere to the revised Policy and Action Plan following the Brussels Summit.

In the NATO/EAPC Policy on WPS, NATO and its partners recognise the adoption of the WPS agenda and support the advancement of gender equality through the guiding principles of:

Integration: gender equality must be considered as an integral part of NATO policies, programmes and projects guided by effective gender mainstreaming practices. To achieve gender equality, it must be acknowledged that each policy, programme, and project affects both women and men.

Inclusiveness: representation of women across NATO and in national forces is necessary to enhance operational effectiveness and success. NATO will seek to increase the participation of women in all tasks throughout the International Military Staff and International Staff at all levels.
Integrity: systemic inequalities are addressed to ensure fair and equal treatment of women and men Alliance-wide. Accountability on all efforts to increase awareness and implementation of the WPS agenda will be made a priority in accordance with international frameworks.

NATO and its partners aim to contribute to the implementation of the UNSCRs on WPS by making this Policy an integral part of their everyday business in both civilian and military structures.

Working with partner countries

Through their cooperation programmes with NATO, partners are encouraged to adopt specific goals that reflect the principles and support implementation of the UNSCRs on WPS. They are also invited to make use of the training and education activities developed by Allied Command Transformation, which has ensured that a gender perspective is included in the curriculum of NATO Training Centres and Centres of Excellence as well as in pre-deployment training.

Though the Alliance has no influence on measures or policies taken at national levels, all personnel – whether from Allied or partner countries – deployed in NATO-led operations and missions or serving within NATO structures must be appropriately trained and meet required standards of behaviour. Several countries have initiated gender-related training for subject matter experts and raised general awareness on the UNSCRs on WPS ahead of national force deployments.

Work among Allies and partner countries is not only about developing gender awareness in crisis-management or peace-support operations. An increasingly important focus is on strengthening gender perspectives, including promoting gender equality and the participation of women in defence and security institutions, as well as in the armed forces.

Gender perspective in operations

WPS Resolutions are also being implemented in crisis management and in NATO-led operations and missions. The Alliance has nominated gender advisers at both Strategic Commands – Allied Command Operations and Allied Command Transformation – as well as in subordinate commands and in NATO-led operations and missions. Gender advisers support commanders to ensure that gender perspectives are integrated in all aspects of an operation.

In 2015, NATO and its partners adopted the Military Guidelines on the Protection of, and Response to, Conflict-Related Sexual and Gender-Based Violence. Gender perspectives are also increasingly being incorporated in exercises. For example, NATO’s 2015 crisis management exercise included, for the first time, a gender perspective as one of its objectives. These annual exercises are designed to practise the Alliance’s crisis management procedures at the strategic-political level, involving civilian and military staff in Allied capitals, at NATO Headquarters and in both Strategic Commands.

Implementing the WPS agenda at NATO

The implementation of WPS Resolutions cuts across various divisions and governing bodies within NATO Headquarters as well as in the Strategic Commands. Together, these entities are responsible for monitoring and reporting the progress made by the Alliance. For this purpose, a Women, Peace and Security Task Force was established under the guidance and responsibility of the Special Representative for Women, Peace and Security.

In sum, the mechanisms at NATO’s disposal to implement the UNSC Resolutions are:

- The Secretary General’s Special Representative for Women, Peace and Security serves as the high-level focal point on all aspects of NATO’s gender/WPS-related work. This position was created in 2012 and made permanent from September 2014. It is currently held by Clare Hutchinson;
- A task force bringing together civilian and military staff across NATO Headquarters;
- A gender adviser in the International Military Staff and an advisory committee of experts (NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives) on the military side, tasked with promoting gender mainstreaming in the design and implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies, programmes and military operations;
A working group led by Allied Command Operations to assess means to further incorporate the UNSCRs on WPS into operational planning and execution;

- Gender advisers deployed at different levels of NATO’s military command structure, including operational headquarters;

- A number of relevant committees that develop and review specific and overall policy;

- The NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme promotes concrete, practical cooperation on gender-related issues among NATO member and partner countries, through collaborative multi-year projects, training courses, study institutes and workshops.

- The CSAP, to support and guide the work of WPS within NATO and advise on the integration of gender perspectives into NATO’s core tasks.