This is a compilation of online A-Z pages, which explain every aspect of NATO: its origin and fundamental security tasks, policies and decision-making processes, peace-support and crisis-management operations; how it tackles threats and develops capabilities; its partnerships and cooperative activities; and its civilian and military structures, specialised organisations and agencies, and its programmes and activities.

For up-to-date information, please visit the thematic index of A-Z pages.
What is NATO?

Washington Treaty
The foundations of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization were officially laid down on 4th April 1949 with the signing of the North Atlantic Treaty, more popularly known as the Washington Treaty. It is a model of brevity and provides for in-built flexibility on all fronts. Without the original text being modified at any stage, the Alliance has been able to adapt to a changing security environment through time and each Ally can implement the text in accordance with its capabilities and circumstances.

Highlights
The Treaty was signed in Washington D.C. on 4 April 1949 by 12 founding members.
Collective defence is at the heart of the Treaty and is enshrined in Article 5.
The Treaty is short, containing only 14 articles.

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 Washington Treaty and is enshrined in Article 5. It commits members to protect each other and sets a spirit of solidarity within the Alliance.

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 by the 12 founding members in the Departmental Auditorium in Washington D.C. There were several areas of contention on fundamental issues such as the duration of the Treaty, its geographical scope, membership and the rights and obligations implied by Article 5.

Once signed, the Treaty gave birth to the Alliance and only later did a fully-fledged organization 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 characterized 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 the USSR would impose its ideology and authority across Europe. From 1945, Western governments started reducing their defence establishments and
demobilizing their forces. But in January 1948, 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 9 September 1948, which contained an outline of possible future articles for the Treaty.

Formal public treaty negotiations began 10 December 1948 with the Ambassadors Committee in Washington, D.C. For these talks, Luxembourg sent its own representative. Norway, Denmark, Iceland, Portugal and Italy were later invited to the final sessions of negotiations, which began 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, both in terms of membership and 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 more of a regional organization while other countries, such as France, felt it should take on a more global role.

Ultimately Article 6 of the Washington Treaty details specific countries in 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 aircrafts attacked in that area.

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 foreign ministers in Reyjavik 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.”

**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 also joined in 1949; Sweden, on the other hand, categorically refused to have any links with NATO.

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 Algeria¹, which had been fully integrated into the French political and administrative organization 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.

¹. The Article dealing with French Algeria no longer became applicable from 3 July 1962, following the independence of Algeria.

The Treaty and its fundamental values and principles
Once Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, the United Kingdom and the United States came to an agreement on the various areas of contention, they drafted a new document that would establish the North Atlantic Alliance.

On 4 April 1949, the 12 countries signed the North Atlantic Treaty in the city which lends the Treaty its nickname: Washington D.C.

The treaty committed each member to share the risk, responsibilities and benefits of collective security and required them not to enter into any international commitments that conflicted with the Treaty. It also committed them to the purposes and principles of the Charter of the United Nations and 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.
Member countries

At present, NATO has 28 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, Slovenia (2004), and Albania and Croatia (2009).

Provision for enlargement is given by Article 10 of the North Atlantic 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”.

Any decision to invite a country to join the Alliance is taken by the North Atlantic Council, NATO’s principal decision-making body, on the basis of consensus among all Allies. Currently, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Montenegro and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia are aspiring members.
### 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 Jose Caerio 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 Headquarters 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 structures².

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.

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
The most recent accessions are those of Albania and Croatia. Albania had participated in the MAP since its inception in 1999 and Croatia joined in 2002. They 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.

In July 2008, they both signed Accession Protocols and became official members of the Alliance on 1 April 2009.

1. Turkey recognizes the Republic of Macedonia with its constitutional name.
2. However, France has chosen not to become a member of NATO's Nuclear Planning Group.
National delegations to NATO
Each NATO member country has a delegation at NATO Headquarters in Brussels, Belgium.

The delegation has a status similar to that of an embassy. It is headed by an “ambassador” or “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, International Military Staff and representatives of Partner countries, each of which are entitled to have a mission at NATO Headquarters.

Effectively, a delegation’s function is two-fold: to represent its country’s government and contribute to the consultation process, which allows NATO to take collective decisions or actions.

Delegations can vary in size and are principally staffed with civil servants from the ministries of foreign affairs and defence.

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, 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 North Atlantic Council. 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 their 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’s fundamental security tasks

NATO’s fundamental security tasks

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.
Collective defence
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 Ukraine crisis.
NATO has standing forces on active duty that contribute to the Alliance’s collective defence efforts on a permanent basis.

This principle is enshrined in Article 5 of the North Atlantic Treaty, which states that an attack on one Ally shall be considered an attack on all Allies.
NATO invoked Article 5 of the Washington Treaty for the first time in its history following the 9/11 terrorist attacks against the United States.
The principle of collective defence has also been raised in the context of Russia’s military aggression against Ukraine. Russia’s actions have raised justified concerns among its neighbours, including those who are NATO members. That is why NATO Foreign Ministers, on 1 April, directed Allied military authorities to develop extra measures to strengthen collective defence.

A cornerstone of the Alliance

Article 5
In 1949, the primary aim of the North Atlantic 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.

“As 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 6¹

"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 France², on the occupation forces of any Party in Europe, on the islands under the jurisdiction of any Parties in the North Atlantic area north of the Tropic of Cancer or on the vessels or aircraft in this area of any of the Parties."

According to one of the drafters of the Treaty, Theodore C. Achilles, there was no doubt in anybody’s minds that NATO operations could also be conducted south of the Tropic of Cancer³. This was confirmed by 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".

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.

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.
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 already identified terrorism as one of the risks affecting NATO’s security. The Alliance’s response to September 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.

An act of solidarity
On the evening of 12 September 2001, less than 24 hours after the attacks, and for the first time in NATO's history, the Allies invoked the principle of Article 5 of the Washington Treaty. 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 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 of the Washington Treaty.

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 US, 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.
Enhanced collective defence measures in wake of Ukraine crisis

Similarly to the reassurance measures put into place for Turkey in 1991 (deployment of Patriot Missiles during the Gulf War), in 2003 (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 (deployment of Patriot missiles), the Alliance has taken steps to enhance the defence of Allies following Russia’s illegal military intervention in Ukraine. As part of the measures, NATO has deployed AWACS planes over Poland and Romania, sent ships on patrol to the Baltic and Mediterranean Seas, and deployed additional fighter jets to police the airspace over the Baltics. NATO is also conducting additional exercises to test the readiness of NATO forces to defend Allies, including in an Article 5 context. In light of the new security situation, NATO has also decided to review and update defence plans.

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 per year.
Strategic Concepts
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 outline NATO’s purpose, nature and fundamental security tasks, identify the central features of the security environment and provide guidelines for the adaptation of its military forces.

Strategic Concepts are reviewed to take account of changes to the global security environment to ensure the Alliance is properly prepared to execute its core tasks.

They equip the Alliance for security challenges and guide its future political and military development.

The current Strategic Concept outlines three essential core tasks – collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security.

In sum, it equips the Alliance for security challenges and guides its future political and military development. A new Strategic Concept was published at the Lisbon Summit in November 2010, reflecting a transformed security environment and a transformed Alliance. 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.

Transformation in the broad sense of the term is a permanent feature of the Organization. Since its inception, NATO has regularly reviewed its tasks and objectives in view of the evolution of the strategic environment. Preparations for the very first Strategic Concept – “The Strategic Concept for the Defense of the North Atlantic Area” - started in October 1949. In the course of more than half a century, both the Alliance and the wider world have developed in ways that NATO’s founders could not have envisaged. Such changes have been in each and every strategic document that NATO has produced since then.

The current Strategic Concept
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 emphasizes 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, emphasizing NATO’s open door policy for all European countries and significantly enhancing its partnerships in the broad sense of the term. Additionally, 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:

- **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.

- **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.

- **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.”

**Defence and deterrence**

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 organizations 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 seeks “a true strategic partnership between NATO and Russia” and reiterates its commitment to develop 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.

NATO’s strategic documents since 1949
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 characterized 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 have given greater attention to the fight against terrorism and the spread of weapons of mass destruction; NATO has committed troops beyond the Euro-Atlantic area and reached a membership of 28; new threats have emerged such as energy security and cyber-attacks. These are 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 emphasized, 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 realization 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 centralized 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 utilization 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, jeopardizing Alliance solidarity. This was the first time since the signing of the Washington Treaty that NATO had officially recognized 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:

- Direct defence: the aim was to defeat the aggression on the level at which the enemy chose to fight.
- 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.
- 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, drafted during a moment of relative détente, introduced the notion of deterrence and dialogue. 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 characterized 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 characterized 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 recognized 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 need 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 a major policy document that sets out the framework and priorities for all Alliance capability issues, planning disciplines and intelligence for the next 10 to 15 years. It analyses the probable future security environment and acknowledges the possibility of unpredictable events. Against that analysis, it sets 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 the Alliance will need.

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, has presented an opportunity for rethinking, reprioritising and reforming NATO. The 2010 Strategic Concept was issued in Lisbon and is accompanied by the Military Committee Guidance MC 400/3, March 2012.
Comprehensive Political Guidance

The Comprehensive Political Guidance is a major policy document that sets out the framework and priorities for all Alliance capability issues, planning disciplines and intelligence for the next 10 to 15 years.

It analyses the probable future security environment, but acknowledges the possibility of unpredictable events.

Against that analysis, it sets 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 the Alliance will need.

- An evolving strategic context
- Providing the means to implement the objectives
- Adoption of the Comprehensive Political Guidance

An evolving strategic context

The threats, risks and challenges now faced by the Allies are very different from those of the Cold War. NATO no longer perceives large-scale conventional military threats to Alliance territory. Instead, today’s security threats include instability, ethnic and religious-based rivalries, competition for natural resources, the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction, failed states, genocide, mass migration, organized crime, cyber attacks and terrorism.

The challenge is to cope with an ever-increasing set of demands and with new types of operations. That is why Allies are committed to pursuing the transformation of their forces: current and future operations will continue to require agile and interoperable, well-trained and well-led military forces – forces that are modern, deployable, sustainable and available to undertake demanding operations far from home bases. This also places a premium on close coordination and cooperation among international organizations and of particular importance to NATO is its relationship with the United Nations and the European Union.

Providing the means to implement the objectives

Capability requirements

The Comprehensive Political Guidance (CPG) sets out the kinds of operations the Alliance must be able to perform in the future and, as a logical consequence of that vision, the kinds of capabilities the Alliance will need. It defines NATO’s top priorities among those requirements, starting with expeditionary forces and the capability to deploy and sustain them. These capability requirements are expressed broadly. How specifically these capabilities will be filled is left open, since that is for members to determine both individually and collectively through NATO’s defence planning process.

The defence planning process

As such, the defence planning process is also under review to guarantee that NATO has effective military capabilities for defence and deterrence, as well as to fulfill the full range of its missions.

The defence planning process comprises a number of planning disciplines including armaments, civil emergency planning, consultation, command and control, logistics, and resource, nuclear and force planning. Subordinate documents, such as Ministerial Guidance, provide more detailed, quantitative and qualitative guidance. Usually provided every four years, Ministerial Guidance establishes the
Alliance level of ambition in military terms and provides further strategic level politico-military direction for relevant planning disciplines. This provides the basis for specific requirements to be set by the NATO force planning system for those member countries engaged in collective force planning. The system then later assesses their ability to meet these planning targets through a biennial defence review process.

Building on the CPG, new Ministerial Guidance was agreed in June 2006. It seeks to provide NATO with the ability to conduct a greater number of smaller-scale operations, while retaining its ability to carry out larger operations. In addition, future planning targets will embrace the further transformation of the Alliance and will continue to seek to improve NATO’s capabilities to pursue the sort of expeditionary operations in which it is currently engaged.

The CPG Management Mechanism
The implementation of the CPG, both within the Alliance proper and by the Allies themselves is crucial. Ultimately, implementation should lead to the development of more usable capabilities for future operations and missions, thereby ensuring that the Alliance remains effective, credible and relevant in the 21st century. To this end, in February 2006, a CPG Management Mechanism was established.

Two aspects of the implementation of the CPG are being pursued: monitoring and evaluating the actual fulfillment of the required capabilities; and improving NATO’s processes for identifying, developing and delivering the required capabilities.

Adoption of the Comprehensive Political Guidance
The CPG was agreed on 21 December 2005 by the 26 NATO member countries. It was endorsed by NATO Defence Ministers at their June 2006 meeting at NATO Headquarters in Brussels, and – at the highest political level – by NATO Heads of State and Government at the November 2006 Riga Summit.
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 Committee on Non-Military Cooperation (1956) was 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”.

The Report helped to broaden areas of cooperation beyond the military and encourage regular political consultation among member countries.

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. In 1956, the adoption of political consultation as a key component of the Alliance permanently characterised NATO as a political and military organisation.

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.

It was published in December 1956 at a sensitive time in Alliance history: NATO’s unity and solidarity were jeopardized through a lack of consultation over the Suez affair. Effectively, the Suez crisis demonstrated that the continuous character of political consultation was not assured within the Alliance.

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. They identified key areas where cooperation in dispute resolution was needed and suggested ways such cooperation could foment within the Atlantic Community. More generally, they examined and redefined the objectives and needs of the Alliance and made recommendations for strengthening its internal solidarity, cohesion and unity.

Their work had a resounding impact on the Organization. It 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. It also introduced a more cooperative approach to security issues and broadened the strategic framework within which the Alliance operated. It 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.

The adoption of political consultation as a key component of the Alliance permanently characterized NATO as a political and military organization.
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 co-operate 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 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 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."  

Council Memorandum, C-M(56)25

The Committee 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 co-operation.

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, 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 been very fruitful. It was observed that neither France not 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 looked at five areas:

- political co-operation;
- economic co-operation;
- cultural co-operation;
• co-operation in the information field; and
• organization 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 organizations 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 co-operation 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 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 organization 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 materials in schools; and promoting closer relations between NATO and youth organizations; 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 NATO languages of the Alliance as possible and broadening NATO's target audiences to include youth leaders, teachers and lecturers.

Organization 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 and to facilitate exchange and maximise return for resources spent on research. Another immediate impact was the creation of national information officers 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, controversial issues continued to be largely ignored by members before 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.
The Harmel Report
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 dialogue, 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. The Report reasserted NATO’s basic principles and introduced the notion of dialogue and deterrence, while setting out a programme of work. The Report advocated the adoption of a dual-track policy for NATO: the promotion of political détente while maintaining adequate defence. 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, broadening NATO’s approach to security and anticipating the breakdown of the deadlock between East and West.

While recognizing that the international environment had changed since 1949, the Report reaffirmed the aims and purpose of NATO and its twin functions - political and military. It also introduced a new dimension, committing the Alliance to a dual-track policy: it advocated the need to seek a relaxation of tensions of East-West relations while maintaining adequate defence, i.e., military defence deterrents would be balanced alongside political détente.

For the political dimension, there was 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; for the military dimension, the Report spoke of examining “exposed areas”, citing in particular the Mediterranean.

Its namesake, Belgian Foreign Minister Pierre Harmel, originally highlighted the need for the report in 1966, at a time when the existence of the Alliance was put into question. Four separate reports were initially drafted and, consequently, summarized. It was this summary that constituted the Report, which was presented and unanimously approved by defence ministers in December 1967.

The impact of the Report was both short-term and long-term. In the late 60s, NATO was under increased public scrutiny: France had withdrawn from the integrated military command structure and, for some, 1969 marked the end of the Alliance or, at least, of the Alliance as it had existed up to then (a belief fed by a misinterpretation of Article 13 of the North Atlantic Treaty). The Report not only reiterated the Organization’s key principles, but it also set out a realistic programme of work, therefore reasserting the existence of NATO in a practical as well as a political way.

In the long term, the Report had a lasting impact on the Alliance’s strategic thinking. Building on the Report of the Three Wise Men (1956), it broadened the Organization’s approach to security, anticipating the breakdown of the deadlock between the East and West.
Aim and political context

Climate of change and fundamental questioning
NATO had been advocating 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.

1966-1967 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
Recognizing that the Organization needed to adjust to remain relevant and united, 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 an unclassified 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 Manilo 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, Manilo 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 permanent representatives that the groups’ methods were chaotic. Two of the four rapporteurs were criticized for their “highly personal manner”, while others such as Spaak, were criticized 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

1. “…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”;
2. “…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 and effective détente with the East;
- Exposed areas: these have to be examined, in particular the South-Eastern 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.
Policy and decision-making

Consensus decision-making at NATO

A fundamental principle
All NATO decisions are made by consensus, after discussion and consultation among member countries.

A decision reached by consensus is an agreement reached by common consent, a decision that is accepted by each member country. This means that when a "NATO decision" is announced, it is the expression of the collective will of all the sovereign states that are members of the Alliance.

This principle is applied at every committee level, and demonstrates clearly that NATO decisions are collective decisions made by its member countries.

How this principle is applied
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 is one of the NATO Secretary General's main tasks.

The consensus principle applies throughout NATO.

The origins of this principle
Consensus has been accepted as the sole basis for decision-making in NATO since the creation of the Alliance in 1949.
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 a key part of the decision-making process at NATO, allowing Allies to exchange views and information, and to 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, after discussion and consultation among members.
In Article 4 of NATO’s founding treaty, members are encouraged to bring subjects to the table for discussion within the North Atlantic Council, the principal forum for political consultation.
Since the Alliance’s creation in 1949, Article 4 has been invoked several times, for instance by Turkey in 2013 and Poland in 2014.
Consultation regularly takes place within the existing network of committees and working groups, which derive their authority from the Council.
Consultation gives NATO an active role in preventive diplomacy by providing the means to help avoid military conflict.

Consultations take place on all subjects of interest to the Alliance: developing new military capabilities and cooperative relationships with non-member countries, military operations etc. Discussions effectively touch on NATO’s day-to-day business, its core objectives and its fundamental role. Additionally, members are encouraged to bring subjects to the table for discussion within the North Atlantic Council (NAC). This prerogative is outlined in Article 4 of NATO’s founding 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.”

The consultation process is therefore at the heart of NATO. It reinforces the Alliance’s political dimension by giving members the opportunity to voice opinions and official positions, and it also gives NATO an active role in preventive diplomacy by providing the means to help avoid military conflict.

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.

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.
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 Council 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. Once by Poland on 3 March 2014 following increasing tensions in neighbouring Ukraine. On two occasions in 2012, Turkey requested that the North Atlantic Council (NAC) convene 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 of the North Atlantic Treaty, 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 ‘50s.

In the early ‘50s, 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 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, December 1959, the 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 new home in Brussels, where it has since graced the wall of the Council room.
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:

1. 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;

2. 1952-1956: between 1952 and the publishing of the Committee of Three’s report on non-military cooperation, attempts had been made to encourage political consultation beyond the geographical limitations defined in the founding treaty, ie, beyond the defined NATO area.

3. 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 firsthand 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. 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.
The principal policy and decision-making institutions

NATO 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 28 member countries are represented at all levels of the committee structure on a wide range of security and defence issues. NATO has an extensive network of committees, covering everything from political, to technical or operational issues. Some of them are supported by working groups. The principle of consensus decision making is applied at each and every level of the committee structure
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).

Each member country is 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 Secretariat and the International Military Staff.

NATO has an extensive network of committees, covering everything from political, to technical or operational issues. 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.

NATO committees were reviewed in June 2010 so as to help NATO respond more effectively to security concerns and to the need for more integrated, flexible working procedures.

The principal committees
The North Atlantic Council (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
- NATO Air Traffic Management 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 attacks of September 11, 2001. 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 North Atlantic Council

The North Atlantic Council is the principal political decision-making body within NATO. It brings together high-level representatives of each member country to discuss policy or operational questions requiring collective decisions. In sum, it provides 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. 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 NAC is chaired by the Secretary General and its decisions have the same status and validity at whichever level it meets. It is the only body that was established by the North Atlantic Treaty (Article 9) in 1949 and that has the authority to set up subsidiary bodies, as deemed necessary. The Nuclear Planning Group has comparable authority to the NAC for matters within its specific area of competence, i.e., nuclear policies, planning and consultation procedures.

All members have an equal right to express their views and share in the consensus on which decisions are based. 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 North Atlantic Council (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.

Strictly speaking, the NAC is not the only body within NATO that carries such a high degree of authority. The Nuclear Planning Group (NPG) has comparable authority for matters within its specific area of competence. However, in practice, the NAC convenes far more frequently than the NPG and covers a broader scope of themes—as broad as the member countries decide it should be. Consequently, it is commonly referred to as NATO’s principal decision-making body.

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.”

**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 NAC is chaired by the Secretary General. In the absence of the Secretary General, 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 prime ministers and 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 with responsibility 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. A similar role is played by the Nuclear Planning Staff Group on behalf of the Nuclear Planning Group.

Other aspects of political work may be handled by the Political and Partnerships Committee. 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 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 its decisions recorded and circulated. A small Council Secretariat ensures the bureaucratic 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 HQ supports the work of the Council, either directly or indirectly, and helps to ensure that Council decisions are implemented.
The 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 the 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.

The Defence Ministers of all member countries, except France, meet at regular intervals in the NPG, where they discuss specific policy issues associated with nuclear forces. The Alliance's nuclear policy is kept under review and decisions are taken jointly to modify or adapt it in the light of new developments and to update and adjust planning and consultation procedures.

NATO's senior body on nuclear policy issues
Whilst the North Atlantic Council (NAC) is the ultimate authority within NATO, the NPG (which meets annually in Defence Ministers format at 27, minus France) acts as the senior body on nuclear matters within NATO.

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 the light of the ever-changing security challenges of the international environment and to adapt it if necessary.

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 Cárnation 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.
The Military Committee

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 months after the Alliance came into being. It is the primary source of military advice to NATO’s civilian decision-making bodies – the North Atlantic Council and the Nuclear Planning Group.

Highlights

The Military Committee (MC) is the senior military authority in NATO. It is the primary source of military advice to the North Atlantic Council (NAC) and the Nuclear Planning Group, and assists in developing strategic policy and concepts. It also provides guidance to the two Strategic Commanders – Allied Command Operations and Allied Command Transformation.

The Military Committee, chaired by the Chairman of the Military Committee, provides an essential link between the political decision-making process and the military structure of NATO. It meets at the level of Military Representatives shortly after meetings of the NAC to follow up on Council decisions, and at the level of Chiefs of Defence Staff three times a year.

Its advice is sought prior to any authorization for military action and, consequently represents an essential link between the political decision-making process and the military structure of NATO.

It also provides military guidance to the Alliance’s two Strategic Commanders and assists in developing overall strategic policy and concepts for the Alliance. In this context, it prepares an annual long-term assessment of the strength and capabilities of countries and areas posing a risk to NATO’s interests.

It meets frequently at the level of Military Representatives (MILREPs) and three times a year at the level of Chiefs of Defence (CHODs). It is chaired by the Chairman of the Military Committee, who is nominated for a three-year term.

Roles and responsibilities

Consensus 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 authorization by the North Atlantic Council of NATO military activities or operations. It therefore 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 Operations 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) from NATO member countries who serve as their country’s Military Representatives (MILREPs) to NATO, representing their Chief of Defence. 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 countries 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 chaired by the Chairman of the Military Committee, who is NATO’s senior military official. He directs the day-to-day business of the Military Committee and acts on its behalf. He is also the Committee’s spokesman and representative, making him the senior military spokesman for the Alliance on all military matters.

**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. These meetings follow closely those of the North Atlantic Council, so that the Committee may follow up promptly on Council decisions.

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, the Mediterranean and off the Horn of Africa, the need for the Council and Military Committee to meet more frequently to discuss operational matters has greatly 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 decisions and policies on military matters are implemented by the appropriate NATO military bodies.

**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 in Brussels and one in the form of an informal Military Committee Conference is hosted by a NATO member country, on a rotational basis.

Cooperation with partners
In the framework of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council and Partnership for Peace programme, the Military Committee meets regularly with partner countries at the level of national Military Representatives (once a month) and at the level of Chiefs of Defence (twice a year) to deal with military cooperation issues. The Military Committee also meets in different formats in the framework of the NATO-Russia Council, the NATO-Ukraine Commission, the NATO-Georgia Commission, and with the CHODs of the seven Mediterranean Dialogue countries.
The Defence Planning Committee (Archived)

The Defence Planning Committee was a former senior decision-making body on matters relating to the integrated military structure of the Alliance. It was dissolved following a major committee review in June 2010 and its responsibilities absorbed by the North Atlantic Council.

Highlights

The Defence Planning Committee (DPC) was the ultimate authority on all questions related to NATO’s integrated military structure.

It provided guidance to NATO’s military authorities and oversaw the force planning process.

It had the same level of authority as the North Atlantic Council (NAC) and the Nuclear Planning Group on matters within its competence and, when it was dissolved in 2010, its responsibilities were absorbed by the NAC.

Between 1966 and April 2009, France was not represented on this committee as a consequence of its withdrawal from the integrated military structure.

It provided guidance to NATO’s military authorities and oversaw the force planning process. The force planning process identifies NATO’s military requirements, sets planning targets for individual countries to contribute to those requirements, and assesses the extent to which members meet those targets and provide other forces and capabilities to the Alliance.

Momentarily, just before being dissolved, all member countries were represented on the DPC. However, between 1966 and April 2009, France was not represented on this committee as a consequence of its withdrawal from the integrated military structure.

Authority and responsibilities

The DPC was the ultimate authority within the Alliance on all questions related to the Alliance’s integrated military structure. It effectively had the same level of authority as the North Atlantic Council (NAC) and the Nuclear Planning Group on matters within their competence.

It implemented decisions taken by the participating countries in relation to collective defence planning and issues pertaining to the integrated military structure of the Alliance. It also approved force goals and ministerial guidance for future NATO defence planning.

Although its work focused on the integrated military structure and military and defence related issues, the NAC also discussed some of these matters before entirely taking over the DPC’s responsibilities in 2010. Conversely, in 2003 at the outbreak of the Iraq crisis, the Council moved the decision to authorize NATO military authorities to implement defensive measures to assist Turkey to the DPC.

This was the result of a disagreement among member countries 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 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.
On 16 February 2003, with the cohesion of the Alliance under strain, Lord Robertson, the then 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 DPC. At the time, it was composed of all member countries, except France, which did not participate in NATO’s integrated military structure. The Committee was able to reach agreement and on 19 February 2003 it authorized the military authorities to implement, as a matter of urgency, defensive measures to assist Turkey under the name of Operation Display Deterrence.

**Participants**

Members participating in NATO’s integrated military structure were represented on the DPC. As such, between April 2009 and June 2010, all member countries had a seat on this committee.

In the past, between 1966 and 2009, France was not represented on the DPC as a consequence of its withdrawal from the integrated military structure. However, at the Strasbourg/Kehl Summit in April 2009, it officially announced its decision to fully participate in NATO military structures.

The DPC used to be chaired by the Secretary General of NATO.

**Working procedures**

As is the case of all NATO committees, decisions were taken by consensus within the DPC.

Its work was prepared by a number of subordinate committees with specific responsibilities. In particular, the Defence Review Committee, which was also dissolved in June 2010, coordinated the force planning process within NATO and examined other issues relating to the integrated military structure.

Similarly to the NAC, the DPC looked to the senior committee with the relevant specific responsibility for the preparatory and follow-up work arising from its decisions.

Within the International Staff, the DPC was principally supported by the Division of Defence Policy and Planning and the Operations Division.

The DPC used to meet, when necessary, at the level of ambassadors and twice a year at the level of ministers of defence.
NATO 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.

These are not regular meetings, but rather important junctures in the Alliance’s decision-making process. For instance, summits have been used to introduce new policy, invite new members into the Alliance, launch major new initiatives and build partnerships with non-NATO countries.

From the founding of NATO in 1949 until today there have been 26 NATO summits. The most recent one took place in Newport, Wales, the United Kingdom, 4-5 September 2014. The next one will be hosted by Poland (Warsaw) in 2016.

**Highlights**

**Summit meetings are often held at key moments in the Alliance’s evolution – they are not regular meetings.**

**They are meetings of the North Atlantic Council at its highest level possible – that of Heads of State and Government.**

NATO summits are always held in a NATO member country and are chaired by the NATO Secretary General.

**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, 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 – 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 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 NATO 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, 26 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 six 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 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 blueprint 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 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 UN 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 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 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 former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia will also be invited as soon as ongoing negotiations over its name have led 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 the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia1); France’s decision to fully participate in NATO structures and the impact of this decision on the Alliance’s relations with the European Union; and 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.

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.

1. Turkey recognises the Republic of Macedonia with its constitutional name.

Organising and holding these events
NATO summit meetings are centred on the activities of the North Atlantic Council (NAC). As with all meetings of the NAC, the Secretary General chairs the meetings and plays an important role in coordination and deliberations, as well as acting as the principal spokesman of the Alliance.

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 although there is no formal obligation to hold such assemblies.

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 ISAF troop-contributing countries, as was the case at the Lisbon Summit. External stakeholders can also be involved: for instance, top representatives from international organisations such as the United Nations, the European Union or the World Bank.
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.

One of NATO’s strengths is its crisis management capacity, based on experience, tried and tested crisis management procedures and an integrated military command structure. This enables it to deal with a wide range of crises in an increasingly complex security environment, employing an appropriate mix of political and military tools to help manage emerging crises, which could pose a threat to the security of the Alliance’s territory and populations.

Within the framework of the Alliance, members work and train together in order to be able to plan and conduct multinational crisis management operations, often at short notice. In this context, NATO is an enabler which helps members and partners train and operate together, sometimes with other actors where appropriate, for combined crisis management operations and missions.

NATO’s role in crisis management goes beyond military operations aimed at deterring and defending against threats to Alliance territory and the safety and security of Allied populations. A crisis can be political, military or humanitarian and can also arise from a natural disaster or as a consequence of technological disruptions.

Allies decide on a case-by-case basis and by consensus, to contribute to effective conflict prevention and to engage actively in crisis management, including non-Article 5 response operations. Some operations may also include partners, non-NATO countries and other international actors. 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.

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. To ensure effectiveness and resilience, NATO’s crisis management instruments are continuously adapted to the evolving security context. Over time, NATO has led and conducted a number of crisis management operations, including beyond the Euro-Atlantic area.

Highlights

Crisis management is one of NATO’s essential core tasks.

NATO’s robust crisis management capabilities allow it to deal with a wide range of emerging crises in an increasingly complex security environment.

It derives this capability from its experience, tried and tested procedures and integrated military command structure.

NATO decides whether to engage in a crisis management operation on a case-by-case basis and by consensus.
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. This approach is clearly reflected in the Alliance’s 2010 Strategic Concept.

In effect, 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 to prevent a conflict from spreading and destabilising the region.

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, 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 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, 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 co-ordination 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 the field of civil emergency planning in subsequent years. They were comprehensively reviewed in 1995 when they became applicable to partner countries in addition to NATO member countries.

In 1998, the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Co-ordination Centre (EADRCC) was established to co-ordinate aid provided by different member and partner countries to a disaster-stricken area in a member or partner country. NATO also established a 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.

Civil emergency planning has become a key facet of NATO involvement in crisis management. In recent years, NATO has provided support for many countries. In May 2014, for instance, it provided support to Ukraine through a team of experts who advised on the protection of critical infrastructure in the context of the crisis with Russia. The EADRCC has coordinated assistance in flood-devastated countries including Albania, Bosnia-and-Herzegovina, Czech Republic, Hungary, Romania and Ukraine. It supported the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees in Kosovo; helped coordinate aid which was sent to earthquake-stricken Turkey and Pakistan; helped to fight fires in the former Yugoslav Republic of 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 practice interoperability.
Who decides and how?

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 (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.

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 co-ordination

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 six 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, including partners and other bodies who may be involved in a real-life crisis participate.

• 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.

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**Coordinating with other international players**

The North Atlantic Council decides on a case-by-case basis and by consensus whether to engage in a crisis response operation. 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; cooperation; 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 Partnership for Peace, 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. These partnerships with relevant countries and other international organisations are developed in accordance with NATO’s Berlin Partnership Policy. Additionally, at the Wales Summit in September 2014, NATO leaders adopted a comprehensive Partnership Interoperability Initiative to enhance the Alliance’s ability to tackle security challenges together with partners that have demonstrated their commitment to reinforce their interoperability with NATO.
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 heavy flooding and forest fires.
**Situation Centre (SITCEN)**

The NATO Situation Centre (SITCEN) is designed to provide situational awareness and alerting to the North Atlantic Council and the Military Committee in fulfilling their respective functions during peace, in periods of tension and crisis and for high level exercises. This is to be achieved through the receipt, exchange and dissemination of information from all available internal and external sources.

**Working Mechanism**

The SITCEN is uniquely positioned between the civilian International Staff and the International Military Staff of NATO Headquarters. Its staff consists of both civilian and military personnel.

The Secretary General, acting for the Council, has responsibility for the overall policy, general organization and effective functioning of the SITCEN. The Assistant Secretary General for Operations, on behalf of the Secretary General, is the senior staff official responsible for the development and control of the SITCEN. The Director General of the International Military Staff, acting for the Military Committee, is responsible for the co-ordination of the operations of the Centre with the Chief of the SITCEN. For day to day operations, this will be carried out on the Director General’s behalf by the Director Operations, IMS.

The SITCEN has an Admin Support/Registry office and one branch: the Watch Staff Support Branch.

The Admin Support/Registry office is the SITCEN central point for Information Management and control, training co-ordination and financial management.

The Watch Staff Support Branch 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 defence planning dimension

The NATO Defence Planning Process
Allies undertake to provide, individually or together, the forces and capabilities needed for NATO to fulfil its security and defence objectives. The NATO Defence Planning Process (NDPP) is the primary means to identify the required capabilities and promote their timely and coherent development and acquisition by Allies.

Highlights
Through the NATO Defence Planning Process (NDPP), NATO identifies capabilities and promotes their development and acquisition by Allies so that it can meet its security and defence objectives. By participating voluntarily in the NDPP, Allies can harmonise their national defence plans with those of NATO.

The NDPP is designed to influence national defence planning efforts and prioritises NATO’s future capability requirements, apportions those requirements to each Ally as targets, facilitates their implementation and regularly assesses progress.

NATO defence planning encompasses different domains: force, resource, armaments, logistics, C3 (consultation, command and control), civil emergency, air and missile defence, air traffic management, standardization, intelligence, military medical support, science and technology, and cyber.

An effective defence planning process is essential to deliver the collective political, military and resource advantages expected by NATO members. By participating in the NDPP, and without compromising their national sovereignty, Allies can harmonise their national defence plans with those of NATO to 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.

The NDPP is designed to influence national defence planning efforts and identifies and prioritises NATO’s future capability requirements, apportions those requirements to each Ally as targets, facilitates their implementation and regularly assesses progress. It provides a framework for the harmonisation of national and Alliance defence planning activities aimed at the timely development and delivery of all the capabilities, military and non-military, needed to meet the agreed security and defence objectives inherent to the Strategic Concept.

The Defence Policy and Planning Committee (DPPC) is responsible for the development of policy and overall coordination and direction of activities related to defence planning.

The key characteristics of the NDPP are that:

- It is a coherent and integrated process in which Allies choose to participate, on a voluntary basis, to deliver the required capabilities in the short, medium and long term.
- It supports a capability-based approach but provides sufficient detail to assist participating countries and the Alliance to develop the forces necessary to undertake the full range of NATO missions.
- It is sufficiently flexible to respond to the needs of both individual Allies and the Alliance, informs and guides national defence plans, provides transparency, promotes multinational approaches and offers opportunities to capitalise on best practices.
Efforts to enhance the NDPP, by making it more flexible and responsive, continue. The defence planning process evolves continuously; however two milestones stand out. In 2009, initiatives were taken to improve the harmonisation of the planning domains and Allies were encouraged to integrate their national defence planning activities to complement NATO efforts. Another milestone came earlier with the Alliance’s engagement in non-Article 5 operations. With collective defence war plans during the Cold War, members were expected to assign and employ the requested forces virtually without question. The non-Article 5 operations Allies have conducted since the fall of the Berlin Wall are, by agreement, on a case-by-case and the provision of national forces is discretionary. As such, the automaticity associated with force planning during the Cold War period was lost. This led to the need for “force generation conferences” to solicit the relevant forces and “operational planning” to develop the plans. Existing processes were adjusted and then reviewed on a regular basis in view of the changing security environment.

**NATO Defence Planning Process**

The NATO Defence Planning Process (NDPP) consists of five steps conducted over a period of four years.

**Step 1 - Establish political guidance**

A single, unified political guidance 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 aims at defining 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. By doing so, 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. The most recent was published in March 2011.

**Step 2 - Determine requirements**

NATO’s capability requirements (current and future) are consolidated into a single list called the Minimum Capability Requirements. These requirements are identified by the planning domains and the two Strategic Commands (Allied Command Operations (ACO) and Allied Command Transformation (ACT)). 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**

Target setting apportions the Minimum Capability Requirements to the Allies (either individually or as part of an agreed multinational undertaking) and NATO entities in the form of target packages.
The apportionment process aims to apply the principles of fair burden-sharing and reasonable challenge.

The Strategic Commands (with ACT in the lead) 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’.

Once each Ally has been consulted, the International Staff replaces the Strategic Commands in leading the process. Target packages are forwarded to Allies with a recommendation of which targets should be retained or removed. Allies review these packages during a series of Multilateral Examinations and agree a target package for each Ally on the basis of “consensus minus one”, meaning that a single Ally cannot veto what otherwise would be a unanimous decision on its own target package.

Agreed target packages are subsequently forwarded to Allies for submission to defence ministers for adoption. A summary report is also prepared which includes an assessment 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**

This step assists national measures, facilitates multinational initiatives and directs NATO efforts to satisfy 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**

This step seeks to examine the degree to which NATO’s political objectives, ambitions and associated targets have been 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 which scrutinises and assesses Allies’ defence and financial plans.

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 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 financial plans.

Assessments for each participating Ally are produced. They constitute a comprehensive analysis of national plans and capabilities, including force structures, specific circumstances and priorities. These assessments also include a statement by the Strategic Commands regarding the impact each country’s plans have on the ability of ACO to conduct missions. They may also include recommendations which seek to redirect resources from areas where the Alliance has a surfeit of capability, to deficiencies areas.
The assessments are submitted for examination to the Defence Policy and Planning Committee (DPPC) for review and approval during a series of multilateral examinations. In parallel with and based on the Strategic Commands’ Suitability and Risk Assessment, the Military Committee develops a Suitability and Risk Assessment. It effectively provides a risk assessment on the military suitability of the plans and the degree of military risk associated with them in relation to political guidance for defence planning.

On the basis of this and the individual assessments, the DPPC prepares a NATO Capabilities Report, highlighting individual and collective progress on capability development as it relates to NATO’s Level of Ambition.

Support structures

The senior committee for defence planning
The DPPC is the senior committee for defence planning. It is responsible for the development of defence planning-related policy and the overall coordination and direction of NDPP activities. The DPPC is the central body that oversees the work of the NATO bodies and committees responsible for the planning domains on behalf of the North Atlantic Council (NAC). It can provide feedback and defence planning process-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).

Capability Development Executive Board
The Capability Development Executive Board provides unity of oversight, policy, direction and guidance and enforces authority and accountability throughout NATO capability development. It brings together the senior leadership of the relevant civil and military capability development stakeholders in the NATO staffs and acts as a steering board to direct staff efforts associated with NATO capability development in accordance with the guidance provided by Allies through the relevant committees.

Defence Planning staff
The work of the DPPC and CDEB is supported by relevant NATO Defence Planning staff. This staff comprises civil and military expertise resident within the various NATO HQ staffs and Strategic Commands, and supports the NDPP throughout the five steps.

Planning domains and related committees
NATO Defence Planning encompasses many different domains: force, resource, armaments, logistics, C3 (consultation, command and control), civil emergency, air and missile defence, air traffic management, standardization, intelligence, military medical support and science and technology. In April 2012, the integration of cyber defence into the NDPP began. Relevant cyber defence requirements are also identified and prioritised through the defence planning process.

Force planning
Force planning aims to promote the availability of national forces and capabilities for the full range of Alliance missions. It seeks to ensure that Allies develop modern, deployable, sustainable and interoperable forces and capabilities, which can undertake demanding operations wherever required, including being able to operate abroad with limited or no support from the country of destination. The focus of force planning is on “capabilities” and how Allies should prioritise their resources to achieve these.
**Resource planning**

NATO resource planning focuses on the financing of capabilities that are jointly or commonly funded, where members pool resources within a NATO framework. Resource planning is closely linked to operational planning.

There is a distinction between joint funding and common funding: joint funding covers activities managed by NATO agencies, such as the NATO Airborne Warning and Control System (AWACS) and NATO pipelines; common funding involves three different budgets: the civil budget, the military budget, and the NATO Security Investment Programme.

These budgets are relatively small, but the specific use of each is key to ensuring the cohesion of the Alliance and the integration of capabilities.

**The Resource Policy and Planning Board**

The Resource Policy and Planning Board 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 and manpower.

**Armaments planning**

Armaments planning focuses on the development of multinational (but not common-funded) armaments programmes. It promotes cost-effective acquisition, cooperative development and production of armaments. It also encourages interoperability, and technological and industrial cooperation among Allies and partners.

**The Conference of National Armaments Directors**

The Conference of National Armaments Directors (CNAD) is the senior NATO committee responsible for Alliance armaments cooperation, material standardization and defence procurement. It brings together the top officials responsible for defence procurement in NATO member and partner countries to consider the political, economic and technical aspects of the development and procurement of equipment for NATO forces, with the aim of arriving at common solutions.

**Logistics planning**

Logistics planning aims at ensuring responsive and usable logistics support to NATO operations. This is achieved by promoting the development of military and civil logistics capabilities and multinational logistic cooperation.

**The Logistics Committee**

The Logistics Committee is the senior advisory body on logistics at NATO. Its mandate is two-fold: to address consumer logistics matters to enhance the performance, efficiency, sustainability and combat effectiveness of Alliance forces; to exercise, on behalf of the NAC, a coordinating authority across the NATO logistics spectrum.

**C3 planning**

NATO’s political and military functions require the use of NATO and national consultation, command and control (C3) systems, services and facilities, supported by personnel and NATO-agreed doctrine, organisations and procedures.
C3 systems include communications, information, navigation and identification systems as well as sensor and warning installation systems. They are designed and operated in a networked and integrated form to meet the needs of NATO. Individual C3 systems may be provided by NATO via common-funded programmes or by Allies via national, multinational or joint-funded cooperative programmes.

There is no established C3 planning cycle which allows C3 planning to be responsive. However, activities are harmonised with the cycles of the other associated planning disciplines.

**The Consultation, Command and Control (C3) Board**

The Consultation, Command and Control Board is a senior multinational body acting on behalf of and responsible to the NAC on all matters relating to NATO C3 issues. This includes interoperability of NATO and national C3 systems, and advising the CNAD on C3 cooperative programs.

**Civil emergency planning**

Civil emergency planning aims to collect, analyse and share information on national planning activity to ensure the most effective use of civil resources for use during emergency situations, in accordance with Alliance objectives. It enables Allies and partners to assist each other in preparing for and dealing with the consequences of crisis, disaster or conflict.

**The Civil Emergency Planning Committee**

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

**Air and missile defence planning**

Air and missile defence planning enables members to harmonise national efforts with international planning related to air command and control and air and missile defence weapons. The NATO Integrated Air and Missile Defence System (NATINAMDS) comprises sensors, command and control facilities and weapons systems, such as surface-based air defence and fighter aircraft. It is a cornerstone of NATO’s air and missile defence policy, and a visible indication of cohesion, shared responsibility and solidarity across the Alliance. A NATO Active Layered Theatre Ballistic Missile Defence (ALTBMD) programme has been initiated to enhance the previous NATO Integrated Air and Missile Defence (NATINAD) system, particularly against theatre ballistic missiles.

**The Air and Missile Defence Committee**

It is the senior multinational policy advisory and coordinating body regarding all elements of NATO’s integrated air and missile defence and relevant air power aspects in a joint approach. It advises the NAC and the relevant Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council bodies on all elements of air defence, including missile defence and relevant air power aspects. It promotes harmonisation of national efforts with international planning related to air command and control and air defence weapons. It reports directly to the NAC and is supported by its Panel on Air and Missile Defence.

The Military Committee Working Group (Air Defence) is responsible for reviewing, advising and making recommendations to the Military Committee on air and missile defence issues.

Other groups dealing with air and missile defence-related issues include the DPPC(R) with particular
responsibilities on ballistic missile defence, the Missile Defence Project Group, which oversees the BMD Programme Office, and the NATO-Russia Council Missile Defence Working Group.

**Air traffic management**

NATO’s role in civil-military air traffic management is to ensure, in cooperation with other international organisations, the following: safe access to airspace, effective delivery of services and civil-military interoperability for air operations conducted in support of the Alliance’s security tasks and missions. The aim is to achieve these objectives while minimising disruption to civil aviation, already constrained by the limited capacity of systems and airports, and mitigating the cost implications of new civil technologies on defence budgets.

*The Air Traffic Management Committee*

This committee is the senior civil-military advisory body to the NAC for airspace use and air traffic management. Its mission is to develop, represent and promote NATO’s view on matters related to safe and expeditious air operations in the airspace of NATO areas of responsibility and interest.

**Standardization**

At NATO, standardization is the process of developing shared concepts, doctrines, procedures and designs to achieve and maintain the most effective levels of “compatibility, interchangeability and commonality” in operations, procedures, materials, technology and administration. The primary products of this process are Standardization Agreements (STANAGS) between member countries.

*The Committee for Standardization*

The Committee for Standardization is the senior authority of the Alliance responsible for providing coordinated advice to the NAC on overall standardization issues.

**Intelligence**

Intelligence plays an important role in the defence planning process, especially with the emergence of multidirectional and multidimensional security challenges such as terrorism and the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction.

*The Intelligence Steering Board*

The Intelligence Steering Board acts as an inter-service coordination body responsible for steering intelligence activities and for providing effective support to the decision-making process at NATO Headquarters. It is tasked, among others, with developing the Strategic Intelligence Requirements from which any capability requirements are derived.

*The Civilian Intelligence Committee*

It is the sole body that handles civilian intelligence issues at NATO. It reports directly to the NAC and advises it on matters of espionage and terrorist or related threats, which may affect the Alliance.

*The Military Intelligence Committee*
It is responsible for developing a work plan in particular in the areas of NATO intelligence support to operations and oversight of policy guidance on military intelligence.

Military medical support

Military medical support is normally a national responsibility; however planning needs to be flexible to consider multinational approaches. The degree of multi-nationality varies according to the circumstances of the mission and the participation of Allies.

*The Committee of the Chiefs of Military Medical Services in NATO*

The Committee of the Chiefs of Military Medical Services in NATO is composed of the senior military medical authorities of member countries. It acts as the central point for the development and coordination of military medical matters and for providing medical advice to the Military Committee.

Science and technology

NATO promotes and conducts cooperative research and information exchange to support the effective use of national defence science and technology and further the military needs of the Alliance.

*The NATO Science and Technology Organization*

The NATO Science and Technology Organization (STO) acts as NATO’s principal organisation for science and technology research.

It is composed of a Science and Technology Board, Scientific and Technical Committees and three Executive Bodies (the Office of the Chief Scientist, the Collaboration Support Office, and the Centre for Maritime Research and Experimentation).

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 Lisbon Summit to reform the NATO agency structure.
Common-funded resources, budgets and financial management

NATO funding
Member countries make direct and indirect contributions to the costs of running NATO and implementing its policies and activities.

The greatest part of these contributions is indirect and comes through participation in NATO-led operations and missions, and in efforts to ensure that national armed forces are interoperable with those of other member countries. Member countries incur the deployment costs involved whenever they volunteer forces to participate in NATO-led operations. With a few exceptions, member countries also pay for their own military forces and military capabilities.

Direct contributions to budgets managed by NATO are made by members in accordance with an agreed cost-sharing formula that is based on relative Gross National Income. These contributions represent a very small percentage of each member’s overall defence budget, and finance the expenditures of NATO’s integrated structures. Direct contributions generally follow the principle of common funding, that is to say, member countries pool resources within a NATO framework. There are three budgets that come under common funding arrangements:

- the civil budget;
- the military budget, and
- the NATO Security Investment Programme.

Common funding covers collective requirements such as the NATO command structure, NATO-wide air defence, command and control systems or Alliance-wide communications systems, which are not the responsibility of any single member.

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.

Financial management of these different types of contributions 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. The North Atlantic Council, NATO’s highest political decision-making body, approves NATO budgets and investments, and exercises oversight over NATO financial management. The Council takes into account resource considerations in its decision making. The Resource Policy and Planning Board (RPPB) advises the Council on resource policy and allocation. For example, when the Council 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.

Voluntary, indirect funding of NATO
When the North Atlantic Council 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 two per cent defence expenditure guideline

In 2006, NATO member countries 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. 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 73 per cent of the defence spending of the Alliance as a whole. This does not mean that the United States covers 73 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 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 two per cent 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 as GDP grows; and will move toward the two per cent guideline within a decade.

While the two per cent 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.
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, perceived as a crucial indicator for the scale and pace of modernisation.

Although investment across the Alliance in the development and procurement of defence equipment rose between 2003 and 2010 as a result of increases in spending by the United States, several other Allies also increased their equipment expenditures to meet the particular modernisation requirements associated with expeditionary operations in Afghanistan and elsewhere. Where expenditures fail to meet the 20 percent guideline, however, there is an increasing risk of block 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 Allies who are currently spending less than 20 per cent of their annual defence spending on major equipment will aim to increase this annual investment within a decade; Allies will also ensure that their land, air and maritime forces meet NATO agreed guidelines for deployability and sustainability and other agreed metrics; and they will ensure that their armed forces can operate together effectively.

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.

The direct funding of NATO’s three budgets

Direct 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 NATO Security Investment Programme – 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 2014 is €217 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 50 separate 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 2014 is €1.4 billion.

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 (now relocating to Portugal);
- 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 (NAC), 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 2014 ceiling for the NSIP is €650 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 logistic 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. The most important trust fund is the one supporting the sustainment of the Afghan National Security Forces.

**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 NATO Security Investment Programme; 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.

**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 NATO Security Investment Programme 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 North Atlantic Council 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 Council on resource policy and allocation. For example, when the Council 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.
**The 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 NATO Security Investment Programme (NSIP) and manpower. Both the Budget Committee and the Investment Committee report to the RPPB.

**The Budget Committee**

The Budget Committee is responsible to the Resource Policy and Planning Board 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.

**The Investment Committee**

The Investment Committee is responsible to the Resource Policy and Planning Board for the implementation of the NATO Security Investment Programme (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.
The Resource Policy and Planning Board

The Resource Policy and Planning Board (RPPB) is the senior advisory body to the North Atlantic Council 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 Council 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 the Infrastructure Committee) reporting to the NAC. The Senior Resource Board itself was created in the 1990s in an effort to optimize 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 manpower 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 North Atlantic Council.

Each year, the RPPB also recommends for approval by the Council 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 Council to monitor the adequacy of resource allocations in relation to requirements.

Working mechanisms
All NATO member countries are represented on this 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 Committee and Investment Committee also attend the Board’s meetings.

The Board is supported by the NATO Office of Resources.
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 Jan Vylita (Czech Republic), Mr Marius Winters (The Netherlands), Dr Charilaos Charisis (Chairman, Greece), Mrs Kirsten Astrup (Norway), Mr Salih Tanrikulu (Turkey), Mr Marcus Popplewell (United Kingdom)

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.
Nuclear policy

NATO’s nuclear forces

In the Strategic Concept adopted by Allies at the Lisbon Summit at the end of 2010, NATO committed to the goal of creating the conditions for a world without nuclear weapons.

The Strategic Concept also reconfirmed that, as long as there are nuclear weapons in the world, NATO will remain a nuclear Alliance. Deterrence, based on an appropriate mix of nuclear and conventional capabilities, remains a core element of NATO’s strategy, even though the circumstances in which any use of nuclear weapons might have to be contemplated are extremely remote.

What does this mean in practice?
The supreme guarantee of the security of the Allies is provided by the strategic nuclear forces of the Alliance, particularly those of the United States; the independent strategic nuclear forces of the United Kingdom and France, which have a deterrent role of their own, contribute to the overall deterrence and security of the Allies.

The Allies concerned ensure that all components of NATO’s nuclear deterrent are safe, secure and effective.

The dramatic changes in the Euro-Atlantic strategic landscape brought about by the end of the Cold War have been reflected in the Alliance’s 1991, 1999 and 2010 Strategic Concepts. The Alliance has continued to take far-reaching steps to adapt its overall policy and defence posture to the new security environment.

NATO’s reduced reliance on nuclear forces has been manifested in a steady and very significant reductions in the number of systems, overall weapon numbers and readiness levels since the end of the Cold War. NATO no longer has standing peacetime nuclear contingency plans, and NATO’s nuclear forces do not target any country.

Mechanisms
Political oversight and control are the cornerstones of NATO’s nuclear posture and are shared among member countries. NATO members agreed 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. Within the NATO HQ structure, the Nuclear Planning Group (NPG) provides a forum in which nuclear and non-nuclear Allies alike (except France, which has decided not to participate) engage in the development of the Alliance’s nuclear policy, and in decisions on NATO’s nuclear posture. The NPG is composed of ministers of defence, and is presided over by NATO’s Secretary General. It meets around once per year, but has subordinate and advisory groups which meet more frequently.

New members are full members of the Alliance in all respects, including their commitment to the Alliance’s policy on nuclear weapons, and the guarantees which that policy affords to all Allies.
Evolution
NATO will review its posture to reflect the current strategic environment. As an example of this, NATO has been conducting a Deterrence and Defence Posture Review (DDPR), in which nuclear policy and posture have been examined as part of a review of NATO’s overall posture in deterring and defending against the full range of threats to the Alliance. Alliance leaders are expected to agree to its final report at the Chicago summit.
The economic dimension

Defence and security economics
Economic security is a critical dimension of NATO’s priorities with Allies and global partners. The potential disruption to the flow of economic resources comprising people, goods and strategic commodities can pose challenges and opportunities to the security of the Alliance, as underlined by NATO’s Strategic Concept – the official document that sets out NATO’s enduring purpose, nature and fundamental security tasks.

A proper understanding of defence and security economics is an essential contribution to NATO’s work in pre-conflict, conflict and post-conflict environments. At present, NATO’s efforts are focused on Afghanistan, international economic security, partnerships and supporting the development and sharing of economic intelligence.

Economic cooperation has always been an important aspect of the Alliance. Article 2 of the North Atlantic Treaty, clearly states that member countries “will seek to eliminate conflict in their international economic policies and will encourage economic collaboration between any or all of them.” Economic cooperation between Allies and, over time, with partners began formally in 1957 with the establishment of the Economic Committee. The Committee conducted multi-faceted work on economic security until mid-2010, when it was dissolved and its tasks pursued within other committees. The Defence and Security Economics (DSE) section of the Political Affairs and Security Policy Division of the International Staff constitutes the core team that deals with defence and security economics on a day-to-day basis.

Core tasks

Afghanistan
The primary work of DSE is directed to supporting NATO’s efforts in Afghanistan and to providing assessments on international economic security in a world where the balance of international economic power is changing. In this regard, DSE has developed various important initiatives in support of NATO ISAF and Afghanistan.

Firstly, DSE has significantly contributed to the development of the NATO Afghan First Policy that seeks to reduce the risk of corruption in the contracting for goods and services in support of economic development and security in Afghanistan.

Secondly, DSE, in partnership with international organisations and NGOs, is engaged in building the capacity of the government of Afghanistan to reduce corruption in defence and security establishments in Afghanistan. This includes the application of Building Integrity tools (a NATO initiative first developed in 2007) to support NATO ISAF in developing anti-corruption training for the Afghan National Army and the national Police.

Thirdly, DSE interacts with the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank in assessing those economic and financial issues that are critical to Afghanistan’s medium- and long-term economic development and security.

International economic security
The challenges confronting the Alliance in the wake of the global economic recession in 2008 have been felt in the pressure imposed on national defence budgets at a time of economic and fiscal
In an increasingly complex financial and economic world, international economic collaboration is a fundamental condition for stability and security, together with measures to ensure that NATO members continue to devote the necessary budgetary resources to defence and security capabilities.

DSE organises workshops and interacts with other divisions within the International Staff (the Emerging Security Challenges and the Defence Policy and Planning Divisions) in focusing upon the affordability and sustainability of defence spending within the Alliance set against the backdrop of the changing distribution of international economic power.

Increasingly, budgetary and financial constraints make it essential that Allies implement “Smart Defence” arrangements, as proposed and emphasised by NATO’s Secretary General, Anders Fogh Rasmussen.

**Partnerships**

In coordination with other entities within the International Staff, DSE contributes to the monitoring and assessment of the economic performance of partners in the framework of their Annual national Plans and Membership Action Plans.

Additionally, discussions with partners can focus on assessing developments in economic security, as well as supporting their efforts to manage the socio-economic consequences of defence sector restructuring and downsizing (in support of vital defence reform and defence conversion) and to promote better management of scarce defence and security sector financial resources.

**Economic Intelligence**

DSE retains access to a network of defence economic experts from Allied capitals who previously contributed to the analytical work of the Economic Committee. With the reform of NATO intelligence structures and processes, DSE remains able to support this work with contributions on economic intelligence.

**Working mechanisms**

The Defence and Security Economics (DSE) section of the Political Affairs and Security Policy Division in the NATO International deals with defence and security economics.

DSE was reorganised in 2010 after the dissolution of the NATO Economic Committee and provides expert advice and inputs to the Political and Partnerships Committee and the Operations Policy Committee. It also contributes to the work conducted by other divisions in support of NATO’s operations and partnerships.

The Head of DSE is also NATO’s Senior Defence Economist and is responsible for internal liaison with NATO committees, agencies and other bodies. He is also responsible for external liaison with pivotal international economic organisations such as the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank, the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development and other major international economic organisations. DSE also maintains an extensive network of contacts with experts on defence and security economics in prominent international think tanks.
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:

4. Total defence expenditures
5. Defence expenditure and GDP growth rates
6. Defence expenditures as a percentage of GDP
7. Defence expenditures and GDP per capita
8. Defence expenditures by category
9. Armed forces personnel strength

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The human dimension

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.
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.

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.
Women, peace and security

NATO, UNSCR 1325 and related Resolutions

NATO and its partners are taking action to support the implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325. This Resolution recognises the disproportionate impact that war and conflicts have on women and children, and highlights the fact that women have been historically left out of peace processes and stabilisation efforts. Adopted in October 2000, UNSCR 1325 was followed by six additional Resolutions (1820, 1888, 1889, 1960, 2106 and 2122). These Resolutions call for full and equal participation of women at all levels in issues ranging from early conflict prevention to post-conflict reconstruction, peace and security. Together, they frame the Women, Peace and Security agenda.

Highlights

NATO and its partners are committed to removing barriers for women’s participation in the prevention, management and resolution of conflicts and in peace-building. They are also committed to reducing the risk of conflict-related and gender-based violence. To achieve these goals, NATO and its partners work with other international organisations – in particular the United Nations – and civil society.

According to the United Nations, before the Second World War, 90 per cent of casualties in conflicts were combatants. Today, the majority of casualties are civilians, especially women and children. The continued under-representation of women in peace processes, the lack of institutional arrangements to protect women and the widespread use of conflict-related sexual- and gender-based violence as a tactic of war, remain major impediments to building sustainable peace.

NATO Allies working with their partners in the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) responded to UNSCR 1325 by adopting their first policy in 2007. The document has been reviewed every two years, and in April 2014 an updated overarching policy was adopted.

On the tenth anniversary of UNSCR 1325 in 2010, NATO leaders adopted an action plan for the implementation of UNSCR 1325 and related Resolutions in NATO-led operations and missions at the Lisbon Summit. This document was replaced in June 2014 with an overarching action plan aimed at implementing the most recent policy on Women, Peace and Security.

Ms. Marriët Schuurman is the NATO Secretary General’s Special Representative for Women, Peace and Security at NATO Headquarters. The Special Representative helps reinforce and promote the implementation of UNSCR 1325 and related Resolutions, supporting the Alliance in continuing to advance the Women, Peace and Security agenda at every level though its policies and activities. Work is also done to make greater use of the potential that women offer in the political and military ranks, as well as to improve cooperation with partner countries and other international organisations, including the United Nations (UN), the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), the European Union (EU) and the African Union (AU).
NATO’s Overarching Policy

NATO and its partners’ active commitment to UNSCR 1325 and related Resolutions resulted in a formal NATO/EAPC Policy on implementing the Resolutions, first issued in December 2007. The Policy was reviewed every two years and the Secretary General issued annual reports on its implementation.

The basis of the policy: UNSCR 1325 and the Strategic Concept

The Policy is based on the key pillars of UNSCR 1325: participation of women in conflict prevention, management and resolution; women’s participation in peace-building; protection of women’s and girls’ rights; and prevention of conflict-related sexual- and gender-based violence. The policy draws on both internal and external NATO resources for implementation.

Based on NATO’s fundamental and enduring purpose to safeguard the freedom and security of all its members by political and military means, the Policy aims to ensure that a gender perspective is mainstreamed into policies, activities and efforts to prevent and resolve conflicts. Due regard will be given to the social role of both men and women and how this may lead to different risks and security needs. And attention will be paid to how these roles may translate into different contributions to conflict prevention and resolutions. In accordance with NATO’s Strategic Concept, this will be done through its essential core tasks, and therefore the Policy focuses especially on cooperative security, crisis management and NATO-led operations and missions, and national contributions.

Other cross-cutting aspects, such as human resources policies, education, training and exercises and public diplomacy are also addressed and play an important role in enhancing the Policy’s implementation within the Alliance.

Working with partners

The adoption of the updated overarching policy on 1 April 2014 by NATO and its EAPC partners opened the way for more practical cooperation with NATO’s broad partnership network. For the first time, Afghanistan, Australia, Japan, Jordan and the United Arab Emirates participated actively in the development of the Policy. New Zealand later associated itself with this effort too.

Work with partner countries focuses on reinforcing political dialogue and practical cooperation in the security and defence fields. To this end – in the context of their various partnership programmes with NATO – partners are encouraged to adopt specific goals related to UNSCR 1325 and related Resolutions. They are also encouraged to make use of the training and education activities developed by Allied Command Transformation (ACT), which has ensured that a gender perspective is included in the curriculum of NATO Training Centres, Centres of Excellence and in pre-deployment training.

Though the Alliance has no influence on measures or policies taken at national levels, it is required that personnel deployed in NATO-led operations and missions and serving within NATO structures are appropriately trained and meet required standards of behaviour. Several countries have initiated gender-related training for subject matter experts and raised general awareness on UNSCR 1325 and related Resolutions ahead of national force deployments.

Women, peace and security issues are also regularly raised during staff talks between NATO and the UN, the OSCE, the EU as well as the African Union.
**Gender perspective in operations**

UNSCR 1325 and related Resolutions are also being implemented in crisis management and in NATO-led operations and missions. The Alliance nominated gender advisers at both Strategic Commands – ACO and Allied Command Transformation - as well as in Afghanistan and Kosovo. They advise commanders on how best to conduct operations so as to limit their impact on women and girls.

Along with having more female personnel on the ground, these measures have had a positive effect on the implementation of UNSCR 1325 in theatres of operation. For instance, in Afghanistan, female soldiers are able to connect with members of the population otherwise closed off from their male colleagues. Gender advisers have also sought to promote public awareness and ensure that the gender perspective has been incorporated in operational planning documents throughout the chain of command, as well as in documents outlining NATO’s current and future partnership with Afghanistan.

In addition, NATO’s next Crisis Management Exercise in 2015 will include – for the first time ever – a gender perspective as one of its objectives. These annual exercises are designed to practice the Alliance’s crisis management procedures at the strategic political level, and involve civilian and military staffs in Allied capitals, at NATO Headquarters, and in both Strategic Commands.

**The NATO Action Plan**

A first NATO Action Plan to mainstream UNSCR 1325 and related Resolutions into NATO-led operations and missions was endorsed at the Lisbon Summit in November 2010 on the occasion of the tenth anniversary of UNSCR 1325.

Following the adoption of NATO’s revised policy in April 2014, a new overarching action plan for supporting the implementation of UNSCR 1325 and related Resolutions was endorsed in June 2014. Like the policy, the action plan was developed by Allies together with their EAPC partners, plus Afghanistan, Australia, Japan, Jordan, New Zealand and the United Arab Emirates. It also focuses on the same areas of intervention, namely cooperative security, crisis management and NATO-led operations and missions, and national contributions. It is structured into 14 outcomes and several actions, whose implementation and responsibility are shared between NATO International Staff, NATO Military Authorities and relevant national authorities.

This Action Plan covers a two-year period and will therefore be revised in June 2016.

**Implementing UNSCR 1325 and related Resolutions**

A progress report on the implementation of NATO’s policy and Action Plan was adopted by NATO leaders at the Wales Summit in September 2014.

The implementation of UNSCR 1325 and related Resolutions cuts across various divisions and governing bodies within NATO Headquarters, as well as in the Strategic Commands. All these entities together 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, who represents the highest focal point for the implementation of this agenda within the Alliance. A specific body was also set up to advise the Military Committee.
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 at NATO Headquarters. This position was newly created in 2012, following an offer made by the Norwegian Government, and the post was made permanent from September 2014;
- A task force bringing together civilian and military staff across the Headquarters;
- A gender office (NATO Office on Gender Perspectives) and an advisory committee of experts (NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives) on the military side, tasked with promoting gender mainstreaming as a means of making the concerns and experiences of women and men alike an integral dimension of the design and implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies, programmes and military operations;
- A working group led by ACO to assess means to further incorporate UNSCR 1325 and related Resolutions 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.
NATO operations and missions

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 needed to undertake crisis-management operations, alone or in cooperation with other countries and international organisations. Through its crisis-management operations, the Alliance demonstrates both its willingness to act as a positive force for change and its capacity to meet the security challenges of the 21st century.

Since its first major peace-support operation in the Balkans in the early 1990s, the tempo and diversity of NATO operations have increased. NATO has been engaged in missions that cover the full spectrum of crisis-management operations – from combat and peacekeeping, to training and logistics support, to surveillance and humanitarian relief. Today, approximately 40,000 military personnel are engaged in NATO missions around the world, successfully managing complex ground, air and naval operations in all types of environment. These forces are currently operating in Afghanistan, Kosovo, the Mediterranean, off the Horn of Africa and in Somalia. NATO is also conducting air policing missions on the request of NATO member countries, and Allies are supporting Turkey’s air defence system with the deployment of Patriot missiles.

Highlights

NATO is a crisis-management organisation that has the capacity to undertake military operations and missions.
The tempo and diversity of operations and missions in which NATO is involved have increased since the early 1990s.
Currently, NATO has forces operating in Afghanistan, Kosovo, the Mediterranean, off the Horn of Africa and in Somalia.
NATO is also conducting air policing missions on the request of its Allies.
NATO carries out disaster-relief operations and missions to protect populations against natural, technological or humanitarian disasters.

Current operations and missions

NATO in Afghanistan

Afghanistan constitutes the Alliance’s most significant operational commitment to date. Established by United Nations (UN) mandate in 2001, the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) has been under NATO leadership since August 2003.

ISAF currently comprises approximately 35,000 troops from 48 different countries deployed throughout Afghanistan. Its mission is to prevent Afghanistan from once again becoming a safe haven for terrorists, 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.

By end 2014, gradual transition of security responsibility from ISAF troops to the Afghan army and police forces will be fully implemented and the ISAF mission will come to a close. However, support
for the continued development of the Afghan security forces and institutions and wider cooperation with Afghanistan will continue. It will be carried out in three ways. Firstly, NATO Allies and partners stand ready to launch a new NATO-led non-combat mission (called “Resolute Support”) on 1 January 2015 to train, advise and assist the Afghan security forces and institutions. Secondly NATO Allies and partners have renewed their financial commitments to support the sustainment of the ANSF; and thirdly, NATO leaders 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 4,500 Allied 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, KFOR troops continue to maintain a strong presence throughout the territory, preserving the peace that was imposed by NATO fifteen years ago.

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, progress has been achieved in 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.

Monitoring the Mediterranean Sea

NATO operations are not limited only to zones of conflict. In the aftermath of the September 11, 2001 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.

Since April 2003, NATO has been systematically boarding suspect ships. These boardings take place with the compliance of the ships’ masters and flag states and in accordance with international law.

The increased NATO presence in these waters has benefited all shipping travelling through the Straits of Gibraltar by improving perceptions of security. More generally, the operation has proved to be an effective tool both in safeguarding a strategic maritime region and in countering terrorism on and from the high seas. Additionally, the experience and partnerships developed through Operation Active Endeavour have considerably enhanced NATO’s capabilities in this increasingly vital aspect of operations.

Counter-piracy off the Horn of Africa

Building on previous counter-piracy missions conducted by NATO (Operation Allied Provider and Operation Allied Protector - see below), Operation Ocean Shield is focusing on at-sea counter-piracy operations off the Horn of Africa. Approved on 17 August 2009 by the North Atlantic Council, this
operation is contributing to international efforts to combat piracy in the area. It is also offering, to
regional states that request it, assistance in developing their own capacity to combat piracy activities.

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 airlift support
for AU peacekeepers. Following renewed AU requests, the North Atlantic Council has agreed to
extend its support on several occasions and continues to do so. NATO is also working with the AU in
identifying further areas where it could support the African Standby Force.

Air policing missions
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 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
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.

**NATO in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia¹**

Responding to a request from the Government in Skopje to help mitigate rising ethnic tension, NATO implemented three successive operations there 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 in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia¹ demonstrated the strong inter-institutional cooperation between NATO, the European Union and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe. NATO remains committed to helping the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia¹ integrate into Euro-Atlantic structures. To that end, NATO Headquarters Skopje was created in April 2002 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 D.C. 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.

**The second Gulf Conflict**

During the second Gulf Conflict, NATO deployed NATO AWACS radar aircraft and air defence batteries to enhance the defence of Turkey. The operation started on 20 February, lasted until 16 April 2003 and was called Operation Display Deterrence. The AWACS aircraft flew 100 missions with a total of 950 flying hours.

**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 on 18 June – 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.

**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.

**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.

**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.

**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.

**Counter-piracy in the Gulf of Aden and off the Horn of Africa**
From October to December 2008, NATO launched Operation Allied Provider, which involved counter-piracy activities off the coast of Somalia. 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 has threatened to undermine international humanitarian efforts in Africa.

Concurrently, in response to an urgent request from the African Union, these same NATO naval forces escorted a vessel chartered by the AU carrying equipment for the Burundi contingent deployed to AMISOM.

From March to August 2009, NATO launched 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.

NATO and Libya
Following the popular uprising against the Qadhafi regime in Benghazi, Libya, in February 2011, the United Nations (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, 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.

1. Turkey recognises the Republic of Macedonia with its constitutional name.

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 with a total of 2,336 flying hours.
**Commitment to operations and missions**

NATO nations contribute forces and capacities in several operations and to standby forces under NATO and other auspices. The following table provides details related to individual national commitments.

Content is provided by NATO countries on a voluntary basis.

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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

- NATO is an alliance of 28 sovereign countries which does not possess military forces of its own.
- Personnel serving in a NATO operation are referred to as "NATO forces", but are multinational forces from NATO countries and, in some cases, partner or other troop-contributing countries.
- "Force generation" is the procedure that ensures NATO operations or missions have the manpower and materials required to achieve set objectives.
- National capitals take the final decision on whether to contribute to a NATO-led operation or mission.
- Allied Command Operations, commanded by the Supreme Allied Commander, Europe (SACEUR), is responsible for executing all NATO operations and missions, and the Deputy SACEUR coordinates troop contributions.

NATO is an alliance of 28 sovereign countries, which does not possess military forces of its own. While personnel serving in a NATO operation are often referred to collectively as “NATO forces”, they are actually multinational forces composed of individuals, formations and equipment drawn from NATO member countries and, in some cases, partner countries or other troop-contributing countries.

The procedure for staffing an operation or mission is often referred to as “force generation”. This procedure ensures that Alliance operations or missions have the manpower and materials required to achieve set objectives.

Obtaining troop contributions for operations and missions

The final decision on whether to contribute troops and equipment to a NATO-led operation or mission is taken by national capitals, which communicate continuously with NATO through their permanent diplomatic missions, national military representation, or partnership liaison teams.

Force generation

When a NATO operation or mission is deemed necessary, NATO’s military authorities draft a concept of operations – referred to as a CONOPS – which outlines the troop and equipment requirements necessary to meet the operations’ or mission’s objectives. Upon approval of the concept of operations and the release of a “Force Activation Directive” by the North Atlantic Council, Allied Command Operations (ACO), led by the Supreme Allied Commander Europe, initiates the force generation and activation process.

In general, the force generation process follows a standard procedure. For a given operation or mission, a list of personnel and equipment requirements (the Combined Joint Statement of
Requirements), is produced by ACO and sent to NATO member countries and, in some cases, partner countries.

National offers to provide personnel are addressed during conferences attended by representatives from NATO and partner countries. These conferences take place on an ad hoc basis as required. For example, a force generation conference will take place prior to the start of a new operation or mission, or if there are significant changes in an ongoing operation. In addition to these conferences, an annual conference is held for all operations and missions, the Global Force Generation Conference.

Contributions by individual countries, both NATO members and partners, are subject to their overall national capacity, taking into account prior commitments, force size, structure, and activity level. Every contribution, whether big or small, is valuable and contributes to the success of the operation or mission.

In many cases, NATO or partner countries will commit complete or formed units to operations or missions. A country may volunteer to send a complete battle group, which – in the case of ground forces – could include infantry personnel, an armoured reconnaissance element, an artillery battery to provide fire support, and service support personnel.

Countries that provide leadership for an entire operation or mission, or take responsibility for central elements, are identified as “lead.” For example, the lead country for a given operation or mission might provide the command element and a significant part of the forces, and will also be responsible for filling 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.

_Caveats_

It is during the force generation process that caveats are stated. While national contributions to NATO operations are expected to operate under the Alliance’s chain of command, the provision of forces by NATO and partner countries is sometimes conditional on factors such as geography, logistics, time, rules of engagement, or command status. Known as “caveats”, these conditions can restrict NATO commanders by limiting their flexibility to respond to situations on the ground. For this reason, the Alliance seeks national contributions with as few caveats as possible.

_Provincial Reconstruction Teams_

The Provincial Reconstruction Teams (PRTs) established in Afghanistan under the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF), constitute an exception to the normal force generation process. These formations, which in agreement with the Afghan authorities will have all been gradually closed by the end of 2014, were interdisciplinary in contrast to traditional military operations. That is, they were comprised of development workers, military forces, diplomats and civilian police, who worked to extend the authority of the central Afghan government in remote areas, and to facilitate development and reconstruction.

Because of the unique combination of personnel, 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.

**Coordinating troop contributions for non-NATO operations**

Over the years, the Alliance has developed significant expertise in coordinating troop contributions for multinational operations. In the past, it 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 in 2003 in Afghanistan, prior to its conversion into a NATO-led operation.

**Who decides?**

In determining troop contributions, ACO engages with the Military Committee, the North Atlantic Council, and individual countries, all of which have critical roles to play in bringing Alliance operations and missions to reality.

ACO, commanded by SACEUR, is responsible for executing all Alliance operations and missions. The Deputy SACEUR and his staff coordinate troop contributions.

**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” rather than “force generation” for specific operations. This was because during that time, the Alliance maintained static, “conventional” forces in former West Germany, poised for an attack from the former Soviet Union.

Beginning 1986, conventional forces were reduced and, following the end of the Cold War, bases of individual NATO countries in Germany were largely dismantled or converted to other use, although some remain functional to this day.

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 valid, the process has been refined in tandem with NATO’s transformation. At their May 2002 meeting in Reykjavik, Iceland, NATO foreign ministers decided that: "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."
NATO’s engagement in Afghanistan in 2003 posed a number of new problems for force generation. It soon became apparent that the nature of the mission was different from previous tasks. Greater flexibility was needed in types and numbers of forces, from rotation to rotation, and from area to area. In addition, with many countries moving to smaller, more highly trained and highly equipped forces, it became unrealistic to expect large standing commitments from individual countries.

The procedure for staffing an operation or mission was made more responsive to operational requirements. Communication between NATO commanders and member/partner countries was improved, allowing potential troop-contributing countries to be better informed about evolving operational requirements.

The first Global Force Generation Conference was held in November 2003; Prior to this, force generation meetings had been called on an ad hoc basis as required. During this annual conference, troop and resource requirements for all NATO-led operations and missions are addressed at the same time.

While ad hoc meetings are still necessary to address immediate needs, rolling numerous meetings into one facilitates improved coordination between and within troop-contributing countries and NATO military authorities.

Lastly, NATO military planners are taking a longer view of force generation. While developments in operations, as well as political developments within troop-contributing countries, prohibit definitive troop and material commitments far into the future, NATO military planners are looking beyond immediate needs, which allows both the Alliance and troop-contributing countries to plan their resources better.
**Reserve forces**

As threats to global security have evolved, so too has the role of reserve forces in NATO. Reservists play a crucial role in building bridges between military and non-military personnel across the Alliance and are recognized as indispensable to the Alliance’s defence at the earliest stages of a conflict.

Although the Alliance does not have or control its own Reserve Forces, through the National Reserve Forces Committee (NRFC) it works with the Interallied Confederation of Reserve Officers, known by its French acronym CIOR, and the Interallied Confederation of Medical Reserve Officers (CIOMR) to tackle reservist issues.

Whenever possible the CIOR, the CIOMR and the NRFC convene at the same time and place. The three bodies also work to harmonize their respective programmes and projects. The NRFC and CIOR work is complementary, particularly where requirements converge. NRFC focuses more on the military policy level, while CIOR provides input from a civilian point of view. Both mainly serve as a place for the exchange of views of national best practices. The Military Committee is briefed once a year on the activities of these organizations.

**The National Reserve Forces Committee (NRFC)**

Reserve Forces and policy matters relating to them were considered, until the early 1980s, to be a national issue only and therefore not within the remit of NATO. The NRFC was established in 1981 as the central forum of the Alliance for reservist matters. However, it wasn’t until 1987 that a Memorandum of Understanding was signed between the NRFC and the CIOR formally establishing areas of work.

**Objectives and responsibilities**

The NRFC has the task of preparing conceptual proposals and developing approaches as an advisory body for the Military Committee and member countries in this area. Its objectives and responsibilities were approved by the Military Committee (MC 392) on 18 November 1996 and amended on 1 April 1998.

These are defined as:

- Strengthen the readiness of the Alliance Reserves by providing a forum for informal and candid exchanges of information.
- Providing policy advice on Reserve issues to the Military Committee.
- Providing advice and support to the CIOR to assist their activities in support of Alliance goals and advise the Military Committee on its relationship with CIOR.

Since 1996, the NRFC has focused on strengthening the operational readiness of NATO reserve forces by broadening the exchange of information and deploying reserve forces jointly with active forces. The Committee does not address strategic, tactical or operational issues. This is the prerogative of the member nations or the NATO military command structure.
Functioning of the committee

Currently 23 NATO nations are members while Australia has been granted permanent observer status. The NRFC holds plenary conferences at least twice a year and almost all NATO countries are members – the exceptions being Albania, Iceland, Luxembourg, Portugal and Croatia. It consists of a chairman and a secretariat, national delegations and observers. The International Military Staff, Allied Command Operations and Allied Command Transformation are represented by liaison officers. Committee delegations are appointed by their respective national ministries of defence, and the national heads of delegations are mostly heads of reserve or commissioners of reserve allied forces.

Chairmanship is held for a period of two years by one of the member countries. Meetings are organised and conducted by the Chairman, who also coordinates with the Committee. The Secretariat of the NRFC is of the same country as the Chairman. The Committee retains the authority to establish its own procedures.

The Interallied Confederation of Reserve Officers (CIOR)

The Interallied Confederation of Reserve Officers is an independent body that was founded in 1948. It represents the reserve officers from 28 NATO members and eight associated countries. It was officially recognized by NATO in 1976 (MC 248/1) with the objectives of providing advice on the best utilization of reservists, continuing to improve the knowledge of NATO authorities about national Reserve Forces, and exchange information between member nations. 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 as 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 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 utilization 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 organization, administration and social aspects, where appropriate, of Reserve Forces and in particular of Reserve Officers.”
**CIOR Committees:**
- Defence Attitudes & Security Issues Committee
- Civil Military Cooperation Committee
- Military Competitions Committee
- Legal Committee
- Partnership for Peace & Outreach Committee
- Language Academy Committee
- Seminar Committee
- 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 Organisation is financed by annual subscriptions from its component national associations. The CIOR has a permanent representative at NATO HQ in the IMS Plans and Policy Division.

**CIOMR**

The Confédération interallié des officiers médicaux de réserve (Interallied Confederation of Medical Reserve Officers, or CIOMR) is an associated member of the CIOR.

Established in 1947, the CIOMR is the official organisation of medical officers within Reserve Forces from countries which were to become NATO members. Originally founded by Belgium, France and the Netherlands, the Organisation now includes all CIOR member countries. It works to establish close professional relations with the medical doctors and services of NATO countries and promotes effective collaboration with the active forces of the Alliance.
NATO and 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).

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.

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).
NATO’s role in Afghanistan

NATO and Afghanistan
NATO’s primary objective in Afghanistan is to enable the Afghan authorities to provide effective security across the country and ensure that the country can never again be a safe haven for terrorists. Since August 2003, the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) has been conducting security operations, while also training and developing the Afghan National Security Forces (ANSF). ISAF was established on the basis of a request for assistance by the Afghan authorities and under a United Nations (UN) mandate. At the end of 2014, ISAF will complete its mission, as planned and agreed with the Afghan authorities. However, support for the continued development of the Afghan security forces and institutions and a wider cooperation with Afghanistan will continue.

In 2011, as agreed with the Afghan authorities, a process of transition of full security responsibility to the Afghan security forces and institutions was launched. That process has been implemented as scheduled and is due to be completed at the end of 2014, when ISAF’s mission will end.

At the NATO Summit in Wales on 4 September 2014, the leaders of ISAF troop-contributing nations underlined their commitment to continue supporting Afghanistan after 2014. Such support will be carried out in three ways. Firstly, NATO Allies and partners stand ready to launch a new NATO-led non-combat mission (called “Resolute Support”) to train, advise and assist the Afghan security forces and institutions. Following the signature of a Status of Forces Agreement between NATO and Afghanistan on 30 September 2014 and its ratification by the Afghan Parliament on 27 November 2014, the required legal framework for the Resolute Support Mission is now in place. This new mission will be inaugurated on 1 January 2015. Secondly NATO Allies and partners have renewed their financial commitments to support the sustainment of the Afghan security forces, including to the end of 2017. Thirdly, NATO leaders reaffirmed their commitment to an enduring partnership between NATO and Afghanistan, by strengthening political consultations and practical cooperation. The NATO-Afghanistan Enduring Partnership was signed in 2010 at NATO’s Lisbon Summit.

NATO’s Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan carries forward the Alliance’s political-military objectives there, liaising with the Afghan government, civil society, and representatives of the international community and neighbouring countries.

ISAF’s mission
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 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 is in Afghanistan at the express request of the Afghan authorities.

As of September 2014, 48 nations are contributing troops to the mission, including 21 non-NATO partners. (For more information on contributing nations and troop numbers, see ISAF "placemat" in margin.)
As part of the international community’s overall effort, ISAF is working to create the conditions whereby the Afghan government is able to exercise its authority throughout the country, including the development of professional and capable Afghan National Security Forces (ANSF). In so doing, ISAF helps create a secure environment for improving governance and socio-economic development and creating the conditions for sustainable stability across Afghanistan.

The transition to Afghan lead for security and beyond

By the end of 2014, Afghan National Security Forces will assume full security responsibility for their people and country, and ISAF’s mission will end. The process of transition to full Afghan security responsibility – known as “Inteqal” in Dari and Pashtu – was launched in 2011 and is well underway. Following the launch of the fifth and final tranche of the transition process in June 2013, Afghan forces are in the lead for security across the whole country.

Increasing ANSF capacity and leadership has allowed the ISAF mission to evolve, shifting progressively from a combat-centric role to a more enabling role focusing on training, advising and assisting the ANSF to ensure that they are able to assume their full security responsibilities by the end of transition. ISAF continues to provide combat support, as necessary, while pursuing a measured redeployment in a coordinated and coherent manner, until the scheduled completion of transition at the end of 2014.

NATO’s commitment to Afghanistan after the completion of the transition process stands firm. At NATO’s Summit in Chicago in May 2012, Allies agreed to a follow-on NATO-led non-combat mission to continue supporting the development of the Afghan security forces post-2014. This commitment was reaffirmed at the NATO Summit in Wales in 2014. The NATO-led post-2014 mission will not be a combat mission. It will be a mission to provide training, advice and assistance activities at the security ministries and national institutional levels and the higher levels of army and police command across the country. The detailed operational plan for Resolute Support was approved by the foreign ministers of NATO member and partner countries at the end of June 2014. The legal framework for the new mission is provided by a Status of Forces Agreement (SOFA), signed in Kabul on 30 September 2014 by the Afghan National Security Adviser, to the newly elected President and NATO’s Senior Civilian Representative to Afghanistan (More on Resolute Support Mission in Afghanistan). Resolute Support will have approximately 12,000 personnel from NATO Allies and partner countries. It will operate with one hub (Kabul/Bagram) and four spokes (Mazar-e Sharif, Herat, Kandahar and Jalalabad). At the Chicago Summit, Allied leaders and their partners committed to play their part in the financial sustainment of the ANSF after 2014. This commitment too was reaffirmed at the NATO Summit in Wales. 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 appropriate, coherent and effective funding mechanisms and expenditure arrangements for all strands of the ANSF.

Wider cooperation and political consultation between NATO and Afghanistan beyond 2014 is also being developed within the framework of the NATO-Afghanistan Enduring Partnership, whose declaration was signed by NATO and the Afghan government at NATO’s Lisbon Summit in 2010 (see below).

NATO’s continued commitment to Afghanistan after 2014 will remain part of a collective effort by the international community. At the July 2012 Tokyo Conference on Afghanistan (Tokyo Declaration),
the broader international community and the Afghan government laid the groundwork for the
sustainable development of Afghanistan, taking into account the situation after 2014. At the
conference, the Afghan government also made clear commitments to making progress in a number
of areas, including: 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. (Tokyo Annex on mutual accountability)

Building the capacity of Afghan National Security Forces
Developing professional, capable and self-sustaining Afghan National Security Forces has been at the
centre of ISAF’s efforts and the core mission of the NATO Training Mission in Afghanistan (NTM-A).
This enables the implementation of the transition process until end 2014 and will also guide NATO’s
commitment to Afghanistan over the long term. ISAF has helped build up the ANSF from scratch to
approximately 350,000 soldiers and police officers. Since its creation in 2002, the Afghan National
Army (ANA) has been progressively moving from an infantry-centric force to a fully-fledged army to
comprise 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) is shifting 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 has been
steadily increasing its personnel, including aircrew and maintenance and support personnel, and its
fleet of fixed-wing and rotary-wing aircraft.

Today, the ANSF conduct 95 per cent of conventional operations and 98 per cent of Special Forces
operations.

Developing self sustaining Afghan security forces is NATO’s priority and an ongoing endeavour. That
is why the Alliance will remain committed to support Afghanistan after 2014.

NATO’s training, mentoring and advising role in Afghanistan
NATO’s Training Mission in Afghanistan (NTM-A) was established on 21 November 2009, bringing
together NATO and national training efforts under one umbrella. It has worked in close partnership
with the Afghan Ministry of Defence and the Ministry of Interior, as well as the European Police
Mission in Afghanistan (EUPOL).

Upon its creation, NTM-A’s key tasks included the provision of training and mentoring to the ANSF,
support to the ANA’s institutional training base, and the ANP reform at the district level and below. It
also aimed to address the ANA enabling capability shortfalls (including close air support, medical
evacuation and intelligence) through ‘train the trainer’ programmes.

NTM-A’s efforts have been complemented by those of ISAF’s Joint Command (IJC), which is
responsible for developing fielded ANSF units through advising and assisting teams. Originally, these
teams were the Operational Mentoring and Liaison Teams (OMLTs) and the Police Operational
Mentoring and Liaison Teams (POMLTs). These have gradually evolved into Military Advisory Teams
(MATs) and Police Advisory Teams (PATs), respectively. All these teams are now more generically
called Security Force Assistance Teams (SFATs).

As the ANSF grew in size and capacity, NTM-A has been reorganised and its functions are now
performed under IJC command. With most training now being performed by the Afghan security
forces themselves, capacity building efforts are now focused on providing advice at the ministerial level.

**NATO’s Enduring Partnership with Afghanistan**

At the 2010 Summit, NATO and Afghanistan reaffirmed their long-term ties with the signing of a Declaration on Enduring Partnership. The document provides a framework for long-term political consultations and practical cooperation between NATO and Afghanistan after 2014. The initial set of Enduring Partnership activities, agreed by foreign ministers in April 2011, brings together a number of previously separate initiatives. Over time, the Enduring Partnership will evolve to reflect the changing nature of NATO’s mission and its relationship with Afghanistan.

Cooperation within the framework of the Enduring Partnership currently includes:

- Capacity-building efforts, such as professional military education programmes;
- the Building Integrity Programme, which provides tools to help strengthen integrity, transparency and accountability and reduce the risk of corruption in defence and security sectors assisting in the process of further normalisation of the Afghan civil aviation sector;
- the SILK-Afghanistan project which provides affordable, high-speed Internet access via satellite and fibre optics to Afghan universities and governmental institutions in Kabul;
- training in civil emergency planning and disaster preparedness;
- and public diplomacy efforts to promote a better understanding of NATO and its role in Afghanistan.

**Working with partners**

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 to Afghanistan, the World Bank, the European Union and the development community.

The Alliance also works closely with many non-member countries to help secure Afghanistan’s future. Currently, ISAF troop contributors include 21 partners from as far afield as Australia and Latin America. Altogether, they represent almost a quarter of all the member countries of the United Nations, underlining the broad international support for ISAF’s mission. Over the years, Australia, Georgia and Jordan have been among the top non-NATO troop-contributing nations.

Beyond troop contributors, many partners are supporting ISAF’s mission and the international community’s objectives in Afghanistan in other ways, such as through over-flight and transit rights, or through financial support for building ANSF capacity and for development projects.
NATO-led Resolute Support Mission in Afghanistan

While the mission of the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) will be completed at the end of 2014, training, advice and assistance for the Afghan security forces and institutions will continue through a new, follow-on NATO-led mission called Resolute Support. This mission will not involve combat. Its support will be directed primarily to Afghan ministries and institutions, as well as the higher command level of the Afghan security forces. Planning and force generation are well underway.

The detailed operation plan for Resolute Support was approved by NATO Foreign Ministers at the end of June 2014. The legal framework for the Resolute Support Mission (RSM) is provided by a Status of Forces Agreement (SOFA), which was signed in Kabul on 30 September 2014 by the newly inaugurated 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.

Approximately 12,000 personnel from both NATO and partner nations will be deployed in support of the mission. The mission is planned to operate with one central hub (in Kabul/Bagram) and four spokes in Mazar-e Sharif, Herat, Kandahar and Jalalabad.

Key functions will 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.

Beyond the training, advice and assistance mission, Allies and partners countries are committed to the broader international community’s support for the long-term financial sustainment of the Afghan security forces.
ISAF’s mission in Afghanistan

NATO’s primary objective in Afghanistan is to enable the Afghan government to provide effective security across the country and develop new Afghan security forces to ensure Afghanistan can never again become a safe haven for terrorists. The 48 nations which make up the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) have been supporting the Afghan National Security Forces (ANSF) in the conduct of security operations throughout the country. Since 2011, responsibility for security has gradually been transitioned to the Afghans and ISAF’s mission has shifted from a combat-centric role to a more enabling role focusing on training, advising and assisting. With the launch of the final stage of the transition process in June 2013, the Afghan forces have taken the lead for security across the whole country. ISAF’s mission will be completed at the end of 2014. A new, smaller non-combat mission (“Resolute Support”) will provide further support for the continued development and sustainment of the Afghan security forces and institutions post-2014.

ISAF’s priorities

In support of the Afghan government, ISAF is helping the ANSF to reduce the capability and the will of the insurgency and to progressively increase its own capacity and capabilities. ISAF is also helping to create the space and lay the foundations for improvements in governance and socio-economic development for sustainable stability.

ISAF provides support to the 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 is to build professional, independent and sustainable ANA and ANP forces that are able to provide security and law enforcement to the Afghan people throughout the country. This work is carried out jointly by the NATO Training Mission-Afghanistan (NTM-A) and ISAF’s Joint Command (IJC), together with the European Police Mission in Afghanistan (EUPOL) and other important national actors. NTM-A focuses on training initial recruits and building the institutional training capability of the ANSF, while the IJC is responsible for developing fielded ANSF units through advice and assistance.

ISAF has 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 is conducted by national and international actors. Where appropriate – and in close coordination and cooperation with the Afghan government and the United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan (UNAMA) – ISAF has provided practical support for reconstruction and development efforts as well as support for humanitarian assistance efforts conducted by other actors.

PRTs have also helped the Afghan authorities 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 has been to build capacity, support the growth of governance structures and promote an environment in which governance can improve.

By the time transition to Afghan full security responsibility is completed at the end of 2014, all PRTs will have been phased out and their functions handed over to the Afghan government, traditional development actors, non-governmental organisations and the private sector.
**ISAF Mission Evolution**

Transition to full Afghan security responsibility started in July 2011 and is well underway. The ANSF are growing stronger and more capable. As a result, ISAF’s role has changed from leading operations to enabling the Afghan security forces to conduct independent operations themselves.

This means that ISAF’s mission has evolved from one focused primarily on combat to an enabling Security Force Assistance (SFA) role, which centres on training, advising and assisting its Afghan partners. The aim of this evolution is to ensure that ISAF continues to support the development of ANSF operational effectiveness, so that they are able to fully assume their security responsibilities by the completion of the transition to full Afghan security responsibility at the end of 2014.

As the ANSF progress towards that goal, the ISAF forces are gradually stepping back and starting to redeploy to their home countries. This drawdown is taking 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. This was a critical step in the transition towards full Afghan security responsibility by end 2014, which was agreed with the Afghan government at the NATO Summit in Lisbon in 2010 and reaffirmed at the NATO Summit in Chicago in 2012. (More on ISAF mission evolution)

ISAF’s mission in Afghanistan will cease at the end of 2014. However, as agreed by Allied leaders and their ISAF partners with the Afghan government at the Chicago Summit in May 2012 and reaffirmed at the Wales Summit in September 2014 NATO will lead a new, mission to train, advise and assist the ANSF after 2014. The post-2014 mission will be called “Resolute Support” and will not be a combat mission. It will be smaller in size and will focus on the security ministries and national institutional levels and on the higher levels of army and police commands. (More on Resolute Support Mission in Afghanistan)

**ISAF’s mandate**

The International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) has been deployed since 2001 on the basis of a request for assistance by the Afghan authorities and a 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 is a UN-mandated international force under Chapter VII of the UN Charter. Eighteen UN Security Council Resolutions relate 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 provides additional guidance for ISAF operations.

**History of ISAF**

**Origin 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, the United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan (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 United Nations 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 Summit meeting of the NATO Heads of State and Government in Istanbul, NATO announced that it would 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, meeting at NATO Headquarters in Brussels, the Allied 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 includes the deployment of ISAF training and mentoring teams to Afghan National Army units at various levels of command.
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 is gradually being transitioned from the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) to the Afghan National Security Forces (ANSF). The aim is for Afghan forces to have full responsibility for security across the country by the end of 2014. This target was set at the 2010 NATO Summit in Lisbon and confirmed by Allied leaders at the Chicago Summit in May 2012. While ISAF will complete its mission by end 2014, support for the further development of the ANSF will continue 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).

Download (.JPG/1,7Mb)

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.

Download (.JPG/1,8Mb)

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.

Download (.JPG/2Mb)

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.

Download (.JPG/1Mb)
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**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>28 August 2008</td>
<td>Lead security responsibility for Kabul city transferred to Afghan forces.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 November 2009</td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 July 2010</td>
<td>Kabul Conference; the Joint Afghan-NATO Inteqal Board (JANIB) is established as the mechanism to assess districts and provinces for transition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 November 2010</td>
<td>NATO Lisbon Summit; the <em>Inteqal</em> process is agreed between the Afghan government and NATO.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 March 2011</td>
<td>Afghan New Year; President Karzai announces the first set of Afghan provinces and districts to start the transition process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 July 2011</td>
<td>First transition ceremony takes place in Bamiyan Province.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 November 2011</td>
<td>President Karzai announces the second set of Afghan provinces, districts and cities to start the transition process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 May 2012</td>
<td>President Karzai announces the third tranche of transition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 December 2012</td>
<td>President Karzai announces the fourth set of Afghan provinces, districts and cities to start the transition process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 June 2013</td>
<td>Official ceremony during which President Karzai announces the fifth and final tranche of transition.</td>
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</table>
Developing Afghan security forces

Developing professional, capable and sustainable Afghan security forces is a priority task for the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF), as requested by the Afghan Government and mandated by the United Nations Security Council. The NATO Training Mission–Afghanistan (NTM-A) and the ISAF Joint Command (IJC) work together with the Afghan Ministries of Defence and Interior to achieve this objective.

The Afghan National Security Forces (ANSF) are made up of the Afghan National Army (ANA), Afghan Air Force (AAF) and the Afghan National Police (ANP), along with the Afghan Local Police and Afghanistan’s intelligence agency, the National Directorate of Security (NDS).

Since the launch of the fifth and final tranche of the transition process in June 2013, the Afghan security forces are in the lead for security across the country. ISAF no longer plans, executes or leads combat operations but continues to support the ANSF, including with combat support as necessary. Meanwhile, ISAF is pursuing a measured redeployment of its forces in a coordinated, coherent and progressive way. By the end of 2014, this transition process will be complete, the Afghan security forces will be fully responsible for security in Afghanistan and the ISAF mission will end.

NATO is planning a follow-on mission to train, advise and assist the Afghan security forces. It will focus on national- and institutional-level training and the higher levels of army and police command, and will be carried out across Afghanistan. NATO is also planning to continue to do its part, as part of the broader international community’s effort to support the long-term sustainment of the Afghan security forces, through the NATO-ANA Trust Fund. Rules governing the use of the ANA Trust Fund after 2014 were agreed by foreign ministers in December 2013 to ensure that money given by the donors is spent in an accountable, transparent and cost-effective way.

Afghan National Army

Created in 2002, the Afghan National Army (ANA) has grown to more than 189,000 personnel, including nearly 11,000 Special Operations Forces. It is developing both fighting elements and enabling capabilities - such as military police, intelligence, route clearance, combat support, medical, aviation and logistics.

The Afghan Air Force (AAF) was created in 2007 as part of the ANA. It now has approximately 6,800 personnel, including aircrew and maintenance and support personnel, and has a fleet of 102 fixed-wing and rotary-wing aircraft. Airlift and air power are essential elements of the Afghan counter-insurgency, while combined helicopter gunship and, eventually, close air support and fixed-wing capability, will allow Afghan security forces to conduct largely independent operations. The AAF has begun the development of an airborne medical evacuation capability, providing specialised emergency medical care in remote areas. Afghan crews are now flying solo transport and rescue flights in Afghanistan.

Throughout 2013, the Afghan Air Force has exceeded expectations in close air support and evacuation mission. By 31 December 2013, more than 1,500 patients have been flown by the Afghan Air Force for treatment, compared to approximately 400 in 2012.
Afghan National Police

Currently, the Afghan National Police (ANP) consists of approximately 153,000 personnel. Its role is progressively shifting from countering the insurgency to a more civilian policing role, by further developing capabilities from criminal investigations to traffic control.

The primary branches of the ANP include:

- The Afghan Uniformed Police (AUP) is the police force designed to provide basic law and order services to the people in villages and districts. They are assigned to Police Districts and Provincial and Regional Commands. The AUP also includes Traffic Police, Fire and Rescue and a United Nations Protective Force.
- The Afghan National Civil Order Police (ANCOP) is the premiere counter-insurgency (COIN) force. It is a nationally deployable police force that works closely with the Army as part of its COIN mission and maintains the rule of law and order utilising proportionate armed capabilities.
- The Afghan Border Police (ABP) provides the Afghan Ministry of Interior (MoI) with a general law enforcement capability at international borders, entry points and in the Border Security Zone, which extends 50 km into Afghan territory. In addition, the ABP controls pedestrian and vehicular traffic at border crossing points, deters and detects illegal entry and other criminal activity along the border and is responsible for airport security at five international airports.

Afghan Local Police

Established in July 2010, the Afghan Local Police (ALP) programme is led by the Afghan Ministry of Interior. It is village-focused and complements counter-insurgency efforts by targeting rural areas with limited to no ANSF presence in order to enable conditions for improved security, governance and development. The ALP programme exists in districts where the local populace has requested an ALP presence. These communities then select local defenders to serve as their ALP. The United States supports the ALP programme through the provision of funding, training, equipping and technical assistance to the Afghan Ministry of Interior.

To date, about 27,000 ALP personnel are serving in 134 validated districts. The ALP programme remains on track to achieve the goal of 30,000 members.

NATO Training Mission–Afghanistan (NTM-A)

At the April 2009 Strasbourg-Kehl Summit, NATO Heads of State and Government decided to expand the ISAF mission to oversee higher-level training for the ANA, and training and mentoring for the ANP. NTM-A was established in November 2009 to bring together NATO and national training efforts in this regard.

- Upon its creation, NTM-A’s key tasks included the provision of training and mentoring to the Afghan National Security Forces, support the ANA’s institutional training base, and the ANP reform at the district level and below. It also aimed to address the ANA enabling capability shortfalls (including close air support, medical evacuation and intelligence) through ‘train the trainer’ programmes.
- NTM-A’s efforts are complemented by those of ISAF’s Joint Command (JJC), which is responsible for developing fielded ANSF units through advising and assisting teams. Originally, these teams were the Operational Mentor and Liaison Teams (OMLTs) and the
Police Operational Mentor and Liaison Teams (POMLTs). These have gradually evolved into Military Advisory Teams (MATs) and Police Advisory Teams (PATs), respectively. All these teams are now more generically called Security Force Assistance Teams (SFATs).

- As the ANSF grew in size and capacity, NTM-A has been reorganised and its functions are now performed under IJC command. With most training now being performed by the Afghan security forces themselves, NTM-A’s role is now focused on providing advice at the ministerial level.

**Target growth**

The total strength target for the ANSF is 352,000 personnel, as agreed by the Security Standing Committee of the Joint Coordination and Monitoring Board in June 2011. This target has been reached.

Attrition does, however, remain a problem. Reducing attrition is essential for the long-term viability of the ANSF, especially with respect to retaining quality personnel. Steps have been undertaken by the Afghan security leadership to address this issue, including measures to prevent Absence Without Leave (AWOL) and the establishment of the Special ANSF Leave Travel Program (SALT-P) aimed at facilitating soldiers’ leave through the use of contracted commercial and military aircraft.

The sustainment of the ANSF post-2014 remains the responsibility of the Afghan Government and the international community as a whole. At the International Afghanistan Conference in Bonn on 5 December 2011, the wider international community decided to support the training, equipping, financing and capability development of the ANSF beyond the end of the transition period. At the NATO Chicago Summit in May 2012, NATO Allies and ISAF partners reaffirmed their strong commitment to continuing to their part in the financial sustainment of the ANSF after 2014.

**A representative force**

There are over 2,500 women in uniformed positions across the Afghan National Security Forces (more than 700 in the ANA, more than 50 in the AAF, and more than 1,700 in the ANP). Considerable efforts have also been invested in building an inclusive army that provides a cadre of women soldiers and reflects the overall ethnic make-up of the country. The Ministry of Defence has developed a special recruitment drive to increase the level of southern Pashtun participation, which has been on the constant rise.

**Recruitment and vetting**

The recruitment of potential Afghan soldiers and police follows a strict vetting process, which includes eight steps: an identification check, two guarantors, personal information verification, a criminal check, a verification stamp, drug screening, medical screening and personal data (biometric) screening.

A nation-wide programme to screen and re-validate every ANSF member already in service is currently ongoing. All ANSF members are re-screened following return from leave.

**Counter-infiltration plan**

On 14 March 2012, following a request by NATO Defence Ministers, the North Atlantic Council endorsed a plan to reduce the risk of attacks on ISAF by ANSF personnel. The plan was developed by the commander of ISAF in close cooperation with his Afghan counterparts and is being implemented.
The plan is aimed at strengthening ISAF security measures; revising and improving vetting and monitoring procedures for the ANSF; and intensifying cultural awareness training for both ISAF and the ANSF to bridge the cultural gap.

In cooperation with ISAF, the ANSF have also undertaken several initiatives to improve their recruitment, vetting and screening processes. In addition, counter-infiltration staff have been embedded with the ANSF and in training schools to monitor the behaviour of Afghan service members. The ANSF are also to focus on strengthening leadership; ensuring that soldiers and police get adequate leave and regular pay; that weapons are accounted for properly, and that all ANSF are medically screened and drug tested.

**Sustaining the ANSF**

Since 2009, NATO’s ANA Trust Fund has been the main conduit for the international community to support the long-term sustainment of the ANA, while the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) Law and Order Trust Fund for Afghanistan (LOTFA) remains the primary vehicle for supporting the sustainment of the ANP.

**The NATO-ANA Trust Fund**

The NATO-ANA Trust Fund supports the following activities:

- transportation and installation costs for equipment donations by ISAF nations to the ANA;
- purchase of ANA equipment and services for engineering projects;
- in- and out-of-country training;
- support to the long-term sustainment of the ANA. The NATO-ANA Trust Fund complements other bilateral and multinational trust funds which support the ANSF financially and with equipment donations. The US Afghan Security Forces Funding represents the most significant bilateral financial initiative.

As of February 2014, national contributions and pledges made to the NATO-ANA Trust Fund total more than €637 million.

**The NATO-Russia Council Helicopter Maintenance Trust Fund**

Launched in March 2011, the NATO-Russia Council (NRC) Trust Fund provides vitally-needed maintenance and repair capacity, including the provision of spare parts and technician training, to the AAF helicopter fleet. As of November 2013, some 40 personnel have received training under the project. The second phase of this project, launched in April 2013, includes activities on more types of helicopters and in support to the development of the AAF medical evacuation capabilities.
NATO’s Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan
The Senior Civilian Representative carries forward the Alliance’s political-military objectives in Afghanistan, liaising with the Afghan Government, civil society, representatives of the international community and neighbouring countries.

He represents the political leadership of the Alliance in Kabul officially and publicly.

Who is currently holding this function?
Ambassador Maurits R. Jochems from the Netherlands took office as the NATO Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan on 10 October 2012.

What is his or her authority, tasks and responsibilities?
Working closely with NATO’s International Security Assistance Force (ISAF), the Senior Civilian Representative provides a direct channel of communication between the theatre, NATO HQ 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 co-ordinates 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 Representative also maintains contacts with representatives of neighbouring countries, as well as with various political actors, representatives of Afghan civil society and representatives of international NGOs.

How is he or she selected and for how long?
The Representative is appointed by the NATO Secretary General on an ad-hoc basis. His mandate is limited in time and renewable in light of political developments in Afghanistan.

How did it evolve?
NATO created the position of a Senior Civilian Representative in October 2003, to represent the political leadership of the Alliance in Kabul.
SILK-Afghanistan

Expanding internet connectivity in Afghanistan

Named after the Great Silk Road trading route linking Asia and Europe, the SILK-Afghanistan project provides high-speed internet access via satellite and fiber optics to 18 Afghan universities as well as some governmental institutions in Kabul. The project assists the Afghan authorities in developing their educational system. It became operational at Kabul University in Afghanistan in 2006 and the network has since been expanded to the provinces.

Today, the vast majority of university students and lecturers from 18 universities in Baghlan, Balkh, Bamiyan, Faryab, Ghazni, Helmand, Herat, Jawzjan, Kabul (four universities), Kandahar, Khost, Kunduz, Nangarhar, Paktia and Parwan provinces are connected to the information highway through the SILK-Afghanistan project. A further four universities in Badakhshan, Kapisa, Samangan and Takhar, are expected to be added to the network by summer 2013.

Over the past few years, the Afghan Ministry of Higher Education and some fifteen universities across the country have been equipped with video conferencing systems and the aim is eventually to equip all universities with this facility.

A Metropolitan Area Network (MAN), which has been up-and-running since autumn 2009, provides internet connectivity to a number of government and academic institutions in Kabul. The MAN consists of a WiMax “blanket” connected to the network operation centre at Kabul University.

SILK-Afghanistan is jointly funded by the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) programme and the US Department of State. In addition to connectivity, it provides extra funding to build information technology (IT) infrastructure and to train IT staff at the universities.

The programme builds 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 from 2002 to 2010.
NATO’s relations with Pakistan
Prime Minister of Pakistan Yousuf Raza Gilani and NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen (June 2010).

Over recent years, NATO has developed relations with a range of countries beyond the Euro-Atlantic area. Pakistan is counted among these countries, which are referred to as “partners across the globe.” NATO’s relations with the country have developed progressively since the Alliance assisted Pakistan following the devastating earthquake in 2005. Political dialogue and practical cooperation have since expanded significantly, in particular on Afghanistan. Allied nations and Pakistan share a common interest in stability in the region and in defeating extremism.

With NATO leading the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF), Afghanistan is an important focus of cooperation (see below), especially regarding the shared objective of bringing security and stability to the country. Several high-level political talks between NATO and Pakistan have also addressed other areas of concern, including narcotics trafficking in Afghanistan and Afghan refugees. Allied leaders at the May 2012 NATO Summit in Chicago reaffirmed that “countries in the region, particularly Pakistan, have important roles in ensuring enduring peace, stability and security in Afghanistan and in facilitating the completion of the transition process.”

NATO-Pakistan relations go beyond the Alliance’s mission in Afghanistan. NATO and Pakistan have developed regular exchanges at various levels, including visits by senior officials and leaders in civil society. High-level political exchanges have taken place, including visits by the former and current NATO Secretary General. President Asif Ali Zardari has previously visited NATO Headquarters to address the North Atlantic Council on his vision for cooperation. Military consultations also take place, and NATO has opened selected training and education courses to Pakistani officers.

Secretary General Rasmussen visited Islamabad in July 2010, when it was agreed to develop a Joint Political Declaration. However, developments in the country and the 26 November 2011 incident along the Afghan-Pakistani border hampered progress. President Zardari’s participation in the ISAF meeting at the Chicago Summit on 21 May 2012 highlighted efforts on both sides to restore a full-fledged relationship.

Past interactions have provided opportunities to support the democratically elected authorities, cooperate with the military, build trust and understanding, and promote a culture of cooperative security focused on areas of common interest, such as regional stability and the fight against terrorism. NATO also aims to multiply interactions with parliamentarians, opinion leaders and the civil society at large to encourage dialogue on NATO’s policies.

The Allies’ adoption of a more efficient and flexible partnership policy in April 2011 paved the way to enhance practical cooperation and political dialogue with “partners across the globe” in the same fashion as with other partners. This means that Pakistan, like other partners, will have access to NATO’s Partnership Cooperation Menu (PCM) should the country wish to develop a formal bilateral programme of cooperation with NATO.

Cooperation on Afghanistan
Instability, extremism and terrorism in Afghanistan pose a threat to both Pakistan and the wider international community. As Pakistan’s then Prime Minister Shaukat Aziz put it during a visit to NATO on 30 January 2007, “Pakistan is committed to a strong, stable Afghanistan. The one country that will
benefit the most, after Afghanistan itself, will be Pakistan.” Although Pakistan has expressed reservations with some operational issues, dialogue on Afghanistan is continuing with the Alliance.

Pakistan’s support for the efforts of NATO and the international community in Afghanistan remains crucial to the success of the Alliance’s mission. In early July 2012, NATO’s Secretary General welcomed Pakistan’s announcement that the ground supply lines to Afghanistan – which had been closed since November 2011 – were re-opening, allowing for the resumption of the transit of ISAF supplies through Pakistan.

The work of the Tripartite Commission, a joint forum on military and security issues that brings together representatives from the NATO-led ISAF operation, Afghanistan and Pakistan, reflects the importance of NATO-Pakistan military-to-military cooperation in the context of Afghanistan. The Tripartite Commission meets regularly at various levels to exchange views and discuss security matters of mutual concern. It focuses on four main areas of cooperation: intelligence sharing, border security, countering improvised explosive devices (IEDs) and initiatives relating to information operations. The Joint Intelligence Operations Centre (JIOC), a joint initiative designed to improve intelligence coordination between Afghanistan, ISAF and Pakistan, opened in Kabul in January 2007.

**Evolution of relations**

After a devastating earthquake struck Pakistan in October 2005, NATO launched an airlift of urgently needed supplies and deployed engineers, medical units and specialist equipment to the country. In order to facilitate the relief effort, NATO established a massive air-bridge, in addition to utilizing the assets of the NATO Response Force (NRF).

Following the end of the mission in February 2006, political dialogue between NATO and Pakistan intensified. Practical cooperation has gradually enhanced the relationship, starting with the opening of NATO training courses to Pakistani officers. Since 2009, NATO has developed a Tailored Cooperative Package (TCP) of Activities, listing a series of education and training opportunities open to Pakistani officers and representatives. Contacts between the Pakistani senior military leadership and NATO’s authorities were also intensified in this context. In addition, NATO recently organised multiple activities aimed at making its role clearer to the Pakistani public, including visits of parliamentarians, opinion leaders and journalists.

Pakistan and NATO’s relationship continued to develop during devastating floods along the Indus River in July 2010. Responding to a request from Pakistan for help, NATO member nations, partner countries and other non-governmental organizations donated several hundred tonnes of humanitarian aid in the form of generators, food, boats, tents, clothing, medical equipment and supplies, field hospitals, blankets, mosquito nets and water purification systems. Coordinated by NATO’s Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC), the Alliance provided airlift and sealift assistance, starting in August 2010, for the delivery of the donated goods.

At their meeting in Berlin in April 2011, Allied Foreign Ministers listed Pakistan as one of NATO’s partners across the globe. As such, in the framework of the establishment of a single Partnership Cooperation Menu (PCM) open to all NATO partners, Pakistan will be able to access a wide range of cooperation activities with the Alliance and develop a more effective individual programme.
Milestones

2005
(March) Visit to Pakistan by Ambassador Alessandro Minuto Rizzo, NATO Deputy Assistant Secretary General.

(October) Start of Pakistan earthquake relief operation; NATO airlifts supplies via two air bridges, from Germany and Turkey.

(December) General Ahsan Saleem Hyat, Vice Chief of Pakistani Army Staff, visits NATO teams at Arja, Pakistan.

2006
(January) End of NATO’s earthquake relief operation in Pakistan. Almost 3500 tons of relief supplies, over 7600 people moved, more than 8000 patients treated. In addition, roads cleared, schools and shelters built.

(May) Alliance officials visit Pakistani President Pervez Musharraf and other officials in Islamabad.

(September) First Pakistani military officers and civilians attend courses at NATO School in Oberammergau, Germany.

(November) First visit by top Pakistani officer, General Ehsan ul Haq, Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, to NATO Headquarters.

2007
(January) Opening of Joint Intelligence Operations Centre (JIOC) at ISAF HQ. The JIOC facilitates joint intelligence operations between ISAF and the Pakistani and Afghan armies.

(January) Visit to NATO by Prime Minister of Pakistan; NATO and Pakistan agree on Afghanistan approach.

(February) Visit of high-level Pakistani civil and military officials, as well as representatives of the think-tank community, to NATO HQ and commands.

(May) First visit by a NATO Secretary General to Pakistan. NATO and Pakistan agree to hold regular high-level political exchanges.

2008
(January) NATO Secretary General Jaap de Hoop Scheffer met President Pervez Musharraf in Brussels to discuss current security situation in the region and cooperation between NATO and Pakistan.

(January) A visit by the Senate’s Joint Standing Committee on Defence was organised to NATO HQ and SHAPE. Pakistani parliamentarians have also been invited by the NPA to its plenary meetings including in Berlin and Valencia.

(November) Pakistani Chief of Army Staff General Ashfaq Parvez Kayani meets NATO Secretary General at NATO Headquarters.

2009
(January) NATO Secretary General Jaap de Hoop Scheffer visits Pakistan for meetings with President Zardari, Prime Minister Gilani, Foreign Minister Qureshi, Defence Minister Mukhtar and General Kayani, Chief of the General Staff, as well as
other senior officials.

(January) The North Atlantic Council agree on the role of the Embassy of Turkey in Islamabad as the NATO Contact Point Embassy in Pakistan. This crucial step complements the practical cooperation framework to facilitate political exchange and working-level coordination.

(May) Pakistani Chief of Army Staff General Kayani visits NATO Headquarters for meetings with NATO’s civilian and military leadership.

(June) President of Pakistan Asif Ali Zardari visits NATO Headquarters for a meeting with the North Atlantic Council – the first elected President of Pakistan to address the Council.

(August) A group of Pakistani opinion leaders visits NATO Headquarters and SHAPE.

(October) A seminar on Pakistan is held, at which international experts on the country engage in discussion with NATO Ambassadors.

(December) NATO and Pakistan establish an annual work programme or Individual Tailored Cooperation Package (TCP) of activities which provides the basis for practical cooperation.

2010

(February) Pakistani Minister of Foreign Affairs, Shah Mahmood Qureshi, meets the Secretary General and addresses the North Atlantic Council.

(June) Pakistani Prime Minister Yousuf Raza Gilani, accompanied by a large government and parliamentary delegation, meet the Secretary General and address the North Atlantic Council.

(July) First visit by NATO Secretary General Rasmussen to Islamabad, during which an agreement is reached with the Government of Pakistan to jointly develop a political declaration as a framework for partnership.

(August) Following Pakistan’s request for help, NATO begins providing airlift and sealift assistance for the transport of humanitarian aid donated after the country’s devastating floods. More than 700 tons of humanitarian items have been delivered on some 19 flights to assist the Pakistani population.

2011

(September) EADRCC is activated at Pakistan’s request in response to monsoon floods.

(November) Pakistan closes ground communication lines for ISAF transit following an incident along the Afghan-Pakistani border.
2012

(May) President Zardari participates in the extended format ISAF meeting at NATO’s Chicago Summit.

(July) Pakistan announces the re-opening of ground supply lines to Afghanistan for the transit of ISAF supplies.
NATO-led peace-support operations in the Balkans

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.

Today, approximately 4,500 troops from the NATO-led Kosovo Force (KFOR), provided by 30 countries continue to work towards maintaining a safe and secure environment and freedom of movement for all citizens and communities in Kosovo.

Throughout Kosovo, KFOR is 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. In April 2013, Belgrade and Pristina reached an Agreement on Normalisation, which is helping to improve relations between both parties while giving new momentum to the Euro-Atlantic integration of the Western Balkans. NATO and KFOR stand ready to support the implementation of this agreement within its means and capabilities.

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 force posture are decided by the North Atlantic Council (NAC) as the security situation on the ground evolves.

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) and KFOR stands ready to support its implementation.
KFOR derives its mandate from UNSCR 1244 (1999) and the Military-Technical Agreement between NATO, the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and Serbia.

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 continues to help maintain a safe and secure environment and freedom of movement for all people 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.

KFOR’s tasks

Initial tasks
KFOR tasks have included 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-down of the Kosovo Protection Corps
The KPC was conceived as a transitional post-conflict arrangement, under the responsibility of the United Nations Mission in Kosovo. Its mandate was to provide disaster-response services, perform search and rescue, provide a capacity for humanitarian assistance in isolated areas, assist de-mining and contribute to rebuilding infrastructure and communities.

The KPC ceased its operational activities on 20 January 2009 and was formally dissolved on 14 June 2009. In parallel, the Kosovo Security Force was developed to ensure that key capabilities were available for emergency situations.

Stand-up of the Kosovo Security Force / NATO Liaison and Advisory Team
NATO has supervised the stand-up and training of a multi-ethnic, professional and civilian-controlled Kosovo Security Force. The KSF is a lightly armed volunteer force, with no heavy weapons such as tanks, heavy artillery or offensive air capability. 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 first Kosovo-wide recruitment campaign for the KSF started on 21 January 2009 and focused on encouraging all minority communities in Kosovo to apply. The recruitment process was carried out in two official languages: Albanian and Serbian. Initial operational capability was reached in mid-September 2009, with some 1,500 personnel; full operational capability was declared by the North Atlantic Council on 9 July 2013, with approximately 2,200 active personnel. The KSF’s total strength is mandated to a maximum of 2,500 active personnel and 800 reservists.

In order to continue supporting the KSF, the Alliance established the NATO Liaison and Advisory Team (NLAT) in July 2013. The NLAT is distinct from KFOR and consists of approximately 35 military and civilian personnel. Based in Pristina, this body is charged with providing advice and support to the KSF at brigade level and above, focusing on staff capacity-building and training.

Establish a civilian-led body to supervise the KSF / NATO Advisory Team
NATO assisted and continues to assist in establishing a civilian-led organisation that exercises control over the KSF. Primary responsibility for this task rests with NATO Headquarters in Brussels; KFOR is tasked to support the NATO Advisory Team that has been established in Pristina.

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 Major General Francesco Paolo Figliuolo. He assumed command of the Kosovo Force on 3 September 2014.

Former KFOR commanders

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KFOR deploys
UN Security Council Resolution (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; both processes are currently underway.

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.
The Kosovo Air Campaign

Operation Allied Force
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.
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.

In the light of the improved security situation in both Bosnia and Herzegovina and the wider region, the Alliance brought SFOR to a conclusion in December 2004 and the European Union (EU) took on NATO’s stabilisation role.

NATO provides planning, logistic and command support for the EU-led Operation Althea, in accordance with the Berlin Plus arrangements agreed between the two organisations.

NATO is also maintaining a military headquarters in Sarajevo. It carries out a number of specific tasks related, in particular, to assisting the government in reforming its defence structures, working on counter-terrorism and apprehending war-crime suspects. 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 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 and strictly speaking, 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**

FOR'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. Through its military headquarters in Sarajevo, NATO remains committed to bring to justice all war-crimes suspects still at large.

**Contributing to reconstruction**

In addition to helping other organisations working on Bosnia and Herzegovina’s reconstruction, SFOR launched its own Civil-Military Co-operation (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 was critical to providing freedom of movement throughout Bosnia and Herzegovina.

**Command of the missions**

As for all NATO operations, political control and co-ordination are provided by the North Atlantic Council, 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 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 Multi-National Task Forces (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. Outside of NATO countries, contributors were: Albania, Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia (which all became NATO members at a later stage), 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


Archived material - 2014
The evolution of NATO’s assistance
A four-year war started in Bosnia and Herzegovina when Yugoslavia (Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia¹, 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 Cooperation in Europe (subsequently renamed the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe). A month later, in July 1992, NATO began monitoring operations in the Adriatic in support of the UNSCR 713 and 757 imposing an arms embargo and sanctions in the former Yugoslavia.

By October 1992, NATO AWACS 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 multiethnic 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 HQ Sarajevo

The primary role of this NATO Military Liaison and Advisory Mission (NATO HQ Sarajevo) is to assist Bosnia and Herzegovina with defence reform. It also aims to help the country meet requirements for its participation in NATO’s Partnership for Peace (PfP) 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, the 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 Partner 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 totaled 7,000.

1. Turkey recognises the Republic of Macedonia with its constitutional name.
Peace support operations in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia

On the request of 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

On the request of the then president, NATO conducted three short-term operations to help quell tensions between the country’s Albanian ethnic minority and national security forces.

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 EU and the OSCE who 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.

On 13 August 2001, the Skopje government and ethnic Albanian representatives signed the Ohrid Framework Agreement. Under this agreement, the government pledged to improve the rights of its ethnic Albanian population. In exchange, ethnic Albanian representatives 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).

The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia has been a NATO Partner country since 1995 and joined the Membership Action Plan in 1999. NATO set up a military headquarters in Skopje to assist with security sector reform. At the 2008 Bucharest Summit, NATO leaders agreed to extend an invitation to the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia to join the Alliance as soon as a mutually acceptable solution to the issue over its name has been reached with Greece.

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 demilitarising 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 Cooperation in Europe who 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.

**Minimizing the risks of destabilization**
In response to an additional request from President Trajkovski, the North Atlantic Council agreed to continue supporting the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia¹ 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 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.

**NATO HQ Skopje**
NATO remains committed to helping the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia¹ integrate into Euro-Atlantic structures. To that end, NATO HQ Skopje was created in April 2002 to advise on military aspects of security sector reform.

1. Turkey recognises the Republic of Macedonia with its constitutional name.
NATO and Libya

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.

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.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>February 2011</td>
<td>Peaceful protests in Benghazi meet with violent repression by the Qadhafi regime.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 February 2011</td>
<td>The UN Security Council adopts Resolution 1970, which imposes an arms embargo on Libya.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 March 2011</td>
<td>NATO deploys AWACS aircraft to the region.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 March 2011</td>
<td>NATO moves ships to the Mediterranean Sea to boost the monitoring effort.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 March 2011</td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 March 2011</td>
<td>Several UN member states take immediate military action to protect Libyan civilians.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 March 2011</td>
<td>NATO decides to enforce the UN-mandated arms embargo.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 March 2011</td>
<td>NATO vessels in the Mediterranean begin cutting off the flow of weapons and mercenaries to Libya by sea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 March 2011</td>
<td>NATO takes the decision to enforce the UN-mandated no-fly zone over Libya in support of UNSCR 1973.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 March 2011</td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 April 2011</td>
<td>NATO foreign ministers and partners agree to use all necessary resources to carry out the UN mandate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 June 2011</td>
<td>NATO defence ministers and partners decide to continue Operation Unified Protector for as long as it takes to end the crisis in Libya.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 August 2011</td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 September</td>
<td>At a “Friends of Libya” meeting in Paris, international heads of state and government reiterate their commitment to protecting civilians in Libya.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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.
NATO's maritime domain

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 stakes of maritime security are high, and NATO is determined to help protect its Allies from any possible threats at sea or from the sea.

NATO’s Standing Naval Forces (SNF) and capabilities

NATO has Standing Naval Forces 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 Standing Naval Forces consist of four groups: the Standing NATO Maritime Groups (SNMGs) composed of the SNMG1 and the 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 currently alternate for six-month rotations conducting NATO’s counter-piracy Operation Ocean Shield and otherwise 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 fulfill 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.

**NATO’s maritime operations**

Built 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. Since October 2001, Operation Active Endeavour has been established to 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 view of its success, is being continued. Since 2009, Operation Ocean Shield has contributed to international efforts to suppress piracy and protect humanitarian aid shipments off the Horn of Africa. And in 2011, Operation Unified Protector delivered power from the sea and comprised a major maritime arms embargo on Libya.

**Alliance Maritime Strategy**

In order to address new threats, NATO adopted the Alliance Maritime Strategy in January 2011. In full consistency with the 2010 Strategic Concept, the Strategy sets out ways in which NATO’s unique maritime power could help resolve critical security challenges.

There are four areas in which NATO’s maritime forces can contribute to Alliance security. The first three are the “core tasks” of NATO, as defined by the Alliance’s Strategic Concept: deterrence and collective defence; crisis management; and cooperative security. In addition, the Maritime Strategy sets out a fourth area: maritime security.

**Deterrence and collective defence**

NATO has significant maritime capabilities and inherently flexible maritime forces, which are key to deterring aggression. As such, maritime activities contribute to nuclear deterrence as well as to deterrence from conventional attacks. NATO will ensure it can deploy its maritime forces rapidly, control sea lines of communication, preserve freedom of navigation and conduct effective mine counter-measure activities.

**Crisis management**

NATO maritime forces can also play an important role in crisis management. These responsibilities can include enforcing an arms embargo, conducting maritime interdiction operations, contributing to the Alliance’s counter-terrorism efforts, and providing immediate humanitarian assistance in the aftermath of a natural disaster.

**Cooperative security**

NATO’s maritime forces not only contribute to ensuring Alliance security. Engagement with partners also helps to build regional security and stability, contributes to conflict prevention and facilitates dialogue. These efforts also promote cooperation and complementarity with other key actors in the maritime domain, such as the United Nations and the European Union.
**Maritime security**

The Alliance Maritime Strategy reiterates NATO’s commitment to help protect vital sea lines of communication and maintain freedom of navigation. This includes surveillance, information sharing, maritime interdiction, and contributions to energy security, including the protection of critical infrastructure.

**Looking to the future**

Maritime security is rising on NATO’s agenda and Allies are increasingly determined to implement the Maritime Strategy – an objective the Alliance has set itself for the Wales Summit in September 2014. This endeavour encompasses a complete revamping of NATO’s maritime forces, an extensive multi-year programme of maritime exercises and training, and the enhancement of cooperation between NATO and its partners, as well as other international actors, in particular the European Union.
Counter-piracy operations

Piracy in the Gulf of Aden, off the Horn of Africa and in the Indian Ocean is undermining 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. NATO has been helping to deter and disrupt pirate attacks, while protecting vessels and helping to increase the general level of security in the region since 2008.

On the request of United Nations (UN) Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon, in late 2008, NATO started to provide escorts to UN World Food Programme (WFP) vessels transiting through these dangerous waters under Operation Allied Provider (October-December 2008). In addition to providing close protection to WFP chartered ships, NATO conducted deterrence patrols and prevented, for instance, vessels from being hijacked and their crews being taken hostage during pirate attacks. This operation was succeeded by Operation Allied Protector (March-August 2009), which continued to contribute to the safety of commercial maritime routes and international navigation. It also conducted surveillance and fulfilled the tasks previously undertaken by Operation Allied Provider. This operation evolved in August 2009 in Operation Ocean Shield.

Operation Ocean Shield also contributes to providing maritime security in the region and is helping to reduce the overall pirate attack success rate. The latter has been significantly reduced since multinational operations began. In order to respond to new piracy tactics, NATO has created greater synergies with other initiatives, recognised the continued need for regional capacity-building, within means and capabilities, and focused on areas where it provides added value. The March 2012 Strategic Assessment 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.

NATO is conducting counter-piracy activities in full complementarity with the relevant UN Security Council Resolutions and with actions against piracy initiated by other actors, such as the European Union.

Operation Ocean Shield – ongoing

The mission, its objectives and scope

Piracy and armed robbery are disrupting the delivery of humanitarian aid to Somalia, as well as threatening vital sea lines of communication (SLOC) and economic interests off the Horn of Africa, in the Gulf of Aden and in the Indian Ocean.

Building on the two previous counter-piracy missions conducted by NATO, Operation Ocean Shield principally focuses on at-sea counter-piracy operations. NATO vessels conduct, for instance, helicopter surveillance missions to trace and identify ships in the area, they help to prevent and disrupt hijackings and to suppress armed robbery. NATO has also agreed, at the request of the UN, to escort the UNSOA - United Nations Support Office for AMISOM - supply vessels to the harbour entrance of Mogadishu. The Alliance has 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 activities. More recently, NATO has also taken on measures aimed at eroding the pirates’ logistics and support bases.
In sum, NATO’s role is to prevent and stop piracy through direct actions against the pirates, as well as provide 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.

This operation was approved by the North Atlantic Council on 17 August 2009 and the mandate has been extended until the end of 2016.

**Composition and command of the naval force**

**The current rotation**

The Standing NATO Maritime Group 1 (SNMG1) is currently conducting Operation Ocean Shield under the command of Commodore (Royal Danish Navy) Aage Buur Jensen. Throughout his six-month command, the Danish flagship HDMS Absalon will be supported by ITS Mimbelli (Italy). Commodore Jensen is under the overall command of Vice Admiral Peter D. Hudson, Allied Maritime Command Headquarters Northwood (MARCOM), in the United Kingdom, which provides 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.
Previous rotations

January - June 2014 – SNMG2

Rear Admiral Eugenio Diaz del Rio (Spain)  
Flagship ESPS Cristobal Colon (initially ESPS Alvaro de Bazan)  
TCG Gökçeada (Turkey)  
HNLMS Evertsen (The Netherlands)  
ITS Mimbelli (Italy)  
TCG Gelibolu (Turkey)*  
HMNZS Te Mana (New Zealand)*  
* Ships initially assigned to the rotation.

June - Dec. 2013 – SNMG1

Rear Admiral Henning Amundsen (Norway)  
Flagship HNoMS Fridtjof Nansen (Norway)  
FF Esben Snare (Denmark)  
USS De Wert (USA)  
HNLMS Van Speijk (Netherlands)  
Frigate UPS Hetman Sagaidachny (Ukraine)

January-June 2013 - SNMG2

Rear Admiral Antonio Natale (Italy)  
ITS San Marco (Flagship – Italy)*;  
USS Halyburton (United States)*;  
HDMS Iver Huitfeldt (Denmark)*;  
USS Nicholas (United States);  
HNLMS Van Speijk (The Netherlands);  
TCG Gokova (Turkey).  
* Ships initially assigned to the rotation.

June- Dec. 2012 - SNMG1

Rear Commodore Ben Bekkering (Dutch Navy)  
HNLMS Evertsen (Flagship – The Netherlands)  
USS Taylor (United States)  
HNLMS Bruinvis (NL submarine)
January-June 2012 - SNMG2

Rear Admiral Sinan Tosun (Turkish Navy) | 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-Dec. 2011 - SNMG1

Rear Admiral Gualtiero Mattesi (Italian Navy) | ITS Andrea Doria (Flagship – Italy);
USS Carney (United States);
USS De Wert (United States);
NRP D. Francisco De Almeida (Portugal).

Dec. 2010- June 2011 - SNMG2

Commodore Michiel Hijmans (Royal Netherlands Navy) | HNLMS De Ruyter (Flagship – The Netherlands);
HDMS Esbern Snare (Denmark)
TCG Gaziantep (Turkey); and
USS Laboon (United States).

Aug. – early Dec. 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 Bersaglieri (Italy); and
HNLMS Zeeleeuw (NL submarine).

March-August 2010 - SNMG2
12 March-30 June: Commodore Steve Chick (UK)
- 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 (Royal Netherlands Navy)
- HNLMS De Zeven Provinciën (Flagship, The Netherlands)
- TCG Gelibolu (Turkey)
- USS Cole (United States)

Nov. 2009-March 2010 - SNMG1
- Commodore Christian Rune (succeeded Rear Admiral Jose Pereira de Cunha (PO) 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)

Aug. – Nov. 2009 - SNMG2
- Commodore Steve Chick (UK)
- HS Navarinon (Greece)
- ITS Libeccio (Italy)
- TCG Gediz (Turkey)
- HMS Cornwall (United Kingdom)
- USS Donald Cook (United States)

SNMG1 and SNMG 2
NATO has two Immediate Reaction Forces: the Standing NATO Maritime Groups composed of the SNMG1 and the SNMG2; and the Standing NATO Maritime Mine Countermeasure Groups (SNMCMG1 and SNMCMG2).
The Standing NATO Maritime Groups are a multinational, integrated maritime force made up of vessels from various allied countries. 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 alternate between each other for the six-month rotations of Operation Ocean Shield and otherwise 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 six and ten ships from as many NATO member countries.

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, 1 December 2012.

Past operations

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. As previously indicated, 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 planned 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, the Standing NATO Maritime Group 2 (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 (PO) 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 (UK) 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

Allied Operation Allied Provider was responsible for naval escorts to World Food Program (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 authorized Rules of Engagement and in compliance with relevant international and national law.

Allied Provider was a temporary operation that was requested by the Secretary-General of the United Nations, Ban Ki-moon, on 25 September 2008. NATO provided this counter-piracy capacity in support of UNSC 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 anti-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.
Operation Active Endeavour

Under Operation Active Endeavour, NATO ships are patrolling the Mediterranean and monitoring 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 and, in view of its success, is being continued.

As the Alliance has refined its counter-terrorism role over the years, the operation’s remit has been extended and its mandate regularly reviewed. In addition to tracking and controlling suspect vessels to keep the seas safe, it now aims to build a picture of maritime activity in the Mediterranean. To do this, the ships conduct 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 has accrued in Active Endeavour has given the Alliance unparalleled expertise in the deterrence of maritime terrorist activity in the Mediterranean Sea. This expertise is 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.

The aim of the operation and its current functions

Operation Active Endeavour is NATO’s only Article 5 operation on anti-terrorism. It was initiated in support of the United States immediately after 9/11. It aims to demonstrate NATO’s solidarity and resolve in the fight against terrorism and to help deter and disrupt terrorist activity in the Mediterranean.

NATO forces have hailed over 122,000 merchant vessels and boarded some 166 suspect ships. By conducting these maritime operations against terrorist activity, NATO’s presence in these waters has benefited all shipping travelling through the Straits of Gibraltar by improving perceptions of security. NATO is helping to keep seas safe, protect shipping and control suspect vessels. Moreover, this operation is also enabling 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 pass through the Mediterranean each year, with major pipelines connecting Libya to Italy and Morocco to Spain. For this reason, NATO ships are systematically carrying out preparatory route surveys in “choke” points as well as in important passages and harbours throughout the Mediterranean.

Tracking and controlling suspect vessels

Since April 2003, NATO has been systematically boarding suspect ships. These boardings take place with the compliance of the ships’ masters and flag states in accordance with international law.
What happens in practice is that merchant ships passing through the eastern Mediterranean are hailed by patrolling NATO naval units and asked to identify themselves and their activity. This information is then reported to NATO’s Maritime Commander in Northwood, the United Kingdom. If anything appears unusual or suspicious, teams of between 15 and 20 of the ships’ crew may board vessels to inspect documentation and cargo. Compliant boarding can only be conducted with the consent of the flag state and/or the ship’s master. NATO personnel may otherwise convey this information to the appropriate law enforcement agency at the vessel’s next port of call. The suspect vessel is then shadowed until action is taken by a responsible agency/authority, or until it enters a country’s territorial waters.

**Unexpected benefits**

While the mandate of Active Endeavour is limited to deterring, defending, disrupting and protecting against terrorist-related activity, the operation has had a visible effect on security and stability in the Mediterranean that is beneficial to trade and economic activity. NATO ships and helicopters have also intervened on several occasions to rescue civilians on stricken oil rigs and sinking ships, saving the lives of several hundred people over time. Operation Active Endeavour 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 has 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 have already been cooperating with NATO in Active Endeavour by providing intelligence about suspicious shipping operating in their waters.

Enhanced coordination and cooperation mechanisms are currently being developed.

**Command and structure of the operation**

The operation is under the overall command of, and is conducted from, Maritime Command Headquarters, Northwood (United Kingdom) through a task force deployed in the Mediterranean.

Task Force Endeavour consists of a balanced collection of surface units, submarines and maritime patrol aircraft. The operation also regularly makes 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 current operational pattern uses surface forces as reaction units to conduct specific tasks such as locating, tracking, reporting and boarding of suspected vessels in the light of intelligence.
The NATO Standing Naval Forces rotate in providing periodic support to Operation Active Endeavour either through “surges” (when an entire force participates) or through individual units being put on call when the operation has no regularly 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 had been deployed in support of an Article 5 operation.

Since October 2001, NATO ships have been patrolling the Mediterranean and monitoring shipping, boarding any suspect ships. Compliant boarding operations are essential to the successful continuation of the operation. They are limited to trying to establish whether a vessel is engaged in terrorist activity.

Moreover, in March 2003, Active Endeavour 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 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 Task Force STROG (Straits of Gibraltar) was suspended in May 2004. Forces remain ready to move at 30-days notice.

*Covering the entire Mediterranean*

One year later, in March 2004, as a result of the success of Active Endeavour 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 Operation Active Endeavour (OAE). They also welcomed offers by Russia and Ukraine 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 is hampered by the lack of consent to conduct compliant boarding of suspect vessels.

In addition, the Operational Plan approved in January 2010, is shifting Operation Active Endeavour from a platform-based to a network-based operation, using a combination of on-call units and surge operations instead of deployed forces; it is also seeking to enhance 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 are considered on the basis of the Alliance Maritime Strategy, adopted in January 2011. Operation Active Endeavour is fulfilling 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 Forces Command (JFC), Naples, and was conducted from the Allied Maritime Component Command Naples, Italy (CC-Mar Naples). From 22 February 2013, it came under the command of, and is conducted by, Maritime Command Headquarters, Northwood (United Kingdom).

**Contributing countries**

Being an Article 5 operation, Operation Active Endeavour initially involved member countries only.

Some NATO members, mainly Greece, Italy, Spain and Turkey contribute 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 provides additional assets in the Straits. Operation Active Endeavour relies heavily on the logistic support of Mediterranean NATO Allies.

From 2004, partner and non-NATO countries started offering their support.

All offers are considered on a case-by-case basis. To date, Exchanges of Letters have been signed between NATO and Israel, Morocco, Russia and Ukraine. In addition, Finland and Sweden have informally expressed their interest in contributing to the operation. Georgia has sent a liaison officer to Naples following the signing of a tactical Memorandum of Understanding with NATO in 2010 on the exchange of information. Russia deployed vessels twice, in 2006 and 2007, and Ukraine a total of six times since 2007.
NATO’s role in Iraq

NATO’s assistance to Iraq

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.
NATO and the 2003 campaign against Iraq

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 organization 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 support to the African Union

NATO assistance to the African Union

Since 2005, at the request of the African Union (AU), NATO has been providing different forms of support to the AU. The AU is a regional organisation which brings together 54 African member states. It was established in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia in 2002 and requested NATO support as early as 2005 for the AU Mission in Sudan (AMIS) in the province of Darfur.

This was the Alliance’s first mission on the African continent and as such represented a landmark decision by the North Atlantic Council (NAC). It was terminated on 31 December 2007 when AMIS was completed and succeeded (on 1 January 2008) by the UN-AU hybrid mission in Darfur (UNAMID).

NATO has since been assisting the AU with other missions and objectives. These include support to the AU Mission in Somalia (AMISOM) by providing planning and strategic air- and sealift, and assistance to the AU in developing long-term peacekeeping capabilities, in particular the African Standby Force (ASF) brigades.

To ensure maximum synergy, effectiveness and transparency, NATO’s assistance is coordinated closely with other international organisations – principally the United Nations (UN) and the European Union (EU) – as well as with bilateral partners.

Through this increased assistance, the Alliance and the AU are deepening collaboration and developing a long-term relationship, which is constantly evolving, as illustrated by the repeated AU requests for NATO assistance in a wide range of areas.

HIGHLIGHTS

- NATO first started assisting the African Union (AU) in 2005, when it provided support to AMIS – the AU mission in Darfur, Sudan.
- NATO’s support was no longer solicited when AMIS transferred to the UN/AU Mission in Darfur (UNAMID) end 2007.
- At the request of the AU, NATO is currently supporting the AU mission in Somalia – AMISOM – through strategic air- and sealift, and the provision of subject-matter experts.
- The AU is developing a long-term peacekeeping capability – the African Standby Force – to which NATO is also providing capacity-building support.
- NATO is coordinating the work it does with the AU with other international organisations.

Assisting the African Union in Somalia

Since 2007, NATO has accepted to assist the AU mission in Somalia (AMISOM) by providing strategic airlift and sealift support to AU member states willing to deploy in Somalia under AMISOM. NATO has, for instance, put into practice airlift support from Burundi to Mogadishu and has escorted an AU ship that carried Burundian military equipment for one of the battalions that it had airlifted into Mogadishu.

NATO has also been providing subject-matter experts for the Peace Support Operations Division (PSOD) of the AU that supports AMISOM. These experts offer expertise in specific areas for a period of six months to twelve months, renewable at the AU’s request.

In addition to this logistical and planning support, NATO is also a member of the International Contact Group on Somalia.
Strategic airlift

The AU made a general request to all partners, including NATO, on 17 January 2007 for financial and logistical support to AMISOM. It later made a more specific request to NATO on 22 May 2007, requesting strategic airlift support for AU member states willing to deploy in Somalia under AMISOM.

On 7 June, the North Atlantic Council (NAC) agreed, in principle, to support this request. NATO’s support was initially authorised until 21 August 2007 and has since been renewed for periods of six months and, more recently, for one year, following AU requests. The latest to be agreed by the NAC runs until January 2015.

Strategic sealift

Strategic sealift support was requested at a later stage and agreed in principle by the NAC on 15 September 2009. Support is also authorised for set periods of time and is currently running until January 2015.

Subject-matter experts

NATO provides subject-matter experts for the AU PSOD that supports AMISOM. These experts share their knowledge in areas such as maritime planning, strategic planning, financial planning and monitoring, procurement planning, air movement coordination, communications, IT, logistics, human resources, military manpower management and contingency planning.

Training

NATO has been offering AU students the possibility of attending courses at the NATO School Oberammergau in areas such as crisis-management exercises. Other appropriate training facilities are being identified, based on AU requirements. In 2015 and in response to an AU request, NATO will start delivering dedicated training in Addis Ababa through the Mobile Education and Training Team concept. The objective is to reach a wider audience of African Union staff, including the Regional Economic Communities, through the delivery of one to two week training modules on pre-identified themes such as Operational and Exercises planning.

Working with other international organisations

In addition to logistical and planning support, NATO is also a member of the International Contact Group on Somalia. It was first invited to attend these meetings in June 2009 and has participated in subsequent meetings.

The bodies involved in decision making and implementation

Based on advice from NATO’s military authorities, the NAC is the body that agrees to provide support to the AU.

The Norwegian Embassy in Addis Ababa provides diplomatic resources in support of NATO’s activities in Africa. Requests are communicated via a Note Verbale from the AU to the Norwegian Embassy, then via Joint Force Command (JFC) Naples and SHAPE to NATO HQ to consider the requests and take action as necessary. AU requests are considered on a case-by-case basis.
The NATO Senior Military Liaison Officer (SMLO) is the primary point of contact for the Alliance’s activities with the AU. An SMLO is deployed on a permanent six-month rotational basis in Addis Ababa and is supported by a deputy and an administrative assistant. More specifically, with regard to NATO’s support to the AU mission in Somalia, JFC Naples – under the overall command of Allied Command Operations - is responsible for the SMLO team operating out of the Ethiopian capital.

This team not only conducts NATO’s day-to-day activities, but also serves as the NATO military point of contact with partner countries and regional organisations. It served the same function for the representatives of troop-contributing countries for the AMISON operation, the representatives of the donor nations pledging support to the AU, the United Nations (UN), the European Union (EU) and various embassies.

**Contributing to the establishment of an 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. It 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.

The Alliance offers capacity-building support through courses and training events and organises different forms of support to help make the ASF operational, all at the AU’s request. NATO is, *inter alia*, assisting the AU with the evaluation and assessment processes linked to the operational readiness of the ASF brigades. This continental force is being operationalised and could be seen as an African contribution to wider international efforts to preserve peace and security.

**Expert support**

On 5 September 2007, as part of NATO’s capacity-building support to the AU, the NAC agreed to provide assistance to the AU with a study on the assessment of the operational readiness of the ASF brigades.

**Training support**

NATO has also provided targeted training packages to the ASF. Since 2009, the NATO School in Oberammergau has been hosting AU staff officers, who attend various courses, including operational planning discipline.

JFC Naples - the designated NATO HQ to implement the Alliance’s practical cooperation with the AU – has also organised certification/evaluation training programmes for AU staff. For instance, it 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 participated and supported various ASF preparatory workshops designed to develop ASF-related concepts.

**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 helped the AU expand its peacekeeping mission in Darfur by providing airlift for the transport of additional peacekeepers into the region and by training AU personnel. NATO support did not include the provision of combat troops.
Alliance support ended on 31 December 2007 when AMIS was transferred to the United Nations/African Union Mission in Darfur (UNAMID). The Alliance has expressed its readiness to consider providing support to the UN-AU hybrid peacekeeping force made up of peacekeepers and civilian police officers, if requested.

**Airlifting AU peacekeepers and civilian police**

Between 1 July 2005 and October 2005, NATO coordinated the strategic airlift for peacekeepers from African troop-contributing countries moving into Darfur, helping to transport almost 5,000 troops. This boosted the number of troops on the ground to 8,000.

In August 2005, on the request of the AU, the NAC agreed to assist in the transportation of civilian police. NATO coordinated the airlift of some 50 AMIS civilian police between August and October 2005.

Additionally, from September 2005, NATO provided the coordination of strategic airlift for the rotation of troops, transporting them in and out of the region.

Overall, NATO-EU Air Movement Coordinators harmonised the airlift of some 37,500 troops, civilian police and military observers in and out of the Sudanese region. NATO alone coordinated the airlift of over 31,500 AMIS troops and personnel.

NATO’s airlift was managed from Europe. A special AU Air Movement Cell at the AU’s headquarters in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, coordinated the movement of incoming troops and personnel on the ground. Both the EU and NATO provided staff to support the cell, but the AU had the lead.

**Training AU personnel**

For the duration of the mission, NATO also provided training assistance to AMIS in a variety of disciplines.

- Strategic-level and operational planning: training in this area focused on technologies and techniques to create an overall analysis and understanding of Darfur, and to identify the areas where the application of AU assets could best influence the operating environment and deter crises. A total of 184 AU officers benefited from this training. They were based at two different AMIS headquarters: the Darfur Integrated Task Force Headquarters in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia and the AMIS Force Headquarters (FHQ) in El Fasher, Sudan.

On 2 June 2006, the AU requested NATO support for the establishment of an AMIS Joint Operations Centre (JOC), which the Alliance agreed to provide six days later.

Two months later, in August 2006, NATO also contributed to a UN-led mapping exercise. The aim of the exercise was to help AU personnel understand and operate effectively in the theatre of operations, as well as to build their capacity to manage strategic operations. NATO provided 14 officers, including exercise writers and tactical-level controllers.

- Training on “lessons learned”: on 8 June 2006, the NAC agreed to the AU request for training assistance in the fields of pre-deployment certification and lessons learned. Following a further AU request on 19 September of the same year, NATO provided mentoring and training on how to establish a tailored “lessons learned” process for the AU. Seventy-five AMIS officers from three different headquarters (the Darfur Integrated Task Force
Headquarters, the AMIS Force Headquarters and the AU Mission Headquarters in Khartoum, Sudan) were trained through these courses.

In this area, NATO was working in full complementarity with the European Union, which also provided substantive input to the process.

- Training in information management: following a Note Verbale sent by the African Union on 25 August 2006, NATO provided temporary training and mentoring on managing information to six AU officers in the Information Assessment Cell of the Darfur Integrated Task Force.

The bodies involved in decision making and implementation

Based on advice from NATO’s military authorities, the NAC agrees to provide support to the AU. With regard to NATO’s support to the AU mission in Sudan (AMIS), the then Joint Force Command Lisbon – under the overall command of Allied Command Operations - had the responsibility for the NATO Senior Military Liaison Officer (SMLO) team operating out of Addis Ababa. The SMLO team was NATO’s single military point of contact in Addis Ababa with the AU. In addition, it was the NATO military point of contact with the representatives of the countries contributing troops to the AMIS operation, the representatives of the donor nations pledging support to the AU, the UN, the EU and various embassies.

The evolution of NATO’s assistance to AMIS

On 26 April 2005, the AU asked NATO by letter to consider the possibility of providing logistical support to help expand its peace-support mission in Darfur. In May 2005, the Chairman of the AU Commission, Mr Alpha Oumar Konaré, visited NATO Headquarters to provide details of the assistance request. The next day, the NAC tasked the Alliance’s military authorities to provide, as a matter of urgency, advice on possible NATO support.

Following further consultations with the AU, the European Union and the United Nations, in June 2005, NATO formally agreed to provide airlift support as well as training. The first planes carrying AU peacekeepers took off on 1 July of the same year. Training of AU officers started on 1 August and, a few days later, the NAC agreed to assist in the transport of police to Darfur.
### Key milestones – Darfur, Sudan

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<th>Event Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>26 April 2005</strong></td>
<td>The AU requests NATO assistance in the expansion of its peacekeeping mission in Darfur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>17 May 2005</strong></td>
<td>The Chairman of the AU Commission, Mr Alpha Oumar Konaré, is the first AU official to visit NATO Headquarters in Brussels.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>18 May 2005</strong></td>
<td>The NAC agrees to task the Alliance’s military authorities to provide advice on possible NATO assistance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>24 May 2005</strong></td>
<td>The NAC agrees on initial military options for possible NATO support.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>26 May 2005</strong></td>
<td>NATO Secretary General Jaap de Hoop Scheffer participates in a meeting in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, on international support to the AU’s mission.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>9 June 2005</strong></td>
<td>Alliance Defence Ministers announce the decision to assist the AU peace-support operation in Darfur with the coordination of strategic airlift and staff capacity-building.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1 July 2005</strong></td>
<td>The NATO airlift begins.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>1 August 2005</strong></td>
<td>NATO training of AU officers begins.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the request of the AU, the NAC agrees to assist in the transport of civilian police to Darfur.
21 September 2005  The NAC agrees to extend the duration of NATO’s airlift support for the remaining peacekeeping reinforcements until 31 October 2005.

9 November 2005  The NAC agrees to extend NATO’s coordination of strategic airlift by two months, until end May 2006, in view of the AU’s troop rotation schedule.

29 March 2006  Following a phone call from UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan on 27 March, the NAC announces its readiness to continue NATO’s current mission. The NAC tasks NATO military authorities to offer advice for possible NATO support to an anticipated follow-on UN mission in Darfur.

13 April 2006  The NAC announces its readiness to continue NATO’s current mission until 30 September.

5 May 2006  Two parties sign the Darfur Peace Agreement.

30 May 2006  UN Undersecretary General for Humanitarian Affairs, Mr Jan Egeland, visits NATO HQ to discuss Darfur and the role of the military in disaster relief.

2 June 2006  The Chairman of the AU Commission, Mr Alpha Oumar Konaré, requests the extension of NATO’s airlift and training support, as well as additional forms of assistance.

8 June 2006  Defence Ministers state NATO’s willingness to expand its training assistance to AMIS and the Alliance’s willingness to consider support to an anticipated follow-on UN mission. The coordination of strategic airlift is extended until the end of 2006.

16 November 2006  The Addis Ababa meeting introduces the notion of an AU-UN hybrid peacekeeping mission.

28-29 November 2006  At the Riga Summit, NATO reaffirms its support to the AU and its willingness to broaden this support. It also reiterates its commitment to coordinating with other international actors.

14 December 2006  NATO decides to extend its support mission for six additional months.

15 December 2006  US Special Envoy to Darfur, Ambassador Andrew Natsios, meets NATO Secretary General Jaap de Hoop Scheffer at NATO Headquarters, Brussels.

15 January 2007  NATO agrees to provide staff capacity-training at the AU Mission HQ in Khartoum, in addition to training provided in El Fasher and Addis Ababa.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14 June 2007</td>
<td>NATO Defence Ministers reiterate the Alliance’s commitment to Darfur and welcome the agreement of the Sudanese Government to a UN-AU hybrid mission in Darfur.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6-7 December 2007</td>
<td>NATO Foreign Ministers express readiness to continue Alliance support to the AU in Darfur, in agreement with the UN and the AU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-4 April 2008</td>
<td>At the Bucharest Summit, NATO states its concern for the situation in Darfur and its readiness to support AU peacekeeping efforts in the region.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4 April 2009</td>
<td>At the Strasbourg/Kehl Summit, NATO reiterates its concern over Darfur and, more generally, Sudan. Stressing the principle of African ownership, NATO states that it is ready to consider further requests for support from the AU, including regional capacity-building.</td>
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</table>
Civil emergency operations

Civil emergency planning

A key security task of the Alliance
The aim of civil emergency planning in NATO is to collect, analyse and share information on national planning activity to ensure the most effective use of civil resources for use during emergency situations, in accordance with Alliance objectives.

It enables Allies and Partner nations to assist each other in preparing for and dealing with the consequences of crisis, disaster or conflict.

In a rapidly changing world, populations in NATO and Partner countries are threatened by many risks including the possible use of chemical, biological, radiological weapons by terrorists. However, terrorism is not the only challenge. Natural disasters, such as earthquakes or floods and man-made disasters continue to pose a serious threat to civilian populations.

Civil emergencies: a threat to security and stability
Civil emergency planning is first and foremost a national responsibility. However, NATO’s broad approach to security, as described in the 1999 Strategic Concept, recognizes that major civil emergencies can pose a threat to security and stability.

Countries can no longer rely on purely national solutions for large-scale emergencies, particularly given the complex nature of today’s threats and the unpredictable security environment.

While the United Nations retains the primary role in coordinating international disaster relief, NATO provides an effective forum in which the use of civilian and military assets can be dovetailed to achieve a desired goal. Given the requirement for the military and civilian communities to develop and maintain robust cooperation, civil emergency planning in NATO focuses on the five following areas:

- civil support for Alliance Article 5 (collective defence) operations;
- support for non-Article 5 (crisis response) operations;
- support for national authorities in civil emergencies;
- support for national authorities in the protection of populations against the effects of weapons of mass destruction;
- cooperation with Partner countries in preparing for and dealing with disasters.

Civil support for Alliance Article 5 (collective defence) operations
During an invocation of Article 5, the collective defence clause of the North Atlantic Treaty, civil support to the military takes the form of advice provided by civilian experts to NATO military authorities in areas such as decontamination of toxic and industrial chemicals and civil transport, be it air, ground, or sea. Support is provided to military authorities to assist them in developing and maintaining arrangements for effective use of civil resources.
For example, in Active Endeavour, the Alliance’s counter-terrorism operation in the Mediterranean, civil ocean shipping experts provided advice to Allied navies on commercial standards and international law regarding the searching of ships.

Advice and support are demand-driven. In other words, NATO military authorities must request such help if they consider it necessary. Support is provided during peacetime, as well as during the planning and execution of an operation.

Civil support to the military within civil emergency planning should not be confused with civil military cooperation (CIMIC), which concerns interactions between deployed military forces, local authorities and aid agencies in an area of operations in the context of a conflict or disaster situation. CIMIC establishes relationships with civil actors, harmonizing activities and, in some cases, sharing resources, in order to reach goals faster and more efficiently.

**Network of civil experts**
A group of 380 civil experts located across the Euro-Atlantic area are selected based on specific areas of support frequently required by the military. They cover civil aspects relevant to NATO planning and operations including crisis management, consequence management and critical infrastructure. Provided by nations, experts are drawn from government and industry. They serve for three years, participate in training and respond to requests for assistance in accordance with specific procedures known as the Civil Emergency Planning Crisis Management Arrangements.

**Civil Expertise Catalogue and “Reachback”**
The Civil Expertise Catalogue is a list of assets and capabilities which are available to NATO’s military authorities, operational commanders, and the entire military chain of command. Expertise is usually located in national ministries, or in a commercial businesses.

The Catalogue is administered by the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre. Any military commander in need of information or advice on a civilian matter can address a request to the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre. The process for requesting information is what is known as “reachback”.

**The Civil Emergency Planning Rapid Reaction Team**
The Civil Emergency Planning Rapid Reaction Team is a concept designed to evaluating civil needs and capabilities to support a NATO operation or an emergency situation. This concept was approved in 2006.

Within 24-hours of approving a request for advice, a Rapid Reaction Team composed of civil experts taken from the Civil Emergency Planning Committee’s Planning Groups can be deployed to assess civilian requirements across the functional areas of civil protection, transportation, industrial resources and communications, medical assistance and food/water.

If necessary, the team can be augmented by members of the NATO Headquarters international staff, the NATO military authorities, and other national experts. In the case of a humanitarian disaster, the Rapid Reaction Team would coordinate closely with the United Nations and the affected country.

The first example of a deployment of civil experts in accordance with the Rapid Reaction Team procedures happened in August 2008 as a result of the crisis in Georgia.
Comprehensive Approach Specialist Support (COMPASS)
NATO Civil Emergency Planning is responsible for the management of the Comprehensive Approach Specialist Support (COMPASS) database which is a list of national civilian specialists deployable for short, medium and long term assignments. They are specialised in the political, reconstruction and stabilisation and media fields. Their role is to advise NATO forces on fulfilling their task in coordination with other international organisations.

Support for non-Article 5 (crisis response) operations
The mechanisms in place for providing civil support for Article 5 operations are applied to non-Article 5 operations as well.

Non-Article 5 operations have been more common thus far than their Article 5 counterparts. Non-Article 5 crisis response operations are those that are mainly conducted in non-NATO countries to prevent a conflict from spreading and destabilizing countries or regions (e.g. peacekeeping operations such as in Bosnia and Herzegovina and Kosovo).

Beginning in the 1990s, NATO engaged in a number of non-Article 5 crisis response operations on three continents: initially in the former Yugoslavia in Europe and subsequently in Afghanistan and Iraq in Asia and in the Darfur region of Sudan in Africa. These operations have covered a wide variety of missions, from crisis prevention to emergency crisis response.

For example, at the request of NATO commanders in Afghanistan, civil experts have provided advice on commercial toxic chemicals, thereby allowing commanders to make operational decisions on their handling.

Also, during the Alliance’s support to the 2004 Summer Olympic Games in Greece, civilian representatives from the Euro-Atlantic Coordination Centre worked closely with military operators in the contingency planning for a possible terrorist attack using chemical, biological or radiological agents. Civil support for these operations has been critical to their success.

Support for national authorities in civil emergencies
Providing support to national authorities in times of civil emergencies, natural or man-made, is conducted on an ad hoc basis as requested by national authorities in times of crisis or under extraordinary circumstances.

Requests for assistance from member or partner countries are addressed to the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre, which circulates them to the member countries and Partnership for Peace countries. The Centre facilitates the coordination of responses, and then sends the resulting offers of assistance back to the requesting country.

For example, if a country requests food rations and housing supplies for suffering populations, the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre will match the offers of assistance from contributing nations with the requests of the stricken nation. In this way, duplication of effort is avoided.

Specific instances of assistance included providing support in the aftermath of Hurricane Katrina, which devastated the United States gulf coast in August 2005. In total, 189 tons of relief and emergency supplies were flown to the United States via an emergency transport operation led by NATO.
In certain cases, approval to provide assistance to civil authorities must come from the North Atlantic Council, the Alliance’s principal decision-making body. This can happen when the requestor is not a NATO member or Partner country, or when collective Allied military resources are used. This was the case in 2005 in Pakistan – which is neither a member nor a partner country – when it requested assistance from the Alliance in the aftermath of a massive earthquake in the Kashmir region. 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.

Most recently, in the wake of massive floods, Pakistan again requested NATO assistance in delivering humanitarian aid from donor countries and organisations. The NATO Council agreed to providing a NATO air-bridge. Between August and November 2010, 23 flights have been flown delivering nearly 1000 tons of humanitarian supplies such as pumps, generators, tents, high energy biscuits and baby food.

**Support for national authorities in the protection of populations against the effects of weapons of mass destruction**

As a result of the 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks and subsequent attacks in Madrid and London, Civil Emergency Planning activities have focused on measures aimed at enhancing national capabilities and civil preparedness in the event of possible attacks using chemical, biological or radiological agents (CBRN).

At Prague in 2002, a Civil Emergency Action plan was adopted for the protection of populations against the effects of Weapons of Mass destruction. As a result, an inventory of national capabilities for use in CBRN incidents (medical assistance, radiological detection units, aero-medical evacuation) has been developed. In addition, guidelines and standards have been developed for EAPC nations to draw upon in the areas of planning, training and equipment for first responders to CBRN incidents. These activities have contributed to enhancing Allies and Partners ability to assist one another in the face of such attacks.

A comprehensive EAPC programme on CBRN training and exercises has been developed. Treatment protocols for casualties following a CBRN attack were developed by NATO’s Public Health and Food/Water Group. NATO’s Civil Protection Group has developed public information guidelines for use before, during and after a crisis.

NATO’s Transport Group has established mechanisms for co-ordination of nationally provided civil transport resources for Alliance use in such areas as mass evacuation and medical evacuation. NATO has also developed a Memorandum of Understanding on the facilitation of vital civil cross border transport to accelerate and simplify clearance for international assistance sent in response to a major incident.

**Cooperation with Partner countries**

Partner countries – those countries that have relationships with NATO through its various cooperation frameworks – have made a significant contribution the Alliance’s civil emergency planning and disaster preparedness capabilities.

Countries of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council are represented on the Alliance’s civil emergency planning boards and committees. They are also involved in education and training activities.
Civil emergency planning is also a principal component of NATO’s Mediterranean Dialogue. In addition to holding periodic joint meetings between representatives of Mediterranean Dialogue countries and the Civil Emergency Planning Committee, these countries have been invited to participate in several civil emergency planning activities, including training courses and seminars. Further to the Istanbul Summit’s call in 2004 for a more ambitious and expanded partnership with Mediterranean Dialogue countries, cooperation on disaster response and civil emergency planning has intensified.

Since 2004, civil emergency planning cooperation has been further extended to include the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative countries. To date, NATO team visits to the United Arab Emirates, Bahrain and Qatar have enabled information exchanges on NATO’s civil emergency planning activities.

Within the framework of the NATO-Russia Council, an ad hoc group on civil emergencies facilitates coordination between NATO’s civil emergency planning authorities and the Russian Federation. To date, Russia has hosted a number of important terrorist incident simulation exercises which have significantly contributed to fostering practical cooperation. The consequence management exercise “Lazio 2006,” held from 23-26 October 2006, saw over 250 personnel from Italy, the Russian Federation, Austria, Croatia, Hungary and Romania work side-by-side to test how they can work effectively together in case of a radiological emergency.

Cooperation between NATO and Ukraine began in 1995, following heavy rains and flooding in the Kharkiv region. Support during subsequent flooding has consolidated successful cooperation, and NATO’s Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre has coordinated assistance to the region on several occasions. Ukraine has hosted a number of civil emergency planning exercises.

**CEP’s decision-making bodies**

Because civil emergency planning is a multi-dimensional effort, its management requires extensive coordination within the Alliance, as well as with national civil emergency planning personnel and other international organizations.

The principal body in the area of civil emergencies is the Civil Emergency Planning Committee (CEPC). The operational tool at its disposal is the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC).

**Civil Emergency Planning Committee**

The day-to-day business of the Alliance’s civil emergency planning is guided by the Civil Emergency Planning Committee (CEPC) – formerly known as the Senior Civil Emergency Planning Committee (SCEPC) –, which is composed of national representatives who provide oversight to the work conducted at NATO.

Under the authority of the North Atlantic Council, this Committee meets semi-annually in plenary session and holds regular meetings in permanent session. These meetings are chaired by the Assistant Secretary General for Operations and the Deputy Assistant Secretary General for Planning, Civil Emergency Planning and Exercises.

Given the strong interest of Partner countries in civil emergency planning, CEPC meetings are held in the format of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council twice-yearly in plenary, encompassing all NATO and Partner countries. Permanent meetings with Partners are held approximately once per month.
Country representation at plenary level is drawn from heads of national civil emergency planning organizations in capitals. At permanent level, members of national delegations at NATO Headquarters normally attend but may be reinforced from capitals.

**Planning Groups**

Under CEPC’s direction, four technical Planning Groups bring together national government experts, industry experts and military representatives to coordinate planning in various areas of civil activity. These areas are:

- Civil protection
- Transport (civil aviation, ocean shipping and inland surface)
- Public Health, Food and Water
- Industrial resources and communications

These bodies advise CEPC on crisis-related matters and assist NATO military authorities and countries to develop and maintain arrangements for effective use of civil resources.

For example, the Transport Planning Group identifies the availability of commercial surface and air resources and infrastructure to provide cost-effective, rapidly available transport for a potential operation.

The CEPC and the Planning Groups are supported by a team of international civil servants in the civil emergency planning section of the International Staff’s Operations Division.

**The Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre**

In June, 1998, a Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) was established at NATO Headquarters, based on a proposal made by the Russian Federation. Created within the framework of the Partnership for Peace programme, the Centre coordinates responses among NATO and Partner countries to natural and man-made disasters in the Euro-Atlantic area.

Since 2001, the EADRCC also has a role in coordinating countries’ responses following a terrorist act involving chemical, biological or radiological agents, as well as consequence management actions.

As part of its operational role, the EADRCC organizes major international field exercises in order to practice responses to simulated natural and man-made disaster situations and consequence management. It also organises regular ‘table top’ exercises which are smaller in scope, and as their name implies, do not involve deployments of teams in the field.

Since its launch, the EADRCC has been involved in more than 40 operations around the world, ranging from coordination of relief supplies to refugees, aid to flood, hurricane and earthquake victims, fighting forest fires, and assistance to Greece during the 2004 Olympic Games. In 2005 and 2006, the EADRCC played a central coordinating role in NATO’s humanitarian relief to the United States after hurricane Katrina and Pakistan after the devastating earthquake. From August-November 2010, the EADRCC coordinated the delivery of humanitarian aid to Pakistan via a NATO air-bridge.

The EADRCC has a mandate to respond, subject to agreement by the CEPC, to requests for assistance from the Afghan Government in case of natural disasters. Since 2007, this mandate has now been widened, enabling the provision of CEP support in areas where NATO is engaged militarily. The
Mediterranean Dialogue and Istanbul Cooperation Initiative countries can also request assistance through the EADRCC.

Staffed by officials from NATO and Partner countries, the Centre works closely with the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Assistance and other international organisations, including the International Atomic Energy Agency, the World Health Organization, the World Food Programme, and the Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons.

**Support for stabilization and reconstruction**

Steps have been taken since the 2006 Riga Summit to increase the capacity of NATO forces to support stabilization and reconstruction efforts in all phases of a crisis. Primary responsibilities for stabilization and reconstruction would normally lie with other actors, such as local and international organizations and non-governmental organizations. However, security concerns may hinder these actors from undertaking these tasks.

Civilian expertise, drawn from national resources, may be required in the future to advise the military in the context of support for stabilization and reconstruction, in coordination with the host nation. This could include advice on issues such as rebuilding local industry, transport networks, relaunching agricultural production, reconstructing health and civil communications infrastructure.

Close civil-military coordination between actors in the field is an important element of current NATO operations. The Provincial Reconstruction Teams established across Afghanistan are a good example. These small teams of civilian and military personnel work in the provinces to extend the authority of the central Afghan government as well as to help local authorities provide security and assist with reconstruction work.

**Coordination of NATO’s activities with other international organizations**

NATO’s Civil Emergency Planning activities are closely coordinated with other international organizations such as the United Nations, in particular the UN-Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Assistance (UN-OCHA) and the European Union. One of the most important aspects of cooperation is to be informed about the activities of the various actors involved in disaster relief.

Cooperation with other international organizations is therefore a very high priority for NATO. Every year a large international exercise seeks to enhance cooperation with other international organizations such as the International Committee of the Red Cross, the International Atomic Energy Agency, the Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons and the World Health Organization.

**How CEP has evolved**

The concept of civil support to NATO’s military authorities was articulated early in NATO’s history. The 1956 Report on Non-Military Cooperation by the Three Wise Men says: “From the very beginning of NATO, it was recognized that while defence cooperation was the first and most urgent requirement, this was not enough... security today is far more than a military matter.”

During the Cold War era, civil support focused on planning, preparation, and recovery in the event of an attack from the former Soviet Union.

In 1991, cooperation on civil emergency planning between NATO and the Russian Federation began.
In 1992, in support of the United Nations Department of Humanitarian Affairs, NATO hosted an international workshop on the Use of Military and Civil Defence Assets in Disaster Relief. This workshop - in which 20 international organisations and 40 countries participated - provided the foundation for subsequent civil emergency planning cooperation activities with Partner countries, primarily in the field of disaster management and response.

In 1994, NATO’s Partnership for Peace programme was launched. That year, four civil emergency planning disaster-related cooperation activities were conducted. By 1999, civil emergency planning had become the largest non-military component of PfP, with 75 activities conducted.

Cooperation between NATO and Ukraine began in 1995, following heavy rains and flooding in the Kharkiv region.

In 1996, NATO and Russia signed a memorandum of understanding on Cooperation in Civil Emergency Planning and Disaster Preparedness. The following year, the Senior Civil Emergency Planning Committee met in Moscow - the first NATO committee to meet in Russia.

In 1997, NATO and Ukraine signed a memorandum of understanding on Cooperation in Civil Emergency Planning and Disaster Preparedness with emphasis on the Chernobyl Disaster.

In June 1998, the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) was established at NATO Headquarters, based on a proposal made by the Russian Federation. It included the establishment of a Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Unit.

NATO’s 1999 Strategic Concept redefined post-Cold War threats and challenges, placing greater emphasis on the importance of civil support to the Alliance’s military operations.

Following this guidance, the North Atlantic Council conducted a thorough review of civil emergency planning - one of NATO’s seven defence planning disciplines - and identified five specific roles which call for civil support to NATO’s military authorities for both Article 5 operations and non-Article 5 or crisis response operations. These roles encompass military operations as well as disaster and humanitarian relief.

After the 11 September 2001 attacks in the United States, renewed efforts were been made to assist member countries in protecting civilian populations against the consequences of attacks from chemical, biological, and nuclear agents.

During the Prague Summit of 2002, NATO Heads of State and Government committed to improving civil preparedness against possible attacks against the civilian population with chemical, biological or radiological agents, by implementing the 2003 Civil Emergency Planning Action Plan.

At the Istanbul Summit in 2004, NATO Heads of State and Government committed to enhancing cooperation with Mediterranean Dialogue countries in the area of civil emergency planning, including the possibility to request assistance from the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre.

With the launch of the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative in 2004, countries joining were invited to begin participating in training courses and exercises geared to civil emergency planning.
In early 2006, the Civil Emergency Planning Rapid Reaction Team was implemented for rapidly evaluating civil needs and capabilities to support a NATO operation or an emergency situation.

In August 2008, as a result of the crisis in Georgia, two NATO Civil Emergency Planning (CEP) Advisory Support Team visits to Georgia were carried out. The main purpose of these visits was to support the Georgian authorities in assessing disruptions to civil critical infrastructure and to advise the Government on further measures to ensure the restoration of essential services. The teams were composed of civil experts covering areas as diverse as agriculture, electricity, oil, gas, rail transport, seaports, aviation, telecommunications, health and social issues. This was the first example of a deployment of civil experts to a crisis area in accordance with “Rapid Reaction Team” procedures and was a practical demonstration of the civilian dimension of NATO’s partnerships.

In August 2010, following a request from Pakistan in the wake of massive flooding, the NATO Council agreed to provide an air-bridge for three months to help in the delivery of humanitarian aid.
The Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre

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 28 allies plus 22 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.

Main tasks

In its coordinating functions for the response of NATO and Partner countries, EADRCC not only guides consequence management efforts, but it 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, EADRCC conducts annual large-scale field exercises with realistic scenarios to improve interaction between NATO, Partnership for Peace (PfP) and other partner countries. Regular major disaster exercises have been organised in different participating countries to practice procedures, provide training for local and international participants, build up interoperability skills and capabilities of the non-standing Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Unit (EADRU), and harness the experience and lessons learnt for future operations.

To this date, EADRCC has conducted thirteen exercises in Ukraine, Croatia, the Russian Federation, Uzbekistan, Romania, Italy, Finland, Kazakhstan, Armenia, Turkey, and Moldova. The next exercise will be held in Tbilisi, Georgia, in September 2012. In 2009, the countries of the Mediterranean Dialogue (MD)¹ and those of the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative (ICI)² were given direct access to the Centre, followed by other partners across the globe³ in December 2011.

All 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. EADRCC has been designed as a regional coordination mechanism, supporting and complementing the UN efforts. Furthermore, EADRCC’s 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 EADRCC.

- Algeria, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Mauritania, Morocco and Tunisia.
- 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.
- Afghanistan, Australia, Iraq, Japan, Mongolia, New Zealand, Pakistan, South Korea (as of March 2012).
Support for national authorities in civil emergencies

EADRCC forwards assistance requests to NATO and partner countries which, in turn, respond by communicating their offers of assistance to EADRCC and/or the affected country. The Centre uses AIDMATRIX to keep a record of the assistance offered (including assistance from other international organisations and actors), assistance accepted by the stricken country, delivery dates, assistance still required (or updates to the assistance requested), as well as the situation on the ground. This information circulates to NATO and partner countries in the form of daily situation reports, but it is also published on the NATO website.

A multinational team of experts

The Centre is part of the International Staff, Operations Division located at NATO Headquarters in Brussels, Belgium. It is staffed by up to five secondees from NATO and partner countries and three 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, EADRCC can temporarily be augmented with additional personnel from the EAPC delegations to NATO, or NATO’s international civilian and military staff. In addition, EADRCC has access to national civil experts that can be called to provide the Centre with expert advice in specific areas in the event of a major disaster.

Historical background

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 EADRU, a non-standing, multi-national force of civil and military elements, deployable in the event of major natural or man-made disasters in an EAPC country.

Initially, EADRCC was extensively involved in coordinating the humanitarian assistance effort from the EAPC countries supporting the refugees during the Kosovo war in the late 1990s. Since then, however, the Centre has responded to more than 60 requests of assistance, mainly concerning natural disaster-stricken states.

Following the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, EADRCC has also been tasked with the coordination of international assistance from EAPC countries to help deal with the consequences of chemical, biological, radiological, or nuclear (CBRN) incidents, which includes terrorist attacks.

In January 2004, the North Atlantic Council, NATO’s principal political decision-making body, widened 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 the Organization has been involved militarily, with the same provisions as Afghanistan.

In 2005, the Centre contributed to the United States’ response to Hurricane Katrina by coordinating the donations of NATO and partner countries. The same year, the Centre played a central role in the relief effort in Pakistan after the country was hit by a devastating earthquake and, later in 2010, when it was hit by massive floods.
Security Challenges

Countering terrorism
Terrorism poses a real and serious threat to the security and safety of the Alliance and its members. It is a global threat that knows no border, nationality or religion – a challenge that the international community must tackle together. NATO’s work on counter-terrorism focuses on improved threat awareness and preparedness, developing adequate capabilities and enhancing engagement with partner countries and other international actors.

Since the terrorist attacks on the United States of 11 September 2001, NATO has been actively engaged in the fight against terrorism. In response to those attacks, NATO invoked Article 5 of the Washington Treaty, the Alliance’s collective defence clause, for the first time in its history.

The multifaceted nature of terrorism is such that NATO has engaged in a number of initiatives – political, operational, conceptual, military, technological and scientific – to address this issue. The creation of the Emerging Security Challenges Division within NATO Headquarters in August 2010 reflected NATO’s intent to deal with a growing range of non-traditional risks and challenges, including terrorism, in a cross-cutting manner. NATO has since agreed on new policy guidelines on counter-terrorism, which were endorsed at the Chicago Summit in May 2012 and are implemented through an associated Action Plan.

The Alliance contributes to the international community’s counter-terrorism effort in several ways. First, NATO is a permanent transatlantic consultation forum, capable of transforming discussions into collective decisions and action. Second, NATO has at its disposal unique military and civilian capabilities that can contribute to taking action against terrorism or managing the consequences of an attack. Third, NATO cooperates as part of a large network of partnerships involving other countries and international organisations.

NATO’s joint efforts

Operations
Since October 2001, Operation Active Endeavour has been established under Article 5 as NATO’s immediate response to the terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001 to deter, detect and, if necessary, disrupt the threat of terrorism in the Mediterranean Sea. NATO operations often have relevance to international counter-terrorism efforts, even if their mandate is not specifically tailored to the terrorist threat. NATO maritime forces can play an important role inter alia in counter-terrorism, crisis management and humanitarian assistance. The NATO-led operation in Afghanistan, while not a counter-terrorism operation as such, is helping to prevent Afghanistan from ever again becoming a safe haven for international terrorism by assisting the government of Afghanistan to expand its authority and implement security.

Securing major public events
NATO can provide assistance in promoting the security of major public events that might attract the interest of terrorists. At the request of the government concerned, it can deploy capabilities such as the Airborne Warning and Control System (AWACS) aircraft or elements of the multinational Chemical, Biological, Radiological and Nuclear (CBRN) Defence Battalion. The Alliance has assisted...
high-visibility events such as NATO Summits and ministerial meetings, as well as events like the Athens Olympic Games, the European Football Championship held in Poland and Ukraine in 2012 and the 2013 Dutch royal handover.

Protecting populations and critical infrastructure against the consequences of terrorist attacks

National authorities are primarily responsible for protecting their population and critical infrastructure against the consequences of terrorist attacks, CBRN incidents and natural disasters. NATO serves as a forum to develop non-binding guidelines and minimum standards as well as to exchange best practices and lessons learned for such eventualities to improve preparedness and national resilience. NATO has developed ‘Guidelines for first response to a CBRN incident’ and organises ‘International Courses for Trainers of First Responders to CBRN Incidents’ in six regional training centres. Providing timely information to the public is also a key component of consequence management, so NATO has developed guidelines to advise national authorities on warning the general public and alerting emergency responders.

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.

The role of the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre

Under the auspices of the 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 – both member and partner countries – following a CBRN terrorist attack. Originally created in 1998 to coordinate responses to natural and man-made disasters, since 2001 the EADRCC also coordinates responses to potential terrorist acts involving CBRN agents. The Centre has a standing mandate to respond to a national request for assistance in the event of a terrorist attack using CBRN agents. It organises major international field exercises to practise responses to simulated disaster situations and consequence management.

NATO Crisis Management System

The NATO Crisis Management System provides the Alliance with a comprehensive set of options and measures to manage and respond to the full range of crises that the Alliance may be required to face in a timely, coordinated and discriminate manner. Specific Civil Emergency Planning Crisis Management Arrangements define the roles of the Civil Emergency Planning Committee, the Planning Groups, the EADRCC and the use of civil experts during times of crisis.

NATO’s capabilities

NATO supports the development of capabilities and innovative technology that specifically address the threat of terrorism. The aim is to protect troops, civilians and critical infrastructure against attacks perpetrated by terrorists, such as suicide attacks with improvised explosive devices, rocket attacks against aircraft and helicopters and the potential use of weapons of mass destruction.

The Defence Against Terrorism Programme of Work

The Defence Against Terrorism Programme of Work (DAT POW), which was developed by the Conference of National Armaments Directors (CNAD) in 2004, is an important part of measures taken
to strengthen the Alliance’s fight against terrorism. The DAT POW primarily focused on technological solutions to mitigate the effects of terrorist attacks but has widened its scope to support comprehensive capability development. Most projects launched under the programme are focused on finding solutions that can be fielded in the short term. Individual NATO countries lead the projects with support and contributions from other member countries (and partner countries in some cases), NATO bodies and other stakeholders. The DAT POW 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 and the possibility that terrorists will acquire them are acknowledged as principal threats to the Alliance. Therefore, NATO places a high priority on preventing the proliferation of WMD and defending against CBRN threats and hazards. NATO’s Comprehensive, Strategic-Level Policy for Preventing the Proliferation of WMD and Defending against CBRN Threats states that NATO will work actively to prevent the proliferation of WMD by state and non-state actors. The Alliance is determined to ensure that NATO has the full range of capabilities necessary to deter and defend against any threat to the safety and security of Allied populations, including the threat posed by CBRN weapons.

The Combined Joint CBRN Defence Task Force (which consists of a CBRN Defence Battalion and a CBRN Joint Assessment Team) is designed to respond to and manage the consequences of the use of CBRN agents both within and beyond NATO’s area of responsibility. In addition, efforts are underway to establish a NATO CBRN Reach Back capability, providing coordinated, on-demand advice on CBRN threats, risks and hazards to support NATO’s response to WMD proliferation, protection and recovery. The NATO-certified Centre of Excellence on Joint CBRN Defence, in the Czech Republic, further enhances NATO’s capabilities to counter CBRN threats.

**Improved intelligence-sharing**

Since the terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001, NATO increased consultations on terrorism and terrorism-related issues among its members, as well as with non-member countries. Information-sharing and, more specifically, intelligence-sharing are key aspects of this exchange. Over the years, various steps have been taken to improve intelligence-sharing mechanisms and structures, based on decisions taken at the 2002 Prague Summit, the 2004 Istanbul Summit and with the reform of intelligence structures in 2010-2011.

As a result of reform, analysis of intelligence at NATO Headquarters — including of terrorist issues — was enhanced with the creation of the Intelligence Unit, which benefits from the increased sharing of intelligence between member services and the Alliance. Via the Intelligence Unit, analytical approaches to terrorism and its links with other transnational threats have been enhanced, as has cooperation among the NATO civilian and military intelligence components.

Intelligence-sharing between specialised NATO international bodies and partner countries’ agencies has continued, through the Intelligence Liaison Unit at NATO Headquarters in Brussels, and an intelligence liaison cell at Allied Command Operations in Mons, Belgium.
Strengthening cooperation with partners

The threat of terrorism does not affect NATO alone so counter-terrorism work has become an important element of NATO’s cooperation activities with partners around the world. The contributions by a number of partners to NATO’s operations, as well as their efforts to introduce defence reforms supported by NATO programmes, strengthen efforts to counter terrorism. Dialogue and cooperation in the field of counter-terrorism are priorities in relations with many of NATO’s partners.

Partners interested in engaging in bilateral cooperation with NATO in the area of counter-terrorism are encouraged to include the subject in all relevant documents, such as the Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme (IPCP), Individual Partnership Action Plans (IPAPs) and Annual National Programmes (ANPs), according to their specific interests and needs. Additionally, the 2002 Partnership Action Plan against Terrorism (PAP-T) provides a framework for multinational practical cooperation. Originally developed under the auspices of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, the PAP-T is now open to all partner countries.

On 1 April 2014, NATO 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, NATO Foreign Ministers decided to suspend all practical civilian and military cooperation between NATO and Russia, including in the area of counter-terrorism cooperation.

Combating terrorism was among the main drivers behind the creation of the NATO-Russia Council (NRC) in May 2002 and remained a key aspect of NATO’s dialogue and practical cooperation with Russia. An NRC Action Plan on Terrorism first agreed in December 2004 and subsequently updated, sets out areas of cooperation. It aims to enhance capabilities to act, individually and jointly, in three critical areas: preventing terrorism, combating terrorist activities and managing the consequences of terrorist acts (for more information, see NATO-Russia Council Action Plan on Terrorism).

The NRC also launched the Cooperative Airspace Initiative (CAI) in 2003 to foster cooperation on airspace surveillance and air traffic coordination, with the underlying goal to enhance confidence-building and to strengthen capabilities required for the handling of situations in which aircraft are suspected of being used as weapons to perpetrate terrorist attacks. The CAI system became operational in 2011. Russia has also participated in Operation Active Endeavour in 2006 and 2007. To date, cooperation remains suspended.

Strengthening cooperation with other organisations

NATO is cooperating with other international organisations – in particular the United Nations (UN), the European Union (EU) and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) – to ensure that information is shared and 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 cooperating with the United Nations on counter-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 relevant component organisations. On broader issues
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.

NATO maintains close relations with the OSCE’s Transnational Threats Department’s Action against Terrorism Unit.

The use of civilian aircraft as a weapon on 11 September 2001 led to efforts to enhance aviation security. NATO’s efforts in this field include improving civil-military coordination of air traffic control by working with EUROCONTROL, the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), the US Federal Aviation Authority, major national aviation and security authorities, airlines and pilot associations and the International Air Transport Association (IATA), so that information is shared and action taken more effectively.

**Improving training, education and cooperation through science**

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 and the Centres of Excellence (COEs) that support the NATO command structure. Currently, there are 18 COEs fully accredited by NATO. Several of the COEs have a link to the fight against terrorism, in particular the Centre of Excellence for Defence Against Terrorism (COE-DAT) in Ankara, Turkey that serves as both a location and a catalyst for international dialogue and discussion regarding defence against terrorism issues. COE-DAT has established links with over 50 countries and 40 organisations to provide subject matter expertise on terrorism.

Counter-terrorism is also an important priority of the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme, which is a longstanding platform for enhancing cooperation and dialogue with partners based on civil science and innovation. The SPS Programme has been successful in bringing together scientists and experts from NATO and partner countries in the field of counter-terrorism, thereby contributing to a better understanding of threats, the development of detection and response measures, as well as fostering an effective network of experts. Activities include workshops, training courses and multi-year research and development projects. The principal themes under the SPS Programme for activities in the area of counter-terrorism include: exploring methods for the protection of critical infrastructure, supplies and personnel; human factors in defence against terrorism; detection technologies against the terrorist threat from explosive devices and illicit activities; and risk management, best practices, and technologies in response to terrorism.

**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:

1. 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;
2. 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;
3. to take necessary measures to provide increased security for facilities of the United States and other Allies on their territory;
4. to backfill selected Allied assets in NATO’s area of responsibility that are required to directly support operations against terrorism;
5. 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;

6. 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;

7. 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;

8. 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.

March 2004 As a result of the success of Active Endeavour in the Eastern Mediterranean, NATO extends its remit to the whole of the Mediterranean.

November 2006 At the Riga Summit, NATO leaders recognise that “terrorism, increasingly global in scope and lethal in results, and the spread of weapons of mass destruction are likely to be the principal threats to the Alliance over the next 10 to 15 years”.

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.
Defence Against Terrorism Programme of Work (DAT POW)

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.

As the threat is urgent, most projects launched under the DAT POW are focused on finding solutions that can be fielded in the short term. The programme meets critical military requirements and addresses Alliance shortfalls. The DAT POW development is driven by the latest political guidance, provided by the 2010 Strategic concept and Lisbon Summit Declaration. It is influenced by NATO’s new counter-terrorism policy guidelines endorsed at the 2012 Chicago Summit.

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.

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 being explored. These include sensor nets, electro-optical detectors, rapid-reaction capabilities and unmanned underwater vehicles. A maritime mission planning tool, known as “Safe Port”, is being developed under the leadership of Portugal. Ongoing work led by Poland aims to develop an underwater magnetic barrier to complement sonar systems currently used to detect underwater threats. 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, protection against improvised explosive devices (IEDs) and integration of multiple systems.
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.

**Detecting, protecting against and defeating chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) weapons**

Ideally, terrorists should be prevented from using CBRN weapons. Should prevention fail, there is a requirement to protect forces and populations against their effects. France, as the first lead nation in this effort, developed a work plan which included live exercises, CBRN agent sampling and identification analysis. A broad range of technologies were tested against a number of CBRN-related threats.

Since 2012, the Czech Republic has been developing a prototype for chemical detection and annually, for training purposes, Canada organises Exercise Precise Response, exploring a scenario with a live CBRN agent. DAT POW also supports the Joint CBRN Defence Centre of Excellence, in Vyskov, Czech Republic, in its efforts to set up CBRN Reach back capabilities, i.e. ensuring adequate 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, and C-IED information management solutions across the Alliance are being assessed. In 2012, DAT POW, with the NATO Communications and Information Agency (NCIA), organised a route-clearance demonstration in Germany to improve doctrine, share best practice and standardize NATO route-clearance operations. Subsequently, the Military Engineering Centre of Excellence (MILENG COE), in Ingolstadt, Germany has furthered this work by improving the Allied Route Clearance doctrine and illustrating it at a 2014 demonstration. Additional C-IED-related projects led by NCIA involve automated data mining and scanning systems for passengers.

**Explosive ordnance disposal and consequence management**

Here the objective is to improve NATO’s capabilities, the training of explosive ordnance disposal (EOD) teams and management of the consequences of an explosion. DAT POW supports the annual Northern Challenge exercise, led by Iceland, which involves underwater EOD/IED and conventional munitions disposal (CMD), and is open to NATO and Partnership for Peace countries. DAT POW supports the 2014 NATO EOD demonstrations and trials, led by the NATO EOD Centre of Excellence.
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 to identify non-lethal capabilities (NLC) for NATO forces, Germany is leading this initiative with a view to allowing forces to become familiar with various NLC, and promoting upcoming non-lethal technologies through exercises. The DAT POW Non-Lethal Capability Group will organise two exercises in 2015. Belgium and France are co-leading a project on standards for non-lethal weapons. In earlier work, the Centre for Maritime Research and Experimentation in La Spezia, Italy contributed to this domain by exploring the behavioural effects of non-lethal weapons.

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 supported Trial Unified Vision 2012 and 2014. Simulating a real-world operational environment, the trial sought to determine how well participants could analyse threat information and identify and track threats to form a cohesive intelligence picture, and how easily this could be shared. DAT POW also supports the NATO Human Intelligence (HUMINT) Centre of Excellence in Oradea, Romania, which is seeking to improve technical interoperability within the NATO HUMINT community and to analyse 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. A NATO biometrics programme of work and action plan have been developed to cover all the areas required for a full capability (doctrine, concept, standards, equipment, etc.). The DAT POW community supports this effort.

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. DAT POW supported the NATO Special Operations Headquarters (NSHQ) in training forces with a mobile laboratory permitting forensic investigation of IED incidents in theatre. DAT POW now supports the development of a database for NATO special operation counter-terrorism activities.
**Past activities**

In the past, DAT POW supported several other capability areas where there were requirements from forces in theatre. These included Defence Against Mortar Attack (DAMA), Precision Air Drop, Protection against Rocket Propelled Grenades and Protection of Critical Infrastructure. These initiatives were closed once the short-term requirements had been satisfied.
Weapons of mass destruction

NATO’s Strategic Concept made clear that the proliferation of nuclear weapons and other weapons of mass destruction (WMD), and their delivery systems, could have 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.

Allied Heads of State and Government further emphasised at their Chicago Summit in May 2012 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)”. That is why NATO Allies engage actively in preventing the proliferation of WMD by state and non-state actors through an active political agenda of arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation as well as 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 a secure NATO.

NATO is prepared for recovery efforts, should the Alliance suffer a WMD attack or CBRN (chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear) event, within its competencies and whenever it can bring added value, through a comprehensive political, military and civilian approach.

Despite significant progress, however, major challenges remain.

**NATO’s weapons of mass destruction initiatives**

The Alliance stepped up its activities in this area in 1999 with the launch of the Weapons of Mass Destruction Initiative. This initiative was assigned to integrate political and military aspects of Alliance work in responding to the proliferation of WMD. Since then, Allies continue to intensify and expand NATO’s contribution to global non-proliferation efforts, especially through strong support to various arms control and non-proliferation regimes and through international outreach to partners and relevant international organisations. Allies also intensify NATO's defence response to the risk posed by WMD and continue to improve civil preparedness and consequence-management capabilities in the event of WMD use or CBRN attack or accident.

**The Weapons of Mass Destruction Non-Proliferation Centre**

The Weapons of Mass Destruction (WMD) Non-Proliferation Centre was launched in May 2000 as a result of the WMD Initiative that was approved at the April 1999 Washington Summit. It is structurally embedded in the Emerging Security Challenges (ESC) Division at NATO Headquarters and combines in its work the knowledge of national experts as well as of personnel from NATO’s International Staff.

Core parts of the Centre’s work are to strengthen dialogue and common understanding of WMD issues among member countries, to enhance consultations on non-proliferation, to assess risks and to support defence efforts that serve to improve the Alliance’s preparedness to respond to the risks of WMD and their delivery systems.

**Improving CBRN defence capabilities**

The Alliance’s effort to improve NATO’s CBRN defence capabilities led to the introduction of the five CBRN defence initiatives, endorsed at the 2002 Prague Summit. These initiatives represent a crucial
advancement in improving NATO’s defences against WMD and emphasise multinational participation and the rapid fielding of enhanced capabilities:

- a Prototype CBRN Joint Advisory Team that can assess the effects of a CBRN event, "reach back" to national experts and provide expert advice to NATO commanders, helping them to choose appropriate protection actions;
- deployable analytical CBRN laboratories that can be transported rapidly into theatre to investigate, collect and analyse samples for identification;
- a CBRN virtual pharmaceutical stockpile shared among Alliance members, which could rapidly support NATO deployed forces with pharmaceutical material to enhance post-exposure medical treatment and recovery;
- a Virtual Centre of Excellence for CBRN defence to enhance visibility and transparency of all NATO CBRN training and education;
- a Near Real Time Disease Surveillance System to rapidly collect, identify, analyse and disseminate information related to any biological outbreak, with the goal of preventing or limiting the loss of NATO armed forces personnel or resources.

Four of the Prague CBRN defence initiatives have been brought to a successful conclusion. The first two initiatives now form the Combined Joint CBRN Defence Task Force (CJ-CBRND-TF) consisting of NATO’s multinational CBRN Defence Battalion and Joint Assessment Team, which were declared "fully operational" at the Istanbul Summit in June 2004.

NATO achieved an interim Disease Surveillance capability in June 2007, and a full operational capability is expected in the near future.

As a consequence of all these efforts, NATO and NATO Allies have, until now, significantly improved and are further improving the Alliance’s CBRN defence posture with the establishment of the WMD Non-Proliferation Centre (WMDC), the Combined Joint CBRN Defence Task Force (CJ-CBRND-TF), the NATO CBRN Reach Back 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. NATO Allies have invested significant resources in warning and reporting, individual protection and CBRN hazard management capabilities.

**Combined Joint CBRN Defence Task Force**

The multinational CBRN Defence Battalion and Joint Assessment Team now form the NATO Combined Joint CBRN Defence Task Force, which is designed to perform a full range of CBRN defence missions.

The Task Force is led by an individual Ally on 12-month rotational basis. Under normal circumstances, it would operate within the NATO Response Force (NRF), which is a joint, 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 Joint CBRN Defence Centre of Excellence in Vyskov, the 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.

The Centre of Excellence offers recognised expertise and experience to the benefit of the Alliance and supports NATO’s transformation process. 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.

**Standardization, training, research & development**

NATO continues to create and improve necessary standardization documents; conduct training and exercises and to develop the 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
- the Political and Partnerships 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).

**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. In this process, disarmament of both conventional weapons and WMD are actively addressed.

Regarding conventional weapons, NATO is committed to conventional arms control, which provides predictability, transparency, and a means to keep armaments at the lowest possible level. The Alliance will work to strengthen the conventional arms control regime in Europe on the basis of reciprocity, transparency, and host nation consent.

In the field of WMD disarmament NATO has, with the changes in the security environment since the end of the Cold War, dramatically reduced the number of nuclear weapons stationed in Europe and our reliance on nuclear weapons in the NATO strategy. No NATO member country has a chemical or biological weapons programme. Additionally, Allies are committed to destroy any stockpiles of chemical agents and have supported a number of partner and other countries in such activity.

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. 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).

**Deterrence**

In the Alliance’s 2010 Strategic Concept, deterrence, based on an appropriate mix of nuclear and conventional capabilities, is identified as a core element of NATO’s collective defence and will therefore contribute to the indivisible security of the Alliance.
NATO must be prepared to utilise all options at its disposal to deter a potential aggressor from employing WMD. Deterrence is conveyed through maintaining a credible overall deterrence posture as well as declaratory statements that, *inter alia*, demonstrate NATO cohesion and resolve. The Alliance will reaffirm and communicate its resolve to hold accountable all those who support or enable the use of WMD against Allies.

**Improving civil preparedness**

National authorities are primarily responsible for protecting their population and critical infrastructure against the consequences of terrorist attacks, CBRN incidents and natural disasters. NATO serves as a forum to develop non-binding guidelines and minimum standards as well as to exchange best practices and lessons learned for such eventualities 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.

The Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre, which is based at NATO Headquarters, stands ready to act as a clearing house for mutual assistance, upon request, and can also assist in coordinating civil-military cooperation in the event of such an attack.

**Creating standard agreements among Allies**

NATO continues to create and improve standard NATO agreements that will govern Allied operations in a nuclear, biological or chemical environment. These agreements guide all aspects of preparation, ranging from standards for disease surveillance to rules for restricting troop movements. In addition, the Alliance conducts many training exercises and senior-level seminars that are designed to test interoperability and prepare NATO leaders and forces for operations in a CBRN environment.

**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. That way, 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 the so-called "partners across the globe".

**International outreach activities**

Outreach to partners, international and regional organisations helps develop a common understanding of the WMD threat and encourage 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), 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 every year a non-proliferation conference involving a significant number of non-member countries from six continents. The latest event, hosted for the first time by a partner country, Switzerland, was held in Interlaken in June 2014. It attracted more than 100 participants, including senior officials from NATO and partner countries, as well as international organisations. This event is unique among activities in the non-proliferation field organised by international organisations in that it provides a possibility for an informal discussion on all types of WMD threats as well as the political and diplomatic responses to them. Qatar, as a participant in the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative, will host the next conference in 2015.

The Alliance also participates in relevant conferences organised by other international institutions, including the United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs, the European Union, the Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons, the Biological and Toxin Weapons Convention, the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe, and others.

Many of NATO’s activities under the Science for Peace and Security Programme focus on the civilian side of nuclear, chemical and biological technology. Scientists from NATO and partner countries are developing areas of research that impact on these areas. These 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 senior advisory body that is dealing with the Alliance’s political and defence efforts against WMD proliferation is the Committee on 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, territory and forces. The Committee on Proliferation is chaired by NATO’s International Staff when discussing politico-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 ever more destructive weapons.

During the Cold War, use of nuclear weapons was prevented by the prospect of massive retaliation. 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 at NATO Headquarters (Brussels, Belgium) in 2000.

*At the 2002 Prague Summit*, the Allies launched a modernisation process designed 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 forces, population and territory from chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear incidents.

*In 2003*, NATO has created the Multinational CBRN Defence Battalion and Joint Assessment Team, which since 2007 are part of the Combined Joint CBRN Defence Task Force.

At the *Riga Summit in 2006*, Allied leaders endorsed a Comprehensive Political Guidance (CPG). The CPG 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 Vyskov, the 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*, NATO Heads of State and Government adopted a new Strategic Concept for the Defence and Security of the Members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. Allied leaders also agreed at Lisbon to establish a dedicated committee providing advice on WMD control and disarmament. 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.
Ballistic missile defence

Proliferation of ballistic missiles poses an increasing threat to Allied populations, territory and deployed forces. Over 30 countries have, or are acquiring, ballistic missile technology that could eventually be used to carry not just conventional warheads, but also weapons of mass destruction. The proliferation of these capabilities does not necessarily mean there is an immediate intent to attack NATO, but it does mean that the Alliance has a responsibility to take this into account as part of its core task of collective defence.

At the November 2010 NATO Summit in Lisbon, NATO’s leaders decided to develop a ballistic missile defence (BMD) capability to pursue its core task of collective defence. To this end, they decided that the scope of the existing Active Layered Theatre Ballistic Missile Defence (ALTBMD) programme’s command, control and communication capabilities will be expanded beyond the capability to protect forces to also include NATO European populations and territory. In this context, the US European Phased Adaptive Approach (EPAA) and other national contributions were welcomed as valuable to the NATO BMD architecture.

A year and a half later, at the May 2012 Chicago Summit, Allies declared 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.

However, the aim remains to provide full coverage and protection for all NATO European populations, territory and forces, based on voluntary national contributions, including nationally funded interceptors and sensors, hosting arrangements, and on the expansion of the ALTBMD capability.

Components
The Alliance is conducting three BMD-related activities:

1. **Theatre Ballistic Missile Defence capability**

The aim of this capability is to protect deployed NATO forces against short- and medium-range ballistic missile threats (up to 3,000-kilometer range). In order to manage the risk associated with the development of such a complex capability, ALTBMD is being fielded in several phases and eventually will merge with the capabilities for territorial BMD that are being developed in parallel.

The completed capability will consist of a system of systems, comprising low- and high-altitude defences (also called lower- and upper-layer defences), including battle management, communications, command and control and intelligence (BMC3I), sensors and various interceptors. NATO member countries will provide the sensors and weapons systems, while NATO will develop the BMC3I segment and facilitate the integration of all these elements into a coherent and effective architecture.

The ALTBMD programme was launched in 2005 and currently it is now managed by the NATO Communications and Information Agency (NCIA) and its BMD Programme Office.
The initial activities were mainly focused on system engineering and integration work, and on the development of an integration test bed hosted at the NCIA facilities in The Hague, the Netherlands. The integration test bed is essential to validate development work.

In early 2010, the first operational ALTBMD capability (called Interim Capability) was fielded. It provides military planners with a planning tool to build the most effective defence design for specific scenarios or real deployments. A more robust version of that capability was fielded at the end of 2010 and provides shared situational awareness. The next version will be delivered in the 2016-2017 timeframe. After that, ALTBMD will be merged with the BMD effort detailed below.

2. BMD for the protection of NATO European territory, populations and forces

At the Lisbon Summit in November 2010, NATO leaders decided to develop a BMD capability. They agreed that an expanded ALTBMD Programme should form the command, control and communications backbone of such a system. That decision was based on almost eight years of technical studies and political-military discussions.

In May 2012 at the Chicago Summit, NATO leaders declared the Interim NATO BMD Capability operational. It offers the maximum coverage within available means to defend NATO’s populations, territory and forces across southern Europe against a limited ballistic missile attack. The Alliance aims 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.

As part of the US European Phased Adaptive Approach (EPAA), Turkey announced in autumn 2011 its decision to host a US-owned and -operated BMD radar at Kürecik. Romania and the United States agreed in 2011 to base Aegis Ashore capabilities at Deveselu airbase in Romania (in the 2015 timeframe), and a similar basing agreement between the United States and Poland entered into force in 2011 to host Aegis Ashore at the Redzikowo military base (in the 2018 timeframe). Also in 2011, Spain and the United States announced an agreement to base four Aegis missile defence ships in Rota, Spain. These assets are national contributions, and are integral parts of the NATO BMD capability.

Several Allies currently offer their ground-based air and missile defence systems (such as Patriot or SAMP/T) or complementary ships for air-defence protection. Others are developing or acquiring BMD assets that could be eventually made available for NATO BMD.

In September 2011, the Netherlands announced plans to upgrade four air-defence frigates with extended long-range missile defence early-warning radars as its national contribution to NATO’s ballistic missile defence capability. A similar announcement was made in August 2014 by Denmark, which decided to acquire a frigate-based radar system to enhance NATO BMD.

3. Missile defence cooperation with Russia
In 2003, under the auspices of the NATO-Russia Council (NRC), a study was launched to assess possible levels of interoperability among the theatre missile defence systems of NATO Allies and Russia.

Together with this study, several successful computer-assisted exercises have been held to provide the basis for future improvements to interoperability, and to develop mechanisms and procedures for joint operations in the area of theatre missile defence.

NATO and Russia also examined possible areas for cooperation on territorial missile defence, based on their decision at the Lisbon Summit. They agreed on a joint ballistic missile threat assessment, and to continue dialogue in this area. In April 2012, NATO and Russia successfully conducted a computer-assisted missile defence exercise hosted by Germany.

In October 2013, NATO-Russia missile defence-related discussions were paused by Russia, and in April 2014, NATO suspended all cooperation with Russia in response to the Ukraine crisis.

Mechanisms
The Defence Policy and Planning Committee (Reinforced) (DPPC(R)) is the senior NATO committee that oversees and coordinates all efforts to develop the NATO BMD capability at the political-military level, as well as providing political-military guidance and advice on all issues related to NATO BMD.

The Conference of National Armaments Directors (CNAD) is the senior policy committee responsible for the BMD programme.

NATO Military Authorities are responsible for developing a military doctrinal framework for BMD and for BMD operational planning and execution.

Several other NATO senior committees address particular issues related to NATO BMD, such as civil emergency planning, crisis-response measures, or integration of air and missile defence.

Evolution
The key policy document providing the framework for NATO’s activities in the area of BMD is NATO’s 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. We will actively seek cooperation on missile defence with Russia and other Euro-Atlantic partners.” 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.

Key milestones

**Theatre Missile Defence**

**May 2001** NATO launches two parallel feasibility studies for a future Alliance theatre missile defence system.

**June 2004** At the Istanbul Summit, Allied leaders direct that work on theatre missile defence be taken forward expeditiously.

**March 2005** The Alliance approves the establishment of a Programme Management Organization under the auspices of the CNAD.

**September 2006** The Alliance awards the first major contract for the development of a test bed for the system.

**February 2008** The test bed is opened and declared fully operational nine months ahead of schedule.

**Throughout 2008** The system design for the NATO command and control component of the theatre missile defence system is verified through testing with national systems and facilities via the integrated test bed; this paves the way for the procurement of the capability.

**March 2010** The Interim Capability (InCa) Step 1 is fielded.

**June 2010** NATO signs contracts for the second phase of the interim theatre missile defence capability, which will include the capability to conduct a real-time theatre missile defence battle.
July 2010  The more robust Interim Capability (InCa 2) passes key tests during the Dutch Air Force Joint Project Optic Windmill 2010 exercise.

December 2010  At the end of 2010, all InCa 2 components – including BMD sensors and shooters from NATO nations – are linked and successfully tested in an ‘ensemble’ test prior to handover to NATO’s military commanders. InCa 2 is subsequently delivered to the Combined Air Operations Centre (CAOC) in Uedem, Germany.

**Territorial Missile Defence**

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.

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 the Alliance effort 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 EPAA.
November 2010  At the Lisbon Summit, Allies agree to acquire a territorial missile defence capability. They agree that an expanded theatre missile defence programme should form the command, control and communications backbone of such a system.

June 2011  NATO Defence Ministers approve the NATO Ballistic Missile Defence 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 Interim Capability at Allied Air Command in Ramstein, Germany.

May 2012  
NATO Summit in Chicago. Declaration of the Interim BMD Capability.

December 2012  
NATO decides to augment Turkish air defence against missiles from Syria. Germany, the Netherlands and the United States deploy Patriot air- and missile-defence systems to eastern Turkey.

March 2013  
The United States announces a revised EPAA.

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

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

June 2014  
Second US Aegis destroyer stationed in Rota, Spain.

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.

**NATO-Russia Council (Theatre) Missile Defence Cooperation**

A study is launched under the NATO-Russia Council (NRC) to assess possible levels of interoperability among theatre missile defence systems of NATO Allies and Russia.
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tr>
<td>March 2004</td>
<td>An NRC theatre missile defence command post exercise is held in the United States.</td>
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<tr>
<td>October 2006</td>
<td>An NRC theatre missile defence command post exercise is held in Russia.</td>
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<tr>
<td>January 2008</td>
<td>An NRC theatre missile defence computer-assisted exercise takes place in Germany.</td>
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<tr>
<td>December 2010</td>
<td>First meeting of the NRC Missile Defence Working Group aimed at assessing decisions taken at the Lisbon Summit and exploring a possible way forward for cooperation on ballistic missile defence.</td>
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<td>June 2011</td>
<td>NRC Defence Ministers take stock of the work on missile defence since the 2010 Lisbon Summit.</td>
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<tr>
<td>April 2012</td>
<td>Computer-assisted exercise in Ottobrunn, Germany.</td>
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<tr>
<td>October 2013</td>
<td>Russia unilaterally pauses the discussions on missile defence in the NRC framework.</td>
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<tr>
<td>April 2014</td>
<td>In response to the Ukraine crisis, NATO suspends all cooperation with Russia, including on missile defence.</td>
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Cyber defence

Against the background of increasing dependence on technology and on the Internet, the Alliance is advancing its efforts to confront the wide range of cyber threats targeting NATO’s networks on a daily basis. The growing sophistication of cyber attacks makes the protection of the Alliance’s communications and information systems (CIS) an urgent task. This objective has been recognised as a priority in NATO’s Strategic Concept, and has been reiterated in the two most recent Summit Declarations, as well as at NATO ministerial meetings.

Principal cyber defence activities

NATO Policy on Cyber Defence

In order to keep abreast with the rapidly changing threat landscape and maintain a robust cyber defence, NATO has adopted a new enhanced policy and its action plan, which was endorsed by Allies at the Wales Summit in September 2014. The policy establishes that cyber defence is part of the Alliance’s core task of collective defence, confirms that international law applies in cyberspace and intensifies NATO’s cooperation with industry. The top priority is the protection of the communications systems owned and operated by the Alliance.

The new 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 emergency planning). Further, the policy defines ways to take awareness, education, training and exercise activities forward, 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 based on information sharing and cooperative supply chain management.

The Allies have also committed to enhancing information sharing and mutual assistance in preventing, mitigating and recovering from cyber attacks. The new policy is complemented by an action plan with concrete objectives and implementation timelines.

Assisting individual Allies

While NATO’s top priority for cyber defence is the protection of communications and information systems (CIS) which are owned and operated by NATO, the Alliance requires a reliable and secure supporting national infrastructure, in particular those national networks which may be considered critical for NATO missions. To this end, NATO works with national authorities to develop principles, criteria and mechanisms to ensure an appropriate level of cyber defence for national CIS. The Alliance will continue to identify NATO dependencies on the Allies’ national CIS for critical Alliance tasks and will work with NATO countries to develop common standards.

NATO is also helping member countries in their efforts to protect their own critical infrastructures 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.

Developing the NATO cyber defence capability

The NATO Computer Incident Response Capability (NCIRC) protects NATO’s own networks by providing centralised and round-the-clock cyber defence support to the various NATO sites. This
capability is expected to evolve on a continual basis, to 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 (NDPP).

Cyber defence has also been integrated into NATO’s Smart Defence initiative. 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, so far, include the Malware Information Sharing Platform (MISP), the Smart Defence Multinational Cyber Defence Capability Development (MN CD2) project, and the Multinational Cyber Defence Education and Training (MN CD E&T) project.

*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, exercises and evaluation.

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. NATO is also enhancing its capabilities for cyber education, training and exercises, including the NATO Cyber Range, which is based on a facility provided by Estonia.

The NATO Cooperative Cyber Defence Centre of Excellence (CCD CoE) in Tallinn, Estonia is the foremost 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 some NATO communication and information systems. NCISS will soon relocate 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 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 relevant countries and 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.

NATO also works with, among others, the European Union (EU), the United Nations (UN), the Council of Europe and the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE). The Alliance’s cooperation with other international organisations is intended to ensure that actions are complementary and avoid unnecessary duplication of work.
**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 mount an effective cyber defence.

Via the NATO Industry Cyber Partnership (NICP), NATO and Allies will work to reinforce their relationships with industry. The principal aim of the NICP will be to facilitate voluntary engagement between NATO and industry. This partnership will rely on existing structures and will include NATO entities, national Computer Emergency Response Teams (CERTs) and NATO member countries’ industry representatives.

**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 Council is apprised of major cyber incidents and attacks, and it exercises principal authority in cyber defence-related crisis management.

The Cyber Defence Committee (formerly the Defence Policy and Planning Committee/Cyber Defence), subordinate to the NAC, is the lead committee for political governance and cyber defence policy in general, providing oversight and advice to Allied countries on NATO’s cyber defence efforts at the expert level. 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.

Lastly, 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 aggression against the Alliance. 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. It ensures the cyber defence liaison with other international organisations such as the EU, the OSCE and the United Nations/International Telecommunication Union (UN/ITU).

**Evolution**

Although NATO has always protected its communication 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 April and May of 2007, Allied Defence Ministers agreed in June 2007 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 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, and an associated action plan for its implementation.

In April 2012, the integration of cyber defence into the NATO Defence Planning Process (NDPP) began. 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 improve the Alliance’s cyber defences by bringing all of NATO’s networks under centralised protection and implementing a series of upgrades to the NCIRC.

In July 2012, as part of the reform of NATO’s agencies, 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.

In May 2014, the full operational capability of the NCIRC (NCIRC FOC) was achieved, providing enhanced protection to NATO networks and users.

In June 2014, NATO Defence Ministers endorsed the new cyber defence policy, which is currently being implemented. The new policy and its implementation will be kept under close review at both the political and technical levels within the Alliance and will be refined and updated in line with the evolving cyber threat.

At the Wales Summit in September 2014, Allies approved a new action plan which along with the new policy contributes to the fulfilment of the Alliance’s core tasks.
Countering improvised explosive devices

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.

IEDs are one of the main causes of casualties among troops and exact a heavy toll on local populations. With the aim of reducing the risks posed by IEDs, the Alliance helps members and partners in developing their own counter-IED (C-IED) capabilities, with a particular emphasis on education and training, doctrine development and improving counter-measure technologies.

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.

C-IED efforts are conducted at NATO Headquarters in Brussels, Belgium, Allied Command Transformation (ACT) in Norfolk, Virginia (United States), International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) Headquarters in Afghanistan, as well as at various Centres of Excellence (CoEs) and NATO Agencies. These different commands, agencies and divisions focus on research, training, exercises, doctrine development, development of capabilities to defeat IEDs, sharing information and bringing together non-NATO actors to disrupt the network before IEDs kill or injure troops and civilians.

Counter-Improvised Explosive Devices (C-IED) Action Plan

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 Task Force 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, ACT offers several C-IED training programmes executed by the C-IED Integrated Product Team, 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.
The Science for Peace and Security Programme

The Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme is a policy tool that enhances cooperation and dialogue with all partners, based on scientific research, innovation, and knowledge exchange. The SPS Programme provides funding, expert advice, and support to security-relevant activities jointly developed by a NATO member and partner country.

Founded in 1958, the Programme contributes towards the Alliance’s core goals and promotes regional cooperation through scientific projects and activities. Over its long history, the SPS Programme has continuously adapted to the demands of the times. 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.

The SPS Programme now promotes civil, security-related practical cooperation, and focuses on a growing range of contemporary security challenges, including terrorism, defence against chemical, biological, radiological, and nuclear (CBRN) agents, cyber defence, energy security and environmental concerns, as well as human and social aspects of security, such as the implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security (UNSCR 1325).

The Programme provides the Alliance with distinctive, non-military communication channels, including in situations where other forms of dialogue are difficult to establish. Accordingly, SPS often serves as the first concrete link between NATO and a partner.

The SPS Programme: science, partnership and security

The Programme promotes collaboration and cooperative security based on three core dimensions: science, partnership and security.

Science

The Programme helps to foster research, innovation, and knowledge exchange in an effort to address mutual security challenges. SPS has a vast network reaching out to hundreds of universities and institutions across the world.

Partnership

The collaborative framework of the Programme brings together scientists, experts, and policy makers from Allied and partner countries to address today’s security challenges. Moreover, the SPS Programme is well known as a tool available to all partners, thus proving that practical cooperation is achievable across political barriers through scientific exchange. Over the past five years the Programme has initiated over 450 collaborative activities in more than 40 partner countries.

Security

In line with guidance from NATO nations, all projects developed under SPS must have a relevant security dimension. This fundamental link to security is also reflected in the SPS Key Priorities developed by Allies. All activities funded under the SPS Programme must address one or more of the SPS Key Priorities

- SPS grants
The SPS Programme supports collaboration through three established grant mechanisms: multi-year research projects, workshops, and training courses. Interested applicants should develop proposals for activities that fit within one of these formats.

To that end, interested parties submit an application for funding that must be led by project directors from at least one Allied and one partner country. These applications must also directly address 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 approval process, taking into account expert, scientific and political guidance.

This process ensures that all SPS applications approved for funding have been evaluated by NATO experts, independent scientists, and NATO nations themselves.
NATO’s role in energy security

Allies recognise that the disruption of energy supply could affect the security of their societies and have an impact on NATO’s military operations. While these issues are primarily the responsibility of national governments, NATO continues to consult on energy security and further develops the capacity to contribute to energy security, concentrating on areas where NATO can add value. To this end, 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.

The report identified the five following key areas where NATO can provide added value:

- information and intelligence fusion and sharing;
- projecting stability;
- advancing international and regional cooperation;
- supporting consequence management; and
- supporting the protection of critical infrastructure.

Consultations started after the Bucharest Summit regarding the depth and range of NATO’s involvement in this issue. Both within the Alliance and with NATO’s partner countries, a number of practical programmes, such as workshops and research projects, are ongoing.

Work in practice

Enhancing strategic awareness of the security implications of energy developments

While NATO is not an energy institution, energy developments, such as supply disruptions, affect the international security environment and can have far-reaching security implications for some Allies. As a result, 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, as well as specific events, such as workshops, table-top exercises, and briefings by external experts. An important event in this regard was the North Atlantic Council’s seminar on global energy developments in January 2014, which underscored the security implications of recent energy trends. NATO also seeks to ensure that its military is well aware of the role energy developments can play in the NATO’s strategic environment, and has started to organise training courses in this regard.

Supporting the protection of critical energy infrastructure

All countries are increasingly reliant on vital energy infrastructure, including in the maritime domain, on which 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 also make an indirect contribution to energy security.

**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 minimising the environmental footprint. Work in this area concentrates on bringing together experts to examine existing national endeavours 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 is 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. NATO also continues to implement the Smart Energy Team (SENT) project, supported by the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme, with the goal to find Smart Energy solutions for the military.

**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, and the accreditation of the NATO Energy Security Centre of Excellence in Lithuania in 2012 were major milestones in this process.

The decision of NATO Heads of State and Government 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. Work is under way in this regard.

In the years to come, NATO will seek to further enhance the strategic dialogue, both among Allies and with partner countries, offer more education and training opportunities, and deepen its ties with other international organisations, (such as the International Energy Agency), academia, and the private sector. 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 and 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 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 helping member and partner countries address the impact of climate change in vulnerable regions.

Building international cooperation

Since 1969, NATO’s Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme has supported cooperative activities that tackle environmental issues, including those that are related to defence, in NATO countries. Since the SPS Programme opened up to partner countries in the 1990s, environmental security became the most active topic supported by the Programme.

For example in April 2010, a NATO Science workshop in Moscow addressed environmental security and "eco-terrorism", while a workshop in Cairo looked at food security and safety against terrorist threats and natural disasters.

The first international answer to environmental security challenges, however, came in 2004, when NATO joined five other international agencies to form the Environment and Security (ENVSEC) Initiative to address environmental issues that threaten security in vulnerable regions. The five other agencies are: the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) and the Regional Environment Center for Central and Eastern Europe (REC).

In Central Asia, NATO is leading ENVSEC projects to address uranium waste in the Ferghana Valley (Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan) and water resources management for wetlands restoration in the Aral Sea basin (Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan), among others.

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1 The ENVSEC Initiative was established in 2002 by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), 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 Secretary General 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.

Addressing defence-related environmental issues
In October 2009, the Science for Peace and Security Committee established the Defence and the Environment Experts Group (DEEG). The group’s overarching objective is to develop an environmental agenda to promote the identification, development and dissemination of cost-effective and innovative approaches to environmental and sustainability issues that affect military activities.

Meeting twice yearly, the DEEG examines and approves project proposals from individuals or groups from NATO member and partner. The projects focus on areas such as infrastructure and property issues arising from the management of defence estates, and the impact on soldiers of climatic and biological threats. In practice, the emphasis has been on projects and initiatives that affect deployed operations, such as streamlining the environmental footprint of military compounds to maximise cost savings and tactical advantage, while minimising negative impacts on the environment.

Energy security
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 more and more concerned with. 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.

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.
New capabilities

Improving NATO's capabilities

NATO has been engaged in continuous transformation for many years to ensure that it has the policies, capabilities and structures required to deal with current and future challenges, including the collective defence of its members. With Allied forces militarily engaged across several continents, the Alliance needs to ensure that its armed forces remain modern, deployable and sustainable.

The 2010 Strategic Concept sets out NATO’s strategic priorities and defines the Organization’s vision of Euro-Atlantic security for the next decade. It provides an analysis of the strategic environment and a framework for all Alliance capability development planning disciplines and intelligence, identifying the kinds of operations the Alliance must be able to perform and setting the context in which capability development takes place.

At the May 2012 Summit in Chicago, Allied leaders reaffirmed their determination to ensure that NATO retains and develops the capabilities necessary to perform its essential core tasks: collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security – and thereby to play an essential role promoting security in the world. At the September 2014 Summit in Wales, Allies further enhanced their ability to meet the demands of the three essential core tasks, while dealing with an acute financial crisis and responding to evolving geo-strategic challenges.

By working together in NATO, Alliance members are better able to ensure the security of their citizens than would be possible by acting alone. Over the past six decades, they have cooperated closely together, have made firm commitments and taken a range of initiatives to strengthen capabilities in key areas.

Meeting immediate and long-term challenges

The objectives of the 2010 Strategic Concept are further refined by the 2011 Political Guidance. This Political Guidance establishes in broad terms what the Alliance should be able to do, how much it should be able to do, and sets priorities, thereby guiding procurement and other key activities in the context of the NATO Defence Planning Process (NDPP). This guidance is due to be updated in June 2015.

The NATO Defence Planning Process

The NATO Defence Planning Process (NDPP) provides a framework within which national and Alliance processes can be harmonised to meet Alliance objectives. It establishes in detail how to meet the mandates of the Political Guidance and sets targets for Allies and the Alliance collectively, thereby guiding national and collective capability development.

Very short-term and critical capability shortfalls that arise during operations are tackled by a separate mechanism. Urgent operational requirements are raised by the operational commands, scrutinised by the Military Committee and the relevant budget committees and put to the North Atlantic Council, NATO’s principal political decision-making body, for consideration.

More information
**Current objectives**
With the adoption of the 2010 Strategic Concept, Alliance leaders committed to ensure that NATO has the full range of capabilities necessary to deter and defend against any threat to the safety and security of Allies’ populations. Therefore the Alliance will:

- maintain an appropriate mix of nuclear 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 command, control and consultation arrangements;
- develop the capability to defend NATO European populations, territories and forces against ballistic missile attack as a core element of its collective defence, which contributes to the indivisible security of the Alliance;
- further develop its capacity to defend against the threat of chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear weapons;
- develop further its ability to prevent, detect, defend against and recover from cyber attacks, including by using the NATO planning process to enhance and coordinate national cyber defence capabilities, bringing all NATO bodies under centralised cyber protection, and better integrating NATO cyber awareness, warning and response with member countries;
- enhance the capacity to detect and defend against international terrorism, including through enhanced analysis of the threat, more consultations with partners, and the development of appropriate military capabilities, including to help train local forces to fight terrorism themselves;
- develop the capacity to contribute to energy security, including protection of critical energy infrastructure and transit areas and lines, cooperation with partners, and consultations among Allies on the basis of strategic assessments and contingency planning;
- ensure that the Alliance is at the front edge in assessing the security impact of emerging technologies, and that military planning takes the potential threats into account;
- 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.

**Prioritising capabilities**
Given the evolving geo-strategic environment, NATO leaders are regularly assessing and reviewing the capabilities needed to conduct the full range of the Alliance’s missions.

At the Chicago Summit in May 2012, NATO leaders made a pledge to improve the Alliance’s planning processes and specific capabilities in pursuit of the “NATO Forces 2020” goal. The vision for NATO
forces in 2020 and beyond is one of modern, tightly connected forces equipped, trained, exercised and commanded so that they can operate together and with partners in any environment.

This constitutes the Chicago Defence Package, which aims to ensure the Alliance has all the requisite capabilities to implement the 2010 Strategic Concept and the 2011 Political Guidance. The package is based largely on existing plans and programmes and a realistic projection of resources. It therefore provides a renewed focus and mandate to ensure that in the competition for resources the most urgent capabilities are delivered.

The Chicago Defence Package consists of a mix of new and existing initiatives. The new initiatives include Smart Defence and the Connected Forces Initiative; the existing initiatives include the Lisbon Summit package focused on the Alliance’s most pressing capability needs; the ongoing reform of Alliance structures and processes; and the NATO Defence Planning Process, mentioned previously.

**Smart Defence**

In light of growing military requirements, developing capabilities becomes more complex and therefore in many cases more expensive. As a result, multinational cooperation offers a viable solution to deliver critical capabilities in a cost-effective manner. For certain high-end key capabilities Allies may in fact only be able to obtain them if they work together to develop and acquire them. Smart Defence is NATO’s approach for bringing multinational cooperation to the forefront of Allies’ capability delivery efforts.

Since its formal inception at the 2012 Chicago Summit Smart Defence has started to promote and reinvigorate a culture of multinational cooperation, which has and will continue to enable NATO to meet the challenges it will face in 2020 and beyond. Since Chicago, Allies have already successfully concluded a series of concrete Smart Defence projects, which delivered needed capabilities more effectively and efficiently through the formula of doing things together instead of doing them alone.

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 (EU), utilising agreed mechanisms, to ensure that Smart Defence and the EU’s Pooling and Sharing initiative are complementary and mutually reinforcing.

Concurrently, Smart Defence also contributes toward maintaining a strong defence industry in Europe by making the fullest possible use of defence industrial cooperation across the Alliance. Moving forward NATO will continue to support Allies in their endeavour to exploit the full potential multinational capability delivery offers.

**More information**

**Connected Forces Initiative**

At the 2012 Chicago Summit, Allied leaders set the goal of ‘NATO Forces 2020’. This is designed to be a coherent set of deployable, interoperable and sustainable forces equipped, trained, exercised and commanded so as to be able to meet NATO’s level of ambition and able to operate together and with partners in any environment. The Connected Forces Initiative (CFI) is essential to ensure 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. It also reinforces the message that NATO is displaying its capability and resolve in the light of a changing and unpredictable security environment. The
implementation of CFI is one of the key means to deliver NATO Forces 2020 and to enable the training and exercise elements of NATO’s Readiness Action Plan (RAP).

At the 2014 Wales Summit, Allied leaders endorsed six key CFI measures: an updated NATO Education, Training, Exercise and Evaluation Policy; a broader NATO Training Concept from 2015 to 2020; a high-visibility exercise (“Trident Juncture 2015”); a major NATO exercise programme from 2016 onwards and a Special Operations Component Command headquarters under the operational command of the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR).

**More information**

**Framework Nations Initiative**
In June 2014, NATO Defence Ministers agreed a Framework Nations Concept, which sees groups of countries coming together for two purposes. First, 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 notions of multinational development of capabilities that are at the heart of Smart Defence and the ideas associated with groups of countries coming together to produce them. Second, 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.

**Countering improvised explosive devices**
The improvised explosive device (IED) has proven to be the weapon of choice for non-conventional adversarial forces. Although the ISAF operation is coming to a close, 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. 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 C-IED context, such capabilities can also contribute to counter-piracy, counter-proliferation and counter-terrorism operations.

**More information**

**Improving air- and sealift capabilities**
Air- and sealift capabilities are a key enabler for operations which 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 through commercial arrangements or through purchase, to give them access to additional transport to swiftly move troops, equipment and supplies across the globe.

**More information**

**Collective logistics contracts**
To improve effectiveness, NATO is examining procedures for the development and administration of rapidly usable contracts, including for medical support, for repayment by countries when used. More broadly, collective logistics is being implemented by NATO in Kosovo and Afghanistan during redeployment to optimise the use of multinational capabilities. In June 2013, Exercise Capable Logistician brought together a large number of logisticians from member and partner countries to work on improving interoperability.
**Missile defence**

In the context of a broader response to the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and their delivery systems, NATO has already been pursuing an Active Layered Theatre Ballistic Missile Defence Programme since 2005. This Programme is aimed at protecting deployed Allied forces against ballistic missile threats with ranges up to 3,000 kilometres. In 2010, it delivered an interim capability to protect troops in a specific area against short-range and some medium-range ballistic missiles.

At the 2010 Lisbon Summit, NATO leaders decided to expand this Programme to include protection of NATO European populations and territories, and at the same time invited Russia to cooperate on missile defence and to share in its benefits. The dialogue with Russia on missile defence cooperation is currently suspended.

At the 2012 Chicago Summit, Allies declared an Interim NATO ballistic missile defence (BMD) capability as an initial step to establish NATO’s missile defence system, which will protect all NATO European populations, territory and forces against the increasing threats posed by the proliferation of ballistic missiles.

*More information*

**Cyber defence**

NATO’s cyber defence capability for the protection of its own networks is the NATO Computer Incident Response Capability (NCIRC), which provides centralised cyber defence support to the NATO sites. NATO continues to invest in follow-on requirements to the NCIRC following the NATO capability development and procurement procedures.

NATO defines also, through the NATO Defence Planning Process (NDPP), cyber defence capability targets for the member countries’ implementation of national cyber defence capabilities to facilitate an Alliance-wide and common approach to cyber defence capability developments. Relevant parts of the new cyber defence policy will be taken into account in subsequent NDPP cycles.

Cyber defence has also been integrated into NATO’s Smart Defence initiative, endorsed at the 2012 Chicago Summit. As such, Smart Defence is meant to enable 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. Such Smart Defence projects in cyber defence, so far, are the Malware Information Sharing Platform (MISP), the Smart Defence Multinational Cyber Defence Capability Development (MN CD2) project and the Multinational Cyber Defence Education and Training (MN CD E&T) project.

*More information*

**Stabilisation and reconstruction**

The Alliance’s experience with crisis-response operations has shown the importance of stabilisation and reconstruction which are activities undertaken in fragile states or in conflict or post-conflict situations to promote security, development and good governance in key sectors. The primary responsibilities for such activities normally lie with other actors, but the Alliance has established political guidelines that will help to improve its involvement in stabilisation and reconstruction. It will be important in this context for the Alliance to seek, in accordance with the Comprehensive...
Approach Action Plan, unity of effort with the other members of the international community, in particular its strategic partners, the United Nations (UN) and the European Union (EU).

To this end, NATO must have the ability to plan for, employ, and coordinate civilian as well as military crisis-management capabilities that countries provide for agreed Allied missions. NATO’s defence planning therefore also includes non-military capabilities and expertise to complement the military support to stabilisation operations and reconstruction efforts. These non-military capabilities are sought from existing and planned means in national inventories of those countries that are willing to make them available.

**Critical long-term enabling capabilities**

Information superiority is a key enabling element in the battlespace and helps commanders at every level make the best decisions, creating the circumstances for success at less risk and greater speed. NATO will therefore continue to develop and acquire a range of networked information systems (Automated Information Systems) that support the two Strategic Commands. They cover a number of domains, including, land, air, maritime, intelligence, logistics and the common operating picture, with a view to enabling more informed and effective, holistic oversight, decision making and command and control.

**Federated Mission Networking**

The Afghanistan Mission Network is a single federated network which improves information-sharing by easing the information flow and creating better situational awareness among countries participating in the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF). This is seen as the model for future multinational networking.

Taking into consideration best practices and lessons learned from its implementation, a Federated Mission Networking framework is now being developed, which will underpin the Alliance’s ability to connect its information systems and operate effectively together, including with partners, on training, exercises and operations.

**More information**

**Air Command and Control**

NATO is implementing a fully interoperable Air Command and Control System (ACCS), which will provide for the first time a fully integrated set of tools to support the conduct of all air operations in both real-time and non-real-time environments. 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.

The system is composed of both static and deployable elements with equipment that will be used both within the NATO Command Structure and in individual Allies. With the further inclusion of command and control functionality for ballistic missile defence (BMD), a fully integrated system for air and missile defence at the tactical level will be fielded.

**More information**

**Joint Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance**

NATO needs a Joint Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance (JISR) capability that will provide for the coordinated collection, processing, dissemination and sharing within NATO of ISR material
gathered by the future Alliance Ground Surveillance (AGS) system, the current NATO Airborne Early Warning and Control Force (NAEW&C Force) and nationally supplied ISR assets. While NATO is delivering a critical JISR capability in ISAF, an enduring JISR capability is being developed in a phased approach, starting with the implementation of an initial operational capability on time for the NATO Response Force 2016.

More information

**Alliance Ground Surveillance**
The Alliance Ground Surveillance (AGS) system is a key element of transformation and an essential enabling capability for forces across the full spectrum of NATO’s current and future operations and missions. The AGS will be an airborne, stand-off ground surveillance system that can detect and track vehicles, such as tanks, trucks or helicopters, moving on or near the ground, in all weather conditions. The AGS airborne vehicle acquisition contract was signed during the 2012 Chicago Summit, and production of the first AGS aircraft began in December 2013.

More information

**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. AWACS has continuously proven itself a critical asset over Libya and Afghanistan, and most recently safeguarding the Alliance’s eastern perimeter.

More information

**Other initiatives**

**The 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. It is also a driving engine of NATO’s military transformation.

More information

**Aviation modernisation programmes**
The Alliance will continue to develop its capabilities in the field of air traffic management (ATM) and engage in civil aviation modernisation plans in Europe (Single European Sky ATM Research) and North America (NextGen). The aim is threefold: to ensure safe access to airspace; effective delivery of services; and civil-military interoperability in order to safeguard military mission effectiveness at global level and the ability to conduct the full range of NATO operations, including the airspace integration of unmanned aircraft systems.

**Energy security**
Allies recognise that a stable and reliable energy supply, diversification of routes, suppliers and energy resources, and the interconnectivity of energy networks remain of critical importance. While
these issues are primarily the responsibility of national governments and other international organisations concerned, NATO contributes to energy security in various ways NATO raises strategic awareness through political discussions and intelligence-sharing, further develops its competence to contribute to the protection of critical energy infrastructure, improves the energy efficiency of military forces, enhances its training and education efforts, and engages with partner countries and other international organisations.

More information

Reforming NATO’s structures

The Alliance’s military command structure is being transformed into a leaner, more effective and affordable structure. Agencies reform aims to enhance efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of capabilities and services, to achieve greater synergies between similar functions and to increase transparency and accountability. In line with the 2010 Strategic Concept, over the last few years the Alliance has been engaged in a process of continual reform by streamlining structures, improving working methods and maximising efficiency.

The new structure reached initial operational capability in December 2013, opening the way to an entity that is more agile, flexible and better able to deploy on operations, including Article 5 contingencies. A major reform of NATO’s agencies was conducted with a view to consolidating and rationalising various services and programmes and ensuring more effective and efficient service and capability delivery.

NATO Headquarters has also been reformed, including with regard to a smaller but more efficient International Staff, intelligence-sharing and production, and a significant reduction in the number of committees. Furthermore, the transition to the new NATO headquarters will enable further improvements to efficiency and effectiveness of the Alliance.

Resource reform in the area of programming, transparency, accountability and information management has also helped making NATO resource and financial management more efficient.

At the Wales Summit, further work was tasked in the areas of delivery of common-funded capabilities, reform governance and financial transparency and accountability.

More information

Maritime 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.

There are four areas in which NATO’s maritime forces can contribute to Alliance security. The first three are the "core tasks" of NATO, as defined by the Alliance’s Strategic Concept: deterrence and collective defence; crisis management; and cooperative security. In addition, the Maritime Strategy sets out a fourth area: maritime security. This includes surveillance, information sharing, maritime interdiction, and contributions to energy security, including the protection of critical infrastructure.
As a major deliverable for its Wales Summit in September 2014, the Alliance will now implement its Maritime Strategy. This ambitious endeavour encompasses a complete revamping of NATO’s maritime assets, an extensive programme of maritime exercises and training, and the enhancement of cooperation between NATO and its partners, as well as other international actors, in particular the European Union.

More information
Interoperability: Connecting NATO Forces

An Alliance of 28 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 28 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.

Connected Forces Initiative
Connected Forces Initiative

At the 2012 Chicago Summit, Allied leaders set the goal of ‘NATO Forces 2020’. This is designed to be a coherent set of deployable, interoperable and sustainable forces equipped, trained, exercised and commanded so as to be able to meet NATO’s level of ambition and able to operate together and with partners in any environment. The Connected Forces Initiative (CFI) is essential to ensure 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. It also reinforces the message that NATO is displaying its capability and resolve in the light of a changing and unpredictable security environment. The implementation of CFI is one of the key means to deliver NATO Forces 2020.

Overseen and guided by NATO Defence Ministers, CFI has developed and is maturing into a robust and multifaceted project which provides the structure for Allies to train and exercise coherently, reinforces full-spectrum joint and combined training, promotes interoperability (including with partners), and leverages advances in technology. In light of the wide range of challenges facing the Alliance, including Russia’s actions in and around Ukraine and their implications, the CFI will be a means to deliver the training and exercise element of the Readiness Action Plan (RAP) agreed at the 2014 Wales Summit and which complements and reinforces NATO Forces 2020 by improving NATO’s readiness and responsiveness. Allied leaders also endorsed a CFI package demonstrating the continued cohesion and resolve of the Alliance.

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.

Key CFI elements

Selected from a broad range of activities that CFI encompasses, NATO endorsed at the 2014 Wales Summit the following key CFI package:

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 seeks to operationalise the NATO ETEE Policy, providing the necessary specific direction and allocating responsibilities on almost all areas addressed by that policy.

It also addresses three vehicles to 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.
A 2015 high-visibility exercise

As the flagship event for CFI, this exercise called “Trident Juncture 2015” will be hosted by Portugal, Spain and Italy. Based on a crisis-response scenario, it will also be used to certify the 2016 NRF as operationally ready.

There are 25,000 troops scheduled to take part, including from partner nations, as well as a number of linked national exercises. Exercise Trident Juncture 2015 demonstrates NATO’s credibility, cohesion and resolve.

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. 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 on exercises and operation, 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 the Connected Forces Initiative (CFI). CFI aims to enhance the high level of interconnectedness and interoperability Allied forces have achieved in 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. Allied Defence Ministers also agreed that the NATO Response Force 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 rotation of the NATO Response Force (NRF). 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 a Readiness Action Plan (RAP) to strengthen NATO’s collective defence and to ensure the Alliance is ready to deal with any challenge, and 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.
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.

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 Jean-Paul Paloméros, and the Deputy Secretary General, Ambassador Alexander Vershbow, 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.
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. Present and future security challenges require the Alliance to be prepared to protect and defend against threats emanating from both state and non-state actors.

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 bioterrorism threat against NATO forces and populations.

NATO’s Strategic Concept and the 2010 Lisbon Summit declaration confirmed the Alliance’s commitment to further develop its capacity to defend against the threat of CBRN weapons of mass destruction and protect its populations, territory and forces. The Combined Joint CBRN Defence Task Force is one of NATO’s key capabilities against CBRN events and supports the prevention of WMD proliferation.

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, equipments or compounds, that can be used for development or deployment of WMD, CBRN weapons or CBRN devices.

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 CBRN 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, such as Exercise Precise Response, hosted by Canada.

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 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 CBRN 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,
they played a key planning role during the 2004 Summer Olympics in Greece, and the 2004 Istanbul Summit, where they supported CBRN-related contingency operations.

The CBRN Defence 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 Defence Task Force**

Some 21 NATO countries contribute to the Combined Joint CBRN Defence 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.

**How does it work in practice?**

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 standby 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 Defence 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 CBRN Laboratories.** Designed to provide expert sampling, analysis, and scientific advice to support operational commanders.
The Battalion has a close relationship with the NATO Response Force (NRF). While it can be deployed independently, it is consistent and in complimentarity 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 six-month 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.
**NATO Response Force**

**At the centre of NATO transformation**

The NATO Response Force (NRF) is a highly ready and technologically advanced multinational force made up of land, air, maritime and Special Operations Forces components that the Alliance can deploy quickly, wherever needed. In addition to its operational role, the NRF provides a vehicle to demonstrate operational readiness and act as a “testbed” for Alliance transformation. It can be used in the implementation of NATO’s Connected Forces Initiative (CFI) as a vehicle for greater cooperation in education and training, increased exercises and better use of technology.

At their Wales Summit in September 2014, Allies agreed to create a spearhead within the NRF – a Very High Readiness Joint Task Force (VJTF), able to deploy at very short notice, particularly at the periphery of NATO’s territory. The VJTF should consist of a land component with appropriate air, maritime and Special Operations Forces available.

At the Summit, Allies also agreed to hold a high-visibility exercise, “Trident Juncture 2015”, with 25,000 personnel, including the NRF, to be hosted by Italy, Portugal and Spain. In addition, a broader and more demanding exercise programme will be instituted from 2016 onwards, with the NRF as a key element in the exercises.

The NRF is currently comprised of three parts: a command and control element from the NATO Command Structure; the Immediate Response Force, a joint force of around 13,000 high-readiness troops provided by Allies; and a Response Forces Pool, which can supplement the Immediate Response Force when necessary.

**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 of 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 units to the Immediate Response Force. Rotations were initially for a six-month period, but since 2012, the rotation periods have been extended to 12 months.

The flexibility offered by the Response Forces Pool, which permits NATO nations to make contributions on their own terms for durations of their choosing, is particularly relevant in this regard.

The NRF is also open to partner countries, once approved by the North Atlantic Council.

Participation in the Immediate Response Force 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 currently alternates among NATO’s Joint Force Commands in Brunssum, the Netherlands and Naples, Italy.

A powerful package
The Immediate Response Force has:

- a brigade-sized land component based on three Battle Groups and their supporting elements;
- a maritime component based on the Standing NATO Maritime Group (SNMG) and the Standing NATO Mine Countermeasures Group (SNMCMG);
- a combat air and air-support component;
- Special Operations Forces; and
- a chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) defence task force.

Before use, the force will be tailored (adjusted in size and capability) to match the demands of any specific operation to which it is committed.

Any mission, anywhere
The NRF provides a visible assurance of NATO’s cohesion and commitment to deterrence and collective defence. Each rotation of the force 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 forces.

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 NATO Response Force delivered relief supplies donated by NATO member and partner countries to the US to assist in dealing with the aftermath of Hurricane Katrina.
- From October 2005 to February 2006, elements of the NATO Response Force 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 NATO Response Force 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 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 to be 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 Iraq, Afghanistan 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 will 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 a Very High Readiness Joint Task Force that will be deploy within a few days to respond to challenges that arise.

Authority
Any decision to use the NRF is a consensual political decision, taken on a case-by-case basis by all 28 Allies in the North Atlantic Council, NATO’s principal political decision-making body.
The 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.

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. 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.

**Mission**

The Rapid Deployable Corps are an integral element of the ongoing efforts to transform NATO’s force structure and capabilities to meet 21st century security threats. Their key function is to provide NATO with deployable command elements, which can be dispatched quickly to lead troops wherever necessary.

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, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM) and Kosovo.

**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.

1. Turkey recognises the Republic of Macedonia with its constitutional name.

**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 28 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.
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.

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.

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.

At the Wales Summit in September 2014, Allies declared the Special Operations Component Command at full operational capability. This is a scalable expeditionary NATO SOF command and control capability, agile and responsive, capable of deploying to support NATO operations. It serves to provide an additional deployable NATO SOF command and control option to complement other existing mechanisms provided by NATO member countries.

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.

1. ‘Joint’ refers to activities, operations and organisations in which elements of at least two services participate (land, air, maritime, SOF).

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.
Joint Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance

Joint Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance (JISR) is vital for all military operations. It provides information and intelligence to decision-makers and action-takers, helping them make informed, timely and accurate decisions. While surveillance and reconnaissance can answer the questions “what,” “when” and “where”, the combined elements from various intelligence sources and disciplines provide the answers to “how” and “why”. When all of this is combined, you create Joint ISR.

For over 60 years, the enduring success of NATO has been achieved through the close cooperation between Allies who are driven by a shared set of democratic beliefs and values. These Allies work together in NATO to bring stability to a complex 21st century security environment.

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 Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance remained a high NATO priority.

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.

To achieve this ambition, the following must be in place:

- **Trained ISR experts**
  Having a cadre of experts within NATO who fully understand how to use ISR to support NATO’s decision-makers; and

- **Information assurance: protection of data and networks**
  Special procedures need to be in place to provide information assurance; it takes time and resources to obtain a genuinely efficient, secure, holistic and relevant Joint ISR system. In fact, it took ten years to develop the successful mission network used in Afghanistan, and NATO intends to capitalise on that effort.

**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 15 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 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 Alliance Ground Surveillance (AGS) system or the AWACS; and
- 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.

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. The latest trial, Unified Vision, took place in Norway in 2014. It was the largest JISR event in the history of the Alliance.
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. NATO’s operation to protect civilians in Libya showed how important such a capability is. A group of Allies is acquiring five Global Hawk remotely piloted aircraft (RPA) and the associated command and control base stations that make up the AGS system. NATO will then operate and maintain them on behalf of all 28 Allies.

The AGS system is being acquired by 15 Allies (Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Germany, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Norway, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia and the United States), and will be made available to the Alliance in the 2017-2018 timeframe. All Allies will contribute to the development of the AGS capability through financial contributions covering the establishment of the AGS main operating base, as well as to communications and life-cycle support of the AGS fleet. Some Allies will replace part of their financial contribution through ‘contributions in kind’ (national surveillance systems that will be made available to NATO).

The NATO-owned and -operated AGS core capability 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 main operating base for AGS will be located at Sigonella Air Base in Italy, which will serve a dual purpose as a NATO Joint Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance (JISR) deployment base and data exploitation and training centre.

Just as NATO Airborne Early Warning & Control (NAEW&C) aircraft – also known as AWACS – 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.

AGS responds to one of the major capability commitments of the Lisbon Summit.

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 RQ-4B Global Hawk Block 40 aircraft. 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 air segment will also contain the remotely piloted aircraft (RPA) flight control stations.

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 to interconnect with and provide data to multiple deployed and non-deployed operational users, including reach-back facilities remote from the surveillance area.
The ground segment component will consist of a number of ground stations in various configurations, such as mobile and transportable, which will provide data-link connectivity, data-processing and exploitation capabilities and interfaces for interoperability with C2ISR systems.

The AGS Core support segment will include dedicated mission support facilities at the AGS main operating base (MOB) in Sigonella, Italy.

Contributions in kind provided by France and the United Kingdom will complement the AGS with additional surveillance systems.

The composition of the AGS Core system and these 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) is responsible for the acquisition of the AGS core capability on behalf of the 15 participating countries. The AGS Implementation Office (AGS IO) is located at the headquarters of Allied Command Operations (SHAPE) is responsible for ensuring the successful operational integration and employment of the NATO AGS core capability.

The NATO Alliance Ground Surveillance Management Agency (NAGSMA), representing the 15 AGS acquisition nations, awarded the prime contract for the system to Northrop Grumman in May 2012 during the Chicago Summit. Northrop Grumman has begun the production of the first AGS aircraft. The company's primary industrial team includes Airbus Defence and Space (Germany), Selex ES (Italy) and Kongsberg (Norway), as well as leading defence companies from all participating countries. The industries of all 15 participating countries are contributing to the delivery of the AGS system.

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 in 2018, France and the United Kingdom will sign a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) with the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR), outlining the modalities for making their contributions in kind available to the Alliance.

**Supporting NATO’s core tasks**
The Lisbon Summit set out the vision of Allied Heads of State and Government for the evolution of NATO and the security of its member countries. This vision is based on three core tasks, which are detailed in the new Strategic Concept:

- collective defence
- crisis management
- cooperative security
AGS was recognised at Lisbon as a critical capability for the Alliance and is planned to be a major contributor to NATO’s Joint Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance (JISR) ambition.

AGS will contribute to these three core tasks through using its MP-RTIP radar sensor to collect information that will provide political and military decision makers with a comprehensive picture of the situation on the ground.

**Facts and figures**
General characteristics of the RQ-4B Global Hawk Block 40 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 takeoff 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 the 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 linked 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 US or European radars. However, all those approaches failed to obtain sufficient support by the Allies to allow their realisation. In 2001, the Reinforced North Atlantic Council (NAC(R)) 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 to sign 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 (NAC) 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 paves 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.
Strategic airlift

Giving Alliance forces global reach
NATO member countries have pooled their resources to acquire special aircraft that will 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.

By pooling resources, NATO countries have made 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 NATO nations and participating partners with strategic airlift capabilities: the Strategic Airlift Interim Solution (SALIS) initiative, and the Strategic Airlift Capability (SAC).

Strategic Airlift Interim Solution

Context
A multinational consortium of 14 countries is chartering Antonov AN-124-100 transport aircraft as a Strategic Airlift Interim 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/EU operations.

The Russian and Ukrainian Antonov aircraft are being used as an interim solution to meet shortfalls in the Alliance’s strategic airlift capabilities, pending deliveries of Airbus A400M aircraft. This is why the project is called Strategic Airlift Interim Solution (SALIS).

The SALIS initiative is planned to continue until the end of 2014. Participating nations have already expressed a need for the continuation of the initiative but will adjust their requirement as the Airbus A400M aircraft come into service, and as the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) mission in Afghanistan comes to a close.

Components
The SALIS contract provides two Antonov AN-124-100 aircraft on part-time 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 2,800 flying hours per year for 2013, and for a minimum of 2,450 flying hours for 2014. Additional aircraft types such as IL-76 and AN-225 are included in the contract and can be used subject to availability.

A single Antonov AN-124-100 can carry up to 120 tons of cargo. NATO has used Antonovs 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. Today, support missions for forces in Afghanistan and Africa are predominant.

Participants
The consortium includes 12 NATO nations (Belgium, the Czech Republic, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Luxembourg, Norway, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia, the United Kingdom) and two partner nations (Finland and Sweden).
Mechanisms
The capability is coordinated on a day-to-day basis by the Strategic Airlift Coordination Cell, which is collocated with the NATO Movement Coordination Centre Europe (MCCE) based in Eindhoven, the Netherlands. The NATO Support Agency (NSPA) provides support by managing the SALIS contract and the SALIS partnership.

Evolution
- In June 2003, NATO Ministers of Defence signed letters of intent on strategic air- and sealift.
- At the June 2004 Istanbul Summit, defence ministers of 15 countries signed a memorandum of understanding to achieve an operational airlift capacity for outsize cargo by 2005, using up to six Antonov AN-124-100 transport aircraft. In addition, the Defence Ministers of Bulgaria and Romania signed a letter of intent to join the consortium.
- In January 2006, the 15 countries tasked the NATO Maintenance and Supply Agency (currently known as the NATO Support Agency) to sign a contract with Ruslan SALIS GmbH, a subsidiary of the Russian company Volga-Dnepr, based in Leipzig.
- 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. The contract’s initial duration was for three years, but this has now been extended until the end of 2014. Finland and Poland have also joined the SALIS programme. The SALIS contract was re-competed in 2012, and Ruslan SALIS GmbH was awarded a new two-year contract (2013/2014) with options to extend until December 2017.
- The NATO Support Agency (NSPA) has contractual arrangements with the Russian company Volga-Dnepr and Ukraine’s ADB airlines to provide SALIS aircraft and Antonov AN-124-100 aircraft to support the Afghanistan mission, with weekly sorties to and from Europe/Afghanistan.
- The capabilities of SALIS play a significant role in the ongoing Afghanistan redeployment.

Strategic Airlift Capability (SAC)
Context
The second initiative aimed at providing NATO nations and 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 ten Allied 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 ISAF (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.

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, UN or EU missions, or for other international purposes.

**Participants**
The participants include ten NATO nations (Bulgaria, Estonia, Hungary, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Romania, Slovenia and the United States) and two 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 (LOI) 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 ten members.
- **In June 2007**, the North Atlantic Council (NAC) 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 (MOU) 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 Agency.
Strategic Airlift Capability (SAC)

A key capability for the Alliance

Ten NATO countries plus two partner countries have signed a Memorandum of Understanding confirming their participation in Strategic Airlift Capability (SAC) initiative to acquire, manage, support and operate three Boeing C-17 strategic transport aircraft.

The aircraft operate out of Pápa Air Base in Hungary. The first aircraft was delivered in July 2009 with the second and third aircraft following in September and October 2009, respectively.

The aircraft are operated by multinational aircrews under the command of a multinational military structure – the Heavy Airlift Wing (HAW). The HAW is manned by personnel from all participating nations.

This is one of two complementary initiatives aimed at providing NATO nations and participating partners with strategic airlift capabilities. A second initiative is the Strategic Airlift Interim Solution (SALIS), under which a multinational consortium of 18 countries has contracted a civilian company for the charter of Antonov An-124-100 transport aircraft. In addition, there are national procurement programmes in place to improve airlift capabilities, including the acquisition by seven NATO nations of 180 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 kilometers (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, UN or EU missions, or for other international purposes. The Heavy Airlift Wing has flown missions in support of ISAF and KFOR operations, for humanitarian relief activities in Haiti and Pakistan and peacekeeping mission in Africa.

Evolution

Following intense consultations, a Letter of Intent (LOI) to launch contract negotiations was publicly released by 13 NATO countries on 12 September 2006. In the intervening period, two partners joined the consortium and NATO participation evolved to the current ten members.

In June 2007, the North Atlantic Council (NAC) approved the Charter of a NATO Production and Logistics Organisation (NPLO), which authorizes the establishment of the NATO Airlift Management Organisation (NAMO). The Charter came into effect upon signature to the Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) and notification to the North Atlantic Council, in September 2008. The Charter authorized 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 new NATO Support Agency, or NSPA.

**Participants**
The participants include ten NATO nations (Bulgaria, Estonia, Hungary, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Romania, Slovenia and the United States) and two Partnership for Peace (PfP) nations (Finland and Sweden).

Membership in the airlift fleet remains open to other countries upon agreement by the consortium members.
Strategic Airlift Interim Solution (SALIS)
NATO member countries have pooled their resources to charter special aircraft that give the Alliance the capability to transport heavy equipment across the globe by air.

The multinational airlift consortium is chartering six Antonov An-124-100 transport aircraft, which are capable of handling ‘outsize’ (unusually large) cargo.

The Russian and Ukrainian Antonov aircraft are being used as an interim solution to meet shortfalls in the Alliance’s strategic airlift capabilities, pending deliveries of Airbus A400M aircraft. This is why the project is called Strategic Airlift Interim Solution (SALIS).

The consortium includes 12 NATO nations (Belgium, the Czech Republic, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Luxembourg, Norway, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia, the United Kingdom) and two partner nations (Finland and Sweden).

This is one of two complementary initiatives aimed at providing NATO with strategic airlift capabilities. The other is the Strategic Airlift Capability (SAC), under which ten NATO countries plus two partner countries have purchased three Boeing C-17 transport aircraft.

Components
The SALIS contract provides two Antonov An-124-100 aircraft on part-time charter, two more on six days’ notice and another two on nine days’ notice. The countries have committed to using the aircraft for a minimum of 2000 flying hours per year for 2013 and for a minimum of 2450 flying hours for 2014. Additional aircraft types i.e. IL-76 and AN-225 are included in the contract but it use is subject to availability.

A single Antonov An-124-100 can carry up to 120 tons of cargo. NATO has used Antonovs 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.

Evolution
During their annual spring meeting in Brussels in June 2003, NATO Ministers of Defence signed letters of intent on strategic air- and sealift. Eleven nations signed the letter of intent on airlift: Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Germany, Hungary, Luxembourg, Norway, Poland, Portugal and Turkey. At the June 2004 Istanbul Summit, Defence Ministers of 15 countries signed a memorandum of understanding to achieve an operational airlift capacity for outsize cargo by 2005, using up to six Antonov An-124-100 transport aircraft. In addition, the Defence Ministers of Bulgaria and Romania signed a letter of intent to join the consortium.

In January 2006, the 15 countries signed a contract with Ruslan SALIS GmbH, a subsidiary of the Russian company Volga Dnepr, based in Leipzig.

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. The contract’s initial duration was for three years but this has now been extended until the end of 2014. Finland and Poland have also now joined the SALIS programme. The SALIS contract was re-competed in 2012 and Ruslan SALIS GmbH was rewarded a new two-year contract (2013/2014) with options to extend until December 2017.
Volga-Dnepr and Ukraine’s ADB provide the SALIS aircraft and also provide AN-124-100 aircraft to support the Afghanistan mission, with weekly sorties from Europe to Afghanistan and back, under contractual arrangements with NATO Support Agency (NSPA).

The capabilities of SALIS will play a big role in on-going Afghanistan re-deployment.

**Mechanisms**

Strategic airlift co-ordination is carried out by the SALIS Co-ordination Cell collocated with but not part of the Movement Coordination Centre Europe (MCCE) in Eindhoven, the Netherlands.
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.

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.

**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.
NATO Network Enabled Capability

The NATO Network Enabled Capability (NNEC) programme is the Alliance’s ability to federate various capabilities at all levels, military (strategic to tactical) and civilian, through an information infrastructure. But the main objective of the NNEC programme, illustrated by the slogan “Share to Win”, is to initiate a culture change that begins with people. Interacting with each other and sharing information will lead to better situational awareness and faster decision making, which ultimately saves lives, resources and improves collaboration between nations.

Components of the policy
The networking and information infrastructure (NII) is the supporting structure that enables collaboration and information sharing amongst users and reduces the decision-cycle time. This infrastructure enables the connection of existing networks in an agile and seamless manner.

This leads to Information Superiority, which is the ability to get the right information to the right people at the right time. NATO defines information superiority as the operational advantage derived from the ability to collect, process, and disseminate an uninterrupted flow of information while exploiting or denying an adversary’s ability to do the same.

The NNEC programme provides various benefits to all levels, military and civilian. Some of these benefits are:

- Improved efficiency
- Drastic increase in interoperability between nations
- Improved and secure way of sharing information
- Better information quality
- Faster decisions and speed of command.

Mechanisms
NNEC aims to ensure coherence between all projects but will not replace existing projects or programmatic management. Moreover, one of the goals of NNEC is to re-use, as much as possible, the existing assets of the NATO nations.

To this end, NATO’s Allied Command Transformation (ACT) has chosen to divide NNEC in smaller pieces called ‘Coherence Areas’:

- Operational Concepts and Requirements Implications (OCRI) focused on the operator,
- Architecture & Services Definition and Specification (ASDS) focused on architecture,
- Implementation (IMP),
- and a steering group, Leadership & Guidance (L&G), to make the necessary link with the political level of NATO.

Evolution
At the Prague Summit in November 2002, NATO recognized that transformation of the military based upon Information Age principles was essential, and pursued a course of transformation denoted as NATO Network-Enabled Capabilities (NNEC).
In November 2003, nine NATO nations (Canada, France, Germany, Italy, The Netherlands, Norway, Spain, The United Kingdom and The United States) signed an arrangement to join in funding a feasibility study on NATO Network Enabled Capability (NNEC) as an important step towards NATO transformation. The study was carried out by the NATO C3 Agency (NC3A).

In 2009, the ACT launched an awareness campaign within NATO, as well as in NATO Nations and beyond, to promote the NNEC concept and have it adopted NATO-wide. Achieving full collaboration and full coherence between the various NATO and NATO Nations projects is the long term goal.

NNEC is about people first, then processes, and finally technology.
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.
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. 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 NATO command structure.

Coordinated by Allied Command Transformation (ACT) in Norfolk, Virginia in the United States, 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.

ACT has overall responsibility for COEs and is in charge of the establishment, accreditation, preparation of candidates for approval, and periodic assessments of the centres. The establishment of a COE is a straightforward procedure. Normally, one or more members decide to establish a COE. The idea then moves into the concept development phase. During this phase the “Framework Nation” or “Nations” fleshes out the concept to ACT by providing information such as the area of specialisation, the location of the potential COE and how it will support NATO transformation.

Once ACT approves the concept, the COE and any NATO country that wishes to participate in the COE’s activities then negotiate two Memorandums of Understanding (MOU): a Functional MOU, which governs the relationship between Centres of Excellence and the Alliance and an Operational MOU, which governs the relationship between participating countries and the COE. Once participating countries agree to and sign the MOU, the COE seeks accreditation from ACT.

The Alliance does not fund COEs. Instead, they receive national or multinational support, with “Framework Nations”, “Sponsoring Nations” and “Contributing Nations” financing the operating costs of the institutions. Twenty-one COEs have either received NATO accreditation or are in the development stages.

Role of the Centres of Excellence

Considered to be international military organisations, the primary purpose of COEs is to assist with transformation within the Alliance, while avoiding the duplication of assets, resources and capabilities already present within the NATO command structure.

They 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.
While NATO does not directly fund COEs nor are they part of the NATO command structure, COEs do work alongside the Alliance. 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 ACT, in co-ordination with the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR).

Currently, there are 23 COEs: 20 with NATO accreditation, two additional COEs that are in the development stages plus one in accreditation process. The working language of COEs is generally English.

**Working mechanisms**

**Different types of participants**

There are three different types of supporters 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 or Nations submit a proposal for the COE, which ACT then considers. Next, the Framework Nation or Nations 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 or Nations further develop the concept, draft an Operational Memorandum of Understanding (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 the Organization. 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.
NATO accredited Centres of Excellence

These include:

- Centre for Analysis and Simulation for the Preparation of Air Operations
- Civil Military Cooperation
- Cold Weather Operations
- Combined Joint Operations from the Sea
- Command and Control
- Cooperative Cyber Defence
- Counter-Improvised Explosive Devices
- Defence Against Terrorism
- Energy Security
- Explosive Ordnance Disposal
- Human Intelligence
- Joint Air Power Competence Centre
- Joint Chemical, Biological, Radiological and Nuclear Defence
- Military Engineering
- Military Medicine
- Military Police
- Modelling and Simulation
- Naval Mine Warfare
- Operations in Confined and Shallow Waters
- Strategic Communications

Centre for Analysis and Simulation for the Preparation of Air Operations (CASPOA) COE

Based in Lyon, France, the Centre for Analysis and Simulation for the Preparation of Air Operations (CASPOA) specialises in the area of Command and Control in joint and multinational air operations. CASPOA uses both Computer Assisted Exercise (CAX) and Command Post Exercises (CPX) to achieve this objective.

CASPOA offers courses in several fields, including air operations and command, air operations systems and specific air operations to train personnel. In addition, CASPOA also analyses lessons learned from both real operations and exercises to aid in training personnel and developing simulation tools.


Civil - Military Cooperation (CIMIC) COE

Based in Enschede, the Netherlands, the Civil-Military Cooperation (CIMIC) COE focuses on improving civil-military interaction and cooperation between NATO, Sponsoring Nations and other military and civil groups by utilising the skills and experts of CIMIC’s own staff.

The experience and expertise of CIMIC is available to NATO members, Sponsoring Nations, military and civil groups, as well as other international organisations, such as the European Union, non-governmental organisations and scientific institutions.
Germany and the Netherlands, the CIMIC Framework Nations, sought NATO accreditation in 2006. The COE received accreditation in 2007.

**Cold Weather Operations (CWO) COE**

Based in Bodø, Norway, the Cold Weather Operations (CWO) COE specialises in operations in the extreme cold.

CWO is also working to establish relationships with other institutions. To this end, CWO and the Mountain Warfare COE in Slovenia are working on establishing a Technical Agreement cementing a formal cooperation agreement between the two COEs.

Norway, the CWO Framework Nation, sought NATO accreditation for the COE beginning in 2005. It received accreditation in 2007.

**Combined Joint Operations from the Sea (CJOS) COE**

Based in Norfolk, Virginia in the United States, the Combined Joint Operations from the Sea (CJOS) COE assists with the transformation of NATO’s maritime capabilities by utilising the joint warfare expertise and experience of the Centre. Its main goal is to counter emerging global security challenges by improving the ability of the Sponsoring Nations and NATO to conduct combined joint operations from the sea. CJOS also advises the Alliance on how to improve multinational education, training, doctrine and interoperability regarding maritime operations.

The United States, the CJOS Framework Nation, sought NATO accreditation in 2006 and received it later the same year.

**Command and Control (C2) COE**

Based in Ede, the Netherlands, the main focus of the Command and Control (C2) COE is improving joint and combined interoperability. It offers several seminars, workshops and conferences to transfer knowledge to NATO member countries and Sponsoring Nations.

Other focus areas include assisting NATO exercises and assessment processes, supporting HQ ACT with policy, doctrine, strategy and concept development, providing C2 and NNEC training, investigating and authenticating C2-related NATO concepts through testing and simulation, and stabilising and sustaining C2-focused relationships.

C2’s Framework Nation, the Netherlands, requested NATO accreditation as a COE in 2007 and received it in 2008.

**Cooperative Cyber Defence (CCD) COE**

A major cyber attack in Estonia that hit banks, the government, national ministries, the media, the police and emergency services in 2007 highlighted the importance of cyber security. To address this need, several countries came together to establish the Cooperative Cyber Defence (CCD) COE. Based in Tallinn, Estonia, CCD’s mission is to foster cooperation, capabilities and information-sharing between NATO countries regarding cyber security.

To this end, CCD uses several strategies, including cyber defence exercises, law and policy workshops, technical courses and conferences, to prepare NATO and Sponsoring Nations for detecting and fighting cyber attacks.
Composed of experts from several NATO member countries, CCD also conducts research and training on several areas of cyber warfare. As the Framework Nation, Estonia established the CCD in 2008. It received NATO COE accreditation later the same year.

**Counter Improvised Explosive Devices (C-IED) COE**

Based in Madrid, Spain, the principal aim of the Counter Improvised Explosive Devices (C-IED) COE is to enhance the capabilities to counter, reduce and eliminate threats from improvised explosive devices (IEDs) by offering multinational courses for C-IED experts.

With Spain as the Framework Nation, C-IED COE received NATO accreditation in 2010.

**Defence Against Terrorism (DAT) COE**

Based in Ankara, Turkey, the Defence Against Terrorism (DAT) COE provides subject matter expertise on how best to defend against terrorism. It also provides training on counter-terrorism, assists in the development of doctrine and helps improve NATO’s capabilities and interoperability.

In addition to publishing the Defence Against Terrorism Review twice a year, DAT also holds conferences, workshops, symposiums and advanced training courses relating to defence against terrorism. DAT regularly participates in NATO Working Groups.

Established by Turkey, the Framework Nation, in 2005, DAT received NATO COE accreditation in 2006.

**Energy Security (ENSEC) COE**

Based in Vilnius, Lithuania, the Energy Security (ENSEC) COE’s mission is to support NATO’s capability development process, mission effectiveness, and interoperability in the near-, mid- and long-term by providing comprehensive and timely subject matter expertise on all aspects of energy security.

Established in July 2012 by Lithuania, the Framework Nation, the ENSEC COE received NATO accreditation in October 2012.

**Explosive Ordnance Disposal (EOD) COE**

Based in Trenčín, Slovakia, the Explosive Ordnance Disposal (EOD) COE provides expertise in the field of explosive ordnance disposal for NATO and Partnership for Peace countries.

Like other COEs, EOD works with NATO in the areas of standardization, doctrine development and concepts validation. It supports NATO operations in the field of explosive ordnance disposal by improving interoperability and cooperation between NATO member countries, partner countries, international organisations and the NATO command structure.

Established by Slovakia, the Framework Nation, in 2007, the EOD COE received NATO accreditation 28 April 2011.

**Human Intelligence (HUMINT) COE**

Based in Oradea, Romania, the Human Intelligence (HUMINT) COE acts as the main focal point for human intelligence expertise.

Like other COEs, HUMINT engages in education and training, provides expertise to NATO Bodies and Strategic Commanders, improves interoperability and standardization, increases capabilities, and contributes to doctrine development through experimentation, testing and validation.
The HUMINT COE Framework Nation, Romania, sought NATO accreditation as a COE beginning in 2010. It received accreditation later the same year.

**Joint Air Power Competence Centre (JAPCC) COE**

Based in Kalkar, Germany, the Joint Air Power Competence Centre (JAPCC) seeks to improve the space, land and maritime air power operations of the Alliance. In particular, it strives to develop and advance new ideas for the command, control and use of air assets from all service branches, while ensuring the implementation of those ideas. JAPCC also supports ACT, ACO and Sponsoring Nations by providing advice and expertise relating to air and space power.

JAPCC’s Framework Nation, Germany, sought COE accreditation in 2004, which it received in 2005.

**Joint Chemical, Biological, Radiation and Nuclear Defence (JCBRN Defence) COE**

Based in Vyškov, Czech Republic, the Joint Chemical, Biological, Radiation and Nuclear (JCBRN) Defence COE develops defence doctrines, standards and knowledge with the goal of improving interoperability and capabilities. It also provides education and training opportunities, assists and advises NATO, Sponsoring Nations and other international organisations and institutions in the area of CBRN defence. In addition to developing and circulating lessons learned, JCBRN also trains and certifies the CBRN Defence Task Force of the NATO Response Force.

Established by the Czech Republic, the COE’s Framework Nation, JCBRN Defence sought NATO accreditation in 2006, which it received in 2007.

**Military Engineering (MILENG) COE**

Based in Inglostadt, Germany, the Military Engineering (MILENG) COE provides expertise relating to joint and combined military engineering to improve interoperability. It also provides, support for exercises and operations, develops concepts and doctrine, and acts as knowledge managers for the field of military engineering. Much like other COEs, MILENG holds seminars, workshops and courses to disseminate information and training.

Established by Germany, MILENG sought COE accreditation in 2008, which it received in 2010.

**Military Medicine (MILMED) COE**

Based in Budapest, Hungary, the Military Medicine (MILMED) COE aims to improve military medical capacity and capability through multinational interoperability and standardization. As the subject matter expert for military medicine, MILMED focuses on several areas, including medical training and evaluation, standards development and lessons learned.

From the medical training and evaluation perspective, MILMED strives to improve multinational medical capabilities and interoperability. To achieve this goal, it gives medical courses through coordination with the NATO School. In addition to the implementation of necessary certification tools, MILMED also provides mobile training teams to ACO and Sponsoring Nations to aid in the certification process for deployable multinational medical units.

For the standards development side, MILMED takes the lead in assisting and developing medical standardization agreements that deal with training requirements and certification procedures for both individuals and units. In addition to this, MILMED contributes to lessons learned by collecting, analysing and making recommendations on information and experiences.
Created in May 2009 by Hungary, the Framework Nation, MILMED received NATO accreditation later the same year.

**Military Police (MP) COE**
The NATO Military Police (MP) COE is located in Bydgoszcz, Poland. The Centre consists of the Republic of Poland as its Framework Nation and Sponsoring Nations which are: Bulgaria, Croatia, the Czech Republic, Germany, the Netherlands, and Romania.

The main focus of the Centre is to enhance the capabilities of Military Police in NATO, foster interoperability, and provide subject matter expertise on MP activities, in accordance with the Alliance’s Strategic Concept.

The NATO MP COE focuses on, but is not limited its activities to the cooperative aspects of MP in support of NATO’s Strategic Concept, and current as well as future operations in the following core areas: Doctrine, Concept Development and Experimentation; Education and Training; Research and Development; Analysis and Lessons Learned and Consultation.

MP COE’s Framework Nation, the Republic of Poland, requested NATO accreditation as a COE in December 2013 and received it in May 2014.

**Modelling and Simulation (M&S) COE**
Based at the Adriano De Cicco Army Barracks within the Cecchignola Military Compound in Rome, Italy, the Modelling and Simulation (M&S) COE focuses on education, training, knowledge management, lessons learned, analysis, concept development, experimentation, doctrine development and improving interoperability in the field of modelling and simulation.

As subject matter experts, M&S functions as knowledge managers for modelling and simulation. It develops and manages shared repositories for information related to this field. It also provides advice and assistance on data interconnectivity.

With Italy as the Framework Nation, the M&S COE received NATO accreditation on 18 July 2012.

**Naval Mine Warfare (NMW) COE**
Based in Ostend, Belgium, the Naval Mine Warfare (NMW) COE, is co-located with the Ecole de Guerre de Mines (EGUERMIN), which has existed since 1965. In addition to providing Naval Mine Countermeasures (NMCM) courses to naval personnel from the Netherlands and Belgium, NMW COE acts as NMCM technical advisor to ACO and assist NATO’s Operational Commands and offers courses for both NATO and non-NATO countries, including Partnership for Peace countries.


**Operations in Confined and Shallow Waters (CSW) COE**
Based in Kiel, Germany, the Operations in Confined Shallow Waters (CSW) COE aims to help develop the Alliance’s confined and shallow water war fighting capabilities. Like other COEs, CSW also conducts presentations, workshops and courses, in addition to contributing to concept development and releasing papers.

CSW received NATO accreditation in 2009, after its establishment by Framework Nation Germany in 2008.
**Strategic Communications (StratCom) COE**

Based in Riga, Latvia, NATO Strategic Communications COE (StratCom COE) contributes towards improved strategic communications capabilities within the Alliance. The Centre will design programmes to advance StratCom doctrine development and harmonisation, conduct research and experimentation to find practical solutions to existing challenges, identify lessons learned from applied StratCom during the operations, as well as enhance training and education efforts and interoperability.

StratCom COE will operate as a hub for debate and expertise within various StratCom disciplines: Public Diplomacy, Public Affairs, Military Public Affairs, Information Operations and Psychological Operations.

With Latvia as Framework Nation, StratCom COE received accreditation on 1 September 2014 and at the 2014 Wales Summit, Allies welcomed “the establishment of the StratCom COE as a meaningful contribution to NATO’s efforts” in the area of strategic communications.

**Centres of Excellence in Development**

These include:

- Crisis Management for Disaster Response
- Mountain Warfare

**Crisis Management for Disaster Response (CMDR) COE**

With a proposed base in Sofia, Bulgaria, the Crisis Management for Disaster Relief (CMDR) COE’s mission will be to build and develop the crisis management and disaster relief capabilities of NATO and member nations, while also providing subject matter expertise.

**Mountain Warfare (MW) COE**

Based in Bohinjska Bela, Slovenia in the Bohinjska Bela Barracks, the Mountain Warfare (MW) COE’s area of expertise is preparing both individuals and units for operations in mountainous and other difficult terrain, as well as in extreme weather conditions.

MW will also host conferences, seminars and talks from experts relating to mountain warfare in order to further doctrine and concept development, conduct research projects and experiments relating to mountain warfare, and prepare reports based on lessons learned in order to transfer the knowledge into practice and to aid the education and training processes. As with other COE’s, MW is not intended to duplicate existing NATO capabilities, but to enhance and increase them.

Participation in MW events will be open to NATO member countries, PfP countries, partner countries involved in partnership programmes approved by the North Atlantic Council, international organisations, non-governmental organisations and universities, in addition to personnel from the Ministry of Defence of the Republic of Slovenia and the Slovenian Armed Forces.

The Slovenian Armed Forces first established the MW COE as a multi-national unit in 2011. Slovenia, the MW COE framework nation, will then put forward the COE for accreditation after 2015.
**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.

COEs are not part of the NATO command structure nor were they created by ACT. Instead, they are facilities in the Euro-Atlantic area recognised by the Alliance for their expertise. ACT coordinates the relationship between these facilities and ACO.

The Joint Air Power Competence Centre in Germany and the Defence Against Terrorism Centre of Excellence became the first institutions to receive NATO COE accreditation in 2005 and 2006, respectively. Since then, SACT has certified 19 COEs, with 18 in Europe and one in North America. An additional two COEs are in the MOU negotiation phase or the concept development phase.
Prague Capabilities Commitment (PCC) (Archived)

At the 2002 NATO Summit in Prague, Alliance leaders made a commitment at the highest level to improve the operational capabilities of their armed forces individually and collectively.

NATO Heads of State and Government agreed to firm, country-specific targets and deadlines for improving existing and developing new capabilities in specific areas. The Alliance has put in place measures to track and monitor progress.

The aim is to ensure that NATO can fulfil its present and future operational commitments and fight new threats such as terrorism and the spread of weapons of mass destruction.

This is particularly important as NATO takes on new missions in faraway areas such as Afghanistan. These missions require forces that can be quickly deployed to distant areas to perform a wide range of missions, and to remain in theatre for significant periods.

What does this mean in practice?
Under the Prague Capabilities Commitment, member countries agreed to improve capabilities in more than 400 specific areas, covering eight fields essential to today’s military operations:

- Chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear defence;
- Intelligence, surveillance and target acquisition;
- Air-to-ground surveillance;
- Deployable and secure command, control and communications;
- Combat effectiveness, including precision-guided munitions and suppression of enemy air defences;
- Strategic air- and sealift;
- Air-to-air refuelling;
- Deployable combat support and combat service support units.

NATO members are improving their capabilities in these areas individually and collectively.

For example, in the areas of strategic lift and air-to-air refuelling multinational consortia have been formed to provide the Alliance with the required capabilities.

A similar approach has been taken to chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear defence, with NATO member countries jointly creating a multinational battalion that will provide this capability. The purchase of a NATO air-to-ground surveillance system is also a multinational project, as is the creation of an F-16 aircraft expeditionary air wing.

In other areas, NATO member countries have agreed to improve their capabilities individually, by meeting country-specific targets for improving or developing new capabilities within agreed deadlines.

The PCC is being coordinated with European Union’s efforts to improve its capabilities. A NATO-EU Capability Group was set up for this purpose under the so-called “Berlin Plus” arrangements. One way of ensuring that the NATO and EU processes complement each other is by having the same
countries take the lead on the same capabilities in both organisations. For example, Germany leads both the NATO consortium and the European Capability Action Programme project group on strategic airlift.

**How did it evolve?**

Efforts to improve the Alliance’s operational capabilities began at the April 1999 NATO Summit in Washington, D.C., where Allied leaders launched the Defence Capabilities Initiative (DCI).

This initiative identified a number of areas where improvements in Alliance capabilities were required. These areas fell into five major categories:

- Deployability and mobility: getting forces to the crisis quickly;
- Effective engagement: improving forces’ cutting edge capacity;
- Consultation, command and control: giving forces maximum awareness and control;
- Survivability: protecting forces;
- Sustainability and logistics: supporting forces in the field.

The DCI contributed to improvements in Alliance capabilities in quite a number of important areas. However, countries were not required to report individually on progress achieved and therefore advancement under the DCI has been uneven.

**From DCI to PCC**

As a result, at meeting in Brussels in June 2002, NATO Defence Ministers agreed to refocus their efforts on four key areas, which are fundamentally important to the efficient conduct of all Alliance missions, including defence against terrorism:

- defending against chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) attacks;
- ensuring command, communications and information superiority;
- improving interoperability of deployed forces and key aspects of combat effectiveness and
- ensuring rapid deployment and sustainability of combat forces.

They also decided that this new initiative should be based on firm nation-specific commitments undertaken on the basis of national decisions and incorporate target dates by when shortfalls should be corrected. Defence Ministers agreed to increase multinational cooperation in achieving the capability targets, ensure that they are realistic in economic terms, and co-ordinate with the European Union’s efforts to improve its capabilities.

At November 2002 NATO Summit in Prague, the new initiative was formally endorsed and launched at the highest political level, by NATO Heads of State and Government.

**Progress in Istanbul**

Two years later, at the Istanbul Summit, Heads of State and Government reiterated their support for the Prague Capabilities Commitment and agreed to give special emphasis to overcoming the remaining critical shortages.

At the same time, Defence Ministers agreed to usability goals for their ground forces of 40 per cent deployability and eight per cent sustainability. This means that member country armed forces will be
restructured so that 40 per cent of their ground forces can be deployed and eight per cent can be supported in overseas missions at any one time. Members will work to meet these goals or could even surpass them. These targets were endorsed by Heads of State and Government.

Defence Ministers from a number of member countries also signed a memorandum of understanding on strategic airlift while additional countries signed letters of intent on strategic sealift and a memorandum of understanding on the creation of an F-16 expeditionary air wing.

Which NATO bodies have a central role?
The Executive Working Group, which is made up of defence counsellors from NATO delegations, oversees work on the PCC.
NATO enlargement

The foreign ministers of four aspirant countries – Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Montenegro and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia¹ – meet NATO foreign ministers at the Chicago Summit in May 2012.

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 28 countries through six rounds of enlargement. Albania and Croatia were invited to join NATO at the Bucharest Summit in April 2008 and formally became members when the accession process was completed on 1 April 2009. Currently there are four partner countries that aspire for NATO membership: Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia¹ and Montenegro.

The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia¹ has, like Albania and Croatia, been participating in the Membership Action Plan (MAP) for a number of years to prepare for possible membership. At Bucharest, 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 has been reached with Greece. They also invited Bosnia and Herzegovina and Montenegro to start Intensified Dialogues on their membership aspirations and related reforms. Furthermore, Allied leaders agreed that Georgia and Ukraine – which were already engaged in an Intensified Dialogue with NATO – will become members of NATO. In December 2008, Georgia and Ukraine were invited to develop Annual National Programmes (ANPs). Georgia did so under the auspices of the NATO-Georgia Commission (NGC), which was established in September 2008 to oversee NATO’s assistance to Georgia following the conflict with Russia and to play a central role in supervising the process set in hand at the Bucharest Summit. Georgia and Ukraine both submitted their first ANPs in 2009.

In terms of Ukraine, while no longer pursuing NATO membership since 2010, Ukraine has maintained the existing level of cooperation with the Alliance and has fulfilled the existing agreements. Ukraine has continued to participate actively in the ANP process which plays a key role in determining Allied support for Ukraine’s domestic reform process.

In December 2009, Montenegro was invited to join the MAP, as was Bosnia and Herzegovina in April 2010. However, the latter’s first Annual National Programme will only be accepted by the North Atlantic Council, NATO’s principal decision-making body, when the immovable property issue has been resolved.

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.
**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.

7. 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 28 members through six rounds of enlargement in 1952, 1955, 1982, 1999, 2004 and 2009.

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.

**Bucharest Summit decisions**

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. 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.
Albania and Croatia were invited to start accession talks to join the Alliance and joined NATO in April 2009.

The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia was assured that it will also be invited to join the Alliance as soon as a solution to the issue of the country’s name has been reached with Greece.

Bosnia and Herzegovina and Montenegro were invited to start Intensified Dialogues on their membership aspirations and related reforms (Montenegro was invited to join MAP in December 2009 and Bosnia and Herzegovina in April 2010; MAP will be fully activated for the latter once the Tallinn condition on the registration of immovable defence property has been met).

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.

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.

6 May 1955  
Accession of the Federal Republic of Germany.

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.

28 September 1995
Publication of NATO Study on Enlargement.

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.
29 March 2004  Accession of Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia.

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 former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia¹ 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 December 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.
22 April 2010

NATO Foreign Ministers invite Bosnia and Herzegovina to join the MAP, authorising the North Atlantic Council to accept the country’s first Annual National Programme only when the immovable property issue has been resolved.

1. Turkey recognises the Republic of Macedonia with its constitutional name.
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 in the MAP are the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, which has been participating in the MAP since 1999, and Montenegro, which was invited to join in December 2009. Welcoming progress made in its reform efforts, in April 2010, the Allies formally invited Bosnia and Herzegovina to join the MAP, pending the resolution of a key issue concerning immovable defence property.

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
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.

The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia continues to participate in the MAP – Allied leaders have agreed to invite the country to become a member as soon as a mutually acceptable solution to the issue over the country’s name has been reached with Greece.

When NATO Foreign Ministers invited Montenegro to join the MAP in December 2009, they also assured Bosnia and Herzegovina that it will be able to join once it has achieved the necessary progress in its reform efforts.

In April 2010, NATO Foreign Ministers at their meeting in Tallinn, reviewed progress in Bosnia and Herzegovina’s reform efforts and invited the country to join the Membership Action Plan. However, the North Atlantic Council will only accept the country’s first Annual National Programme when the immovable property issue has been resolved.

1. Turkey recognizes the Republic of Macedonia with its constitutional name.
Partnership and cooperation

Partnerships: a cooperative approach to security

Over the past two decades, the Alliance has developed a network of structured partnerships with countries from the Euro-Atlantic area, the Mediterranean and the Gulf region, as well as individual relationships with other partners across the globe. Today, NATO pursues dialogue and practical cooperation with 41 partner countries and engages actively with other international actors and organisations on a wide range of political and security-related issues.

NATO’s Strategic Concept identifies “cooperative security” as one of NATO’s three essential core tasks. It states that the promotion of Euro-Atlantic security is best assured through a wide network of partner relationships with countries and organisations around the globe. These partnerships make a concrete and valued contribution to the success of NATO’s fundamental tasks. Many of NATO’s formal partners as well as other non-member countries offer substantial capabilities and political support for Alliance operations and missions. A focused effort to reform NATO’s partnerships policy was launched at the 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.

Recognising the essential role that partners play in addressing security threats, at the Wales Summit in 2014, the Allies launched two initiatives to deepen NATO’s security cooperation with partners. The Partnership Interoperability Initiative aims to maintain and deepen the ability of partner forces to work alongside Allied forces.

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 is aimed at reinforcing NATO’s commitment to partner nations and helping 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 new policy concerns not only partnerships with non-member countries but also NATO’s cooperation with other international actors and organisations. The complexity of today’s peace-support and stabilisation operations and the multifaceted nature of 21st century security challenges call for a comprehensive approach that effectively combines political, civilian and military instruments.

Highlights

- NATO works with partners from Central and Eastern Europe, Central Asia, the Caucasus, the Mediterranean rim, the Gulf region and individual countries from across the globe.
- NATO’s partners also comprise other international organisations, including the UN and the EU, as well as other actors such as the International Committee of the Red Cross.
- Partners cooperate with NATO in a very broad range of security-related areas and, when taking part in a NATO cooperation programme, can participate in over 1,000 activities offered in the Partnership Cooperation Menu.
- Partners contribute in many ways to shaping discussions and debates in the Alliance.
A 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 28 Allies engage in relations with 22 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 partnership frameworks. Referred to as “partners across the globe”, they include Afghanistan, Australia, Iraq, Japan, the Republic of Korea, Mongolia, New Zealand and Pakistan.

Active engagement with other international organisations

Since the 1990s, NATO has developed close working relations with the United Nations (UN), the European Union (EU) and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE). This is an integral part of the Alliance’s ongoing transformation to address effectively the complex challenges of crisis management, as well as terrorism and emerging security challenges.

The Alliance is also developing cooperation in specific areas with a number of other international and non-governmental organisations, including the African Union, the International Committee of the Red Cross, the International Organization for Migration, the World Bank, the International Civil Aviation Organization and the Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons.
The Alliance seeks to enhance its relations with other relevant international organisations. Key objectives guiding this cooperation are, as appropriate:

- To play complementary and mutually reinforcing roles in supporting international peace and security;
- To engage actively before, during and after crises to encourage collaborative analysis, planning and conduct of activities on the ground, in order to maximise the coherence and effectiveness of the overall international effort;
- To increase support for training and regional capacity-building.

**Strategic objectives for partnership**

Under the new partnership policy, 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 reforms;
- Enhance support for NATO-led operations and missions;
- 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.

**Priority areas for dialogue, consultation and cooperation**

Within these strategic objectives for partnership, dialogue, consultation and cooperation will be prioritised in the following areas, as appropriate:

- Political consultations on security developments, as appropriate, including regional issues, in particular with a view to preventing crises and contributing to their management;
- Cooperation in NATO-led operations and missions;
- Interoperability, so that partners can support the Alliance in achieving its tactical, operational and strategic objectives;
o Defence reform, capability- and capacity-building, education and training;
o Counter-terrorism;
o Counter-proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and their means of delivery;
o Emerging security challenges, including those related to cyber defence, energy security and maritime security, including counter-piracy;
o Civil emergency planning.

Towards a more efficient and flexible partnership

NATO’s new partnership policy, which was endorsed in April 2011 aims to reinforce existing partnerships by strengthening consultation mechanisms and by facilitating more substance-driven cooperation. In addition, the new policy outlines a “toolbox” of mechanisms and activities, simplifying the way that NATO develops cooperation offers to partners.

In line with the new 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.” At their meeting in Berlin in 2011, NATO Foreign Ministers endorsed proposals for the establishment of a more structured role for NATO’s operational partners in shaping the strategy of 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 reviewed in 2011, without however giving partners the same decision-making authority as member countries.

Existing partnership frameworks will preserve their specificity and be further developed. However, the new partnership policy offers all partners more cooperation and more dialogue. All partners which have an Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme (IPCP) or other programme agreed with NATO have access to the same Partnership Cooperation Menu, comprising more than a thousand activities. IPCPs are programmes that form the basis of a partner’s cooperation with NATO. A myriad of other tools are available to partners, according to the specific areas of cooperation they wish to develop with the Alliance, including the initiatives launched at the Wales Summit in September 2014 focused on interoperability and capacity-building.

NATO is also seeking to develop political dialogue and practical cooperation with 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. Contacts will be developed
based on a decision of the North Atlantic Council and in a flexible and pragmatic manner. In the run-up to the Wales Summit in 2014, the Allies agreed to create a new, permanent forum – the Interoperability Platform, which includes partners interested in developing interoperability with NATO. Through this Platform, Allies and partners will discuss and develop plans for deepening their interoperability.

NATO will further develop more flexible formats for meetings and, as appropriate, activities which will bring NATO Allies and partners together, across and beyond existing frameworks, using the so-called “28 Allies + n” formula. Such meetings are 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 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 is enhanced liaison arrangements, including the appointment of the Special Representative and two NATO Liaison Officers, one for each region.

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 1998 to 2004.

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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 exist that are open to all partners, allowing them to cooperate bilaterally with NATO beyond existing regional partnership frameworks. The cooperative initiatives focus mainly on interoperability and building capabilities, and supporting defence and security-related reform. The partnership tools comprise, for instance, the PfP Planning and Review Process, the Operational Capabilities Concept and the Individual Partnership Action Plans. The areas in which partners cooperate with NATO include defence reform, demobilisation and reintegration, cyber defence, education and training, logistics and disarmament.

Most of these partnership tools were originally developed in the framework of NATO’s cooperation with Euro-Atlantic partners through the Partnership for Peace (PfP). However, with the reform of NATO’s partnerships policy in April 2011, steps were taken to open the “toolbox” to all partners, across and beyond existing regional partnership frameworks. From 2012 onwards, all partners have access to a new Partnership Cooperation Menu, which comprises some 1,400 activities. An Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme (IPCP) is jointly developed and agreed between NATO and each partner country that requests one. These two-year programmes are drawn upon, among other things, the activities in the extensive Partnership Cooperation Menu, according to each country’s specific interests and needs. IPCPs form the basis of a partner’s cooperation with NATO. In addition, a number of other tools are available to partners, according to the specific areas of cooperation they wish to develop with the Alliance.

Wales Summit initiatives
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 Partnership Interoperability Initiative (PII) sets in place measures designed to ensure the deep connections built up between partner forces over years of operations will be maintained and deepened so that they can contribute to future NATO and NATO-led operations and, where applicable, to the NATO Response Force.

Through this initiative, an Interoperability Platform format has been set up, bringing together Allies with partners that have demonstrated their commitment to reinforce their interoperability with NATO (24 partners so far). Meeting in the Interoperability Platform format, Allies and partners will discuss and develop common actions to deepen their interoperability.
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 that require capacity-building support. It is aimed at reinforcing NATO’s commitment to partner countries and helping the Alliance project stability without deploying large combat forces, as part of the Alliance’s overall contribution to international security, stability and conflict prevention. NATO pursues these efforts in complementarity and close cooperation with other international organisations, in particular the United Nations, the European Union and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe, as appropriate. NATO, upon request, can provide strategic-level advice on defence and related security reform and institution building, and assist in developing defence capabilities and local forces, in particular through education and training. Support can also be provided in several specialised areas such as logistics, disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration, civil emergency planning and cyber defence. At the Wales Summit, following their requests, Allies agreed to extend this initiative to Georgia, Jordan and the Republic of Moldova, while expressing readiness to consider other requests from interested partners, non-partners as well to engage with international and regional organisations.

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.

A number of tools have been developed to assist partners in developing their own defence capabilities and defence institutions, ensuring that partner forces are interoperable with Allies’ forces and capable of participating in NATO-led operations. They include the following:

The PfP 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 Individual Partnership Action Plans (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 North Atlantic Council.

The Operational Capabilities Concept (OCC) Evaluation and Feedback Programme is used to develop 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. The Bi-
Strategic Command Military Cooperation Division, which is principally located at Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE) in Mons, Belgium, is responsible for supporting partner involvement in exercises.

In addition, and on a case-by-case basis, Allies may invite partners to take part in North Atlantic Council-level crisis-management exercises that engage 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.

The Partnership Action Plan against Terrorism (PAP-T) is a framework through which Allies and partner countries work to improve cooperation in the fight against terrorism, through political consultation and a range of practical measures. It facilitates consultation and cooperation in areas such as intelligence-sharing, terrorism-related training and exercises, and the development of capabilities for defence against terrorist attack or for dealing with the consequences of such an attack. Other areas of cooperation include border management and security, air defence and air-traffic management. Defence against terrorism is also the first of three key priorities of the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme, which over time has initiated a broad range of activities in topical areas related to the defence against terrorism. PAP-T was launched at the Prague Summit in 2002 and continues to evolve in line with the joint aims and efforts of Allies and partners.

Opportunities for cooperation between NATO and partners in the areas of armaments, air defence, and airspace and air traffic management are provided through the Conference of National Armaments Directors (CNAD), the Air Defence Committee (ADC) and the Air Traffic Management Committee (ATMC).

Supporting transformation
Several tools 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.

Some of the main tools supporting transformation include the following:

Individual Partnership Action Plans (IPAPs) 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 objectives and targets for reforms on political issues as well as security and defence issues. They are designed to bring together all the various cooperation mechanisms through which a partner country interacts with the Alliance. The development of IPAPs is open to all partners, on a case-by-case basis, upon approval of the North Atlantic Council.

The Partnership Action Plan on Defence Institution Building (PAP-DIB) aims to reinforce efforts by partner countries to reform and restructure their defence institutions to meet domestic needs as well as international commitments. Launched in 2004, the PAP-DIB defines common objectives, encourages exchange of relevant experience and helps tailor and focus bilateral defence and security
assistance programmes for partner countries to support them in conducting these reforms. The objectives of the Action Plan include, for instance, effective and transparent arrangements for the democratic control of defence activities, civilian participation in developing defence and security policy, compliance with international norms and practices in the defence sector and effective management of defence spending. The PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) mechanism serves as a key instrument for implementing the Action Plan’s objectives.

**Education and training** in a number of 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 20 national Partnership Training and Education Centres. Moreover, the *Education and Training for Defence Reform (EFR) initiative* supports the education of civilian and military personnel in efficient and effective management of national defence institutions under civil and democratic control.

As an implementation tool for EFR, 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. DEEPs focus on faculty or so-called “educate the educators” programmes and curriculum development. With regard to faculty development (“how to teach”) they can cover areas such as how to teach leadership and critical thinking. DEEPs are open to all NATO partners. In the context of DEEPs, NATO and the PfP Consortium developed three curricula (“what to teach”), namely the Defence Institution Building reference curriculum; Generic Officers’ Professional Military Education reference curriculum; as well as a Non-Commissioned Officers’ Professional Military Education reference curriculum.

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. Training provided under such a programme is closely aligned to the partner country’s overall defence and security-sector reform objectives and harmonised and de-conflicted with the bilateral efforts of individual Allies and other programmes.

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.

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. This includes developing a tailored programme to support the Afghan National Security Forces as well as supporting good practice in contracting and implementation of the NATO Afghan First Policy.

**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 against terrorism 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 efforts among NATO and partner countries. The Centre has guided consequence-management efforts in more than 45 emergencies, including fighting floods and forest fires, and dealing with the aftermath of earthquakes. Partners are represented on many of the Alliance’s civil emergency planning groups and are also involved in education and training in this area.

**Women, peace and security and the United Nations (UN) Security Council Resolution 1325** have been the subject of a policy developed and approved by Allies and partners in the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC). This UN resolution reaffirms the role of women in conflict and post-conflict situations and encourages greater participation of women and the incorporation of gender perspectives in peace and security efforts. The “NATO/EAPC policy for the implementation of UNSCR 1325 on Women, Peace and Security and related issues” was first issued in December 2007 and has since been reviewed. It is supported by an Action Plan, which mainstreams related issues into NATO’s operations and policies. Many partner countries have been associating themselves with this policy including all 22 Partnership for Peace (PfP) countries, as well as partners Afghanistan, Australia, Japan, Jordan and the United Arab Emirates.
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, while some have already completed three IPAP cycles such as Armenia and Azerbaijan and are developing a fourth, other partners choose to be less active. Georgia and Montenegro have since moved from this mechanism as they pursue their membership aspirations through development of Annual National Programmes and, in the case of Montenegro, within the Membership Action Plan process.
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.
Partnership Trust Funds

Through NATO, individual Allies and partners develop Trust Funds to implement practical demilitarizations and defence transformation projects in non-NATO countries.

Highlights

Trust Funds promote the safe destruction of surplus and obsolete landmines, weapons and munitions

They contribute to capacity-building in areas such as demining and munitions stockpile management

They also support the retraining and transition to civilian life of former military personnel

Specific Trust Funds are established for each project to allow individual NATO and partner countries to provide financial support on a voluntary basis

Projects are open to all NATO partner countries

Trust Fund projects assist principally with the safe destruction of stockpiles of surplus and obsolete landmines, weapons and munitions. Another priority is to help manage the consequences of defence transformation through initiatives such as the retraining of former military personnel and converting military bases to civilian use. Projects include activities promoting transparency, accountability and gender mainstreaming.

The Trust Fund policy is 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 is then established to allow individual NATO and partner countries to provide financial support on a voluntary basis.

Originally, Trust Funds were developed in the framework of NATO’s Partnership for Peace programme – NATO’s programme of practical bilateral cooperation with non-member countries in Europe, the South Caucasus and Central Asia. However, over the years, use of Trust Funds has been extended to countries of the Mediterranean and broader Middle East region, which participate in NATO’s Mediterranean Dialogue and the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative, as well as to Afghanistan. More recently, with the launch of NATO’s new partnership policy at the April 2011 meeting of NATO Foreign Ministers in Berlin, the Trust Fund mechanism was also opened to NATO’s other partners across the globe.

By early 2014, Trust Fund projects across 12 countries have helped to destroy:

- 162 million rounds of small arms ammunition;
- 4.5 million landmines;
- 2 million hand grenades;
- 625,000 pieces of unexploded ordnance (UXO);
- 615,000 small arms and light weapons;
- 31,000 tonnes of various munitions, including 8,300 tonnes of cluster sub-munitions (15.5 million sub-munitions);
- 10,000 rockets and missiles;
- 2,620 tonnes of chemicals, including rocket fuel oxidiser (melange);
more than 1,470 man-portable air defence systems (MANPADS).

In addition, some 11,800 former military personnel in three countries have received retraining assistance through Trust Fund defence transformation projects.

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.

Project development
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 executing 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.

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.

NATO cooperates actively with other international organisations and other relevant actors on Trust Fund projects to ensure coherence and effectiveness, as well as to avoid duplication of efforts. For example, NATO has cooperated with the International Organization for Migration (IOM), which was, for instance, the executing agent for the retraining Trust Fund projects in the Balkans; the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), which also implemented a NATO-initiated Trust Fund in Tajikistan; the European Commission (EC); and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE).

Project oversight and implementation
The NATO Support Agency (NSPA) – formerly the NATO Maintenance and Supply Agency (NAMSA) – plays an essential role in the development and implementation of Trust Fund projects. It offers technical advice and a range of management services and has often been appointed to act as the executing agent for demilitarization projects by lead nations. This involves 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.

Once the project proposal is agreed by the lead nation and the host nation, it is presented to the Political and Partnerships Committee in EAPC (Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council) format. This body serves as a formal forum to discuss the project and attract potential support and resources.
Evolution of Trust Fund policy

The Trust Fund policy was established in September 2000 to assist Euro-Atlantic partner countries in the safe destruction of stockpiled anti-personnel landmines. It provided the Alliance with a practical mechanism to assist partners to meet their obligations under the Ottawa Convention on the prohibition of the use, stockpiling, production and transfer of anti-personnel mines and their destruction.

Initial success in the safe destruction of anti-personnel landmines led to an extension of the policy to include conventional munitions, as well as small arms and light weapons. In recent years, the scope of the Trust Fund policy has been further expanded to support wider defence transformation initiatives. It has also been extended geographically and is now open to all partner countries participating in NATO’s structured partnership frameworks – Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council/Partnership for Peace, the Mediterranean Dialogue and the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative – as well as partners across the globe.

The implementation of the Trust Fund policy includes measures and activities related to the adoption of best practices, and to the commitment of promoting transparency and good governance. In this context, NATO strives to implement United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 on gender mainstreaming in its projects.
Building Integrity (BI) Programme

The Building Integrity (BI) Programme provides practical tools to help participating countries strengthen integrity, transparency and accountability and reduce the risk of corruption in the defence and security sectors. It promotes good practice, processes and methodologies, and provides countries with tailored support to make defence and security institutions more effective.

The BI Programme is tailored to meet national needs and requirements. It is demand-driven and participation is on a voluntary basis. It is open to all NATO Allies and partners (members of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, the Mediterranean Dialogue, Istanbul Cooperation Initiative and partners across the globe). Requests from other countries are reviewed by NATO on a case-by-case basis. As of April 2014, 16 countries are engaged in the Self-Assessment Questionnaire and Peer Review Process: Afghanistan, Armenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Colombia, Croatia, Georgia, Hungary, Latvia, the Republic of Moldova, Montenegro, Norway, Poland, Serbia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia¹ and Ukraine.

The BI Programme supports the implementation of the United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security and related resolutions, and has integrated a gender perspective into its methodology and practical tools.

The programme was established by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council in November 2007 in the framework of the Partnership Action Plan on Defence Institution Building (PAP-DIB), which helps partners to develop effective and efficient defence institutions under civilian and democratic control. At the Chicago Summit in 2012, NATO Heads of State and Government established BI as a NATO discipline and agreed the development of a BI Education and Training Plan. In December 2013, when NATO Foreign Ministers identified defence capacity-building support to partners and, potentially non-partner countries as a key objective, BI was earmarked as an instrument to help promote democratic values and human rights, contribute more generally to security and stability, and to help develop or enhance interoperability.

1. Turkey recognises the Republic of Macedonia with its constitutional name.

The Building Integrity toolkit

The BI Programme focuses on developing practical tools to help participants strengthen integrity, transparency, accountability and reduce the risk of corruption in the defence and security sector. The toolkit includes:

- The BI Self-Assessment Questionnaire and Peer Review Process;
- Tailored Programmes;
- Education and training activities;
- Publications.

The BI Self-Assessment Questionnaire and Peer Review Process

The BI Programme includes a set of tools available to help countries assess the risk of corruption in their ministries and strengthen good governance. Participation is on a voluntary basis and BI support is tailor-made to meet national needs and requirements. Completing the Self-Assessment Questionnaire (SAQ) is the first step in the process. Participating countries that decide to take part in
the BI programme can, on a voluntary basis, fill it in to get a snapshot of their existing procedures and practices. This diagnostic tool addresses current business practice in the defence and security sector, including:

- Democratic control and engagement;
- National anti-corruption laws and policy;
- Anti-corruption policy in the defence and security sector;
- Personnel code of conduct, policy, training and discipline;
- Planning and budgeting;
- Operations;
- Procurement;
- Engagement with defence companies and suppliers.

While primarily intended for ministries of defence, some participating countries have applied the SAQ to other ministries in the defence and security sector.

The completed SAQ is forwarded to the International Staff at NATO Headquarters, responsible for conducting the Peer Review and in-country consultations. A NATO-led expert review team puts forward recommendations, which are coordinated with the country in question (as is the composition of the review team). The completed SAQ is reviewed with government representatives in order to understand the current situation, exchange views on best practices and on practical steps to strengthen the transparency, accountability and integrity of the defence and security sector. It is strongly recommended that the SAQ and peer reviews be developed with contributions from parliamentarians and the civil society including NGOs, media and academics.

A Peer Review Report is then prepared on the basis of the completed SAQ and consultations in capitals. The report identifies good practices as well as recommendations for improvement and action. This is intended to help countries develop a BI Action Plan should they wish to so, making use of existing BI and other NATO mechanisms. They are also encouraged to take advantage of expertise from within their own countries so as to promote transparency and build local capacity.

Where possible, the BI programme is integrated and aligned with national processes as well as NATO partnership mechanisms, including the Individual Partnership Cooperation Programme, the Membership Action Plan, the Partnership Planning and Review Process, and for Afghanistan, the Enduring Partnership. This also includes identifying opportunities to link with other ongoing programmes such as the Professional Development Programme for Georgia and Ukraine.

Countries can request BI support without ever being obliged to implement the next phase. The whole process can be conducted on a one-off basis or as part of a repeated cycle.

**Tailored programmes**

Two tailored programmes aiming to meet the specific needs and requirements of the countries concerned were developed by BI: the Tailored BI Programme on South Eastern Europe (SEE) under the auspices of the South Eastern Europe Defence Ministerial process and the Tailored BI Programme for Building Integrity and Reducing the Risk of Corruption in the Afghan National Security Forces (ANSF).
**Education and training**

Education and training are key to making and sustaining change and to producing long-term benefits. A large spectrum of tailored educational activities addressing subjects such as NATO’s operations and missions and ongoing efforts to contribute to good governance in the defence and security sector can be offered to assist participating countries. These include residence, online and mobile courses; activities organised periodically and others on demand to address special needs, pre-deployment and professional development training; and “train-the-trainers” events. They are aimed at personnel in the defence and security sector (civilian and military) and can be held in different languages. Some courses are organised directly by the Alliance and others by the NATO BI implementing partners.

The BI Education and Training Plan is developed in cooperation with the NATO Military Authorities and agreed by the North Atlantic Council, NATO’s top political decision-making body.

Working in cooperation with Allied Command Transformation, the NATO International Staff defines the required capabilities and performance competencies to be developed through the education and training activities. The Centre for Integrity in the Defence Sector (CIDS, Norway) is responsible of translating operational requirements into education and training objectives with a subject, programme, module and/or course (a NATO BI Programme of Instruction certificated by ACT).

**Publications**

Publications are regularly produced and distributed by NATO and implementing partners to support the entire process. For instance, Building Integrity and Reducing Corruption in Defence: a Compendium of Best Practices provides a strategic approach to reducing corruption risks. It focuses on practicalities of designing and implementing integrity-building programmes in defence, while taking into account the cultural specifics of defence organisations. Building Integrity in Defence Establishment: a Ukrainian Case Study offers the final results of a BI project in the form of a policy paper with practical recommendations for the Ukrainian government on the ways of decreasing the risk of corruption.

**Implementation**

The BI Programme is developed and managed by the NATO International Staff (IS), in close cooperation with NATO Military Authorities, including the NATO Military Staff as well as Allied Command Transformation, Allied Command Operations and subordinated commands. They meet regularly in the framework of a task force meeting led by NATO IS.

A network of implementing partners drawn from NATO and non-NATO countries, civil society and other international organisations also contribute to the BI initiative. They provide expert advice, host events and conduct research and analysis.

- United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNDOC, Vienna)
- Centre for Integrity in the Defence Sector (CIDS, Norway)
- Defence Resources Management Institute (DRMI, USA)
- EUPOL Mission to Afghanistan
- Geneva Centre for Democratic Control of the Armed Forces (DCAF, Switzerland)
- Ministry of Defence, Bulgaria
- Ministry of Defence, Norway
- NATO School Oberammergau (NSO, Germany)
The NATO International Staff also work closely with the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), the World Bank (Kabul Office) and the Asian Development Bank (ADB, Kabul Office). Subject matter experts (SMEs) drawn from national civilian and defence ministries, international organisations and civil society also provide advice and take an active role in the development and implementation of all aspects of the BI Programme.

The BI Programme is supported by voluntary contributions to a Trust Fund, which is managed by the IS at NATO Headquarters and led by Belgium, Bulgaria, Norway, Poland, Switzerland and the United Kingdom.

2. Contributions to the BI Trust Fund are used for capacity building within ministries and, according to principles of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), are considered as Official Development Assistance.
The Euro-Atlantic Partnership: the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council and the Partnership for Peace

The 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.

The 50-nation EAPC brings together the 28 Allies and 22 Partner countries in a multilateral forum for dialogue and consultation, and provides the overall political framework for NATO’s cooperation with Partner countries.

The PfP programme facilitates practical bilateral cooperation between individual Partner countries and NATO, tailored according to the specific ambitions, needs and abilities of each Partner.

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. At Lisbon, Allied leaders reiterated their commitment to further develop the EAPC/PfP as the essential framework for substantive political dialogue and practical cooperation, including enhanced military interoperability, and that they would continue to develop policy initiatives within this framework.

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.

**Highlights**

The Euro-Atlantic Partnership brings together Allies and partner countries from Europe, the Caucasus and Central Asia for dialogue and consultation.

The EAPC totals 50 countries: 28 NATO members and 22 PfP countries.

The PfP facilitates practical bilateral cooperation between individual partner countries and NATO, and the EAPC provides a framework for dialogue and consultation.

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 from the former Soviet Union, called the North Atlantic Cooperation Council (NACC).

The PfP was created in 1994 and the EAPC replaced the NACC in 1997.

**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 former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia¹ made use of during the Kosovo crisis.

**The diversity of partners**

Over the years, 34 countries joined the Euro-Atlantic Partnership. A number of these have since become NATO member states, through three 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 Southeastern 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 has also opened liaison and information offices in Georgia, Russia, Ukraine and Uzbekistan.

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 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 cooperative security constitutes one of the Alliance’s core tasks, together with collective defence and crisis management. It states 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

1990
(July) 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.

1991
(November) The Alliance issues a new strategic concept for NATO, which adopts a broader approach to security, emphasising partnership, dialogue and cooperation.

(December) 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.

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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.
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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.

Dialogue and cooperation are included as fundamental security tasks in the Alliance’s new Strategic Concept.

(April, Washington Summit) The PfP is further enhanced and its operational role strengthened, including 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.

Several partner countries deploy peacekeepers as part of the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Kosovo.

2001 (September) 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, Prague Summit) Further enhancement of partnership, 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.

2003 Some partner countries contribute troops to the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan.
2004

Seven partners – Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia – join NATO.

(June, 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.

2008

(April, 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).
- Priority is given to building integrity in defence institutions and the important role of women in conflict resolution (as outlined in UN Security Council Resolution 1325).

2009

Two partners – Albania and Croatia – become members of NATO.

2010

(November, 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.
- Allies agree to streamline NATO’s partnership tools in order to open all cooperative activities and exercises to all partners and to harmonise partnership.
- Allies decide to review the Political-Military Framework for NATO-led PfP operations in order to update the way NATO works together with partner countries and shapes decisions on the operations and missions to which they contribute.

2011

(April) 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.
The 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 28 Allies and 22 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.
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 Partnership for Peace programme

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.

Based on a commitment to the democratic principles that underpin the Alliance itself, the purpose of the Partnership for Peace is to increase stability, diminish threats to peace and build strengthened security relationships between individual Euro-Atlantic partners and NATO, as well as among partner countries.

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.

The essence of the PfP programme is a partnership formed individually between each Euro-Atlantic partner and NATO, tailored to individual needs and jointly implemented at the level and pace chosen by each participating government.

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 opened all cooperative activities and exercises offered to PfP partners and some programmes offered in the PfP “toolbox” 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 A-Z page on “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 22 countries in the Partnership for Peace Programme, see list by country or date.

Highlights

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 22 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. Following implementation of the decisions taken at the Lisbon Summit, all partners will have access to the new 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.

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Partnership for Peace Status of Forces Agreement

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.
NATO and Russia

NATO’s relations with Russia
At their Summit in Wales in September 2014, NATO leaders condemned in the strongest terms Russia’s military intervention in Ukraine and demanded that Russia stop and withdraw its forces from Ukraine and along the country’s border. NATO leaders also demanded that Russia comply with international law and its international obligations and responsibilities; end its illegitimate occupation of Crimea; refrain from aggressive actions against Ukraine; withdraw its troops; 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.

They reaffirmed that NATO does not and will not recognise Russia’s illegal and illegitimate ‘annexation’ of Crimea.

For more than two decades, NATO has strived to build a partnership with Russia, including through the mechanism of the NATO-Russia Council (NRC), based upon the NATO-Russia Founding Act and the Rome Declaration. Russia has breached its commitments, as well as violated international law, thus breaking the trust at the core of its cooperation with NATO. The decisions NATO took at the Summit demonstrate its respect for the rules-based European security architecture.

NATO continues to believe that a partnership between NATO and Russia based on respect for international law would be of strategic value. Allies 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. NATO regrets that the conditions for that relationship do not currently exist. As a result, NATO’s decision to suspend all practical civilian and military cooperation between NATO and Russia remains in place. Political channels of communication, however, remain open.

The Alliance does not seek confrontation and poses no threat to Russia, but it would not compromise on the principles on which the Alliance and security in Europe and North America rest.

NATO has followed developments closely from the very beginning of the crisis. On 2 March 2014, the North Atlantic Council condemned the Russian Federation’s military escalation in Crimea and expressed its grave concern regarding the authorisation by the Russian Parliament to use the armed forces of the Russian Federation on the territory of Ukraine.

On 16 March, the North Atlantic Council said that it considered the so-called referendum, held on the same day, in Ukraine’s Autonomous Republic of Crimea to be both illegal and illegitimate. The referendum violated the Ukrainian Constitution and international law, and Allies do not recognise its results.

The crisis had serious implications for NATO-Russia relations from the very beginning. The Alliance took immediate steps in terms of its relations with Russia. It suspended the planning for its first NATO-Russia joint mission and put the entire range of NATO-Russia cooperation under review. In April, NATO Foreign Ministers decided to suspend all practical civilian and military cooperation between NATO and Russia and in June they agreed to maintain the suspension of cooperation with...
Russia. Any decision to resume cooperation will be conditions-based, a principle that was reaffirmed by NATO Heads of State and Government in Wales.

NATO is currently identifying ways to transfer those cooperative projects that impact on third parties – in particular the NATO-Russia Council (NRC) Counter-Narcotics Training Project and the NRC Helicopter Maintenance Trust Fund - to other non-NRC mechanisms or structures. Political dialogue in the NRC can continue, as necessary, at the Ambassadorial level and above, to allow the exchange of views, first and foremost on this crisis. Since the crisis began, the NRC has convened twice.

**Framework for cooperation**

The 28 Allies and Russia are equal partners in the NRC, which was established in 2002. The NRC provides a framework for consultation on current security issues and practical cooperation in a wide range of areas of common interest. Its agenda builds on the basis for bilateral cooperation that was set out in the 1997 NATO-Russia Founding Act, which provided the formal basis for relations.

Cooperation between Russia and NATO member states that took place prior to 1 April 2014 was directed by the NRC and developed through various subordinate working groups and committees. Every year under the NRC procedures, NRC member countries should agree on an annual work programme.

The driving force behind the NRC’s cooperation to date has been the realisation that NATO and Russia share strategic priorities and face common challenges. At the Lisbon Summit, the 29 NRC leaders pledged to “work towards achieving a true strategic and modernised partnership based on the principles of reciprocal confidence, transparency, and predictability, with the aim of contributing to the creation of a common space of peace, security and stability”. They endorsed a Joint Review of 21st Century Common Security Challenges, which include Afghanistan, terrorism, piracy, the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and their means of delivery, as well as natural and man-made disasters.

Up to 1 April 2014, key areas of cooperation included the fight against terrorism, defence reform, military-to-military cooperation, counter-narcotics training of Afghan, Central Asian and Pakistani personnel, theatre missile defence/missile defence, counter-piracy, crisis management, non-proliferation, airspace management, civil emergency planning, scientific cooperation and environmental security.

The NRC has also provided a forum for the development of a continuous political dialogue on current security issues, which has expanded steadily to include frank and constructive exchanges on topical and sometimes controversial issues. Discussions have been held on subjects such as the situation in the Balkans, Afghanistan, Georgia, Ukraine, Belarus, Central Asia, the Middle East, Iraq, Libya, Syria and North Korea, as well as exchanges on issues such as NATO’s transformation, energy security, missile defence and the Conventional Forces in Europe (CFE) Treaty. Dialogue has also generated ideas for practical cooperation to help address shared security challenges.

To facilitate cooperation, Russia established a diplomatic mission to NATO and Russian Military Branch Offices have been set up at NATO’s two top military command headquarters. In Moscow, a NATO Information Office seeks to explain NATO and promote the benefits of the NATO-Russia partnership, and a Military Liaison Mission is helping improve transparency and coordination on the military side.
Support for ISAF and the Afghan Armed Forces

In spring 2008, Russia offered to support the NATO-led, UN-mandated International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan by facilitating the land transit of non-military equipment for ISAF contributors across Russian territory. Similar arrangements have been concluded with the other transit states, opening up this important supply route for ISAF in 2010. At the Lisbon Summit, NRC leaders agreed amendments to the arrangements agreed in 2008 to allow land transit both to and from Afghanistan of non-lethal cargo. An agreement allowing for multi-modal reverse transit, using a mix of rail and air transit, for ISAF equipment through Russian territory was signed in July 2012. The arrangements, which make use of the Ulyanovsk airport, were employed for the first time in December 2012 for the transit of a cargo for the British contingent in ISAF.

NRC leaders agreed at Lisbon to establish an NRC Helicopter Maintenance Trust Fund to help the Afghan Armed Forces to operate and maintain their helicopter fleet. The project was officially launched in March 2011, aimed at providing a much-needed maintenance and repair capacity, including spare parts and technical training. Germany is acting as the lead nation for the project and the NATO Support Agency (NSPA, formerly NAMSA) serving as executing agent. During the first phase of the project, financial and in-kind contributions to the project by ten donor nations – Croatia, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Russia, Turkey and the United States – amounted to approximately $23 million. Tailored training for Afghan Air Force (AAF) helicopter maintenance staff started in April 2012 at the OAO Novosibirsk Aircraft Repair Plant in Russia, which served as the main training centre for Afghan maintenance personnel under the project. By the end of 2013, 40 Afghan helicopter maintenance staff were trained by the project.

With the launch of the second phase of the project, agreed by NRC Foreign Ministers in April 2013, the scope of the project was expanded: maintenance training, which had previously focused on the Mi-17s (medium-sized transport helicopters that can also act as gunships), would be offered for Mi-35s (large helicopter gunship and attack helicopters with troop transport capability); critical spare parts required to repair seven Mi-35 helicopters, which are currently non-operational, would also be provided; and new support would be directed at developing the AAF’s medical evacuation capacity. Since cooperation was suspended in April 2014, NATO is working to identify ways to transfer the NRC Helicopter Maintenance Trust Fund to other non-NRC mechanisms or structures.

Counter-narcotics training of Afghan and Central Asian personnel

The NRC Counter-Narcotics Training Project was launched by NRC Foreign Ministers in December 2005 to help address the threats posed by the trafficking in Afghan narcotics. It sought to build local capacity and to promote regional networking and cooperation by sharing the combined expertise of NRC member states with mid-level officers from Afghanistan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan. Pakistan became the seventh participating country in 2010.

The project was implemented in cooperation with the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC). Along with the project’s seven beneficiary countries, this was a joint endeavour of many NRC countries – Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Latvia, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Romania, Russia, Slovenia, Spain,
Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States – as well as two non-NRC contributors (Finland, since 2007, and Ukraine, since 2012).

Fixed training took place in one of four institutes either in Turkey, Russia or the United States and mobile courses were conducted in each of the seven participating countries. In 2013, the project also began work to encourage cross-border counter-narcotics training. This included supporting the UNODC’s work in establishing border liaison officers at existing border checkpoints between northern Tajikistan and southern Kyrgyzstan, and offering joint counter-narcotics training to Afghan and Pakistani officers.

The NRC countries participating in the project convened with representatives of Afghanistan, the Central Asian nations and Pakistan for High Level Steering Sessions, which ensured that the project continued to meet the countries’ counter-narcotics training needs.

By July 2014, over 3,500 officers had been trained under the project. The impact is also being seen through the requests for more specialised training in areas such as clandestine laboratories and forensic investigations for counter-narcotics officers, now that basic training has been widely achieved.

Since cooperation was suspended in April 2014, NATO is working to identify ways to transfer the NRC Counter-Narcotics Training Project to other non-NRC mechanisms or structures.

**Combating terrorism**

An NRC Action Plan on Terrorism was launched by NRC Foreign Ministers in December 2004 to improve overall coordination and provide strategic direction for cooperation in this area. NRC leaders underlined the continued importance of cooperation in the fight against terrorism at Lisbon in November 2010 and an updated Action Plan on Terrorism was approved by NRC Foreign Ministers at their meeting in April 2011 in Berlin. A first civil-military counter-terrorism table-top exercise was conducted in the framework of the NRC at NATO Headquarters in March 2012.

Regular exchanges of information and in-depth consultations took place within the NRC on various aspects of combating terrorism. 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.

In the scientific and technical field, NATO and Russia worked together on the STANDEX project – a flagship initiative of the NATO-Russia Council – which aims to develop technology that will enable the stand-off detection of explosive devices in mass transport environments. Successful live trials of the technology took place in real time in an underground station in a major European city in June 2013, marking the completion of the development and test phase of STANDEX – the result of four years of joint work between experts from Russia and NATO countries. Countering improvised explosive devices was another important focus of cooperation. Events facilitating the sharing of experiences in hosting and securing high-visibility events have also been held.

Over the years, several Russian ships were deployed in support of Operation Active Endeavour, NATO’s maritime operation against terrorism in the Mediterranean.
Cooperative Airspace Initiative

The Cooperative Airspace Initiative (CAI) was aimed at preventing terrorists from using aircraft to launch attacks similar to those of 9/11. The CAI information exchange provided air traffic transparency and early notification of suspicious air activities. This facilitated transparency, predictability and interoperability in airspace management.

Based on a feasibility study completed in 2005, detailed system requirements and a project plan were agreed for the system to enable the reciprocal exchange of air traffic data between centres in NATO countries and in Russia. Implementation started in 2006 and the system reached its operational capability in December 2011.

The operational readiness of the CAI system was demonstrated during the first live flying, real-time counter-terrorism exercise, “Vigilant Skies 2011”, which took place in June 2011. A simulated computer-based exercise to test and consolidate processes, procedures and capabilities took place in November 2012. Another live exercise took place in September 2013.

A total of around €10 million was invested in the CAI project. Nations that have contributed financially include Canada, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Luxembourg, Norway, Poland, Russia, Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States. The system was open for participation by other countries.

The NATO Communications and Information Agency (NCIA), formerly known as the NATO Consultation, Command and Control Agency (NC3A), led the implementation of the NATO part of the CAI system, and the software was procured from EUROCONTROL. Implementation of the Russian part of the system was led by the State Air Traffic Management Corporation, under the guidance of the Federal Air Navigation Authority. The Russian segment of the system was developed and supplied by the “Almaz-Antey” Concern.

The CAI system consisted of two coordination centres, in Moscow and in Warsaw, and local coordination sites in Russia (Murmansk, Kaliningrad, Rostov-on-Don) and in NATO member countries (Bodø, Norway; Warsaw, Poland; and Ankara, Turkey).

Theatre missile defence/ballistic missile defence

Cooperation in the area of theatre missile defence (TMD) was underway for a number of years to address the unprecedented danger posed to deployed forces by the increasing availability of ever more accurate ballistic missiles. A study was launched in 2003 to assess the possible levels of interoperability among the theatre missile defence systems of NATO Allies and Russia.

Three command post exercises were held – the first in the United States in March 2004, the second in the Netherlands in March 2005, and the third in Russia in October 2006. Computer-assisted exercises took place in Germany in January 2008 and March 2012. Together with the interoperability study, these exercises were intended to provide the basis for future improvements to interoperability and to develop mechanisms and procedures for joint operations in the area of theatre missile defence.

In December 2009, an NRC Missile Defence Working Group was established. It was tasked to build on the lessons learned from the previous TMD cooperation and to exchange views on possible
mutually beneficial cooperation on ballistic missile defence, based on a joint assessment of missile threats.

At the Lisbon Summit, NRC leaders approved the joint ballistic missile threat assessment and agreed to discuss pursuing missile defence cooperation. They decided to resume TMD cooperation, which had been suspended in August 2008, and to develop a joint analysis of the future framework for missile defence cooperation.

At the 2012 Chicago Summit, NATO leaders stressed that NATO’s planned missile defence capability is not directed against Russia, nor will it undermine Russia’s strategic deterrent. It is intended to defend against potential threats from beyond the Euro-Atlantic area. These points were reaffirmed by NATO leaders at the Wales Summit in September 2014.

**Non-proliferation and arms control**

Dialogue on a growing range of issues related to the non-proliferation of weapons of mass destruction (WMD) was developed under the NRC. Concrete recommendations have been made to strengthen existing non-proliferation arrangements. A number of in-depth discussions and expert seminars were held to explore opportunities for practical cooperation in the protection against nuclear, biological and chemical weapons. Work was underway to assess global trends in WMD proliferation and their means of delivery, and to review areas in which NRC nations could work together politically to promote effective multilateral arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation efforts.

The NRC has also provided a forum for frank discussions on issues related to conventional arms control, such as the CFE Treaty, the Open Skies Treaty and confidence- and security-building measures. A key priority for all NRC nations is to work towards the ratification of the Adapted Treaty on Conventional Forces in Europe. The Allies have expressed concern over Russia’s unilateral “suspension” of its participation in the treaty in December 2007. While differences remain on this issue, the Allies remain committed to ratifying the Adapted Treaty. At the Lisbon Summit, NRC leaders emphasised their strong support for the revitalisation and modernisation of the conventional arms control regime in Europe and their readiness to continue dialogue on arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation issues of interest to the NRC. A Joint NRC Statement was agreed for the 7th Review Conference of the Biological and Toxin Weapons Convention in December 2011.

In July 2014, the United States briefed the North Atlantic Council on its determination that the Russian Federation is in violation 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 INF Treaty, which entered into force in 1988, was concluded to reduce threats to security and stability in Europe, in particular the threat of short-warning attack on targets of strategic importance.

The Treaty has a special place in history, as it required the verifiable elimination of an entire class of missiles possessed by the United States and the former Soviet Union. It remains a key element of Euro-Atlantic security -- one that benefits the security of all parties and must be preserved.
Russia should work constructively to resolve this critical treaty issue and preserve the viability of the INF Treaty by returning to full compliance in a verifiable manner, as stressed by NATO leaders at the Wales Summit in September 2014. Continuing to uphold the Treaty strengthens the security of all, including Russia.

**Nuclear weapons issues**
In the nuclear field, experts have developed a glossary of terms and definitions and organised exchanges on nuclear doctrines and strategy. Seminars were held to discuss nuclear doctrine and strategy in 2005, 2009 and 2011, lessons learned from nuclear weapons incidents and accidents (2007) and potential responses to the detection of improvised nuclear or radiological devices (2010).

Experts and representatives from Russia and NATO member countries have also observed four nuclear-weapon-accident-response field exercises in Russia in 2004, the United Kingdom in 2005, the United States in 2006, and France in 2007. As a follow-on to these four exercises, in June 2011, Russia and NATO member countries also participated in a tabletop exercise dealing with emergency response to a nuclear weapon incident. Inviting experts to attend such exercises increased transparency, developed common understanding of nuclear-weapon-accident-response procedures, and built full confidence that the nuclear weapon states of NATO (France, the United Kingdom and United States) and Russia are fully capable to respond effectively to any emergency involving nuclear weapons.

**Military-to-military cooperation**
Since the NRC was established, military liaison arrangements have been enhanced, at the Allied Commands for Operations and for Transformation, as well as in Moscow. A key objective of military-to-military cooperation is 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. It focused on areas of cooperation such as logistics, combating terrorism, search-and-rescue at sea, countering piracy, theatre missile defence/missile defence and military academic exchanges – and related military activities.

However, on 1 April 2014, NATO Foreign Ministers decided to suspend all practical civilian and military cooperation between NATO and Russia.

**Countering piracy**
Countering piracy was one of the key areas of common interest and concern identified in the Joint Review of 21st Century Common Security Challenges approved at Lisbon in November 2010. Cooperation at the tactical level developed from late 2008 between Russian vessels and Allied ships deployed as part of NATO’s counter-piracy operation off the Horn of Africa, Ocean Shield. At the operational level, regular meetings between staffs sought to enhance NATO-Russia maritime cooperation. Russian ships also used the training facilities of the NATO Maritime Interdiction Training Centre in Crete, Greece, to prepare for counter-piracy missions.

**Submarine-crew search and rescue**
Prior to April 2014, work in the area of submarine-crew search and rescue at sea intensified following the signing of a framework agreement on cooperation in this area in February 2003.

A Russian navy submarine was fully integrated into a NATO-led exercise for the first time during search-and-rescue exercise “Bold Monarch 2011” off the coast of southern Spain, in June 2011.
to this, Russia took part in NATO’s exercise “Sorbet Royal”, in June 2005. The experience and networks developed during the exercise contributed to the success of an actual rescue operation in August 2005 off the coast of Russian Kamchatka peninsula. Russia also participated in exercise “Bold Monarch 2008”.

In December 2013, a sea survival course for aircrews took place in Germany.

**Defence transparency, strategy and reform**

With a view to building mutual confidence and transparency, prior to 1 April 2014 dialogue took place on doctrinal issues, strategy and policy, including their relation to defence reform, nuclear weapons issues, force development and posture.

Past 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. NATO and Russian linguists also produced a terminological glossary to support practical cooperation and contribute to understanding within the NRC, which was completed in 2011.

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, professional courses for trainees, job-placement services, and English-language and management courses for small and medium-sized enterprises. Set up in Moscow in July 2002, its operations were gradually expanded into the regions. Over the project’s lifetime, around 2820 former military personnel from the Russian armed forces were retrained and over 80 per cent found civilian employment as a result of the retraining or the help of the Centre’s job placement unit.

**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**

Logistics form the backbone of any military operation and in today’s security environment, the need for more mobile forces and multinational operations calls for improved coordination and the pooling of resources, wherever possible.

Before the suspension of practical cooperation with Russia, 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 logistic 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 coordinate detection and prevention of disasters before they occur. Moreover, it was a Russian proposal that led to the establishment in 1998 of the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre, which coordinates responses to disasters among all countries of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (the 28 NATO members and 22 partner countries).
Under the NRC, a key focus of cooperation in this area was to develop capabilities to manage the consequences of terrorist attacks. Two disaster-response exercises held in Russia (Bogorodsk, 2002, and Kaliningrad, 2004) and another in Italy, in 2006, have resulted in concrete recommendations for consequence management. Another tabletop consequence-management exercise was hosted by Norway in 2010. More recent work focused on risk reduction, capacity building and cooperation in the area of civil preparedness and consequence management related to high visibility events.

**Scientific cooperation**

Russia was actively engaged within the framework of the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme from 1992. The SPS Programme enables close collaboration on issues of common interest to enhance the security of NATO and partner countries. By facilitating international efforts, in particular with a regional focus, the Programme seeks to address emerging security challenges, support NATO-led operations and advance early warning and forecast for the prevention of disasters and crises.

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 (CBRN) agents, mine detection and counter-terrorism (including explosives detection such as the STANDEX project mentioned above). Areas for cooperation were identified in the NRC and a concrete Action Plan developed to carry out activities. One activity included a project to develop solutions for effective oil spill management in the southeastern Baltic. An SPS multi-year research initiative was launched in June 2013 to establish a continuous risk monitoring assessment network that will observe munitions dump sites in the Baltic Sea (MODUM). Such sites represent a major environmental and security hazard in the region.

On 1 April 2014, NATO Foreign Ministers decided to suspend all practical civilian and military cooperation between NATO and Russia. However, SPS projects currently underway with Russian participation can end according to schedule but no new projects with Russian participation will be launched.

**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. Following the publication in 2011 of an NRC Consolidated Glossary of Cooperation covering some 7,000 terms, additional glossaries have been developed on missile defence, nuclear doctrine and strategies, helicopter maintenance, counter-piracy, ammunition demilitarization and counter-narcotics.

Language cooperation was expanded in 2011 with the launch of a project to harmonise language training for military and civilian experts at the Russian Ministry of Defence, who engaged in cooperation with NATO, aligning training with NATO standards.

**Raising public awareness of the NRC**

An NRC website (http://www.nato-russia-council.info/) was launched in June 2007 to increase public awareness of NRC activities. The NRC website has been suspended following the decision by NATO Foreign Ministers on 1 April.
Milestones in relations

1991  Russia joins the North Atlantic Cooperation Council (later renamed the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council), created as a forum for consultation with the countries of Central and Eastern Europe following the end of the Cold War; the Soviet Union actually dissolves during the inaugural meeting of this body.

1994  Russia joins the Partnership for Peace (PfP).

1996  Russian soldiers deploy as part of the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Bosnia and Herzegovina.
       Memorandum of understanding on civil emergency cooperation is signed.

1997  At a summit in Paris, Russian and Allied leaders sign the NATO-Russia Founding Act on Mutual Relations, Cooperation and Security and establish the Permanent Joint Council (PJC).

1998  Russia establishes a diplomatic mission to NATO.
       Memorandum of understanding on scientific and technological cooperation is signed.

1999  Russia suspends participation in the PJC for a few months because of NATO's Kosovo air campaign.
       Russian peacekeepers deploy as part of the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Kosovo.

2000  Vladimir Putin becomes President of Russia and says he will work to rebuild relations with NATO in a "spirit of pragmatism".
       Broader cooperation in the PJC resumes, following a meeting of NATO and Russian Foreign Ministers in Florence.
       The nuclear submarine Kursk sinks, highlighting the need for cooperation between NATO and Russia.

2001  The NATO Information Office opens in Moscow.
       President Putin is the first world leader to call the US President after the September 11 terrorist attacks, which underscore the need for concerted international action to address terrorism and other new security threats. Russia opens its airspace to the international coalition's campaign in Afghanistan and shares relevant intelligence.

2002  First high-level conference on the role of the military in combating terrorism is held in Rome.
       NATO opens a Military Liaison Mission in Moscow.
       At a summit in Rome, Russian and Allied leaders sign a declaration on "NATO-Russia Relations: A New Quality" establish the NATO-Russia Council (NRC) to replace the PJC.
A joint NATO-Russia Resettlement Centre opens to help discharged Russian military personnel return to civilian life.

Russia hosts a multinational disaster-response exercise in Noginsk.

Second high-level conference on the role of the military in combating terrorism is held in Moscow.

2003
NATO and Russia sign an agreement on submarine-crew rescue.

An NRC meeting is held in Moscow for the first time.

Russian troops withdraw from the NATO-led peacekeeping forces in the Balkans.

2004
The NATO Secretary General tries out a new hotline to the Russian defence minister.

The first NRC theatre missile defence command post exercise takes place in Colorado Springs, United States.

Agreements establish Russian military liaison offices to NATO's strategic command headquarters.

Russia hosts a multinational disaster-response exercise in Kaliningrad.

At an NRC meeting of foreign ministers in Istanbul, Russia offers to contribute a ship to NATO's maritime counter-terrorist operation in the Mediterranean, Operation Active Endeavour.

Observers from NRC countries are invited to observe a Russian nuclear-weapons-accident-response field exercise near Murmansk.

The first NATO interoperability courses are held in Moscow military academies.

In the wake of several terrorist attacks in Russia, NRC Foreign Ministers approve a comprehensive NRC Action Plan on Terrorism.

NATO and Russia exchange letters, agreeing procedures to prepare the way for Russia's support for Operation Active Endeavour.

NRC Foreign Ministers issue a common statement concerning the conduct of the Ukrainian presidential elections.

2005
The second NRC theatre missile defence command post exercise takes place in the Netherlands.

Russia signs the PfP Status of Forces Agreement.

NRC Defence Ministers endorse a "Political-Military Guidance" aimed at developing, over time, interoperability between Russian and Allied forces at the strategic, operational and tactical command levels.
Russia takes part in a major NATO search-and-rescue-at-sea exercise, Sorbet Royal.

A UK team helps rescue Russian sailors trapped in a submarine off the Kamchatka shore.

Observers from NRC countries are invited to observe a UK nuclear-weapons-response field exercise in Edinburgh.

Russian teachers and instructors from the General Staff Academy give the first interoperability courses at the NATO School in Oberammergau.

The NRC launches a pilot project on counter-narcotics training for Afghan and Central Asian personnel.

2006

NRC Foreign Ministers meeting in Sofia agree a set of priorities and recommendations to guide the NRC's future work.

Observers from NRC countries are invited to observe a US nuclear-weapons-response field exercise in Wyoming.

The third NRC theatre missile defence command post exercise takes place in Moscow.

An NRC civil emergency exercise takes place in Montelibretti, Italy.

The first Russian frigate deploys to the Mediterranean to support Operation Active Endeavour.

2007

Observers from NRC countries are invited to observe a French nuclear-weapons-response field exercise.

Russian parliament ratifies the PfP Status of Forces Agreement.

10th anniversary of the Founding Act and 5th anniversary of the NRC.

A second Russian frigate deploys in active support of Operation Active Endeavour.

2008

A computer-assisted exercise takes place in Germany under the NRC theatre missile defence project.

In support of the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) operation in Afghanistan, Russia offers transit to ISAF contributors. Russia takes part in a major NATO search-and-rescue-at-sea exercise, Bold Monarch.

Following Russia's disproportionate military action in Georgia in early August 2008, formal meetings of the NRC and cooperation in some areas are suspended. Cooperation continues in key areas of common interest, such as counter-narcotics and the fight against terrorism.

NATO Foreign Ministers, meeting in December, agree to pursue a phased and measured approach to re-engagement with Russia.
NATO Foreign Ministers, meeting in March, decide to resume formal meetings and practical cooperation under the NRC.

In December, at the first formal NRC ministerial since the Georgia crisis, foreign ministers take steps to reinvigorate NRC cooperation and agree to launch a Joint Review of 21st Century Common Security Challenges.

In June, the NRC meets for the first time in a political advisory format in Rome for a two-day informal, off-the-record exchange of views on how to make the NRC a more substance-based forum.

In July, Chairman of the NATO Military Committee, Admiral Giampaolo Di Paola, visits Moscow to discuss the implementation of NRC military-to-military cooperation with the Chief of the General Staff of the Russian Federation Armed Forces, Army General Nikolay Makarov, and his staff.

In September, the NRC Foreign Ministers meet in New York to chart the way forward in relations and cooperation.

In early November, NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen visits Russia for meetings with President Dmitry Medvedev and Foreign Minister Sergey Lavrov to prepare for the upcoming NRC summit meeting in Lisbon.

At the Lisbon Summit, NRC leaders pledge to "work towards achieving a true strategic and modernised partnership". They endorse a Joint Review of 21st Century Common Security Challenges and agree to resume cooperation in the area of theatre missile defence as well as to develop a comprehensive joint analysis of the future framework for broader missile defence cooperation. They also agree on a number of initiatives to assist in the stabilisation of Afghanistan and the wider region.

In April, NRC Foreign Ministers meet in Berlin to discuss the situation in Libya and Afghanistan, as well as ongoing work on outlining the future framework for missile defence cooperation between Russia and NATO. They launch the NRC Helicopter Maintenance Trust Fund to support the Afghan security forces’ helicopter fleet, and also approve an updated NRC Action Plan on Terrorism.

In May, a NATO-Russia Council Consolidated Glossary of Cooperation (NRC-CGC) is launched, containing over 7,000 agreed terms in Russian and English and covers almost all key areas of NATO-Russia political and military cooperation.

In June, for the first time in three years, NRC Defence Ministers meet in Brussels to discuss a broad range of defence issues; a Russian submarine takes active part in NATO exercise "Bold Monarch 2011"; joint exercise "Vigilant Skies 2011" demonstrates the operational readiness of the NRC Cooperative Airspace Initiative (CAI); an NRC conference on the protection of critical infrastructure takes place in Turkey; NATO and Russia participate in a table top exercise dealing with a nuclear weapon incident scenario.
In July, the NRC meets in Sochi, Russia, at the invitation of the Russian authorities, and also meets Russian President Medvedev. NRC ambassadors restate their commitment to pursuing cooperation on missile defence as well as cooperation in other security areas of common interest.

In October, a seminar on national nuclear doctrines and strategies takes place in Germany.

In December, NRC Foreign Ministers meet in Brussels to discuss international security issues and NRC practical cooperation, including on Afghanistan, counter-piracy and counter-terrorism. They approve the NRC Work Programme 2012 and announce that the Cooperative Airspace Initiative is ready to initiate operations.

2012

In January, General Nikolai Makarov, the Russian Chief of General Staff, visits Allied Command Operations in Mons, Belgium.

In March, the fifth theatre missile defence (TMD) computer-assisted exercise is conducted in Germany; a first civilian-military NRC counter-terrorism tabletop exercise is organised at NATO Headquarters.

In April, the first training course for Afghan Air Force helicopter maintenance staff gets underway in Novosibirsk under the NRC Helicopter Maintenance Trust Fund Project; NRC Foreign Ministers meet in Brussels to discuss NRC practical cooperation.

In May, NATO Deputy Secretary General Ambassador Alexander Vershbow attends a conference on missile defence organised by Russia’s Ministry of Defence.

Russia sends a special representative to participate in the expanded ISAF meeting at the Chicago Summit.

May marks the 15th anniversary of the Founding Act and 10th anniversary of the NRC.

In June, high-level representatives from countries involved in the NRC counter-narcotics training initiative gather in Tashkent, Uzbekistan, to chart the future course of the project.

In November, a simulated computer-based exercise tests the NRC’s Cooperative Airspace Initiative (CAI) Information Exchange System (IES).

December: NRC Foreign Ministers agree to increase cooperation in key areas under the 2013 NRC Work Programme. Also, the Chairman of NATO’s Military Committee, General Knud Bartels, visits Russia to boost military-to-military cooperation and develop a common understanding on issues of strategic interest with Col. Gen. Valeriy Gerasimov, Russia’s Chief of the General Staff of the Armed Forces.

2013

February: NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen meets Russian Foreign Minister Sergey Lavrov at NATO HQ to discuss implementation of the NRC Work Programme, as well as ways to advance the NATO-Russia dialogue on missile defence.
In April, NRC Foreign Ministers agree to launch the second phase of the NRC Trust Fund project for the maintenance of helicopters in Afghanistan and discuss plans for cooperation in other areas in 2013; they also exchange views on progress in the NATO-led Afghan mission and on other regional and global security issues, including Syria, North Korea and missile defence.

In June, technology for the remote, real-time detection of explosives is successfully tested live in an underground station in a major European city, marking the completion of the development and test phase of the Stand-off Detection of Explosives (STANDEX) project.

In September, under the Cooperative Airspace Initiative, a live counter-terrorism exercise takes place in the skies over Poland, Russia and Turkey involving fighter aircraft, military personnel and command centres from the Arctic to the Black Sea.

In October, NRC Defence Ministers exchange views on pressing events on the international agenda, including Syria, transparency on military exercises and discuss ways to widen practical cooperation including plans to work together to dispose of excess ammunition in Russia, possibly through a new NRC Trust Fund project.

Earlier that month, ships of the Standing NATO Mine Countermeasures Group visit the port of St Petersburg—the programme includes a ship tour and press conference for Russian journalists, a friendly football match with Russian sailors and the opening of the Polish and Estonian ships to the general public.

In March, NATO condemns the Russian Federation’s military escalation in Crimea and expresses its grave concern regarding the authorisation by the Russian Parliament to use the armed forces of the Russian Federation on the territory of Ukraine.

In March, NATO states that the so-called referendum held on 16 March in Ukraine’s Autonomous Republic of Crimea to be both illegal and illegitimate. The referendum violated the Ukrainian Constitution and international law, and Allies do not recognise its results.

In April, NATO Foreign Ministers urge Russia to take immediate steps to return to compliance with international law and its international obligations and responsibilities, and to engage immediately in a genuine dialogue towards a political and diplomatic solution that respects international law and Ukraine’s internationally recognised borders.

In April, NATO Foreign Ministers decide to suspend all practical civilian and military cooperation between NATO and Russia.

In June, NATO Foreign Ministers agree to maintain the suspension of practical civilian and military cooperation with Russia. Any decision to resume cooperation will be conditions-based.
In September at the Wales Summit meeting, NATO leaders demand that Russia stop and withdraw its forces from Ukraine and along the country’s border. They express their deepest concern that the violence and insecurity in the region caused by Russia and the Russian-backed separatists are resulting in a deteriorating humanitarian situation and material destruction in eastern Ukraine.
NATO-Russia Council

The NATO-Russia Council (NRC) was conceived 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.

Following Russia’s illegal military intervention in Ukraine and its violation of Ukraine’s sovereignty and territorial integrity, in April 2014 the Alliance suspended all practical cooperation between NATO and Russia including in the NRC. However, the Alliance agreed to keep channels of communication open in the NRC and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council at the Ambassadorial level and above, to allow the exchange of views, first and foremost on this crisis.

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.

Under the NRC, Russia and NATO member states meet as equals “at 29” – instead of in the bilateral “NATO+1” format under the PJC.

The purpose of the NRC has been to serve as the principal structure and venue for advancing the relationship between NATO and Russia. Operating on the basis of consensus, it has sought to promote continuous political dialogue on security issues with a view to the early identification of emerging problems, the determination of common approaches, the development of practical cooperation and the conduct of joint operations, as appropriate. Work under the NATO-Russia Council has focused on all areas of mutual interest identified in the Founding Act. New areas have been added to the NRC’s agenda by the mutual consent of its members.
NATO Information Office in Moscow

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:
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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
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NATO and Ukraine

NATO’s relations with Ukraine

NATO believes that a sovereign, independent and stable Ukraine, firmly committed to democracy and the rule of law, is key to Euro-Atlantic security. NATO and Ukraine’s partnership dates back to 1997 and has, since then, developed into one of the most substantive of NATO’s partnerships. The formal basis for NATO-Ukraine relations is the 1997 Charter on a Distinctive Partnership, which established the NATO-Ukraine Commission (NUC), and the Declaration to Complement the Charter signed in 2009. Over time, NATO and Ukraine have reinforced political dialogue and practical cooperation through Ukraine’s Annual National Programme. In the wake of the Russia-Ukraine crisis, they have been intensifying this cooperation.

NATO supports a range of initiatives in Ukraine, in particular the comprehensive defence and security sector reform process. These reforms are vital for the country’s democratic development and for strengthening Ukraine’s ability to defend itself. Ukraine contributes to NATO’s missions in Afghanistan and Kosovo, and in 2013 became the first partner country to contribute to the NATO-led counter-piracy operation Ocean Shield.

In response to Russia’s illegal and illegitimate “annexation” of Crimea and the violence and insecurity in eastern Ukraine caused by Russia and the Russian-backed separatists, NATO Allies have continued to express their full support for the sovereignty and territorial integrity of Ukraine within its internationally recognised borders.

At the Wales Summit in September 2014, NATO Heads of State and Government met with Ukrainian President Poroshenko in the NATO-Ukraine Commission. They adopted a joint statement, which condemned Russia’s illegal and illegitimate “annexation” of Crimea and its continued and deliberate destabilisation of eastern Ukraine in violation of international law. Allies pledged to support the efforts of the Ukrainian government to pursue a political path that meets the aspirations of the people in all regions of Ukraine without external interference.

In the framework of the NATO-Ukraine Distinctive Partnership, Allies pledged to reinforce the Annual National Programme in the defence and security sector through capability development and capacity-building programmes that will, in turn, be boosted with substantial new initiatives. In this context, Allies will launch new programmes with a focus on command, control, communications and computers (C4), logistics and standardization, cyber defence, military career transition, and strategic communications. NATO will also provide assistance to Ukraine to rehabilitate injured military personnel. Allies are reinforcing their advisory presence at the NATO offices in Kyiv.

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.

Joint working groups have been set up under the auspices of the NUC, to take work forward in specific areas. Of particular importance are the Political and Partnerships Committee in NUC format, which takes the leading role in developing annual national programmes and preparing high-level meetings of the NUC; and the Joint Working Group on Defence Reform, which facilitates consultation and practical cooperation in the priority area of defence and security sector reform.
Two NATO offices in Kyiv support cooperation on the ground in key areas. The NATO Information and
Documentation Centre, established in 1997, supports efforts to inform the public about NATO’s
activities and the benefits of NATO-Ukraine cooperation. The NATO Liaison Office, established in
1999, facilitates Ukraine’s participation in NATO’s Partnership for Peace programme and supports its
reform efforts, by liaising with the Ministry of Defence and other Ukrainian agencies.

**Annual National Programme**

In 2009, an Annual National Programme (ANP) replaced the previous Annual Target Plans, which
implemented the long-term objectives set out in the 2002 NATO-Ukraine Action Plan. It is composed
of five chapters focusing on: political and economic issues; defence and military issues; resources;
security issues; and legal issues.

The NUC assesses progress under the ANP annually.

The responsibility for implementation falls primarily on Ukraine, which is being urged to take the
reform process forward vigorously in order 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 a key priority of NATO-Ukraine cooperation.

In 2010, Ukraine established a high-level commission that would act as a coordination mechanism for
cooporation with NATO. The commission includes National Coordinators for each of the five areas
covered in the ANP.

**Key areas of NATO-Ukraine cooperation**

Consultations and cooperation between NATO and Ukraine cover a wide range of areas identified in
the 1997 Charter and the 2002 Action Plan. These include peace-support operations, defence and
security sector reform, military-to-military cooperation, armaments, civil emergency planning,
science and environment, and public information. Cooperation in all areas is currently being
intensified to enhance Ukraine’s ability to provide for its own security. Specifically in the wake of
the crisis, NATO is looking at new programmes to support defence capacity-building in critical areas
such as logistics and standardization, command, control, communications and computers (C4), cyber
defence, and military career transition. NATO will also provide assistance to Ukraine to rehabilitate
injured military personnel.

**Peace-support operations**

Ukraine has a proven track record of being an active contributor to Euro-Atlantic security by
deploying troops that work with peacekeepers from NATO and other partner countries. It is the only
partner country that has contributed, at one stage or other, to all ongoing NATO-led operations.

Deployments to the NATO-led operation in Kosovo have included a helicopter squadron, infantry
companies, headquarters personnel and support staff. Currently, Ukraine contributes to the KFOR
mission as part of the joint Polish-Ukrainian battalion, in the Multinational Task Force “East”.

The country is further contributing to international stability and the fight against terrorism by
providing over-flight clearance for forces deployed in Afghanistan as part of the NATO-led
International Security Assistance Force (ISAF), or as part of the coalition forces under the US-led
Operation Enduring Freedom. A transit agreement for the supply of ISAF was signed by Ukraine in
April 2009. Ukrainian medical personnel supported Provincial Reconstruction Teams and currently
Ukraine provides military personnel to ISAF, including instructors to the NATO Training Mission in Afghanistan (NTM-A). It has also indicated its willingness to participate in the post-2014 follow-on mission to train, advise and assist Afghan security forces. From March 2005, Ukraine also contributed officers to the NATO Training Mission in Iraq, which terminated in December 2011.

Moreover, Ukraine has supported Operation Active Endeavour, NATO’s maritime operation in the Mediterranean aimed at helping deter, disrupt and protect against terrorism. Ukraine has contributed naval assets to the operation six times since 2007, most recently in November 2010. End 2013, it also contributed a frigate to NATO’s Operation Ocean Shield, which fights piracy off the coast of Somalia.

Ukraine is also the first partner country to contribute to the NATO Response Force (NRF). In 2010, Ukraine contributed a platoon specialised in nuclear, biological and chemical threats to the NRF. In 2011, Ukraine provided strategic airlift capabilities with their Antonov aircraft.

**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.

Ukraine has sought NATO’s support in efforts to transform its Cold War legacy of massive conscript forces into smaller, professional and more mobile armed forces, able to meet the country’s security needs and to contribute actively to stability and security in the Euro-Atlantic area and beyond.

Another overarching objective of NATO-Ukraine cooperation in this area is to strengthen democratic and civil control of Ukraine’s armed forces and security institutions.

NATO supports Ukraine’s defence and related security sector reform through the Joint Working Group on Defence Reform (JWGDR) and the Partnership for Peace (PfP) Planning and Review Process (PARP) mechanism. It assists Ukraine in the modernisation of its force structure, command and control arrangements, defence capabilities and plans and procedures. Allies also contribute to the transformation of Ukraine’s defence and related security institutions into modern and effective organisations under civil and democratic control, able to provide a credible deterrence to aggression and defence against military threats.

**Capacity-building and civil control**

In addition to the support provided to Ukraine through the JWGDR and the PARP mechanism, other NATO programmes and initiatives contribute to specific aspects of strengthening civil 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.

As part of wider cooperation in this area, a number of specific initiatives have been taken:

- a JWGDR Professional Development Programme for civilians working in Ukraine’s defence and security institutions was launched in October 2005;
- a NATO-Ukraine Working Group on Civil and Democratic Control of the Intelligence Sector was established in 2006;
• a Partnership Network for Civil Society Expertise Development was launched in 2006 to promote the sharing of experience on the role of civil society in defence and security affairs among civil society groups and security practitioners in NATO member countries and Ukraine;

• Since 2009, Ukraine has participated in the NATO Building Integrity Programme. Civilian and military officers have participated in the relevant education and training activities to strengthen their capabilities and learn best practices of embedding transparency, integrity and accountability in the defence and security sector;

• expert talks with security sector institutions in the area of cyber defence, with the aim of enhancing inter-agency cooperation and coordination, as well as supporting the development of Ukraine’s national cyber security strategy.

**Defence Education Enhancement Programme (DEEP)**

DEEP is designed to help improve military education and professional training systems. A letter sent by the Minister of Defence of Ukraine to NATO in 2012 formally initiated this programme in Ukraine. The intent is to substantially improve the dynamics of re-structuring the Ukrainian military education system, with specific focus on eight main defence education institutions in Kyiv, Lviv, Kharkiv, Odessa, and Zhitomir. The programme has two main elements: the development of teaching methods ("faculty development" for the teaching staff) and of curriculum development. Teaching methods should educate towards critical thinking, while curriculum development should enable interoperability with NATO forces. This includes recent western combat experiences as well as classes that relate to technological advances (e.g., cyber). Additionally, NATO established a high-level advisory team to help the Ministry of Defence reform the military educational system.

**Retraining and resettling former military personnel**

Various initiatives are underway to help Ukraine retrain and resettle former military personnel made redundant as a result of the progressive downsizing of the Ukrainian armed forces. By implementing these career transition programmes, NATO is assisting Ukraine in the management of the socio-economic consequences of defence reform. By the end of 2013, NATO programmes had retrained close to 7,000 officers. Of these, 75 per cent are on average employed within six months after the completion of the retraining course.

**Destroying stockpiles of weapons and munitions**

Individual Allies are also supporting the destruction of Ukraine’s stockpiles of anti-personnel mines, munitions and small arms and light weapons through Partnership Trust Fund projects.

The first project involved the safe destruction of 400,000 landmines at a chemical plant in Donetsk, over a 15-month period in 2002-2003. It was the first step in destroying Ukraine’s stockpile of almost seven million anti-personnel mines.

A second project to destroy 133,000 tons of conventional munitions, 1.5 million small arms and 1000 man-portable air defence systems (MANPADS) was launched in 2005. With projected costs of some €25 million, the project is to be carried out over an estimated 12 years. It is the largest demilitarization project of its kind ever to be undertaken, and will permanently increase Ukraine’s capacity to destroy surplus munitions.
**Economic aspects of defence**

Dialogue and exchanges of experience with experts also take place with Ukraine on the economic aspects of defence. Issues covered include security aspects of economic development and economic matters related to Euro-Atlantic integration, as well as topics specifically related to defence economics such as defence budgets, the management of defence resources and restructuring in the defence sector. Courses are also organised for Ukrainian staff, covering the whole budgetary process from financial planning to financial control.

**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 JWGDR with military expertise.

Another important objective is to develop operational capabilities and interoperability with NATO forces through a wide range of PfP activities and military exercises, sometimes hosted by Ukraine. These exercises allow military personnel to train for peace-support operations and gain hands-on experience of working with forces from NATO countries and other partners. For example, Ukrainian forces took part in NATO’s exercise Steadfast Jazz in November 2013. In September 2014, Ukraine joined a new initiative - the Partnership Interoperability Initiative - launched at the Wales Summit. It aims to maintain the levels of interoperability sustained while forces worked together in ISAF and pursue them beyond 2014 when the mission comes to an end.

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.

The military side has also taken the lead in developing a legal framework to enable NATO and Ukraine to further develop operational cooperation:

- a 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);
- the Defence Education Enhancement Programme set up with NATO in 2013 provides six defence institutions in Kyiv, Lviv and Kharkiv with expertise on how to improve the professional military education they have to offer and build the capacity of Ukrainian teaching staff.

**Defence technical cooperation**

Defence technical cooperation between Ukraine and NATO in the field of armaments focuses on enhancing interoperability between defence systems to facilitate Ukrainian contributions to joint peace-support operations.
Cooperation in this area started when Ukraine joined the PfP programme and began participating in an increasing number of groups, which meet under the auspices of the Conference of National Armaments Directors (CNAD) – a NATO senior body responsible for promoting cooperation between Allies in the armaments field. The CNAD identifies opportunities for cooperation between nations in capability development, defence equipment procurement processes, and the development of technical standards.

A Joint Working Group on Defence Technical Cooperation, which met for the first time in March 2004, is working toward increased cooperation in this area between NATO and Ukraine.

Civil emergency planning
NATO and Ukraine have developed practical cooperation in the field of civil emergency planning (CEP) and disaster preparedness, since the signing of a memorandum of understanding in 1997.

Ukraine’s western regions are prone to heavy flooding and NATO countries and other partners have provided assistance after severe floods in 1995, 1998 and 2001. A key focus of cooperation has therefore been to help Ukraine prepare better for such emergencies and manage their consequences more effectively.

PfP exercises also help develop plans and effective disaster-response capabilities to deal with other natural emergencies such as avalanches and earthquakes, or man-made accidents or terrorist attacks involving toxic spills or chemical, biological, radiological or nuclear agents. Ukraine hosted one such exercise in 2005. In 2010, Ukraine also sent a mobile rescue centre to Poland as part of an aid effort following flooding in the country.

Since the beginning of the Russia-Ukraine crisis, NATO has consistently shown its solidarity with Ukraine through CEP activities. In April 2014, following a request from Ukraine, NATO deployed an advisory support team of civil experts to Kyiv to advise the authorities on their civil contingency plans and crisis-management measures related to critical energy infrastructure and civil protection risks. In parallel, NATO has helped coordinate the provision of humanitarian assistance and medical capabilities in support of Ukrainian internally displaced persons. NATO is also seeking to assist Ukraine in the medical rehabilitation of injured servicemen.

Science and environment
Ukraine’s participation in NATO science programmes began in 1991 and intensified following an exchange of letters on cooperation in the area of science and the environment in 1999.

Since April 2014, cooperation in the framework of the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme has been stepped up significantly. As a result, Ukraine is now the largest beneficiary of NATO grants for scientific collaboration. Recently approved research projects address in particular new security concerns such as chemical, biological, radioactive and nuclear (CBRN) agents, energy security and cyber defence.

In addition to applying science to defence against terrorism and new threats, cooperation with Ukraine has also taken place in the fields of information technologies, cell biology and biotechnology, new materials, the rational use of natural resources and cooperation focused on defence-related environmental problems. A Joint Working Group on Scientific and Environmental Cooperation is supporting cooperation in this area.
In the past, NATO also sponsored several projects to provide basic infrastructure for computer networking among Ukrainian research communities and to facilitate their access to the Internet.

**Public information**

It is important for the Ukrainian administration to inform the Ukrainian people about NATO-Ukraine relations and the benefits of cooperation in terms of Ukraine’s own reform programme. Many people in Ukraine still lack information regarding the role, activities and goals of the Alliance, and outdated Cold War stereotypes remain strong in the minds of some.

The Allies cooperate with the Ukrainian authorities in raising awareness about what NATO is today, and in better explaining the NATO-Ukraine relationship.

The NATO Information and Documentation Centre, based in Kyiv, is NATO’s principal public information facility, offering seminars and talks, as well as coordinating visits by NATO officials to Ukraine and representatives of Ukrainian civil society to NATO Headquarters in order to better illustrate the mechanisms behind the partnership.

**Evolution of relations**

NATO-Ukraine relations were formally launched in 1991, when Ukraine joined the North Atlantic Cooperation Council (succeeded by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council in 1997), immediately upon achieving independence with the break-up of the Soviet Union.

A few years later, in 1994, Ukraine became the first of the Commonwealth of Independent States to join the Partnership for Peace. The country soon demonstrated its commitment to contribute to Euro-Atlantic security in its support for the NATO-led peacekeeping operations in the Balkans during the 1990s.

The 1997 Charter on a Distinctive Partnership recognised the importance of an independent, stable and democratic Ukraine to European stability. The Charter set out principles and arrangements for the further development of NATO-Ukraine relations and identified areas for consultation and cooperation, establishing the NATO-Ukraine Commission to take work forward.

Steps were taken to deepen and broaden the NATO-Ukraine relationship with the adoption of the NATO-Ukraine Action Plan in November 2002, which supported Ukraine’s reform efforts on the road towards Euro-Atlantic integration.

In the wake of the "Orange Revolution", newly elected President Viktor Yushchenko was invited to a summit meeting at NATO Headquarters in February 2005. NATO leaders expressed support for the new President’s ambitious reform plans for Ukraine and agreed to sharpen and refocus NATO-Ukraine cooperation in line with the new government’s priorities.

Two months later, at the NUC meeting of foreign ministers in Vilnius, Lithuania, in April 2005, the Allies and Ukraine launched an Intensified Dialogue on Ukraine’s aspirations to NATO membership. They also announced a package of short-term actions designed to enhance NATO-Ukraine cooperation in key reform areas.

At the Bucharest Summit in April 2008, Allied leaders agreed that Ukraine may become a NATO member in future.
In August 2009, a “Declaration to Complement the Charter on a Distinctive Partnership between NATO and Ukraine” was signed. It gives the NUC a central role in deepening political dialogue and cooperation, and in underpinning Ukraine’s reform efforts pertaining to its membership aspirations.

While the government of former President Viktor Yanukovych did not pursue NATO membership, it maintained existing levels of cooperation with the Alliance and fulfilled existing agreements. At the request of Ukraine, in the wake of events in Crimea, NATO and Ukraine met within the NATO-Ukraine Commission in March 2014 under Article 14 of the NATO-Ukraine Charter on a Distinctive Partnership, which is invoked when the independence and territorial integrity of Ukraine is under threat. NATO does not and will not recognise Russia’s illegal and illegitimate “annexation” of Crimea.

At a meeting of the NUC at the level of foreign ministers early April, NATO and Ukraine agreed to implement immediate and longer-term measures in order to strengthen Ukraine’s ability to provide for its own security. In June 2014, NATO Foreign Ministers endorsed a package of additional measures to strengthen Ukraine’s ability to defend itself. This includes the creation of new programmes to support defence capacity-building in critical areas such as logistics and standardization, command, control, communications and computers (C4), cyber defence and to help retired military personnel to adapt to civilian life.

In September 2014, NATO Heads of State and Government met with President Poroshenko within the NATO-Ukraine Commission. They issued a Joint Statement confirming their support of Ukraine’s sovereignty and territorial integrity within its internationally recognised borders and condemning Russia’s illegal and illegitimate self-declared “annexation” of Crimea and its continued and deliberate destabilisation of eastern Ukraine in violation of international law.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>Ukraine joins the North Atlantic Cooperation Council (later renamed the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council).</td>
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<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Ukraine joins the Partnership for Peace (PfP).</td>
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<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>Ukrainian soldiers deploy as part of the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Bosnia and Herzegovina.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>The NATO Information and Documentation Centre opens in Kyiv. In July, at a summit meeting in Madrid, Spain, the Allies and Ukraine sign the Charter on a Distinctive Partnership, establishing the NATO-Ukraine Commission (NUC). Ukraine establishes a diplomatic mission to NATO.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>The NATO-Ukraine Joint Working Group on Defence Reform is established.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>The NATO Liaison Office opens in Kyiv. The Polish-Ukrainian battalion deploys as part of the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Kosovo.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>In May, the Ukrainian parliament ratifies the PfP Status of Forces Agreement. In September, Ukraine hosts a multinational disaster-response exercise, Trans-Carpathia 2000.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>In May, 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 their relationship forward to a qualitatively new level. In July, a PfP Trust Fund project for the safe destruction of 400,000 landmines is inaugurated in Donetsk. The NATO-Ukraine Action Plan is adopted at a NUC meeting of foreign ministers in November in Prague, the Czech Republic.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>In March, the Ukrainian parliament ratifies an agreement with NATO on Host Nation Support. Ukraine signs an agreement with NATO on Strategic Airlift. In the autumn, the Allies closely follow political developments surrounding the presidential elections in Ukraine and the &quot;Orange Revolution&quot;. They stress the importance of respect for free and fair elections and postpone a NUC ministerial-level meeting scheduled for December.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>In February, 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.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A PfP Trust Fund project is launched 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.

In April, at the NUC meeting of foreign ministers in Vilnius, Lithuania, the Allies and Ukraine launch an Intensified Dialogue on Ukraine's aspirations to NATO membership and a package of short-term actions to strengthen support for key reforms.

An exchange of letters between NATO and Ukraine agrees procedures to prepare the way for Ukraine's support to Operation Active Endeavour.

In September, a series of staff-level expert discussions is initiated under the Intensified Dialogue.

In October, Ukraine hosts a multinational disaster-response exercise, Joint Assistance 2005.

In October, the North Atlantic Council visits Kyiv to discuss the Intensified Dialogue with Ukraine's foreign and defence ministers.

2006

In February, a Resettlement and Retraining Centre is inaugurated in Khmelnytskyi.

In March, NATO's Secretary General welcomes the conduct of free and fair parliamentary elections as contributing to the consolidation of democracy in Ukraine.

In September, during a visit to NATO, Prime Minister Viktor Yanukovych reassures Allies of Ukraine's commitment to ongoing cooperation with NATO but says the Ukrainian people are not yet ready to consider possible NATO membership.

In October, the Ukrainian parliament ratifies the agreement on Strategic Airlift.

2007

The first Ukrainian ship, the corvette URS Ternopil, deploys in support of Operation Active Endeavour (June), followed by the corvette URS Lutsk (autumn).

Ukraine sends medical personnel to support a Provincial Reconstruction Team in Afghanistan.

10th anniversary of the NATO-Ukraine Distinctive Partnership.

2008

At the Bucharest Summit in April, Allied leaders agree that Ukraine will become a NATO member in future.

Ukraine deploys two vessels in support of Operation Active Endeavour: the frigate URS Sagaidachnyi (summer) and the corvette URS Ternopil (November).

In December, NATO Foreign Ministers agree to enhance opportunities for assisting Ukraine in its efforts to meet membership requirements, making use of the existing framework of the NATO-Ukraine Commission and the development of an Annual National Programme (ANP).
2009 Ukraine signs land transit agreement for the supply of ISAF (April).

A "Declaration to Complement the Charter on a Distinctive Partnership between NATO and Ukraine" is signed on 21 August to reflect decisions taken at the Bucharest Summit and the December 2008 foreign ministers’ meeting.

In November, the URS Ternopil deploys for the third time (the fifth for a Ukrainian ship) as part of Operation Active Endeavour.

2010 In February, the new Ukrainian government under President Viktor Yanukovych decides to continue present cooperation with NATO, but takes Alliance membership for the country off the agenda.

In February, the first NATO-Ukraine Expert Staff Talks on Cyber Defence in Kyiv are organised under the auspices of the NATO-Ukraine Joint Working Group on Defence Reform.

In May, Ukraine and Turkey (as the facilitating NATO member) sign a memorandum of understanding on "Air Situation Data Exchange", which aims to reduce airspace conflicts by minimising potential cross-border incidents and optimising responses to renegade situations with civil airplanes.

In November, for the sixth time, Ukraine deploys a ship to the Mediterranean to assist NATO's Operation Active Endeavour.

2011 In April, at their meeting in Berlin, NUC Foreign Ministers issue a joint statement reaffirming their distinct partnership and agreeing to take forward practical cooperation activities.

2012 In May, President Yanukovych attends NATO's Summit in Chicago to participate in a meeting with counterparts from countries that are supporting the NATO-led stabilisation mission in Afghanistan.

9 July marks the 15th anniversary of the signing of the Charter on a Distinctive Partnership between NATO and Ukraine in 1997.

In July, General Sir Richard Shirreff, Deputy Supreme Allied Commander Europe, visits Ukraine for discussions on operational cooperation and support for defence reform.

In September, General Knud Bartels, Chairman of the NATO Military Committee, visits Ukraine for a series of high-level talks on defence reform and operational cooperation.

2013 In February, NUC Defence Ministers agree to reinforce NATO-Ukraine cooperation: agreement is reached on a set of priorities to guide cooperation over the next five years, including in training and exercises; a project for the retraining of former military officers in Ukraine is extended; progress is made on plans for a new project to support the neutralisation of radioactive sources from former Soviet military sites; and Ukraine becomes the first partner country to contribute to NATO’s
counter-piracy operation off the coast of Somalia (frigate UPD Hetman Sagaidachny).

In March, NATO calls on Russia to de-escalate tensions as a so-called referendum is held in Crimea and armed forces of the Russian Federation are used on the territory of Ukraine.

In April and June, 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 crisis, and longer-term measures geared towards capacity-building, capability development, and a deep reform of the armed forces and the security sector. NATO will also look at additional measures, including the creation of new cooperation programmes.

At the Wales Summit in September, NATO Heads of State and Government meet with President Poroshenko, issue a Joint Statement of the NATO-Ukraine Commission and pledge to step up strategic consultations in the NUC and further reinforce support for Ukraine so that Ukraine can better provide for its own security.
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 meeting 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 Liaison Office (NLO) Ukraine

Overview

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

Principle 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.
The continuing development of cooperation between NATO and Ukraine led to the establishment of the NATO Information and Documentation Centre in Ukraine (NIDC) in May 1997. The Centre was inaugurated 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. The Centre is housed within the Institute of International Relations courtesy of the Ukrainian government.

Staff: Director (Canada/NATO HQ) + locally engaged employees

The Centre’s core mission:
- Enhancing general knowledge and understanding in Ukraine about NATO, its core goals and priorities
- Promoting awareness in Ukrainian society at large on the various aspects of NATO-Ukraine cooperation
- Providing Ukrainian citizens and organizations with wide access to NATO’s information materials
- Assisting Ukraine in implementing the Annual National Programmes
- Supporting NATO-Ukraine Political Dialogue
- Holding regular press briefings by the Director and giving interviews on NATO events and developments to the local media
- Providing NATO produced publications in English, French, Ukrainian and Russian

Our Partners:
- Civil society organizations involved in defence and security issues
- Ukrainian mass media
- Universities

The following reflect the three key areas of the NIDC’s activity, but are not limited to:

Information
The NIDC provides and shares up-to-date information with all Ukrainian stakeholders on developments in NATO and NATO-Ukraine relations.

Communications Projects
The NIDC organizes various communications projects, including seminars, video teleconferences, briefings, multimedia projects and interviews aimed at promoting a better understanding on NATO and NATO-Ukraine cooperation. For information on the NIDC and its activities, please visit www.nato.int/nidc.
The NIDC also awards grants on a regular basis throughout the year to recognized Ukrainian non-governmental organizations for a variety of initiatives and activities related to NATO and/or NATO-Ukraine relations. For more information and/or an application form, please contact the Centre at nidc@nato.kiev.ua.

**Visits**

In order to bring the diverse aspects of NATO-Ukraine cooperation into public view, the NIDC organizes press tours for local Ukrainian media, arranges speaking tours for NATO representatives through Ukraine and supports visits of NATO dignitaries to Ukraine.

The NIDC also organizes public information visits to NATO headquarters and SHAPE for various Ukrainian stakeholders, including government representatives, students and academics, journalists, the media and civil society representatives. The visits are aimed at providing Ukrainian citizens with the first-hand opportunity to attend briefings given by NATO representatives, ask questions and exchange views.
NATO and Georgia

NATO’s relations with Georgia

Georgia is an aspirant for NATO membership. It actively contributes to NATO-led operations and cooperates with the Allies and other partner countries in many other areas. The NATO-Georgia Commission provides a unique framework through which NATO and Georgia pursue active political dialogue and practical cooperation in support of Georgia’s reform efforts and its Euro-Atlantic aspirations.

In September 2008, NATO and Georgia established the NATO-Georgia Commission (NGC) to oversee NATO’s assistance to Georgia following the conflict with Russia. The NGC plays a central role in supervising the process set in hand at the Bucharest Summit where NATO leaders agreed that Georgia will become a member of NATO. In December 2008, Allied Foreign Ministers agreed that Georgia should develop an Annual National Programme (ANP) under the auspices of the NGC. In this framework, the Alliance is maximising its advice, assistance and support for Georgia’s reform efforts, in particular in the field of democratic, institutional and defence reforms.

At the 2014 Wales Summit, Allied leaders reaffirmed all elements of their decision made at the Bucharest Summit, and welcomed Georgia’s progress since then to meet its Euro-Atlantic aspirations through reforms, the conduct of transparent and peaceful elections, implementation of its ANP and active political engagement with the Alliance within the NGC. NATO leaders also endorsed a substantial package for Georgia to strengthen its defence and interoperability capabilities with the Alliance, therefore helping it advance in its preparations towards NATO membership. The details of the package will be developed together with Georgia and it will include defence capacity-building, training, exercises, strengthened liaison, and enhanced interoperability opportunities. Moreover Allies reiterated NATO’s continued support to the territorial integrity and sovereignty of Georgia within its internationally recognised borders and once again called on Russia to withdraw its forces from Georgia and reverse the recognition for the Abkhazia and South Ossetia regions of Georgia as independent states.

Another important area of cooperation is Georgia’s support for NATO-led operations. Georgia is one of the largest non-NATO troop-contributors to the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan and continues to serve as a transit country for ISAF supplies. The country has also indicated its willingness to participate in the post-2014 follow-on mission – Resolute Support - to train, advise and assist Afghan security forces, after the transition to Afghan full security responsibility is completed at the end of 2014, when ISAF’s mission will end. Georgia also supports Operation Active Endeavour, NATO’s counter-terrorist maritime surveillance operation in the Mediterranean.

Georgia has offered to participate in the NATO Response Force and is expected to contribute to the NRF from 2015 onwards.
Framework for cooperation

The NGC provides the framework for cooperation between NATO and Georgia. Created in September 2008, it serves as a forum for both political consultations and practical cooperation to help Georgia advance its Euro-Atlantic aspirations. Existing cooperation programmes, such as the Planning and Review Process (PARP), continue to take place within the framework of the NGC. A NATO Liaison Office was established in Georgia in 2010 to assist and support the country’s reform efforts.

In December 2008, NATO Foreign Ministers decided to further enhance the NGC through the development of an ANP. The ANP, the first of which was finalised in spring 2009, replaced the Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP), which had guided NATO-Georgia cooperation since 2004.

In addition to Georgia’s contributions to Euro-Atlantic peace and stability, key areas of cooperation under the ANP include political, military and security-sector reforms. NATO agrees to support Georgia in these reforms by providing focused and comprehensive advice and activities in several frameworks (both civilian and military) towards its reform goals. Current priorities for Georgia include transforming its public and private sectors in order to promote democracy, good governance, the rule of law and sustainable social and economic development, as well as reforming the defence and security sector, in particular the revision of Georgia’s national security plans.

Georgia also cooperates with NATO and other partner countries in a wide range of other areas through the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC).

In parallel with the establishment of the NGC, the Military Committee with Georgia was also created as a format for meetings focused on military cooperation.

The principal aim of NATO-Georgia military cooperation is to assist Georgia with the implementation of military and defence-related issues of the ANP, strategic planning and defence reforms, and to increase interoperability in support of Georgia’s contributions to NATO-led operations. The Military Committee with Georgia Work Plan defines key areas and objectives for military cooperation between NATO and the Georgian Armed Forces. The Work Plan comprises activities that help achieve the goals set in the ANP and PARP.

Key areas of cooperation

Security cooperation

Thanks to regular participation in PfP training and exercises, Georgia has been able to contribute actively to Euro-Atlantic security by supporting NATO-led operations. Georgian troops worked alongside NATO troops in the peacekeeping operation in Kosovo from 1999 to 2008, providing a company-sized unit as part of the German brigade there and an infantry platoon within a Turkish battalion task force.

In Afghanistan, Georgia is providing forces in various locations. Georgia is currently one of the largest contributors to ISAF among NATO’s partner countries. Furthermore, Georgia is ready to continue to serve as a transit country for ISAF supplies. It has also indicated its willingness to participate in the post-2014 NATO-led mission to train, advise and assist the Afghan forces, which will be deployed once the transition to Afghan security lead has been completed and ISAF’s operation is terminated end 2014. The Georgian government has also pledged financial support for the future development
of the Afghan National Security Forces. In the meantime, NATO has adopted a Partnership Interoperability Initiative to ensure that bonds forged between Allied and partner countries in Afghanistan are maintained. As part of this initiative, Georgia participates in the Interoperability Platform launched at the Wales Summit that will bring Allies together with 24 partners active in NATO’s operations. Georgia has also been identified as one of the five countries that make particularly significant contributions to NATO operations and NATO’s other objectives, to discuss deepening dialogue and practical cooperation even further.

Georgia participates in NATO’s Operation Active Endeavour, a counter-terrorist maritime surveillance operation in the Mediterranean, primarily through intelligence exchange. It also has a mountain training site, which is accredited as a Partnership Training and Education Centre and offers courses and training to Allies and other partner countries.

Defence and security sector reform
NATO is supportive of the wide-ranging democratic and institutional reform process underway in Georgia, as outlined in its ANP. Particularly in the area of defence and security sector reform, NATO and individual Allies have considerable expertise upon which Georgia can draw.

Georgia’s participation in the PARP since 1999 has helped its forces develop the ability to work with NATO and is also providing planning targets that are key to security reform objectives in several areas. NATO support has, for example, helped Georgia build deployable units (according to NATO standards) that are interoperable with Allied forces. Georgia’s defence reform objectives within the PARP have facilitated improved financial management in the Ministry of Defence, assisted in reforming the intelligence structure of the armed forces and ensured that a credible Strategic Defence Review was conducted. More recently, the package for Georgia endorsed at the Wales Summit in September 2014, includes defence capacity-building, training, exercises, strengthened liaison and enhanced interoperability opportunities – measures that will help Georgia progress towards NATO membership. Additionally, the aforementioned Partnership Interoperability Initiative, as well as the newly created Defence and Related Security Capacity Building Initiative, build on this package.

A key priority for Georgia is to ensure democratic control of the armed forces, including effective judicial oversight and appropriate defence command and control arrangements through a range of measurable objectives within the ANP.

Education and training are also key objectives of Georgia’s ANP and reform efforts. NATO is leading a tailored programme for Georgia – the Defence Education Enhancement Programme (DEEP) – with the support of the PfP Consortium of Defence Academies and Security Studies Institutes, the Partnerships Training and Education Centres and Allied defence institutions.

Following Georgia’s request in 2008, NATO and Georgia launched a Professional Development Programme for Civilian Personnel in the Ministry of Defence and other Security Institutions in 2009. The programme provides training with the aim of strengthening the capacity for democratic management and oversight in the Ministry of Defence, as well as other security sector institutions. Training and education provided in the framework of this programme is closely aligned to Georgia’s defence and security sector reform objectives outlined in both the ANP and PARP. Current priorities are to support Georgia’s civil service reform and enhance Georgia’s own capacity for providing training to security sector civilian personnel.
Another priority in the area of defence and security sector reform has been to support demilitarisation projects in Georgia through the NATO/PfP Trust Fund mechanism, which allows individual Allies and partner countries to provide financial support to key projects on a voluntary basis. Over the years, a number of Trust Fund projects have helped to address problems posed by stockpiles of surplus and obsolete weapons and munitions, and promoted their safe disposal.

Civil emergency planning
Georgia is enhancing its national civil emergency and disaster-management capabilities in cooperation with NATO and through participation in activities organised by the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC). The Centre helped coordinate the delivery of hundreds of tonnes of relief items to Georgia in the wake of the August 2008 conflict. It also coordinated assistance to Georgia in 2005 when the country experienced some of the worst flooding in its history, in 2006 when forest fires broke out in southern Georgia, and after a major earthquake in 2009.

Georgia itself hosted a major EADRCC consequence-management field exercise in the town of Rustavi in September 2012. Some 1,000 people from 35 countries participated in the exercise, which was organised in cooperation with the Emergency Management Department of the Georgian Ministry of Internal Affairs.

Science and environment
Georgia has been actively engaged within the framework of the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme since 1994. The SPS Programme enables close collaboration on issues of common interest to enhance the security of NATO and Partner countries. By facilitating international efforts, in particular with a regional focus, the Programme seeks to address emerging security challenges, support NATO-led operations and advance early warning and forecast for the prevention of disasters and crises.

Today, scientists and experts from Georgia are working to address a wide range of security issues, notably in the fields of environmental security, cyber defence, advanced technology (including nanotechnology) and disaster forecast and prevention of natural catastrophes. Most recently, Georgian experts contributed to a hands-on cyber defence training course based on their national experience and expertise. Other projects include collaboration on improving trans-boundary water management and mitigating the risks posed by earthquakes in the South Caucasus.

Public information
Increasing the public awareness of NATO and its relations with Georgia is also a key area of cooperation. Since 2002, NATO has been organising numerous activities for this purpose, working through its Liaison Office in Tbilisi and in cooperation with local non-governmental organisations and state authorities. Activities include seminars, conferences and workshops. “NATO Weeks” and summer schools are organised on an annual basis to reach out to youth audiences.

Groups of opinion leaders from Georgia are regularly invited to visit NATO Headquarters and the Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE) for briefings about the Alliance, and NATO officials regularly travel to Georgia to speak at public events. Senior NATO officials — including the Secretary General and the Special Representative for the Caucasus and Central Asia — also regularly visit the country for high-level consultations. The North Atlantic Council, NATO’s highest political decision-making body, paid a two-day visit to the country in September 2008, in the immediate

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. The current NATO Contact Point Embassy in Georgia is the embassy of Romania.

The Office of the State Minister for European and Euro-Atlantic Integration has established an Information Center on NATO, which has its main office in Tbilisi and branches in Kutaisi and Zugdidi. Working in close cooperation with NATO’s Public Diplomacy Division and with the NATO Liaison Office in Georgia, it is an important tool in raising public awareness about the Alliance in the country.

**Response to the Georgian crisis**

At an emergency meeting of the North Atlantic Council on 19 August 2008, Allied Foreign Ministers called for a peaceful and lasting solution to the conflict based on respect for Georgia’s independence, sovereignty, and territorial integrity.

Allied Foreign Ministers deplored the use of force in the conflict, 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. They expressed particular concern over Russia’s disproportionate military action, which is incompatible with Russia’s peacekeeping role in the breakaway regions of South Ossetia and Abkhazia. Allies also called on Russia to take immediate action to withdraw its troops from the areas it must leave under the terms of the six-point agreement brokered by the European Union.

The Allies agreed to support Georgia, upon its request, in a number of areas. These included 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 North Atlantic Council condemned the decision by the Russian Federation to extend recognition to the South Ossetia and Abkhazia regions of Georgia, and called on Russia to reverse its decision.

NATO continues to support Georgia’s territorial integrity and sovereignty within its internationally recognised borders as reiterated at meetings of Allied Heads of State and Government and in the Secretary General’s statements. The Secretary General has issued statements underlining that NATO does not recognise elections that have since taken place in South Ossetia and Abkhazia and that the holding of such elections does not contribute to a peaceful and lasting settlement.

The Allies welcome the declaration by the Georgian President – endorsed by the Georgian Parliament in a unanimously adopted resolution on Georgia’s foreign policy objectives – to seek a resolution to the crises with the South Ossetia and Abkhazia regions of Georgia through peaceful means. They strongly support Georgia’s current strategy of engagement with the two breakaway regions, which envisions a constructive way forward through fostering economic ties and people-to-people contacts to build confidence.

The Allies also welcome the steps Georgia has taken unilaterally towards Russia in recent years, including the removal of visa requirements for Russian citizens, the agreement on Russia’s
membership of the World Trade Organization; as well as the direct dialogue that has been initiated with the Russian government by the Georgian government, which came into power in October 2012.

**Milestones in relations**

**1992** Georgia joins the newly created North Atlantic Cooperation Council (succeeded by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council in 1997).

**1994** Georgia joins the Partnership for Peace (PfP), a programme aimed at increasing security and defence cooperation between NATO and individual partner countries.

**1995** Georgia signs the PfP Status of Forces Agreement (SOFA) between NATO and partner countries.

**1997** Georgian Parliament ratifies the SOFA agreement.

**1999** Georgia joins the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP).

Georgia starts contributing peacekeepers to the Kosovo Force (KFOR).

**2001** Georgia hosts a multinational PfP military training exercise "Cooperative Partner 2001".

**2002** Georgia is connected to the Virtual Silk Highway.

Georgia hosts a multinational PfP military training exercise "Cooperative Best Effort 2002".

Georgia declares its aspirations to NATO membership and its intention to develop an Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP) with NATO.

**2003** A NATO/PfP Trust Fund project is launched with Georgia to support the demilitarization of ground-to-air defence missiles.
Georgia participates in ISAF’s election security force in Afghanistan.

At the Istanbul Summit, Allied leaders place special focus on the Caucasus – a special NATO representative and a liaison officer are assigned to the region.

2004 Georgia becomes the first country to agree an IPAP with NATO.

2005 NATO and Georgia sign a transit agreement allowing the Alliance and other ISAF troop-contributing nations to send supplies for their forces in Afghanistan through Georgia.

Georgia opens an information centre on NATO with the support of NATO’s Public Diplomacy Division.

2006 NATO offers an Intensified Dialogue to Georgia.

2007 Georgia hosts a NATO/PfP air exercise, "Cooperative Archer 2007".

2008 At their Summit in Bucharest, NATO leaders agree Georgia will become a member of NATO.

In August, Allies express deep concern over the armed conflict between Georgia and Russia, calling for a peaceful and lasting solution to the conflict based on respect for Georgia’s independence, sovereignty and territorial integrity. They agree to support Georgia’s recovery in a number of areas and also propose the establishment of a NATO-Georgia Commission (NGC) to supervise the process set at hand at the Bucharest Summit and to oversee the implementation of support measures.

In September, the North Atlantic Council pays a two-day visit to Georgia. The Framework Document establishing the NATO-Georgia Commission is signed and the inaugural meeting takes place in Tbilisi. In December, Allied Foreign Ministers agree to the development of an Annual National Programme (ANP) under the auspices of the NGC.
On 4 February, the Georgian foreign minister, vice prime minister and defence minister visit NATO for the first meeting of the NGC in 2009.

On 20 February, Allied and Georgian defence ministers discuss Georgia's progress in defence reform and its priorities.

On 5 March, the NGC meets in Brussels for the second time at the level of foreign ministers to discuss a range of issues of common interest.

Mid-March 2009, a NATO-led team of experts visits Georgia to address a Georgian request to review the existing military education and training system, and develop a plan of action for reform.

May 2009, the first Steering Committee meeting for the NATO-Georgia Professional Development Programme for Civilian Personnel of the Georgian Ministry of Defence and Other Security Institutions takes place at NATO Headquarters, Brussels.

Following elections on 31 May in the South Ossetia region of Georgia, NATO's Secretary General issues a statement saying that NATO does not recognise the elections and that the holding of such elections does not contribute to a peaceful and lasting settlement of the situation in Georgia.

On 3 December, the NGC meets to discuss the course of Georgia's Euro-Atlantic integration and process of reform.

On 12 March, key agreements are signed to begin a Trust Fund project that will help Georgia safely dispose of explosive remnants of war.

In March, Georgian President Mikheil Saakashvili visits NATO Headquarters to meet NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen.
In April, Georgia signs an agreement with NATO to contribute to Operation Active Endeavour, NATO’s maritime counter-terrorist operation in the Mediterranean.

In May, Georgian Foreign Ministry hosts a seminar on "Energy Security and Critical Energy Infrastructure" in Tbilisi.

In May, Allies and Georgia Chiefs of Defence meet in the Military Committee to discuss and support the transformation process of the Georgian Armed Forces.

In August, the North Atlantic Council decides to enhance NATO-Georgia relations through effective military cooperation (this leads to the development and implementation of the first annual, Military Committee with Georgia Work Plan in 2011).

In October, NATO Liaison Office is inaugurated during the NATO Secretary General’s visit to Georgia, where he meets the Georgian President, Prime Minister and senior ministers.

At the Lisbon Summit, Allied leaders recall their agreement that Georgia will become a member of NATO and reaffirm all elements of their decision made at the Bucharest Summit in 2008, declaring their active support for Georgia’s continued implementation of all necessary reforms. They reiterate their continued support for Georgia’s territorial integrity and sovereignty within its internationally recognised borders.

In February, the Director General of the International Military Staff of NATO visits Georgia to discuss the status and prospect of NATO-Georgia military-to-military cooperation.

2011 In April, NGC Foreign Ministers meet in Berlin and adopt, for the first time, a joint statement which reaffirms the basic principles of NATO-Georgia cooperation. NATO ministers express strong appreciation for Georgia’s substantial contribution to Euro-Atlantic security and the overall positive dynamic in Georgia’s democratic development.

In June, the Chairman of the Parliament of Georgia visits NATO Headquarters for a meeting of the NGC and informs Allies about key democratic reforms in his country.
In May, the Military Committee with Georgia meets at the level of Chiefs of Defence to discuss Georgia's contributions to operations and the status of the implementation of defence reforms derived from the strategic defence review.

In July, the Georgian Foreign Ministry hosts a conference on emerging security challenges with the support of the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme.

In August, SACEUR visits Georgia to discuss Georgia's current and future contribution to operations.

Following so-called presidential elections on 26 August in the Abkhazia region of Georgia, NATO's Secretary General states that NATO does not recognise the elections and that the holding of such elections does not contribute to a peaceful and lasting settlement of the situation in Georgia.

In November, the North Atlantic Council pays a visit to Tbilisi and Batumi and meets the President, the Chairman of the Parliament, the Prime Minister and other high-level officials of the country, as well as representatives of civil society, media and the opposition. The NGC agrees to pursue further work on concrete measures to enhance Georgia's relations with NATO.

Following so-called presidential elections on 13 November in the South Ossetia region of Georgia, NATO's Secretary General issues a statement saying that NATO does not recognise the elections and that the holding of such elections does not contribute to a peaceful and lasting settlement of the situation in Georgia. As a follow-up to the North Atlantic Council's visit to Georgia, the NGC adopts a set of concrete measures to enhance Georgia's connectivity with NATO. These measures support reforms, increase the ability of NATO and Georgia to operate together, and strengthen the capacity of the Georgian institutions as the country continues on its path towards Euro-Atlantic integration.

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In April 2012, President Saakashvili visits NATO Headquarters to meet the Secretary General and attend a meeting of the NGC Ambassadors.

In May, Georgia takes part in three important meetings involving partners at the Chicago Summit: President Mikheil Saakashvili joins counterparts from countries that are supporting the NATO-led stabilisation mission in Afghanistan. He also attends a meeting of the 28 Allies with 13 countries from Europe, the Middle East and the Asia-Pacific region that have made exceptional contributions to the Alliance's agenda in the last few years. Georgian Foreign Minister Grigol Vashadze joins fellow foreign ministers from the three other countries that are aspiring to NATO membership.

In September, NATO Secretary General visits Georgia.

In October, Georgia doubles its contribution to ISAF, making the country one of the largest non-NATO troop contributor nations.

In November, the Secretary General meets with President Saakashvili in Prague on the occasion of the NATO Parliamentary Assembly, and with Prime Minister Ivanishvili at NATO Headquarters.

In December, during an NGC meeting of foreign ministers, the Allies encourage all parties in Georgia to keep up the momentum of the recent elections and to consolidate democratic progress; they also thank Georgia for its substantial contribution to NATO's mission in Afghanistan.

2013

In June, NGC Defence Ministers discuss Georgia's reform plans and further opportunities for cooperation. Ministers also thanked Georgia, the biggest non-NATO contributor to ISAF, for the significant contribution to NATO-led operations.

On 26 and 27 June, the North Atlantic Council visits Georgia to assess the progress the country has made towards Euro-Atlantic integration. In October, NATO's Secretary General expresses concern about Russia's continued activity in erecting fences and other obstacles along administrative boundary lines within Georgia, which is in contradiction with international commitments. Later that month, he congratulates the Georgian people on holding transparent and peaceful presidential elections in which fundamental freedoms of expression, movement, and assembly were respected.
At the Wales Summit in September, NATO leaders endorse the Substantial NATO-Georgia Package to help Georgia in its efforts toward reaching NATO membership. Georgia is considered to be one of the five biggest contributors to NATO's operations and other objectives and is therefore eligible for enhanced opportunities for dialogue and cooperation with the Alliance. Georgia is invited to participate in the Interoperability Platform, under the Partnership Interoperability Initiative, as well as the Defence and Related Security Capacity-Building Initiative, launched during the summit.
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 Liaison Office (NLO) Georgia

Overview

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 programs 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 Program (ANP)
- Advise and assist Georgia’s reform of the armed forces in the framework of the 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 Nongovernmental organizations interested in defence and security oversight in order to strengthen the role of civil society in national security and defence issues

NATO programmes in Georgia

- The fourth NATO Trust Fund project in Georgia was officially launched in May 2013. The proposal is for a 24 month long project with a budget of up to 1.6 million EUR. The aim of the Trust Fund is to conduct Explosive Ordnance Disposal (EOD) clearance from the site of a partially destroyed underground ammunition depot at Skra. In addition, the project will support capability development through continuing the training of military personnel started
under the previous Trust Fund project. The Lead Nations of the project are the Czech Republic and Lithuania.

- In 2009, NATO and Georgia launched the Professional Development Programme with the objective of enhancing the professional skills of civilian officials to strengthen the capacity for effective democratic management and oversight in defence and security institutions. Training and education provided in the framework of this programme is closely aligned to Georgia’s defence and security sector reform objectives outlined in the ANP.

**General organizational information**

- The NATO Liaison Office was officially opened on 1 October 2010
- Current Staff: 14
- Head of Office (NATO civilian IS Staff)
- Deputy (NATO civilian IS Staff);
- Military Liaison Officer (NATO IMS);
- 3 national experts (seconded by Poland, Norway and Czech Republic)
- Georgian local employees
- 2 NATO Trust Fund Programme Managers
- 1 NATO Trust Fund Programme Deputy Manager (seconded by the Government of Georgia)
- 1 NATO Trust Fund Programme officer (seconded by the Government of Georgia)
- 1 NATO Trust Fund Programme Organizational Manager

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Cooperation with countries in the Mediterranean region and the broader Middle East

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”.

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• **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 28 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.

**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 consultations 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.
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.
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:

- tailored advice on defence transformation, defence budgeting, defence planning and civil-military relations;
- 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;
- cooperation in the fight against terrorism, including through intelligence-sharing;
- cooperation in the Alliance's work on the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and their means of delivery;
- cooperation regarding border security in connection with terrorism, small arms and light weapons and the fight against illegal trafficking;
- 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 28 delegations of member countries to NATO, which was replaced in 2011 by the Political and Partnerships Committee, which responsible for all partnerships.

he 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 '28+1' basis for the development of individual workplans and follows up on their implementation.
NATO’s relations with PfP countries

NATO’s relations with Armenia

NATO and Armenia cooperate on democratic, institutional, and defence reforms, in addition to working together in many other areas, including peace support operations. The Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP) lays out the programme of cooperation between Armenia and NATO and sets out a wide-ranging roadmap for reforms.

While Armenia intends to intensify practical and political cooperation with NATO in order to draw closer to the Alliance, it does not seek membership in NATO.

Beyond the focus on reform, another important area of cooperation is the country’s support for NATO-led operations. Armenian troops are currently deployed as part of the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan, as well as KFOR.

Framework for cooperation

Armenia sets out its reform plans and timelines in its Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP), which is jointly agreed for a two-year period. The most recent NATO-Armenia IPAP was agreed in November 2011. Armenia’s IPAP is geared towards both strengthening political dialogue between NATO and Armenia as well as supporting Armenia’s democratic and defence reforms.

The wide-ranging nature of the IPAP means that Armenia is not only cooperating with NATO in the defence sphere, but is in regular consultation with the Allies on political & security issues, including relations with neighbours, democratic standards, rule of law, counter-terrorism and the fight against corruption. As part of the IPAP, NATO agrees to support Armenia in achieving its reform goals by providing focused advice and assistance. Armenia also makes important contributions to NATO-led operations.

Armenia also cooperates with NATO and other Partner countries in a wide range of other areas through the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme, the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC). Armenia tailors its participation in the PfP programme through an annual Individual Partnership Cooperation Programme, selecting those activities that will help achieve the goals it has set in the IPAP.

Key areas of cooperation

Security cooperation

Since joining the PfP in 1994, Armenia has contributed to Euro-Atlantic security alongside NATO Allies. Since 2004, Armenia has been contributing troops to the Kosovo Force (KFOR). Currently, it contributes one infantry platoon of 35 personnel to KFOR. Since 2009, Armenia has also been contributing forces to the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan. Currently it provides three platoons to ISAF. With the deployment of 80 additional personnel in mid-June 2011, Armenia increased its contribution to ISAF from 40 to 120. An additional five infantry trainers deployed to Afghanistan in July 2011.
Armenia is cooperating with NATO and individual Allies on facilitating the interoperability of the Armenian Peacekeeping Battalion to become a brigade with associated combat support and combat service support units by 2015 with those of NATO countries. Experts in military education and training from NATO and Partners nations, coordinated by NATO staff, work with Armenian military officials to review Armenia’s progress on the Military Education Concept. This concept will provide guidance for the development of revised junior and senior officer staff courses.

The PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) is a core element of Armenia’s cooperation with NATO, which is helping to develop the ability of its forces to work with NATO forces on operations. One NATO nation in coordination with NATO staff is also supporting the introduction of civilian personnel to the Armenian Ministry of Defence. Armenia participates in PARP process since 2002.

Armenia contributes to the fight against terrorism through its participation in the Partnership Action Plan on Terrorism (PAP-T). This includes sharing intelligence and analysis with NATO, enhancing national counter-terrorist training capabilities and improving border security.

Border security experts from NATO and Partners nations have also supported border security improvements. A report produced by these experts in 2010 provided recommendations to the Armenian State Border Force; these have been translated in goals for the State Border Force to improve border security. A further NATO-Armenia workshop on border security took place in October 2011.

In consultation with NATO, Armenia has begun a process of reviewing its national crisis-management procedures and arrangements.

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 takes an interest in this process and encourages all sides to continue their efforts aimed at a peaceful resolution of the conflict. Peaceful resolution of conflicts is a core value of NATO, and is one of the core commitments that all Partner countries commit to when joining the Partnership for Peace (PfP).

**Defence and security sector reform**

NATO is supportive of the wide-ranging democratic and institutional reform process underway in Armenia. In the area of defence and security sector reform, NATO and individual Allies have considerable expertise that Armenia can draw upon.

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.

Armenia has consulted with NATO Allies on the development of a National Security Strategy and a new Military Doctrine. Using guidance provided by these documents, Armenia completed its Strategic Defence Review in May 2011 and initiated its implementation, Armenia and NATO staff, supported by national experts, are in consultations over Armenian defence planning and budgeting procedures which will be key tools for the implementation of the Strategic Defence Review and the development of its defence plans.

NATO and Armenia are cooperating on the establishment of a situation centre in Yerevan. This centre will assist in crisis-management and counter-terrorism coordination.
Civil emergency planning

Armenia is determined to improve its emergency preparedness and response capabilities to deal with disasters and asymmetric threats. In the context of the IPAP, the Armenian Rescue Service is taking a number of measures to improve contingency planning and is actively contributing to the establishment of the planned government crisis-management centre. Armenia is also working to enhance links with the NATO-based Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) in order to contribute to international disaster relief operations. The Armenian Rescue Service is preparing two teams (search and rescue and chemical, biological, radiation and nuclear experts) to be made available for disaster relief operations. In September 2010, Armenia hosted a large NATO/Partnership for Peace consequence management field exercise called “Armenia 2010”.

Science and environment

Under the Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme, Armenia has received grant awards for about 38 projects for scientific and environmental collaboration. Projects undertaken include the prevention of, detection of, and response to, nuclear and radiological threats, risk assessment on natural disasters, water security, and cataloguing discarded pesticides to lay the groundwork for their proper disposal.

Researchers from Armenia have also been working on a SPS funded project in the Caucasus region designed to gather comprehensive seismic observations, conduct hazard analyses and prepare for effective and prompt response to emergencies.

Other projects include collaboration on improving trans-boundary water quality with Azerbaijan and Georgia, as well as network technology studies. Armenia also participated in the Virtual Silk Highway project, which aims to improve internet access for academics and research communities in the countries of the Caucasus and Central Asia through a satellite-based network.

SPS also sponsors workshops in Armenia, including one in Yerevan in May 2009 that examined issues related to nuclear power and energy security. In total, scientists and experts from Armenia have had leading roles in 143 activities.

Public Information

Annually, Armenia organizes a NATO week to raise public awareness of NATO and Armenia’s cooperation with the Alliance. It is also undertaking efforts to improve public information in support of its defence and security reforms. In line with this, NATO continues to provide advice and support where requested, including relevant training and consultations. A NATO information centre was officially opened in Yerevan in 2007 with the support of the Armenian government and NATO.

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. The current NATO Contact Point Embassy in Armenia is the embassy of the United Kingdom.
**Milestones in relations**


1994  Armenia joins the Partnership for Peace (PfP).

2002  Armenia is connected to the Virtual Silk Highway.

Armenia joins the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP).


2004  Armenian forces join KFOR.

At the Istanbul Summit, Allied leaders place special focus on the Caucasus – a special NATO representative and a liaison officer are assigned to the region.

President Kocharian visits NATO Headquarters.

NATO and Armenia agree on Armenia’s first IPAP.

2006  Allies hold their first IPAP Assessment with Armenia in Brussels. Foreign Minister Oskanian and Defence Minister Sargsyan participate.

2007  A NATO information centre officially opens in Yerevan.

2008  Armenia hosts the PfP Exercise Cooperative Longbow/Lancer.

Armenian President Serzh Sargsyan visits NATO headquarters.

2009  Armenia starts contributing troops to ISAF in Afghanistan.

2010  Armenian President Serzh Sargsyan visits NATO headquarters.
Armenia hosts the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre’s civil emergency exercise in the Kotayk region near Yerevan.

2011  NATO and Armenia agree Armenia’s third IPAP

2012  Armenian President Serzh Sargsyan visits NATO headquarters.

Armenian Foreign Minister Edward Nalbandian attends a meeting at NATO’s Summit in Chicago in May, joining high-level representatives from countries that are supporting the NATO-led stabilization mission in Afghanistan.

In September, NATO Secretary General visits Armenia.
NATO’s relations with Austria

NATO-Austria relations are conducted through the Partnership for Peace framework, which Austria joined in 1995. NATO and Austria actively cooperate in peace support operations, and have developed practical cooperation in a range of areas.

NATO highly values its relations with Austria. The Allies view Austria as an effective partner and contributor to international security, which shares key values such as the promotion of international security, democracy and human rights. Austria selects areas of practical cooperation with NATO that match joint objectives.

An important area of cooperation is the country’s support for NATO-led operations. Austria has worked alongside the Allies in security and peacekeeping operations in Bosnia and Herzegovina, and currently has personnel deployed in Afghanistan and Kosovo.

Framework for cooperation

NATO and Austria detail areas of cooperation and timelines in Austria’s Individual Partnership Programme (IPP) which is jointly agreed for a two-year period. Key areas include security and peacekeeping cooperation, humanitarian and disaster relief, and search and rescue operations. The IPP is soon to be replaced by an Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme (IPCP) in accordance with NATO’s new partnership policy.

Austria runs the Centre for Operations Preparation, a Partnership Training and Education Centre. It also leads the Balkans Regional Working Group in the framework of the PfP Consortium of Defense Academies and Security Studies Institutes (a voluntary association which works “in the spirit of PfP”, funded by Austria, Germany, Switzerland and the United States).

Key areas of cooperation

Security cooperation

In 1996, Austrian forces joined those of NATO Allies in securing the peace negotiated in the Dayton agreement for Bosnia and Herzegovina. The country contributed a battalion to the NATO-led peacekeeping forces there until 2001. Austria is currently contributing a mechanized company and support units to the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Kosovo (KFOR), amounting to over 400 troops. Austria took command of KFOR’s Multinational Task Force South (MNTF-S) in early 2008.

Austrian forces joined the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan in 2002, providing expertise and logistical support. Throughout 2005, Austria deployed troops to work alongside the German-led Provincial Reconstruction Team (PRT) in Kunduz province to provide security for the Afghan parliamentary elections.

Austria has made a number of units available for potential PfP operations. In each case, deployment must be authorized by the Austrian Council of Ministers and approved by the Main Committee of the Austrian Parliament.

Defence and security sector reform

Participating in peacekeeping and peace support operations alongside NATO Allies has reinforced Austria’s own process of military transformation. The PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP)
influences and reinforces Austrian planning activities. Through PARP, Austria has declared an increasing number of forces and capabilities as potentially available for NATO-led operations. Austria’s ability to take part in peace support operations is further enhanced by its participation in the Operational Capabilities Concept (OCC) process.

The Allies and other partners also 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.

Austria has contributed to Trust Fund projects in other Partner countries. Along with individual Allies and Partners, Austria has made contributions to voluntary trust funds to support, for example, the destruction of mines and/or munitions in Albania, Kazakhstan, Montenegro, Serbia and Ukraine.

Civil emergency planning
Civil emergency planning is a major area of cooperation. The aim is for Austria to be able to cooperate with NATO Allies in 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.

Science and environment
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. Since 2005, Austrian personnel have participated in over 20 activities. Topics have included preparedness against bio-terrorism, strengthening influenza pandemic preparedness and emerging biological threats.

Public information
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. The current NATO Contact Point Embassy in Austria is the embassy of Croatia.
Evolution in milestones

1995 Austria signs the Partnership for Peace Framework Document.

1996 Austria joins the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP)

1996 Austria deploys peacekeepers to the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

1997 Austria opens a diplomatic mission at NATO Headquarters.

1999 Austrian forces participate in the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Kosovo, KFOR.

2002 H.E. Dr Thomas Klestil, the President of Austria, meets NATO Secretary General Lord Robertson at NATO HQ on 3 July to exchange views on key issues in international security.

2002 Austrian forces join the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan.

2004 During a visit to Vienna on 18 November, NATO Secretary General Jaap de Hoop Scheffer praised Austria for its contribution to NATO’s missions and Partnership for Peace programme.

2005 Austria has increased the units declared for NATO/PfP missions. In the future they will consist of a framework brigade.

2008 Austria takes command of KFOR’s Multinational Task Force South (MNTF-S).

2011 NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen visits Vienna on 30 June 2011 and met President Heinz Fischer, Minister of Foreign Affairs and Vice-Chancellor Michael Spindelegger and Minister of Defence Norbert Darabos. They discussed the partnership between NATO and Austria, the situation in the western Balkans and the NATO-led operations in Libya and Afghanistan. Rasmussen expressed strong appreciation for Austria’s substantial contribution to the NATO-led mission in Kosovo and for its constructive role in the western Balkans and its firm commitment to the region.
NATO’s relations with Azerbaijan

NATO and Azerbaijan actively cooperate on democratic, institutional and defence reforms, and have developed practical cooperation in many other areas. Azerbaijan’s Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP) lays out the programme of cooperation between Azerbaijan and NATO.

Azerbaijan is seeking to achieve Euro-Atlantic standards and to draw closer to Euro-Atlantic institutions. Consequently, support to security sector reform and democratic institution building are key elements of NATO-Azerbaijan cooperation.

Another important area of cooperation is the country’s support for NATO-led operations. Azerbaijan currently contributes troops to the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan. In the past, it also actively supported the operation in Kosovo.

Framework for cooperation

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. Key areas of cooperation include good governance and democratic control of the defence and security sector, defence planning and budgeting and the reorganization of the armed forces structure using NATO standards. Beyond supporting reform, another key objective of NATO’s cooperation with Azerbaijan is to develop the ability of the country’s forces to work together with forces from NATO countries.

Azerbaijan also cooperates with NATO and Partner countries in a wide range of other areas through the Partnership for Peace ( PfP), the Planning and Review Process ( PARP) and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC).

Key areas of cooperation

Security cooperation

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.

From 1999 to 2008, troops from Azerbaijan were part of the NATO-led operation in Kosovo (KFOR).

Azerbaijan actively supports the ISAF operation in Afghanistan since 2002, where it has gradually increased its forces to about 95 personnel. An infantry company, deminers, medical assistant and staff officers from Azerbaijan are serving alongside NATO forces, as part of a Turkish contingent, in the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan. Azerbaijan also contributes to the NATO-ANA (Afghan National Army) Trust Fund.

Azerbaijan has declared a number of units available for PfP activities, on a case by case basis. These include infantry units, combat support and combat service support units and two medium transport helicopters. The Internal Troops, in cooperation with NATO, are also developing a police support unit to be made available for NATO-led operations.

Azerbaijan contributes to the fight against terrorism through its participation in the Partnership Action Plan on Terrorism (PAP-T). This includes sharing intelligence and analysis with NATO, and cooperating with the Allies on enhancing national counter-terrorist training capabilities and improving border and infrastructure security. Information exchange through NATO’s terrorist threat
intelligence unit is being developed. Azerbaijan is also working to establish an international Anti-Terrorism Training Centre at the Academy of the Ministry of National Security.

Azerbaijan aims to improve maritime security and its capabilities to reduce illegal activities in the Caspian Sea in cooperation with some NATO member countries and some regional Partner countries. NATO nations also support efforts to improve border security.

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 takes an interest in this process and encourages all sides to continue their efforts aimed at a peaceful resolution of the conflict. Peaceful resolution of conflicts is a core value of NATO, and is one of the core commitments that all Partner countries commit to when joining the Partnership for Peace ( PfP).

**Defence and security sector cooperation**

Defence and security sector reforms are crucial to the development of Azerbaijan and its goal of achieving Euro-Atlantic standards as well as its increasing Euro-Atlantic cooperation. This is an area in which NATO and individual Allies have considerable expertise which Azerbaijan can draw upon. A key priority is working to strengthen democratic and civilian control over the armed forces. NATO is also supportive of the wider democratic and institutional reform process underway in Azerbaijan.

With NATO advice, Azerbaijan has developed strategic documents on defence and security, which will support and provide guidance during the conduct of the Strategic Defence Review. Consultations are also underway on the necessary steps for improving other areas of defence planning and budgeting.

NATO and individual Allies continue to assist Azerbaijan in developing selected units so they are interoperable with those of the Allies. Azerbaijan’s participation in the PfP Planning and Review Process ( PARP), since 1997, has been instrumental in the development of the Peacekeeping Battalion and a detachment of two helicopters is now supporting the development of the Mobile Battalion, which would potentially be available for the full spectrum of NATO operations.

Consultations are ongoing on Azerbaijan’s military education structures and methods, since the Ministry of Defence is interested in adapting these to meet NATO standards. Within and alongside the PARP process, NATO and Azerbaijan are cooperating on reorganizing units in accordance with NATO standards and on improving the command and control capabilities of each of the armed services and improving logistics.

NATO and Azerbaijan continue to cooperate on the demilitarisation of unexploded ordnance. In 1991, a major explosion at a former Soviet munitions facility in the Agstafa region spread unexploded ordnance over a large area. With technical and financial support from NATO, more than 5.68 million square meters of the contaminated area was cleared, on both the surface and in the subsurface. In addition to this, some 640 000 pieces of unexploded ordnance were cleared. The five-and-a-half-year Trust Fund project was completed in June 2011.

A further project of this kind was launched in 2012 to clear unexploded ordnance from a former Soviet live firing range in the Jeyranchel region. The project will focus on clearing a 19 square kilometre section of the area over a 28-month period. Much like the previous Trust Fund project,
NAMSA is directing the project, with Azerbaijani National Agency for Mine Action (ANAMA) working on the ground as the executing agency.

**Civil emergency planning**

In cooperation with NATO and through participation in activities organised by NATO’s Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC), Azerbaijan is developing its national civil emergency and disaster-management capabilities. Azerbaijan’s special search-and-rescue platoon has participated in several exercises organised by the EADRCC. In addition, Civil Emergency Planning experts from NATO and NATO nations are providing advice to the Azerbaijani Ministry of Emergency Situations on a number of issues, including organisational issues, and CBRN defence. Azerbaijan is developing two units (search and rescue and CBRN) to be on high readiness and ready to be deployed on disaster relief operations.

**Science and environment**

Under the Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme, Azerbaijan has received grant awards for about 30 cooperative projects and has had leading roles in 87 activities, with even more joining various cooperative activities as participants and key speakers.

Projects include collaboration on improving trans-boundary water quality, protecting drinking water supply from terrorism, identifying the earthquake vulnerability of segments of two important pipelines running through Azerbaijan, and mitigating the effects of earthquakes in the Caucasus region by improving seismic hazard and risk.

In addition, Azeri and international experts participated in an SPS training course entitled “Crisis Management National Capacity Building: an Essential Element in the Fight against Terrorism” in June 2009 in Baku, Azerbaijan.

Azerbaijan also participated in the Virtual Silk Highway project, which aims to increase internet access for academic and research communities in countries of the Caucasus and Central Asia through a satellite-based network.

NATO has also supported the conversion of stocks of mélange – a highly toxic and corrosive rocket fuel oxidizer, formerly used by Warsaw Pact Countries – into a harmless chemical. In response to a request from Azerbaijan for assistance, NATO sent a transportable conversion plant, which was officially inaugurated in July 2006. This project was successfully concluded in 2008.

**Public information**

Another key area of cooperation is to improve access to information and increasing public awareness of NATO and the benefits of NATO-Azerbaijan cooperation.

Since 2003, NATO has been co-sponsoring a summer school in Baku. Programmes developed year on year, leading to the establishment of the NATO International School in Azerbaijan (NISA) in 2005. Seminar topics have included transatlantic energy security, regional security and financial security issues. NISA continues to be an active and productive forum on international security issues for students from Azerbaijan and beyond, organizing NATO-related conferences and workshops twice a year. The Diplomatic Academy of Azerbaijan (ADA) is also very active in promoting cooperation with NATO.

Visits to NATO Headquarters of opinion formers from Azerbaijan take place on an annual basis.
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. The current NATO Contact Point Embassy in Azerbaijan is the embassy of Romania.
**Evolution in milestones**


1994  Azerbaijan joins the Partnership for Peace (PfP), a programme aimed at increasing security and defence cooperation between NATO and individual Partner countries.


1999  Azerbaijan sends a unit to support the NATO-led peacekeeping operation in Kosovo.

2001  Azerbaijan hosts a multinational PfP military training exercise “Cooperative Determination 2001”.

2002  Azerbaijan sends a unit to support the NATO-led force in Afghanistan.

2003  Azerbaijan is connected to the Virtual Silk Highway.

2004  At the Istanbul Summit, Allied leaders place special focus on the Caucasus – a special NATO representative and a liaison officer are assigned to the region.

President Aliyev presents Azerbaijan’s first Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP) paper to NATO in Brussels.

2005  Azerbaijan begins its first IPAP with NATO.

2006  The Euro-Atlantic Centre (NATO information centre) is officially opened in Baku.
A NATO PfP Trust Fund project is launched to clear unexploded ordnances from a former military base at Saloglu, Agstafa district.

President of Azerbaijan, Ilham Aliyev, visits NATO Headquarters.

**2008**

The Mélange Project is successfully concluded.

Azerbaijan and NATO agree the second IPAP document.

Azerbaijan withdraws troops from KFOR.

The Azerbaijani military contingent in Afghanistan is increased to about 45 personnel.

**2009**

President Aliyev visits NATO HQ and meets with the North Atlantic Council.

The Azerbaijani military contingent in Afghanistan is doubled to about 90 personnel.

**2010**

Preparation of third Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP) with NATO.

The Minister of Foreign Affairs of Azerbaijan, Mr. Elmar Mammadyarov, visits NATO Headquarters.

**2011**

The five-and-a-half-year SPS project to clear unexploded ordinance is completed in June.

NATO and Azerbaijan agree their third Individual Partnership Action Plan.

**2012**

The President of Azerbaijan, Ilham Aliyev, visits NATO Headquarters.

The President of Azerbaijan attends a meeting at NATO’s Summit in Chicago in May, joining counterparts from countries that are supporting the NATO-led stabilization mission in Afghanistan.

In September, NATO Secretary General visits Azerbaijan.
NATO’s relations with Belarus

Belarus joined NATO’s Partnership for Peace (PfP) in 1995. NATO and Belarus have established a relationship based on the pursuit of common interests, while also keeping open channels for dialogue. Belarus has developed an Individual Partnership Programme (IPP) and participates in the Planning and Review Process (PARP).

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.

NATO and Belarus cooperate in a number of areas, including civil emergency planning, scientific cooperation, and defence reforms. NATO will continue to work with Belarus to implement reforms in these areas, while continuing to call on Belarus to increase the pace of its democratic reforms.

Framework for cooperation

The belief that there is value in communication and practical cooperation is put into practice in several ways. Dialogue takes place within the framework of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) and is facilitated by the existence of Belarus’ diplomatic mission to NATO, which was opened in April 1998. Under the Partnership for Peace, NATO and Belarus are developing practical cooperation in a number of areas through Belarus’ Individual Partnership Programme (IPP).

On the basis of the IPP, Belarusian personnel are attending courses in NATO countries and practical cooperation is being developed in areas such as civil emergency planning, crisis management, arms control, air defence and air traffic control, telecommunications and information processing, as well as language training and military education.

Key areas of cooperation

Security cooperation
In 2009, Belarus extended an offer of rail transit to nations participating in NATO’s International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan. Completed in 2010, the agreement allows for the shipment of non-lethal cargo by rail through Belarus, Russia, Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan.

Another important aspect of security cooperation is Belarus’ participation in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP). This 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.

Demilitarization project
A good example of the tangible benefits of practical cooperation is a PfP Trust Fund project, aimed at helping Belarus 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 Lithuania and Belarus, involved the destruction of some 700,000 anti-personnel mines in Belarus.
Science and environment

NATO and Belarus also cooperate on security-related science. Scientists from Belarus have taken leading roles in 125 activities, including collaborating with experts from the Czech Republic on exploring safer methods to destroy stockpiles of persistent organic pesticides and holding an advanced study institute course in May 2010 on advanced training of architects of secure networks.

Since 2001, Belarus has received grant awards for about 40 cooperative activities under NATO’s Science for Peace and Security Programme. Areas include telecommunications, Chernobyl-related risk assessment studies and explosive material detection systems. An ongoing project has brought together scientists from Belarus, Norway and Ukraine to assess the hazards posed by radioactive contamination in the Polessie State Radiation-Ecological Reserve.

In addition, over 75 science fellowships have been awarded to Belarusian scientists to study in NATO countries since 1993.

Public information

NATO also seeks to contribute to the development of Belarusian civil society. This takes place primarily through public diplomacy activities. Belarusian non-governmental and civil society organisations are encouraged to engage with NATO’s Public Diplomacy Division.

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. The current NATO Contact Point Embassy in Belarus is the embassy of Estonia.
Milestones in relations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>Belarus joins the North Atlantic Cooperation Council (NACC, later renamed the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council in 1997).</td>
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<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>Belarus joins the Partnership for Peace, a programme aimed at increasing security and defence cooperation between NATO and individual Partner countries.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Belarus takes part in a NACC meeting, for the first time, in June, in Oslo, Norway.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>Belarus opens a permanent mission at NATO Headquarters.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Belarus temporarily halts all cooperation with NATO, including the PfP programme and EAPC, in protest at NATO’s Kosovo air campaign.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Belarus joins the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>NATO Allies condemn the presidential election in Belarus as failing to meet international standards and conduct a review of NATO-Belarus relations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>NATO and Belarus complete the first PfP trust fund project in Belarus, which destroyed some 700,000 anti-personnel mines.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>NATO completes the arrangements with several countries, including Belarus, for the transit of non-lethal ISAF cargo to Afghanistan by rail.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>NATO sponsors new flood risk monitoring system in Ukraine and Belarus</td>
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NATO’s relations with Bosnia and Herzegovina

Democratic, institutional and defence reforms are a key focus of Bosnia and Herzegovina’s cooperation with NATO. The country joined the Partnership for Peace in 2006 and has been engaged in an Intensified Dialogue with NATO on its membership aspirations and related reforms since 2008. In April 2010, the Allies formally invited the country to join the Membership Action Plan (MAP) with one important condition: the first Annual National Programme under the MAP will only be accepted by NATO once a key remaining issue concerning immovable defence property has been resolved.

Effectively, all immovable defence properties in the country need to be registered as state property, for use by the country’s defence ministry. Although Bosnia and Herzegovina’s Presidency members were unanimous about the decision to apply to join the MAP, the fulfillment of this condition has not yet been met.

The Allies are committed to keeping NATO’s door open to Western Balkan partners that wish to join the Alliance. 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.

The Alliance has been committed to building long-term peace and stability in Bosnia and Herzegovina and the wider Western Balkans since it started supporting the international community’s efforts to end the conflict in Bosnia and Herzegovina (1992-1995). NATO played a key role in implementing the Dayton Peace Agreement (formally, the General Framework Agreement for Peace in Bosnia and Herzegovina, or GFAP) and in securing this peace through peacekeeping deployments over a nine-year period from December 1995 to December 2004. In December 2004, primary responsibility for military aspects of GFAP was handed over to the European Union.

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 Partnership for Peace (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, as well as supporting the International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia on a case-by-case basis.

Bosnia and Herzegovina needs to continue pursuing democratic and defence reforms to fulfill its NATO and European Union aspirations and to become a fully functioning independent democratic state. Beyond supporting reform, another key objective of NATO’s cooperation with Bosnia and Herzegovina is to develop the ability of the country’s forces to work together with forces from NATO countries and other partners, especially in peacekeeping and crisis-management operations.

**Key areas of cooperation**

Key priorities for cooperation with Bosnia and Herzegovina include strengthening cooperation with European and Euro-Atlantic structures, the rule of law, democratic control of the armed forces and intelligence security system, defence reform, defence planning and budgeting, military interoperability, human resource management, crisis management and civil emergency planning, security system and protection of data, and public diplomacy. NATO also supports the wider democratic, institutional, and judicial reform process underway in Bosnia and Herzegovina.
Security cooperation

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. More recently, it has committed itself to contributing to NATO’s post-2014 mission in Afghanistan. Although not part of a NATO operation, the Armed Forces of Bosnia and Herzegovina deployed an Explosive Ordnance Disposal (EOD) platoon to Iraq from 2005 to 2008 and an infantry platoon during 2008, under the multinational coalition’s operation.

The authorities of Bosnia and Herzegovina have signed and ratified the PfP Status of Forces Agreement (SOFA) with the Allies, in accordance with its national legislation. The PfP SOFA is a multilateral agreement between NATO member and partner countries, which deals with the status of foreign forces while present on the territory of another state. This agreement facilitates Bosnia and Herzegovina’s military-to-military cooperation and other practical cooperation with NATO member states and other partner countries.

NATO and Bosnia and Herzegovina have started to improve the exchange of information on combating terrorism. The Allies are assisting the country in establishing a relevant counter-terrorist capability and providing advice on improving the existing national apparatus.

Bosnia and Herzegovina has declared a number of forces and assets as potentially available for PfP activities, including for NATO-led crisis-response operations. Engineering (explosive ordnance disposal) capabilities and related equipment as well as other units could be available.

The country has also made a number of training facilities available, including a Combat Training Centre at Manjača and a Peace Support Operations Training Centre at Butmir, which is the only certified PfP Training Centre in the region. A Professional Development Centre in Travnik has also been established that would be available within the PfP framework.

Defence and security sector reform

Defence and security sector reforms are core elements of cooperation. The Alliance as a whole and individual Allies have considerable expertise which Bosnia and Herzegovina can draw upon in this area. A key priority is working together to establish affordable and sustainable defence structures, which would reflect the security needs of the country and be able to provide usable military capabilities that are interoperable with those of the Alliance.

A key aspect of the work of the NATO-led Stabilisation Force (SFOR) in Bosnia and Herzegovina up to 2004 concerned reform of the country's defence structures, which were divided into three separate structures for each of the country’s main ethnic groups. Within the framework of a Defence Reform Commission (2003-2005), SFOR and NATO helped the country build a unified command and control structure, and develop joint doctrine and standards for training and equipment that are compatible with NATO standards. In March 2004, a newly established state-level defence ministry brought the country’s separate armies under a single command structure.

Subsequent to SFOR, NATO’s military headquarters in Sarajevo took a leading role in the Defence Reform Commission during 2005, leading the effort that resulted in the complete merger of the entity armies into a single military force on 1 January 2006, and continues to work with Bosnia and Herzegovina on defence reform to this day. NATO’s Secretary General has also appointed the
Assistant Secretary General for Defence Policy and Planning as his Senior Representative for defence reform in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

The country is working to develop fully professional armed forces that are interoperable with NATO forces and are manned by volunteers who meet high professional standards. The process of restructuring and reorganisation of the armed forces in order to reach these goals is ongoing. A key instrument for supporting such military and defence reforms is the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP).

The implementation of a NATO/Partnership Trust Fund project for assistance to redundant defence personnel has helped the country downsize its armed forces. This Trust Fund supported the reintegration of approximately 3,000 released personnel, whose contracts with the Bosnian Armed Forces ended between 2010 and 2012. A similar Trust Fund was conducted a few years earlier.

Civil emergency planning
NATO and Bosnia and Herzegovina carry out cooperation in the field of civil emergency planning. The country is developing its national civil emergency and disaster-management capabilities. In consultation with the Allies, the country has developed the legal framework for coping with civil emergencies, and is 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 following devastating floods that hit the country. NATO coordinated emergency assistance from Allied and partner countries, sending for instance helicopters, boats, drinking water, food, shelter and funds.

Public information
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. Regional exchange of best practices is an important element.

NATO’s Public Diplomacy Division closely cooperates with a number of partners including NATO’s military headquarters in Sarajevo, non-governmental organisations, Allied embassies and others in the planning and implementation of public diplomacy activities to increase public awareness about cooperation with NATO and MAP.

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. The current NATO Contact Point Embassy in Bosnia and Herzegovina is the Embassy of the Republic of Turkey.

Science and environment
Under the Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme, Bosnia and Herzegovina has received grant awards for a number of cooperative projects, including seismic risk hazard reduction studies and legal aspects of countering terrorism. The aim is to increase scientific cooperation, such as in areas relevant to regional security issues and environmental initiatives.
Framework for cooperation

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 and an updated version was agreed in February 2011. 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.

Once the invitation to join the MAP is fully implemented, cooperation with Bosnia and Herzegovina and support for reform will be set out in an Annual National Programme under the MAP, replacing and building upon the IPAP. This programme will outline preparations for possible future membership, including political, economic, defence, resource, security and legal aspects.

The IPAP is underpinned by practical cooperation in a range of other areas under the Individual Partnership Programme (IPP), which the country has developed with NATO since it first joined the Partnership for Peace (PfP) and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC).

Bosnia and Herzegovina has also 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 operations. It also serves as the principal mechanism used to guide and measure defence and military reform progress. A biennial process, the PARP is open to all partners on a voluntary basis.

To facilitate cooperation, Bosnia and Herzegovina has a diplomatic mission at NATO Headquarters as well as a liaison office at the Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE, Belgium) and an officer at Allied Joint Force Command Naples.
**Milestones in relations**

1993  In April, NATO begins Operation Deny Flight to prevent aerial intrusion over Bosnia and Herzegovina (BiH).

1995  The Dayton Peace Agreement is signed on 14 December.

The 60,000-strong NATO-led Implementation Force (IFOR) deploys to implement the military aspects of the peace agreement. IFOR is NATO's first peacekeeping operation.

1996  In September, the first elections are held in Bosnia and Herzegovina; the Allies agree to maintain a security presence in the country to facilitate the country's reconstruction.

The Stabilisation Force (SFOR) replaces IFOR in December.

2003  Dec: establishment of a state-level command structure over the two entity armies.

2004  In December, the European Union peacekeeping force (EUFOR) takes over responsibility for maintaining security in Bosnia and Herzegovina. NATO supports the operation through the Berlin Plus arrangements, and establishes a military headquarters to administer this support while carrying out its primary mission of supporting the authorities of Bosnia and Herzegovina with defence reforms and anticipated PfP commitments.

2005  Agreement to merge the two entity armies into a single military force, the Armed Forces of BiH, on 1 January 2006.

2006  Bosnia and Herzegovina joins the PfP and agrees its first Individual Partnership Programme (IPP).

2007  Bosnia and Herzegovina joins the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP).
2008  In April, the country is invited by NATO to begin an Intensified Dialogue on the full range of political, military, financial, and security issues relating to its aspirations to membership. In September, Bosnia and Herzegovina agrees its first Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP) with NATO.

2009  Bosnia and Herzegovina deploys officers to the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan.

2010  In April, Bosnia and Herzegovina is invited to join the Membership Action Plan, pending the resolution of a key issue concerning immovable defence property.

2011  In February, Bosnia and Herzegovina agrees its second IPAP with NATO.

2012  In May, at NATO’s Chicago Summit, Allied leaders welcome the political agreement reached in Bosnia and Herzegovina on 9 March 2012 on the registration of immovable defence property as state property. They urge political leaders to implement the agreement without delay to allow the country to start participation in the Membership Action Plan.

In July, NATO’s Deputy Secretary General visits Bosnia and Herzegovina and other countries in the region aspiring to NATO membership.

2013  The NATO Secretary General visits Sarajevo in February.

2014  The IPAP Assessment of Bosnia and Herzegovina for 2013 is agreed in February.

On 18 March, Mr Željko Komšić, member of the Presidency of Bosnia and Herzegovina, visits NATO Headquarters for talks with NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen and to attend a meeting of the North Atlantic Council.

21 May, the NATO Secretary General meets government officials in Sarajevo and reiterates NATO’s support to the membership aspirations of Bosnia and Herzegovina.
NATO’s relations with Finland

NATO and Finland actively cooperate on peace and security operations and have developed practical cooperation in many other areas, including education and training and the development of military capabilities.

Finnish cooperation with NATO is based on its longstanding policy of military non-alignment and a firm national political consensus. It is set on developing a political dialogue with NATO, improving operational connectivity and contributing to capability development, selecting areas of cooperation that match joint objectives.

An important area of cooperation is the country’s support for NATO-led operations. Finland currently works alongside the Allies in security and peacekeeping operations in Kosovo and Afghanistan, and has also indicated its willingness to participate in the post-2014 follow-on mission – the NATO-led Resolute Support mission - to train, advise and assist Afghan security forces. Moreover, Finland supports the implementation of the United Nation’s Security Council Resolution 1325 on women, peace and security, and participates in several NATO-led Trust Funds.

Finland started cooperating with NATO in 1994 when it joined the Partnership for Peace ( PfP) programme and has since been reinforcing its relations with NATO through a number of partnership tools, NATO-led operations and exercises, and capability development.

Key areas of cooperation

Security cooperation

Since 2002, Finnish soldiers have been working alongside Allied forces as part of the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan. Finnish personnel are deployed in the country, primarily with a Provincial Reconstruction Team in the north of the country. The focus of the Finnish contribution is gradually shifting towards training and capacity-building of Afghan security forces.

Since 2007, Finland has contributed €1.7 million to the Afghan National Army Trust Fund. Finland also contributes to a project conducted under the NATO-Russia Council aimed at training counter-narcotics personnel from Afghanistan and other Central Asian partner countries.

Finnish forces have also played significant roles in securing peace in the former Yugoslavia. Finnish soldiers are currently operating with the NATO-led Kosovo Force (KFOR) and, in the past, Finland contributed a battalion to the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Finland started participating in the NATO Response Force (NRF) in 2012 and took part in Exercise Steadfast Jazz in November 2013, an exercise which inter alia was designed to test the different components of the next NRF rotation. Specific participation or involvement in any particular NRF operation requires a sovereign decision by Finland.

Finland’s role in training the forces of partner countries, particularly in peacekeeping, is greatly valued by the Allies. In July 2001, NATO formally recognised the Finnish Defence Forces International Centre (FINCENT) in Tuusula as a PfP Training Centre. This centre provides training on military crisis management for staff employed by international organisations such as NATO, the United Nations and the European Union.
Finland also regularly participates in NATO and PfP exercises, such as Iceland Air Meet in February 2014. Among other forces, Finland has declared one mechanised infantry battalion group and one combat engineer unit, a coastal mine hunter and a small number of fixed-wing aircraft as potentially available for exercises and operations. Maintaining operational interoperability at the end of the ISAF mission is not only crucial at the military level, but also at the political level. At the political level, consultation and dialogue will be reinforced and flexible formats encouraged with, for instance, meetings at 28 + 6 (28 + NATO’s six Western European partners, including Finland) taking place more frequently.

Finland plays an active part in a number of multinational projects for the development of capabilities. It has joined the Strategic Airlift Capability (SAC) programme, participating along with Sweden and several NATO Allies in the operation of three C-17 transport aircraft based in Hungary. Continuation of a related initiative, the Strategic Airlift Interim Solution (SALIS), which leases Russian and Ukrainian Antonov transport aircraft beyond 2012, is being evaluated.

The country is also working on a multinational cyber defence capability development project with NATO, which will improve the means of sharing technical information and promote awareness of threats and attacks. It is also participating in the establishment of a joint multinational headquarters in Germany, a harbour protection system and a deployable system for the surveillance of chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear agents. Finland is a member of the Movement Coordination Centre Europe (MCCE) and is participating in the Air Transport, Air-to Air Refueling and other Exchange of Services (ATARES), as well as the Air Situation Data Exchange (ASDE).

Finland’s close ties with its neighbours Norway, Denmark and Sweden have resulted in Nordic Defence Cooperation (NORDEFCO), a further practical and efficient way for like-minded states to contribute to regional and international security. In Finland’s case, this activity is pursued alongside the Nordic Battle Group.

**Defence and security sector reform**

Finland has participated in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) since 1995, which – along with participating in the Operational Capabilities Concept – influences Finnish planning and activities. Cooperation in these frameworks is aimed at enhancing Finland’s ability to take part in peace-support operations, as well as allowing Allies and other partners to benefit from Finnish expertise.

Finland has developed a new military crisis-management concept as the basis for a revised national pool of forces for crisis-management operations. All of these forces should be evaluated under Operational Capability Concept Evaluation and Feedback programme by the end of 2016.

Finland is contributing to the development of the EU Battlegroup concept. It is cooperating with Estonia, Sweden and Norway, among other countries, in the development of a multinational rapid-reaction force for EU-led peace-support operations.

Alongside NATO Allies, Finland contributes to NATO’s programme of support for security-sector reform in the western Balkans, southern Caucasus and Central Asia. It is an active supporter of Partnership Trust Fund projects in other partner countries and has contributed to nearly a dozen so far. Currently, it is supporting a project for the repacking, centralising and destruction of chemicals in Moldova; ammunition stockpile management in Tajikistan and the Building Integrity Programme.
Finland has also shown an interest in supporting an upcoming Trust Fund project focused on multiplying the possibilities for women to work in the Jordan armed forces.

**Civil emergency planning**

Civil emergency planning is a major area of bilateral cooperation. The aim is for Finland to be able to cooperate with NATO Allies in providing mutual support in dealing with the consequences of a major accident or disaster in the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) area. This could include dealing with the consequences of incidents involving chemical, biological, radiological or nuclear agents, as well as humanitarian disaster-relief operations. In line with this, Finnish civil resources have been listed with the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC). Finland has also provided valuable civil emergency training to Allies and partners.

**Science and environment**

Under the Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme, scientists from Finland have participated in numerous advanced research workshops and seminars on a range of topics. Topics have included border security and the fight against terrorism, environmental security in harbours and coastal areas, and bioremediation of contaminated soils.

**Public information**

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. The current NATO Contact Point Embassy in Finland is the embassy of Denmark.

**Framework for cooperation**

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. Key areas include security and peacekeeping cooperation, crisis management and civil emergency planning.

An important objective in Finland’s participation in the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme is to develop and enhance interoperability between NATO and partner forces through a variety of PfP instruments and mechanisms. Finland joined the PfP programme at its inception in 1994.
**Milestones in relations**

1994  Finland joins the Partnership for Peace (PfP).

1995  Finland joins the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP).

1996  Finland contributes forces to the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

1997  Finland joins the newly created Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council.

1999  Finnish forces participate in the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Kosovo, KFOR.

2001  The Finnish Defence Forces International Centre in Tuusula becomes a PfP training centre.

2002  Finnish forces begin their contribution to the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan.

2006  The mine layer Pohjanmaa passed NATO maritime evaluation (MAREVAL) during Exercise Brilliant Mariner 2006.

2008  Finland hosts the June 2008 Uusimaa Civil Crisis Management Exercise. Finland decides that it is open in principle to NATO Response Force (NRF) participation.

2009  Finland and the NATO Consultation, Command and Control Agency (NC3A) (currently known as the NATO Communications and Information Agency) sign a Memorandum of Understanding on mutual cooperation in key defence technology areas.

An F-18 squadron, part of Finland’s Rapid Deployment Force passed a full NATO
tactical evaluation (TACEVAL).

2010
Finland co-hosts “NATO’s New Strategic Concept – Comprehensive Approach to Crisis Management” with Sweden in Helsinki.

2011
Following the signature of an agreement in October, senior Finnish officials visit the NATO C3 Agency (currently known as the NATO Communications and Information Agency) in November to discuss the details of a multi-year programme of work for cooperation on advanced technology.

2012
In March, Finnish fighter jets take part in a NATO exercise over the Baltic region aimed at practising air policing skills.

In November, Finland takes part in Exercise Steadfast Juncture, an exercise organised at the Amari Air Base, Estonia, focused on the command and control of a fictitious crisis-response operation involving the NRF; and the Cyber Coalition procedural exercise, focused on cyber defence capabilities.

NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen visits Helsinki on 15 November.

2013
In November, Finland takes part in Exercise Steadfast Jazz.

2014
Finland and Sweden participate in Iceland Air Meet 2014, under the command of Norway. This occurred during Norway’s deployment to Iceland to conduct NATO’s mission to provide airborne surveillance and interception capabilities to meet Iceland’s peacetime preparedness needs.
NATO’s relations with the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia¹

Cooperation between the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia¹ and NATO takes place across a wide range of areas: operationally in Afghanistan and in support of KFOR, practically with a particular emphasis on defence and security sector reform. The country joined NATO’s Partnership for Peace in 1995 and aspires to become a NATO member. It joined the Membership Action Plan in 1999, a programme of advice, assistance and practical support tailored to the needs of countries wishing to join NATO.

At the April 2008 Bucharest Summit, Allies agreed that an invitation to join the Alliance will be extended to the country as soon as a mutually acceptable solution to the issue over its name has been reached with Greece. This agreement has been consistently reiterated at subsequent Summits.

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.

NATO also remains committed to the long-term peace and stability of the region. At Skopje’s request, the Alliance engaged in operations Essential Harvest, Allied Harmony and Amber Fox (2001-2003), with the aim of creating a safe and secure environment and reducing tension between the country’s ethnic Albanian minority and national security forces. A NATO military headquarters created in Skopje during the operational period has since been downsized and transformed into a Liaison Office which assists with security sector reform and host nation support to the Kosovo Force (KFOR).

Beyond the ongoing work on reform, another important area of cooperation is the country’s support for NATO-led operations. For many years, it has been providing valuable support to KFOR troops transiting the country. It also contributes to the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan and has indicated its willingness to participate in the post-2014 follow-on mission to train and assist Afghan security forces, after ISAF’s mission has ended.

Key areas of cooperation

The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia was a key partner in supporting NATO-led stabilisation operations in Kosovo in 1999 and NATO forces were deployed to the country to halt the spread of the conflict as well as to provide logistical support to KFOR. The Allies also provided humanitarian assistance as refugees from Kosovo fled into the country. The country continues to provide valuable host nation support to KFOR troops transiting its territory.

NATO came to the assistance of the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, when violence between ethnic Albanian insurgents and security forces broke out in the west of the country in February 2001. The insurgents had taken control of a number of towns near the border with Kosovo, bringing the country to the brink of a civil war. NATO facilitated the negotiation of a ceasefire in June of that same year, which paved the way for a political settlement – the Ohrid Framework Agreement – in August 2001. In support of the settlement, NATO deployed a task force, “Essential Harvest”, to collect weapons handed over by the insurgents, as they prepared to disband. The NATO-led international monitoring mission continued to operate in support of the implementation of the Ohrid Agreement until 31 March 2003, when the European Union assumed the lead.
A key objective of cooperation is to develop the ability of the country’s armed forces to work alongside Allied forces in peace-support and crisis-management operations. Participation in NATO’s PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) has provided a framework for cooperation in this area.

The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia has been supporting ISAF in Afghanistan since 2002; it currently contributes some 150 troops. The country has also indicated its willingness to participate in the post-2014 NATO-led mission to train, advise and assist the Afghan forces, which will be deployed once the transition to Afghan security lead has been completed and ISAF’s operation is terminated.

**Defence and security sector reform**

The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia has initiated wide-ranging reforms that NATO is supporting. In the areas of defence and security sector reform, NATO and individual Allies have considerable expertise that the country can draw upon. In consultation with the Allies, the country continues to implement a wide range of reforms in line with its Strategic Defence Review. The country’s participation in the PARP has facilitated cooperation in the area of defence reform.

The Allies have assisted in the development of a transformation plan for the country’s armed forces. The plan includes detailed programmes covering logistics, personnel, equipment, training and a timetable for the restructuring of key military units. Other key objectives include improving ethnic minority representation in civil/military defence structures and judicial and police reform.

The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia joined the Operational Capabilities Concept (OCC) in 2005. The OCC is a mechanism through which units available for PfP operations can be evaluated and better integrated with NATO forces to increase operational effectiveness.

The country is working with NATO to promote the implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325, which recognises the disproportionate impact that war and conflicts have on women and children. UNSCR 1325 calls for full and equal participation of women at all levels in issues ranging from early conflict prevention to post-conflict reconstruction, peace and security.

The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia is also working to strengthen good governance in the defence and security sector through participation in the Building Integrity Programme. This Programme seeks to raise awareness, promote good practice and provide practical tools to help nations enhance integrity and reduce risks of corruption in the security sector by strengthening transparency and accountability.

Training is an important part of security cooperation with the country and its personnel regularly participate in activities organised under the PfP programme. Moreover, the country’s Public Affairs Regional Centre in Skopje was recognised as a Partnership Training and Education Centre in 2013, opening its activities to Allies and partners.

**Civil emergency planning**

The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia is enhancing its national civil emergency and disaster-management capabilities in cooperation with NATO and through participation in activities organised by the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre. In consultation with NATO, a national crisis-management system has been established to ensure that the structures in place serve effectively and efficiently in the case of a national crisis.
Science and environment
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia has been actively engaged within the framework of the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme since 1998. The SPS Programme enables close collaboration on issues of common interest to enhance the security of NATO and partner countries. By facilitating international efforts, in particular with a regional focus, the Programme seeks to address emerging security challenges, support NATO-led operations and advance early warning and forecast for the prevention of disasters and crises.

Today, scientists and experts from the country are working to address a wide range of security issues, notably in the fields of cyber defence, defence against chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) agents, environmental security and disaster forecast and prevention of natural catastrophes. A hands-on cyber defence training course took place in April 2013. The aim of the training course was to create institutional capability and increase awareness on cyber threats with a view to enhancing the resiliency of national IT infrastructures. Future areas for concrete cooperation were discussed by national government officials, scientists and experts at an SPS ‘Information Day’ held in Skopje in June 2013.

Public information
Given that the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia aims to join NATO, it is important to continue to ensure public awareness of how NATO works and of the rights and obligations which membership brings. Public diplomacy activities also aim to develop and maintain links with civil society actors and to facilitate security-related activities and programmes in the country. NATO’s Public Diplomacy Division plays a key role in this area, as do individual Allies and partner countries. 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. The Embassy of Turkey in Skopje acts as a Contact Point Embassy (CPE) for NATO.

Framework for cooperation
The country cooperates with NATO and other partners in a wide range of areas through the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC). In the Membership Action Plan (MAP) framework, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia sets out its reform plans and timelines in its Annual National Programme (ANP). Key areas include political, military and security sector reforms. Important priorities are efforts to meet democratic standards and ensure free and fair elections, as well as support for reducing corruption and fighting organised crime, judicial reform, improving public administration and promoting good neighbourly relations. NATO Allies provide feedback on the envisaged reforms and evaluate their implementation.

More specific and technical reforms in the defence area are developed through the Partnership for Peace Planning and Review Process (PARP), which the country joined in 1999. 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 operations. It also serves as the principal mechanism used to guide and measure defence and military reform progress. A biennial process, the PARP is open to all partners on a voluntary basis.

The NATO Liaison Office, Skopje, plays a role in assisting the implementation of the defence reform plans, including through its NATO Advisory Team, which is located within the country’s defence ministry.
### Milestones in relations

**1995**  
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia joins the Partnership for Peace (PfP).

**1996**  
The country hosts its first PfP training exercise “Rescuer”.

**1997**  
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia becomes a member of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC).

**1999**  
The country plays a key role in supporting NATO operations in Kosovo, and the Allies provide assistance to ease the humanitarian crisis as refugees from Kosovo flood into the country.

The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia joins NATO’s Membership Action Plan (MAP) and the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP).

**2001**  
Violence flares up in the west of the country. NATO plays a key role in facilitating negotiations on a cease-fire reached in June. NATO Allies deploy a task force to collect arms from former combatants (Operation Essential Harvest) and support the implementation of the Ohrid Framework Agreement. Subsequently, they deploy a mission to protect international monitors (Operation Amber Fox), which is extended until December 2002.

**2002**  
The country deploys personnel in support of the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan.  
NATO HQ Skopje is created, in April, to advise on military aspects of security sector reform.

**2003**  
The NATO-led peace-monitoring mission (Operation Allied Harmony) in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia is handed over to the European Union.

**2005**  
A combined medical team of the three MAP countries joins NATO-led forces in Afghanistan in August.

**2007**  
The country hosts the EAPC Security Forum in Ohrid.

**2008**  
In April, Allies agree that the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia will be invited to start accession talks as soon as a mutually acceptable solution to the issue over the country’s name has been reached.

**2010**  
The Secretary General visits Skopje in June 2010.

**2012**  
Prime Minister Nikola Gruevski addresses the North Atlantic Council on 25 January.

President Gjorge Ivanov attends a meeting at NATO’s Summit, joining counterparts from countries that are supporting the NATO-led
stabilisation mission in Afghanistan. Also, Foreign Minister Nikola Poposki joins fellow foreign ministers from the three other countries that are aspiring to NATO membership in a meeting chaired by NATO’s Deputy Secretary General.

During a visit to NATO Headquarters of President Gjorge Ivanov on 4 September, NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen welcomes Skopje’s commitment to continuing reforms and expresses his strong hope that a mutually acceptable solution to the issue of the country’s name could be reached as soon as possible within the framework of the United Nations.

2013
In June, the North Atlantic Council accepts the country’s offer to make its Public Affairs Regional Centre in Skopje a Partnership Training and Education Centre, opening its activities to Allies and partners.

2014
In February, Prime Minister Nikola Gruevski visits NATO Headquarters in Brussels and in May, the NATO Secretary General visits Skopje.

1. Turkey recognises the Republic of Macedonia with its constitutional name.
NATO’s relations with Georgia

Georgia is an aspirant for NATO membership. It actively contributes to NATO-led operations and cooperates with the Allies and other partner countries in many other areas. The NATO-Georgia Commission provides a unique framework through which NATO and Georgia pursue active political dialogue and practical cooperation in support of Georgia’s reform efforts and its Euro-Atlantic aspirations.

In September 2008, NATO and Georgia established the NATO-Georgia Commission (NGC) to oversee NATO’s assistance to Georgia following the conflict with Russia. The NGC plays a central role in supervising the process set in hand at the Bucharest Summit where NATO leaders agreed that Georgia will become a member of NATO. In December 2008, Allied Foreign Ministers agreed that Georgia should develop an Annual National Programme (ANP) under the auspices of the NGC. In this framework, the Alliance is maximising its advice, assistance and support for Georgia’s reform efforts, in particular in the field of democratic, institutional and defence reforms.

At the 2014 Wales Summit, Allied leaders reaffirmed all elements of their decision made at the Bucharest Summit, and welcomed Georgia’s progress since then to meet its Euro-Atlantic aspirations through reforms, the conduct of transparent and peaceful elections, implementation of its ANP and active political engagement with the Alliance within the NGC. NATO leaders also endorsed a substantial package for Georgia to strengthen its defence and interoperability capabilities with the Alliance, therefore helping it advance in its preparations towards NATO membership. The details of the package will be developed together with Georgia and it will include defence capacity-building, training, exercises, strengthened liaison, and enhanced interoperability opportunities. Moreover Allies reiterated NATO’s continued support to the territorial integrity and sovereignty of Georgia within its internationally recognised borders and once again called on Russia to withdraw its forces from Georgia and reverse the recognition for the Abkhazia and South Ossetia regions of Georgia as independent states.

Another important area of cooperation is Georgia’s support for NATO-led operations. Georgia is one of the largest non-NATO troop-contributors to the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan and continues to serve as a transit country for ISAF supplies. The country has also indicated its willingness to participate in the post-2014 follow-on mission – Resolute Support - to train, advise and assist Afghan security forces, after the transition to Afghan full security responsibility is completed at the end of 2014, when ISAF’s mission will end. Georgia also supports Operation Active Endeavour, NATO’s counter-terrorist maritime surveillance operation in the Mediterranean.

Georgia has offered to participate in the NATO Response Force and is expected to contribute to the NRF from 2015 onwards.

Framework for cooperation

The NGC provides the framework for cooperation between NATO and Georgia. Created in September 2008, it serves as a forum for both political consultations and practical cooperation to help Georgia advance its Euro-Atlantic aspirations. Existing cooperation programmes, such as the Planning and Review Process (PARP), continue to take place within the framework of the NGC. A NATO Liaison Office was established in Georgia in 2010 to assist and support the country’s reform efforts.
In December 2008, NATO Foreign Ministers decided to further enhance the NGC through the development of an ANP. The ANP, the first of which was finalised in spring 2009, replaced the Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP), which had guided NATO-Georgia cooperation since 2004.

In addition to Georgia’s contributions to Euro-Atlantic peace and stability, key areas of cooperation under the ANP include political, military and security-sector reforms. NATO agrees to support Georgia in these reforms by providing focused and comprehensive advice and activities in several frameworks (both civilian and military) towards its reform goals. Current priorities for Georgia include transforming its public and private sectors in order to promote democracy, good governance, the rule of law and sustainable social and economic development, as well as reforming the defence and security sector, in particular the revision of Georgia’s national security plans.

Georgia also cooperates with NATO and other partner countries in a wide range of other areas through the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC).

In parallel with the establishment of the NGC, the Military Committee with Georgia was also created as a format for meetings focused on military cooperation.

The principal aim of NATO-Georgia military cooperation is to assist Georgia with the implementation of military and defence-related issues of the ANP, strategic planning and defence reforms, and to increase interoperability in support of Georgia’s contributions to NATO-led operations. The Military Committee with Georgia Work Plan defines key areas and objectives for military cooperation between NATO and the Georgian Armed Forces. The Work Plan comprises activities that help achieve the goals set in the ANP and PARP.

Key areas of cooperation

Security cooperation
Thanks to regular participation in PfP training and exercises, Georgia has been able to contribute actively to Euro-Atlantic security by supporting NATO-led operations. Georgian troops worked alongside NATO troops in the peacekeeping operation in Kosovo from 1999 to 2008, providing a company-sized unit as part of the German brigade there and an infantry platoon within a Turkish battalion task force.

In Afghanistan, Georgia is providing forces in various locations. Georgia is currently one of the largest contributors to ISAF among NATO’s partner countries. Furthermore, Georgia is ready to continue to serve as a transit country for ISAF supplies. It has also indicated its willingness to participate in the post-2014 NATO-led mission to train, advise and assist the Afghan forces, which will be deployed once the transition to Afghan security lead has been completed and ISAF’s operation is terminated end 2014. The Georgian government has also pledged financial support for the future development of the Afghan National Security Forces. In the meantime, NATO has adopted a Partnership Interoperability Initiative to ensure that bonds forged between Allied and partner countries in Afghanistan are maintained. As part of this initiative, Georgia participates in the Interoperability Platform launched at the Wales Summit that will bring Allies together with 24 partners active in NATO’s operations. Georgia has also been identified as one of the five countries that make particularly significant contributions to NATO operations and NATO’s other objectives, to discuss deepening dialogue and practical cooperation even further.
Georgia participates in NATO’s Operation Active Endeavour, a counter-terrorist maritime surveillance operation in the Mediterranean, primarily through intelligence exchange. It also has a mountain training site, which is accredited as a Partnership Training and Education Centre and offers courses and training to Allies and other partner countries.

**Defence and security sector reform**

NATO is supportive of the wide-ranging democratic and institutional reform process underway in Georgia, as outlined in its ANP. Particularly in the area of defence and security sector reform, NATO and individual Allies have considerable expertise upon which Georgia can draw.

Georgia’s participation in the PARP since 1999 has helped its forces develop the ability to work with NATO and is also providing planning targets that are key to security reform objectives in several areas. NATO support has, for example, helped Georgia build deployable units (according to NATO standards) that are interoperable with Allied forces. Georgia’s defence reform objectives within the PARP have facilitated improved financial management in the Ministry of Defence, assisted in reforming the intelligence structure of the armed forces and ensured that a credible Strategic Defence Review was conducted. More recently, the package for Georgia endorsed at the Wales Summit in September 2014, includes defence capacity-building, training, exercises, strengthened liaison and enhanced interoperability opportunities – measures that will help Georgia progress towards NATO membership. Additionally, the aforementioned Partnership Interoperability Initiative, as well as the newly created Defence and Related Security Capacity Building Initiative, build on this package.

A key priority for Georgia is to ensure democratic control of the armed forces, including effective judicial oversight and appropriate defence command and control arrangements through a range of measurable objectives within the ANP.

Education and training are also key objectives of Georgia’s ANP and reform efforts. NATO is leading a tailored programme for Georgia – the Defence Education Enhancement Programme (DEEP) – with the support of the PfP Consortium of Defence Academies and Security Studies Institutes, the Partnerships Training and Education Centres and Allied defence institutions.

Following Georgia’s request in 2008, NATO and Georgia launched a Professional Development Programme for Civilian Personnel in the Ministry of Defence and other Security Institutions in 2009. The programme provides training with the aim of strengthening the capacity for democratic management and oversight in the Ministry of Defence, as well as other security sector institutions. Training and education provided in the framework of this programme is closely aligned to Georgia’s defence and security sector reform objectives outlined in both the ANP and PARP. Current priorities are to support Georgia’s civil service reform and enhance Georgia’s own capacity for providing training to security sector civilian personnel.

Another priority in the area of defence and security sector reform has been to support demilitarisation projects in Georgia through the NATO/PfP Trust Fund mechanism, which allows individual Allies and partner countries to provide financial support to key projects on a voluntary basis. Over the years, a number of Trust Fund projects have helped to address problems posed by stockpiles of surplus and obsolete weapons and munitions, and promoted their safe disposal.
Civil emergency planning

Georgia is enhancing its national civil emergency and disaster-management capabilities in cooperation with NATO and through participation in activities organised by the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC). The Centre helped coordinate the delivery of hundreds of tonnes of relief items to Georgia in the wake of the August 2008 conflict. It also coordinated assistance to Georgia in 2005 when the country experienced some of the worst flooding in its history, in 2006 when forest fires broke out in southern Georgia, and after a major earthquake in 2009.

Georgia itself hosted a major EADRCC consequence-management field exercise in the town of Rustavi in September 2012. Some 1,000 people from 35 countries participated in the exercise, which was organised in cooperation with the Emergency Management Department of the Georgian Ministry of Internal Affairs.

Science and environment

Georgia has been actively engaged within the framework of the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme since 1994. The SPS Programme enables close collaboration on issues of common interest to enhance the security of NATO and Partner countries. By facilitating international efforts, in particular with a regional focus, the Programme seeks to address emerging security challenges, support NATO-led operations and advance early warning and forecast for the prevention of disasters and crises.

Today, scientists and experts from Georgia are working to address a wide range of security issues, notably in the fields of environmental security, cyber defence, advanced technology (including nanotechnology) and disaster forecast and prevention of natural catastrophes. Most recently, Georgian experts contributed to a hands-on cyber defence training course based on their national experience and expertise. Other projects include collaboration on improving trans-boundary water management and mitigating the risks posed by earthquakes in the South Caucasus.

Public information

Increasing the public awareness of NATO and its relations with Georgia is also a key area of cooperation. Since 2002, NATO has been organising numerous activities for this purpose, working through its Liaison Office in Tbilisi and in cooperation with local non-governmental organisations and state authorities. Activities include seminars, conferences and workshops. “NATO Weeks” and summer schools are organised on an annual basis to reach out to youth audiences.

Groups of opinion leaders from Georgia are regularly invited to visit NATO Headquarters and the Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE) for briefings about the Alliance, and NATO officials regularly travel to Georgia to speak at public events. Senior NATO officials – including the Secretary General and the Special Representative for the Caucasus and Central Asia – also regularly visit the country for high-level consultations. The North Atlantic Council, NATO’s highest political decision-making body, paid a two-day visit to the country in September 2008, in the immediate aftermath of the Georgia crisis. The Council paid a second visit in November 2011 and another in June 2013.

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. The current NATO Contact Point Embassy in Georgia is the embassy of Romania.
The Office of the State Minister for European and Euro-Atlantic Integration has established an Information Center on NATO, which has its main office in Tbilisi and branches in Kutaisi and Zugdidi. Working in close cooperation with NATO’s Public Diplomacy Division and with the NATO Liaison Office in Georgia, it is an important tool in raising public awareness about the Alliance in the country.

**Response to the Georgian crisis**

At an emergency meeting of the North Atlantic Council on 19 August 2008, Allied Foreign Ministers called for a peaceful and lasting solution to the conflict based on respect for Georgia’s independence, sovereignty, and territorial integrity.

Allied Foreign Ministers deplored the use of force in the conflict, 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. They expressed particular concern over Russia’s disproportionate military action, which is incompatible with Russia’s peacekeeping role in the breakaway regions of South Ossetia and Abkhazia. Allies also called on Russia to take immediate action to withdraw its troops from the areas it must leave under the terms of the six-point agreement brokered by the European Union.

The Allies agreed to support Georgia, upon its request, in a number of areas. These included 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 North Atlantic Council condemned the decision by the Russian Federation to extend recognition to the South Ossetia and Abkhazia regions of Georgia, and called on Russia to reverse its decision.

NATO continues to support Georgia’s territorial integrity and sovereignty within its internationally recognised borders as reiterated at meetings of Allied Heads of State and Government and in the Secretary General’s statements. The Secretary General has issued statements underlining that NATO does not recognise elections that have since taken place in South Ossetia and Abkhazia and that the holding of such elections does not contribute to a peaceful and lasting settlement.

The Allies welcome the declaration by the Georgian President – endorsed by the Georgian Parliament in a unanimously adopted resolution on Georgia’s foreign policy objectives – to seek a resolution to the crises with the South Ossetia and Abkhazia regions of Georgia through peaceful means. They strongly support Georgia’s current strategy of engagement with the two breakaway regions, which envisions a constructive way forward through fostering economic ties and people-to-people contacts to build confidence.

The Allies also welcome the steps Georgia has taken unilaterally towards Russia in recent years, including the removal of visa requirements for Russian citizens, the agreement on Russia’s membership of the World Trade Organization; as well as the direct dialogue that has been initiated with the Russian government by the Georgian government, which came into power in October 2012.
Milestones in relations

1992  Georgia joins the newly created North Atlantic Cooperation Council (succeeded by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council in 1997).

1994  Georgia joins the Partnership for Peace (PfP), a programme aimed at increasing security and defence cooperation between NATO and individual partner countries.

1995  Georgia signs the PfP Status of Forces Agreement (SOFA) between NATO and partner countries.

1997  Georgian Parliament ratifies the SOFA agreement.

1999  Georgia joins the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP).

Georgia starts contributing peacekeepers to the Kosovo Force (KFOR).

2001  Georgia hosts a multinational PfP military training exercise "Cooperative Partner 2001".

2002  Georgia is connected to the Virtual Silk Highway.

Georgia hosts a multinational PfP military training exercise "Cooperative Best Effort 2002".

Georgia declares its aspirations to NATO membership and its intention to develop an Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP) with NATO.

2003  A NATO/PfP Trust Fund project is launched with Georgia to support the demilitarization of ground-to-air defence missiles.

Georgia participates in ISAF's election security force in Afghanistan.
At the Istanbul Summit, Allied leaders place special focus on the Caucasus – a special NATO representative and a liaison officer are assigned to the region.

2004  Georgia becomes the first country to agree an IPAP with NATO.

2005  NATO and Georgia sign a transit agreement allowing the Alliance and other ISAF troop-contributing nations to send supplies for their forces in Afghanistan through Georgia.

Georgia opens an information centre on NATO with the support of NATO's Public Diplomacy Division.

2006  NATO offers an Intensified Dialogue to Georgia.

2007  Georgia hosts a NATO/PfP air exercise, "Cooperative Archer 2007".

2008  At their Summit in Bucharest, NATO leaders agree Georgia will become a member of NATO.

In August, Allies express deep concern over the armed conflict between Georgia and Russia, calling for a peaceful and lasting solution to the conflict based on respect for Georgia’s independence, sovereignty and territorial integrity. They agree to support Georgia’s recovery in a number of areas and also propose the establishment of a NATO-Georgia Commission (NGC) to supervise the process set at hand at the Bucharest Summit and to oversee the implementation of support measures.

In September, the North Atlantic Council pays a two-day visit to Georgia. The Framework Document establishing the NATO-Georgia Commission is signed and the inaugural meeting takes place in Tbilisi. In December, Allied Foreign Ministers agree to the development of an Annual National Programme (ANP) under the auspices of the NGC.

2009  On 4 February, the Georgian foreign minister, vice prime minister and defence minister visit NATO for the first meeting of the NGC in 2009.
On 20 February, Allied and Georgian defence ministers discuss Georgia’s progress in defence reform and its priorities.

On 5 March, the NGC meets in Brussels for the second time at the level of foreign ministers to discuss a range of issues of common interest.

Mid-March 2009, a NATO-led team of experts visits Georgia to address a Georgian request to review the existing military education and training system, and develop a plan of action for reform.

May 2009, the first Steering Committee meeting for the NATO-Georgia Professional Development Programme for Civilian Personnel of the Georgian Ministry of Defence and Other Security Institutions takes place at NATO Headquarters, Brussels.

Following elections on 31 May in the South Ossetia region of Georgia, NATO’s Secretary General issues a statement saying that NATO does not recognise the elections and that the holding of such elections does not contribute to a peaceful and lasting settlement of the situation in Georgia.

On 3 December, the NGC meets to discuss the course of Georgia’s Euro-Atlantic integration and process of reform.

2010 On 12 March, key agreements are signed to begin a Trust Fund project that will help Georgia safely dispose of explosive remnants of war.

In March, Georgian President Mikheil Saakashvili visits NATO Headquarters to meet NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen.

In April, Georgia signs an agreement with NATO to contribute to Operation Active Endeavour, NATO’s maritime counter-terrorist operation in the Mediterranean.

In May, Georgian Foreign Ministry hosts a seminar on "Energy Security and Critical Energy"
In May, Allies and Georgia Chiefs of Defence meet in the Military Committee to discuss and support the transformation process of the Georgian Armed Forces.

In August, the North Atlantic Council decides to enhance NATO-Georgia relations through effective military cooperation (this leads to the development and implementation of the first annual, Military Committee with Georgia Work Plan in 2011).

In October, NATO Liaison Office is inaugurated during the NATO Secretary General’s visit to Georgia, where he meets the Georgian President, Prime Minister and senior ministers.

At the Lisbon Summit, Allied leaders recall their agreement that Georgia will become a member of NATO and reaffirm all elements of their decision made at the Bucharest Summit in 2008, declaring their active support for Georgia’s continued implementation of all necessary reforms. They reiterate their continued support for Georgia’s territorial integrity and sovereignty within its internationally recognised borders.

In February, the Director General of the International Military Staff of NATO visits Georgia to discuss the status and prospect of NATO-Georgia military-to-military cooperation.

2011 In April, NGC Foreign Ministers meet in Berlin and adopt, for the first time, a joint statement which reaffirms the basic principles of NATO-Georgia cooperation. NATO ministers express strong appreciation for Georgia’s substantial contribution to Euro-Atlantic security and the overall positive dynamic in Georgia’s democratic development.

In June, the Chairman of the Parliament of Georgia visits NATO Headquarters for a meeting of the NGC and informs Allies about key democratic reforms in his country.

In May, the Military Committee with Georgia meets at the level of Chiefs of Defence to discuss Georgia’s contributions to operations and the status of the implementation of defence reforms derived from the strategic defence review.
In July, the Georgian Foreign Ministry hosts a conference on emerging security challenges with the support of the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme.

In August, SACEUR visits Georgia to discuss Georgia’s current and future contribution to operations.

Following so-called presidential elections on 26 August in the Abkhazia region of Georgia, NATO’s Secretary General states that NATO does not recognise the elections and that the holding of such elections does not contribute to a peaceful and lasting settlement of the situation in Georgia.

In November, the North Atlantic Council pays a visit to Tbilisi and Batumi and meets the President, the Chairman of the Parliament, the Prime Minister and other high-level officials of the country, as well as representatives of civil society, media and the opposition. The NGC agrees to pursue further work on concrete measures to enhance Georgia’s relations with NATO.

Following so-called presidential elections on 13 November in the South Ossetia region of Georgia, NATO’s Secretary General issues a statement saying that NATO does not recognise the elections and that the holding of such elections does not contribute to a peaceful and lasting settlement of the situation in Georgia. As a follow-up to the North Atlantic Council’s visit to Georgia, the NGC adopts a set of concrete measures to enhance Georgia’s connectivity with NATO. These measures support reforms, increase the ability of NATO and Georgia to operate together, and strengthen the capacity of the Georgian institutions as the country continues on its path towards Euro-Atlantic integration.

2012 As a follow-up to the North Atlantic Council’s visit to Georgia, the NGC adopts a set of concrete measures to enhance Georgia’s connectivity with NATO. These measures support reforms, increase the ability of NATO and Georgia to operate together, and strengthen the capacity of the Georgian institutions as the country continues on its path towards Euro-Atlantic integration.

In April 2012, President Saakashvili visits NATO Headquarters to meet the Secretary General and attend a meeting of the NGC Ambassadors.

In May, Georgia takes part in three important meetings involving partners at the Chicago
Summit: President Mikheil Saakashvili joins counterparts from countries that are supporting the NATO-led stabilisation mission in Afghanistan. He also attends a meeting of the 28 Allies with 13 countries from Europe, the Middle East and the Asia-Pacific region that have made exceptional contributions to the Alliance’s agenda in the last few years. Georgian Foreign Minister Grigol Vashadze joins fellow foreign ministers from the three other countries that are aspiring to NATO membership.

In September, NATO Secretary General visits Georgia.

In October, Georgia doubles its contribution to ISAF, making the country one of the largest non-NATO troop contributor nations.

In November, the Secretary General meets with President Saakashvili in Prague on the occasion of the NATO Parliamentary Assembly, and with Prime Minister Ivanishvili at NATO Headquarters.

In December, during an NGC meeting of foreign ministers, the Allies encourage all parties in Georgia to keep up the momentum of the recent elections and to consolidate democratic progress; they also thank Georgia for its substantial contribution to NATO’s mission in Afghanistan.

2013  In June, NGC Defence Ministers discuss Georgia’s reform plans and further opportunities for cooperation. Ministers also thanked Georgia, the biggest non-NATO contributor to ISAF, for the significant contribution to NATO-led operations.

On 26 and 27 June, the North Atlantic Council visits Georgia to assess the progress the country has made towards Euro-Atlantic integration. In October, NATO’s Secretary General expresses concern about Russia’s continued activity in erecting fences and other obstacles along administrative boundary lines within Georgia, which is in contradiction with international commitments. Later that month, he congratulates the Georgian people on holding transparent and peaceful presidential elections in which fundamental freedoms of expression, movement, and assembly were respected.

2014  At the Wales Summit in September, NATO leaders endorse the Substantial NATO-Georgia Package to help Georgia in its efforts toward reaching NATO membership. Georgia is considered to be one of the five biggest contributors to NATO’s operations and other
objectives and is therefore eligible for enhanced opportunities for dialogue and cooperation with the Alliance. Georgia is invited to participate in the Interoperability Platform, under the Partnership Interoperability Initiative, as well as the Defence and Related Security Capacity-Building Initiative, launched during the summit.
NATO’s relations with Ireland

NATO’s relations with Ireland are conducted through the Partnership for Peace framework, which Ireland joined in 1999. NATO and Ireland actively cooperate on humanitarian, rescue, peacekeeping and crisis management and have developed practical cooperation in a range of other areas, as provided for in Ireland’s Individual Partnership Programme (IPP).

NATO highly values its relations with Ireland. The Allies view Ireland as an effective and pro-active partner and contributor to international security, which shares key values such as the promotion of international security, democracy and human rights. Irish cooperation with NATO is based on a longstanding policy of military neutrality, which allows for its armed forces to be used for peacekeeping and crisis management where there is a UN mandate, a government decision and parliamentary approval. From this basis Ireland selects areas of cooperation with NATO that match joint objectives.

Ireland’s participation in the Partnership for Peace (PfP) has focused on enhancing the interoperability of its armed forces and its capacity to participate in multinational crisis-response operations.

Ireland is currently contributing to the NATO-led peacekeeping operations in Kosovo and Afghanistan. In the past, it supported the NATO-led operation in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Framework for cooperation

NATO and Ireland decide upon areas of cooperation in Ireland’s Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme (IPCP), which is jointly agreed for a two-year period.

The current IPCP focuses on the enhancement of skills and expertise in areas such as operational and generic planning for peacekeeping and peace support, communications (including cyber defence), command and control, operational procedures and logistics. Activities include training courses, seminars, workshops, conferences, exercises and certification and standardisation procedures.

Participation in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) is aimed at enhancing Ireland’s ability to take part in multinational peace-support operations, improving capabilities and developing interoperability with Allies and other partners.

Key areas of cooperation

Security cooperation

In 1997, Ireland deployed personnel in support of the NATO-led peacekeeping operation in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Many of its forces formed part of an international military police company, primarily operating in Sarajevo.

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 (MNTF-C) from 2007 to 2008. Currently, 12 personnel are deployed as part of KFOR.
Since 2002 Ireland has also been providing staff officers and non-commissioned officers for the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan. Currently, 7 personnel are deployed as part of ISAF.

Based on the considerable peacekeeping experience of the Irish Defence Forces, Ireland contributes actively to a variety of PfP activities in areas such as generic planning for peacekeeping and peace support, communications, command and control, operational procedures, logistics and training. The Irish Defence Forces also operate a UN peacekeeping school, which offers courses that are open to all Allies and Partners. Since 2010, the Irish Defence Ordnance School also offers training courses on improvised explosive device disposal.

**Defence and security sector reform**

Participating in peacekeeping operations and engaging in PfP activities has complemented Ireland’s own process of military transformation. Participation in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) assists Ireland in developing the capabilities and interoperability of the forces it declares available for PfP activities, including NATO-led operations, while also supporting Ireland’s efforts to meet capability goals in the EU framework. Ultimately, the Irish Defence Forces are improving their expeditionary peace-support-operation capabilities through PARP.

Over the years, along with individual Allies and partners, Ireland has contributed to ten Partnership Trust Fund projects. The include projects partner countries for 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 Moldova, as well as projects aimed at building integrity and transparency in defence and security institutions.

**Science and environment**

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.

**Public information**

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. The current NATO Contact Point Embassy in Ireland is the embassy of Hungary.
Milestones in relations

1997  Ireland sends its first contingent of troops to support the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

1999  Ireland joins the Partnership for Peace.

Irish forces participate in the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Kosovo.

2000  Ireland submits its first Individual Partnership Programme.

2001  Ireland joins the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP).

2002  Irish staff personnel are assigned to the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan.

Ireland participates in Cooperative Safeguard 2002, a humanitarian exercise, in Iceland.

2005  Ireland, along with several other Allies and partners, responds to the request from the United States for assistance to deal with the aftermath of Hurricane Katrina.

2007-2008  Ireland commands MNTF-C in Kosovo.

2008  Ireland participates in Crisis Management Exercise (CMX 2008).

2010  Ireland starts offering courses to international personnel in improvised explosive device disposal.

2011  Ireland participates as observer in Cyber Coalition 2011.

2012  Ireland participates as observer in Cyber Coalition 2012.

2013  In February, Anders Fogh Rasmussen becomes the first NATO Secretary General to visit Ireland. He discusses current cooperation and the potential for strengthening ties between NATO and Ireland with Taoiseach Enda Kenny and Defence Minister Alan Shatter. He also attends an informal meeting of European Union defence ministers in Dublin.
NATO’s relations with Kazakhstan

NATO and Kazakhstan actively cooperate on democratic, institutional, and defence reforms and have developed practical cooperation in many other areas. The Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP) lays out the overall programme of cooperation between Kazakhstan and NATO. The defence-related fields of cooperation are supported by the Planning and Review Process (PARP).

Framework for cooperation
Dialogue between NATO and Kazakhstan takes place within the framework of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC). The NATO Secretary General’s Special Representative for the Caucasus and Central Asia, James Appathurai, conducts high-level political dialogue with Kazakh authorities through regular visits to the country. The NATO Liaison Officer in Central Asia also visits Astana regularly and reviews cooperation with the Kazakh government.

NATO and Kazakhstan are developing practical cooperation in a number of areas through the country’s Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP). Kazakhstan sets out its reform plans and timelines in its IPAP, which is agreed for a two-year period.

The current IPAP for the 2012-2013 cycle covers key areas to include political, military and security-sector reforms. NATO agrees to support Kazakhstan in achieving these reforms by providing focused, country-specific advice and assistance.

Kazakhstan also cooperates with NATO and other partner countries on a wide range of other areas through the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council.

Key areas of cooperation
Security cooperation
Kazakhstan has designated an infantry battalion called KAZBAT for potential deployment in NATO-led peace support operations, under UN Security Council mandates. KAZBAT became operable as planned and elements of this battalion have joined NATO Allies in a number of live exercises. In the framework of PARP, the expansion of this force into a full brigade organisation – KAZBRIG – is a major project aimed to give Kazakhstan the rotational capability to continuously sustain a battalion-sized contribution.

In 2010, Kazakhstan, along with Russia, Ukraine, Uzbekistan and Belarus completed an agreement with NATO allowing the transportation of non-lethal ISAF cargo to Afghanistan by rail. As of 2012, NATO also has an agreement with Kazakhstan (as well as with several other Central Asian countries and with Russia) for the redeployment of non-lethal ISAF cargo from Afghanistan. Kazakhstan plays an active role in both hosting and participating in PfP training and exercises. In consultation with the Allies, Kazakhstan has established a PfP regional training centre, and continues to work with Allies and regional partners in military and language training techniques.

Kazakhstan contributes to the fight against terrorism through its participation in the Partnership Action Plan on Terrorism (PAP-T). This includes sharing information and analysis with NATO, enhancing national counter-terrorist capabilities and improving border security. In 2010, Kazakhstan hosted an Advanced Training Course, conducted by the Defence Against Terrorism Centre of Excellence based in Ankara, Turkey. The course addressed the dimensions of terrorism and strategies
for countering it, as well as the importance of international and interagency cooperation in the fight against terrorism.

Since 2006, Kazakhstan, in cooperation with NATO Allies and regional partners, has hosted annual military exercises, named “Steppe Eagle”. These exercises have contributed to strengthening the interoperability of KAZBAT with Alliance forces. The 2012 exercise was conducted by Kazakhstan “in the spirit of Partnership for Peace”; the 2013 “Steppe Eagle” exercise is currently being planned.

**Defence and security sector reform**

NATO is supportive of the democratic and institutional reform process underway in Kazakhstan, which is outlined in its IPAP. Specifically in the area of defence and security sector reform, NATO and individual Allies have considerable expertise that Kazakhstan can draw upon.

Kazakhstan’s participation in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) since 2002 has helped develop the ability of its forces to work with NATO. Kazakhstan seeks to attain interoperability between elements of its armed forces and those of NATO Allies. The current emphasis is on its Air-Mobile Forces. Joint work continues on the further development of a peacekeeping battalion to work alongside NATO Allies.

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 Partners on military English, NATO staff procedures, and a 5-day familiarisation course on the history, economy, and culture of Central Asia and Afghanistan.

**Civil emergency planning**

Kazakhstan is enhancing its national civil emergency and disaster-management capabilities in cooperation with NATO, and through participation in activities organised by the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC).

Kazakhstan has previously sent a representative to the EADRCC; in 2009, the country hosted the EADRCC “ZHETYSU” exercise near Almaty.

**Science and environment**

Under the Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme, Kazakhstan has received grant awards for over 20 cooperative projects for collaborative scientific and environmental projects. Projects include collaboration on studies into radiological risks in Central Asia, integrated water resources management and new technology exploration for seismic resistant construction.

In October 2009, participants from Kazakhstan attended an advanced training course on countering the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction through enhanced border security.

In May 2010, scientists and engineers from Kazakhstan, as well as other countries from the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) region, took part in a NATO science programme designed to train participants in securing cyber networks. The primary goal of the training was to strengthen the cyber networks of the educational and scientific communities in the CIS region.

**Public information**

Increasing public awareness of NATO and the benefits of its relations with Kazakhstan is also an important area of cooperation. A joint NATO-Kazakhstan workshop was conducted to contribute to
training the Kazakh press and public information officials in 2007. The Resource and Information Centre on NATO at the Al Farabi Kazakh National University in Almaty, which opened in 2007, hosts a number of NATO-themed events and visits from NATO representatives annually. In addition, a NATO Depository Library was inaugurated in Astana in 2008. Joint work on establishing a wider public information strategy is ongoing.

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. The current NATO Contact Point Embassy in Kazakhstan is the embassy of Latvia.
Milestones in relations


1995  Kazakhstan officially joins the Partnership for Peace (PfP).

1997  Kazakhstan holds the first annual joint peacekeeping exercise (“Steppe Eagle”) with NATO countries, aimed at improving the readiness of Kazakh peacekeeping units to take part in NATO-led operations.

2002  Kazakhstan is connected to the Virtual Silk Highway.

2004  At the Istanbul Summit, Allied leaders place special focus on Central Asia — a special NATO representative and a liaison officer are assigned to the region.

2005  Kazakhstan delivers its IPAP presentation document to NATO.

2006  Kazakhstan and NATO agree on Kazakhstan’s first IPAP, covering the 2006-2008 period and on its current set of 2006 Partnership Goals in the PARP.

2007  The President of Kazakhstan, Nursultan Nazarbayev, visits NATO Headquarters.

2008  NATO depository library is inaugurated at the National Library.

2009  NATO Secretary General, Jaap de Hoop Scheffer, visits Kazakhstan.

2010  Minister of Foreign Affairs of Kazakhstan, Kanat Saudabayev, visits NATO.

NATO completes the arrangements with several countries, including Kazakhstan, for the transit of non-lethal ISAF cargo to Afghanistan by rail.
The President of Kazakhstan, Nursultan Nazarbayev, visits NATO.

2011  James Appathurai, the NATO Deputy Assistant Secretary General (DASG) for Political Affairs and Security Policy and Special Representative for Central Asia visits Kazakhstan.

2012  Kazakhstan’s Foreign Minister Yerzhan Kazykhanov attends the 25th NATO summit meeting in Chicago.

2013  Minister of Foreign Affairs of Kazakhstan, Erlan Idrissov, visits NATO Headquarters.
NATO’s relations with the Kyrgyz Republic

The Kyrgyz Republic cooperates with NATO within the Partnership for Peace and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council. NATO and Kyrgyzstan have developed practical cooperation in many areas, with the goal of enhancing regional and global security. The Individual Partnership Cooperation Programme (IPCP) lays out the programme of cooperation between NATO and Kyrgyzstan.

Framework for cooperation
Dialogue takes place within the framework of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC). The NATO Secretary General’s Special Representative for the Caucasus and Central Asia, James Appathurai, conducts high-level political dialogue with Kyrgyz authorities. The NATO Liaison Officer in Central Asia also visits Bishkek regularly and reviews cooperation with the government.

NATO and Kyrgyzstan are developing practical cooperation in a number of areas through the country’s Individual Partnership Cooperation Programme (IPCP), which is jointly agreed each year. Key areas include security and peacekeeping cooperation, especially counter-terrorism cooperation and border security, crisis management, and civil emergency planning.

The country joined the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) in 2007 to work more closely with the Allies on military interoperability and defence planning initiatives, with objectives underpinned by a set of tailored Partnership Goals.

Kyrgyzstan is expected to attend the meeting on the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan, which is taking place in expanded format at the NATO Summit in Chicago in May 2012.

Key areas of cooperation

Security cooperation
Kyrgyzstan participates in numerous PfP exercises. The Kyrgyz Government has identified a number of units as available for NATO/PfP operations and training exercises. Participation requires a government decision in each individual case. The units include an infantry company, a special National Guards platoon for counter-terrorism and peacekeeping training, and a border guard company.

NATO and the Kyrgyzstan are also developing an agreement on the transit of surface (rail and road) cargo for ISAF across Kyrgyz territory.

Defence and security sector reform
In consultation with the NATO Allies, Kyrgyzstan is in the process of reforming its armed forces. The PARP, which Kyrgyzstan joined in 2007, has the potential to further assist the government in developing reform plans and activities. These reforms should also enhance Kyrgyzstan’s ability to take part in peacekeeping operations alongside NATO forces.

Kyrgyzstan is working to enhance its mountain search and rescue capabilities, and its military command and control structures. Military education plays a role in these processes and cooperation in this area covers a wide range of areas, including language training, search and rescue education and training, border security and control, and the law of armed conflicts and human rights.
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.

**Civil emergency planning**
Civil emergency planning is a key area of cooperation for Kyrgyzstan. With the Allies, the country is working to improve its effectiveness in responding to natural disasters and emergency situations. Kyrgyzstan is particularly interested in relevant scientific and technical cooperation and the mechanisms available through the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC).

Kyrgyzstan has sent experts to relevant seminars at the NATO School in Oberammergau, as well as to relevant discussions at NATO Headquarters.

**Science and environment**
Scientists from Kyrgyzstan have received grant awards in a range of subject areas under NATO’s Science for Peace and Security (SPS) programme.

Scientists from Kyrgyzstan, alongside experts from Belgium, Russia and the Slovak Republic, are working on a project to prevent landslide dam disasters in the Tien Shan, a mountainous region in the Kyrgyz Republic prone to major earthquakes and vulnerable to landslides.

In addition, scientists from the Kyrgyz Republic, United Kingdom, Italy and Uzbekistan have been working together on a project aimed at increasing geo-environmental security in the region of Toktogul Hydroelectric Power Station. Scientists from the Kyrgyz Republic have also been looking at ways to manage uranium industry wastes in order to prevent adverse effects on the health of local populations and the environment.

Kyrgyzstan also participates in the Virtual Silk Highway project, which aims to increase internet access for academic and research communities in countries of the Caucasus and Central Asia through a satellite-based network.

In September 2008, participants from Kyrgyzstan attended an advanced training course on the concept and parameters of the use of force in countering terrorism. In May 2010, scientists and engineers from Kyrgyzstan, as well as other countries from the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) region, took part in a NATO science programme designed to train participants in securing cyber networks. The primary goal of the training was to strengthen the cyber networks of the educational and scientific communities in the CIS region. In total, scientists and experts from the Kyrgyz Republic have had leading roles in 49 activities under the SPS programme.

**Public information**
Kyrgyzstan and NATO continue working together to increase public understanding of NATO and the benefits of cooperation. This is done through different strands of activities, including visits to NATO Headquarters, international workshops in Kyrgyzstan, and video conferences between NATO and Kyrgyz academic institutions.

Work is ongoing to build and enhance networks with universities, non-governmental organisations, and the press and media in order to increase awareness of the Alliance and Euro-Atlantic security issues in general. To this end, Kyrgyzstan hosted the EAPC youth forum in Bishkek in November 2007.
NATO supports educational activities relevant to security and defence issues and is working with Kyrgyzstan to increase public access to NATO and security-related documents. To this end, NATO and Kyrgyzstan opened a NATO Depository Library at the Diplomatic Academy in Bishkek in February 2009.

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. The current NATO Contact Point Embassy in Kyrgyzstan is the embassy of Germany.

**Milestones in relations**


1994 Kyrgyzstan joins the Partnership for Peace.

2000 NATO’s Secretary General visits Kyrgyzstan

2003 Kyrgyzstan is connected to the Virtual Silk Highway.

2004 NATO Secretary General visits Kyrgyzstan

2006 The Allies provide aid to Kyrgyzstan through the EADRCC as heavy snowfall causes extensive damage in the south of the country

2007 Kyrgyzstan joins the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP).


2009 The NATO Depository Library opens at the Diplomatic Academy in Bishkek.

2009 Kyrgyzstan officially launches a NATO-supported retraining programme for released military personnel in Bishkek.

2011 In February, the President of Kyrgyzstan, Roza Otunbayeva, visits NATO HQ.

In May, the newly appointed Deputy Assistant Secretary General (DASG) for Political and Security Policy and NATO Special Representative for Central Asia, James Appathurai, visits Kyrgyzstan, Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan to discuss regional security issues and the expansion of practical cooperation programmes.
NATO’s relations with Malta

Malta first joined the Partnership for Peace (PfP) in 1995. It suspended participation in 1996 but reactivated its PfP membership in April 2008. Malta recognises that it can help address emerging security challenges and contribute to international peace, security and stability through the PfP framework.

Participation in the PfP programme is compatible with Malta’s commitment to the principle of neutrality. The country views it as an additional instrument that enhances European and Euro-Atlantic security.

Malta shares the partnership values and principles of the protection and promotion of fundamental freedoms and human rights, and the safeguarding of freedom, justice and peace through democracy.

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. It is prepared to offer short courses and seminars in these fields to other partner countries.

Framework for cooperation
Areas of cooperation and specific events in which Malta wishes to participate within the Partnership for Peace are detailed in its Individual Partnership Programme (IPP), which is jointly agreed with NATO.

Key areas of cooperation

Security cooperation
Malta is also considering future participation in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP). This process would provide 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.

Defence and security sector reform
Malta is also seeking to exchange information and develop cooperation with NATO and other partner countries in several areas, including the promotion of transparency in defence planning and budgeting, the assurance of democratic control of the armed forces, arms control and the improvement of anti- and counter-terrorism capabilities.

In the future, Malta may also consider working with Allies and other partner countries to possibly enhance maritime search-and-rescue operational capabilities, handle pollution at sea, in addition to further developing maritime law enforcement and airspace management.

Civil emergency planning
Looking forward, Malta may expand its relationship with NATO in several fields, including civil-military coordination and civil protection.
Public information
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. The current NATO Contact Point Embassy in Malta is the embassy of the United States.

Milestones in relations
1995 Malta joins Partnership for Peace programme.
1996 Malta suspends involvement in Partnership for Peace programme.
2008 Malta reactivates membership in Partnership for Peace programme.
NATO’s relations with the Republic of Moldova

NATO and the Republic of Moldova actively cooperate on democratic, institutional and defence reforms, and have developed practical cooperation in many other areas. The country’s Individual Partnership Action Plan lays out its programme of cooperation with NATO and, since early March 2014, Moldova has been contributing troops to the NATO-led mission in Kosovo – KFOR.

Moldova is constitutionally neutral and is seeking to draw closer to Euro-Atlantic standards and institutions, the ultimate aim being European integration. The extent of NATO-Moldova cooperation depends on the country’s willingness to continue its democratic reform process and strengthen its existing democratic institutions.

Framework for cooperation

Areas of cooperation, reform plans and political dialogue processes are detailed in the Republic of Moldova’s Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP), which is jointly agreed with NATO for a two-year period. A revised IPAP is currently being developed for 2014-2015. Key areas of cooperation include support to wide-ranging reforms, assistance to the preparation of strategic documents, defence planning and budgeting and enhancing military education and training in Moldova.

Beyond supporting reform, another key objective of NATO’s cooperation with Moldova is to develop the ability of the 22nd Peacekeeping Battalion’s forces to work together with forces from other countries, especially in crisis-management and peacekeeping operations. Since 8 March 2014, for instance, two “combat-ready” units from this battalion have been participating in KFOR. Moldova is also seeking to develop a new training programme for the armed forces and has been taking part in multinational exercises organised by NATO.

Through the Partnership for Peace (PfP) and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC), Moldova’s cooperation with NATO has mushroomed into other areas such as cyber defence, building integrity and accountability in the defence and security sectors, science, disaster response and the implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 on women, peace and security.

Key areas of cooperation

Security cooperation

Through regular participation in PfP training exercises, Moldova has taken steps to bring elements of its forces closer to full interoperability with Allied forces. Moldova has declared a range of units available for PfP activities, on a case-by-case basis. Four Moldovan helicopters currently support the UN mission in Afghanistan.

Moldova contributes to the fight against terrorism through cooperation with the Allies on enhancing national counter-terrorist training capabilities and improving border and infrastructure security.

Work on enhancing military education and training in Moldova is focused on the Military Academy and its Continuous Training Centre – an accredited Partnership Training and Education Centre – both of which are working closely with NATO experts. One of the programmes in which Moldova has engaged is NATO’s Defence Education Enhancement Programme or DEEP. Through DEEPs, the
Alliance advises partners on how to build, develop and reform educational institutions in the security, defence and military domain.

NATO has no direct role in the conflict resolution process in the region of Transnistria. However, NATO closely follows developments in the region. The current NATO Secretary General, Anders Fogh Rasmussen, has also previously stated that the Alliance fully expects Russia to abide by its international obligations, including respecting the territorial integrity and political freedom of neighbouring countries.

**Defence and security sector reform**

Defence and security sector reforms are core areas of cooperation. NATO and individual Allies have considerable expertise, which Moldova can draw upon in this area. NATO supports the wider democratic, institutional and judicial reform process underway in Moldova.

In consultation with NATO, Moldova has developed strategic documents on defence and security sector reform. These documents were necessary to conduct a Strategic Defence Review. Consultations were also conducted on the steps needed for establishing a transparent defence planning and budgeting system.

NATO and individual Allies continue to assist Moldova in creating modern, mobile, high-readiness, well-equipped and cost-effective forces that are interoperable with those of other countries. Moldovan participation in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) since 1997 is instrumental in this process. Key reform projects include improving command and control structures, military logistics, personnel management, training and strengthening Moldova’s border patrol capabilities.

Moldova has agreed to train and develop designated units to achieve full interoperability with NATO and other partner forces. These units could be made available for NATO peace-support operations, as was the case in March 2014 with the deployment of a total of 41 Moldovan troops to Kosovo, comprising an Infantry Manoeuvre Platoon, an Explosive Ordnance Disposal (EOD) team and a meteorological specialist. The Operational Capabilities Concept supports this process.

**Civil emergency planning**

For Moldova, civil emergency planning is a priority area for cooperation with the Allies. Through participation in activities organised by NATO’s Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC), Moldova is developing its national civil emergency and disaster-management capabilities. In consultation with the Allies, the country is also working on enhancing the legal framework for coping with such emergencies, and working to establish a civil crisis information system to coordinate activities in the event of an emergency. In late August 2011, Moldova hosted the EADRCC exercise Codrii 2011.

**Science and environment**

Under the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme, Moldova has received grant awards for about 18 cooperative projects. Projects include seismic risk reduction studies and river monitoring activities.

In particular, Moldova aims to increase scientific cooperation in several key areas, including research into counter-terrorism and defending against chemical, biological, radiological, nuclear and
ecological terrorism, the removal of dangerous chemicals, and reducing the risk and impact of environmental radiological contamination.

Other projects include a landslide susceptibility assessment in central Moldova and identifying buildings vulnerable to seismic activity in the Vrancea zone through the analysis of strong earthquakes that have occurred in the area. In total, scientists and experts from Moldova have had leading roles in 65 activities.

In 2009, Moldova hosted an advanced training course on cyber terrorism organised by the NATO Centre of Excellence for Defence against Terrorism. During the five-day programme, which was held within the framework of the Science for Peace Programme, participants learned how to identify and assess cyber threats, as well as ways to counter cyber terrorism. This has been followed by similar activities, the most recent was a training course set up in January 2014 for public sector network/system administrators, within the framework of the SPS Programme. The aim of the course was to improve the resilience of Moldova’s IT structure.

Over a number of years, a NATO/Partnership Trust Fund project (in cooperation with the World Bank and the Global Environment Facility) has helped to ensure the identification, analysis, repacking and safe storage of over 3,200 tonnes of dangerous chemicals and pesticides. The third and final phase of the Trust Fund project, the destruction of the repackaged substances is now well advanced.

Public information

Moldova and NATO aim to improve public awareness of and access to information on NATO and the benefits of NATO-Moldova cooperation. With the support of NATO’s Public Diplomacy Division, an Information and Documentation Centre on NATO was inaugurated at the Chisinau State University in October 2007. NATO also supports Moldova in improving the training of public information specialists within the country’s armed forces.

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. The current NATO Contact Point Embassy in Moldova is the embassy of Bulgaria.
**Milestones in relations**


1994  Moldova joins the Partnership for Peace (PfP).

1997  Moldova joins the PfP Planning and Review Process.

2002  A Moldovan platoon participates in a civil emergency relief exercise in Russia with Allies and partner countries.

2005  Moldova hosts a PfP Civil Protection Committee plenary meeting in September.

President Voronin visits NATO Headquarters in June.

2006  Moldova agrees its first Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP) with NATO.

Moldova hosts the PfP training exercises Cooperative Longbow and Cooperative Lancer.

President Voronin visits NATO Headquarters in June.

2007  An IPAP assessment identifies areas of progress and issues to be addressed.

President Voronin visits NATO Headquarters in December.

2008  Moldova hosts the ‘South Caucasus and Moldova Clearing House’ event, which coordinates Allied and partner assistance programmes.
The NATO Secretary General, while visiting Moldova, gives a speech at Chisinau State University, visits the Information and Documentation Centre on NATO, and holds talks with President Voronin, the Foreign Minister and the Defence Minister.

2009
Prime Minister Vlad Filat and Foreign Minister Iurie Leanca visit NATO.

Moldova hosts an international workshop in Chisinau which focuses on ways to improve the cooperation between public authorities, the media and civil society in combating terrorism.

2010
Iurie Leanca, Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs and European Integration, and Minister of Defence Vitalie Marinuta meet NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen and address the North Atlantic Council.

A new IPAP was agreed with Moldova on 20 August 2010. Allies also agreed a subsequent request from Chisinau that the document be declassified, allowing the Moldovan authorities to release it to the public.

2011
Moldova hosts the annual EAPC/APAG meeting in June.

The Minister of Defence, Vitalie Marinuta, and the Deputy Foreign Minister, Andrei Popov, meet the Secretary General and address the North Atlantic Council in July.

Moldova hosts the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) exercise Codrii 2011 in August.

2012
Prime Minister Filat of Moldova visits NATO Headquarters and meets the Secretary General and the North Atlantic Council.

2013
A NATO Science for Peace and Security information day is held in Chisinau (June) to explore additional areas of cooperation.
In July, a NATO week is held, coinciding with the launch of Phase III of the Trust Fund on the destruction of pesticides and other dangerous chemicals.

On 10 February, Minister of Foreign Affairs and European Integration, Mrs Natalia Gherman, meets the Secretary General.

On 17 March, the Deputy Foreign Minister, Valeriu Chiveri, meets the Deputy Secretary General to discuss ways of bolstering ties with NATO.
NATO’s relations with Montenegro

NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg and the Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Justice of Montenegro, Mr. Duško Marković (November 2014)

Democratic, institutional, security sector and defence reforms are a key focus of NATO’s cooperation with Montenegro. Shortly after regaining its independence in June 2006, the country joined the Partnership for Peace (PfP) in December 2006. Montenegro is working to draw closer to Euro-Atlantic standards and institutions, with the aim of joining the Alliance. It was invited to join the Membership Action Plan in December 2009. Following the September 2014 Summit in Wales, NATO leaders announced that NATO will open intensified and focused talks with Montenegro and will assess at the latest by the end of 2015 whether to invite Montenegro to join the Alliance.

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. Montenegro began its first MAP cycle in the autumn of 2010 with the submission of its first Annual National Programme. It has identified key challenges that will need to be addressed, including reinforcing the rule of law, meeting NATO standards in security sector reforms and fighting corruption and organised crime.

“NATO is committed to the future of the Western Balkans as a natural part of the Euro-Atlantic family. So I look forward to seeing Montenegro join the Euro-Atlantic family as soon as you are ready,” said NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen during his visit to the country in May 2014. 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.

Beyond supporting reform, another key objective of NATO’s cooperation with Montenegro is to develop the ability of the country’s forces to work together with forces from NATO countries and other partners, especially in peacekeeping and crisis-management operations. Since 2010, the country has contributed to the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan. It has also indicated its willingness to participate in the post-2014 NATO-led mission to train and assist Afghan security forces, after ISAF’s mission has ended.

Key areas of cooperation

Security cooperation

In support of NATO’s efforts to equip and train the Afghan National Army, Montenegro offered a donation which included 1,600 weapons and 250,000 rounds of ammunition. In February 2010, Montenegro decided to contribute troops to ISAF in Afghanistan, which were deployed there together with a Croatian unit.

Montenegro has indicated its willingness to participate in the post-2014 NATO-led mission to train, advise and assist the Afghan forces, which will be deployed once the transition to Afghan security lead has been completed and ISAF’s operation is terminated. The government has also pledged financial support for the future development of the Afghan National Security Forces.
Participation in joint planning, training and military exercises is a significant element of cooperation within the PfP.

**Defence and security sector reform**

Defence and security sector reforms continue to be key elements of cooperation. The Alliance as a whole and individual Allies have considerable expertise that the country can draw upon in this area. The Allies also support the wider democratic, institutional and judicial reform process underway in Montenegro.

In 2013, Montenegro conducted a new Strategic Defence Review and produced a long-term development plan for its army. These documents have provided a basis for a comprehensive reform of the country’s defence system.

The country’s participation in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) helps to develop forces that will be fully capable of conducting peacekeeping and relief operations with NATO and partner forces.

Montenegro is also working with NATO to promote the implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325, which recognises the disproportionate impact that war and conflicts have on women and children. UNSCR 1325 calls for full and equal participation of women at all levels in issues ranging from early conflict prevention to post-conflict reconstruction, peace and security. In September 2013 for instance, Montenegro hosted a high-level seminar on the role of women in building integrity and promoting good practices in the defence and security sector.

Montenegro is interested in participating in cyber defence initiatives. It is also contributing to NATO’s Building Integrity Programme to strengthen good governance in the defence and security sector. This Programme seeks to raise awareness, promote good practice and provide practical tools to help countries enhance integrity and reduce risks of corruption in the security sector by strengthening transparency and accountability.

Surplus and obsolete armaments and ammunition remain a significant issue for Montenegro in terms of both security and environmental concerns. NATO Allies have previously supported NATO/PfP Trust Fund work in this area, including a project in both Serbia and Montenegro to remove anti-personnel landmines. Further Trust Fund activities with Montenegro are now being developed.

**Civil emergency planning**

In cooperation with the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC), Montenegro intends to take the necessary steps to establish a national early warning system, build a national crisis situation centre and develop its emergency response capabilities.

**Science and environment**

Montenegro has been actively engaged within the framework of the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme since 2006. The SPS Programme enables close collaboration on issues of common interest to enhance the security of NATO and partner countries. By facilitating international efforts, in particular with a regional focus, the Programme seeks to address emerging security challenges, support NATO-led operations and advance early warning and forecast for the prevention of disasters and crises.
Today, scientists and experts from Montenegro are working to address a range of security issues, notably in the fields of environmental security and disaster forecast and prevention of natural catastrophes.

**Public information**

Montenegro’s participation in the Membership Action Plan (MAP) requires good public access to information on the benefits of cooperation and membership with NATO. NATO’s Public Diplomacy Division cooperates actively with the Montenegrin authorities as well as with a wide range of civil society partners, media representatives, members of parliament, local municipalities, etc. Public diplomacy programmes, such as visits to NATO Headquarters, seminars, speaking tours and educational youth programmes, aim to raise public awareness about NATO and the membership process.

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. The current NATO Contact Point Embassy in Montenegro is the embassy of Slovenia.

**Framework for cooperation**

Since regaining its independence in 2006, Montenegro has been undertaking a wide-ranging programme of structural and institutional reforms. The instruments available within the Partnership for Peace (PfP) can greatly assist in this process. Initially the country chose to strengthen the reform focus of cooperation by developing an Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP) with NATO in 2008. It moved through a successful IPAP cycle from 2008 to 2010, before shifting in the autumn of 2010 to an Annual National Programme within the Membership Action Plan framework.

Montenegro has also been participating in the PARP since 2006. 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 operations. It also serves as the principal mechanism used to guide and measure defence and military reform progress. A biennial process, the PARP is open to all partners on a voluntary basis.

To facilitate cooperation, Montenegro has established a mission to NATO as well as a liaison office at the Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE).

**Milestones in the evolution of relations**

The NATO Allies recognised Montenegro’s independence very shortly after it was declared in June 2006 and invited the country to join the Partnership for Peace (PfP) at the November 2006 Riga Summit. The country formally joined the Partnership in December of that same year and increased the focus on reform by developing an Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP) in 2008. This IPAP focused on the full range of political, military, financial, and security issues relating to its aspirations to membership. Montenegro received an invitation from the Allies to join the Membership Action Plan (MAP) in December 2009. NATO Allies are committed to supporting the country on its path to Euro-Atlantic integration. However, the key reforms and political decisions needed to achieve the standards of NATO membership must be taken by the leaders of Montenegro themselves.
Key milestones

2003
The Federal Republic of Yugoslavia is replaced by a looser state union named Serbia and Montenegro.

2006
Montenegro votes for independence on 21 May and the parliament formally declares independence on 3 June.

...The country joins the Partnership for Peace in December.

2007
In support of NATO’s efforts to equip and train the Afghan National Army, Montenegro donates weapons and ammunition.

2008
NATO Heads of State and Government agree to start an Intensified Dialogue with Montenegro on its membership aspirations and related reforms. Montenegro starts working with NATO on its Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP) agreed with NATO in July 2008.

2009
First IPAP assessment.

...In December, NATO Foreign Ministers invite Montenegro to join the Membership Action Plan.

2010
In February, Montenegro decides to contribute to the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan.

...Summer 2010, Montenegro leaves the IPAP process and, in the autumn, submits its first Annual National Programme, under the Membership Action Plan.
2011 In June, the NATO Secretary General attends an Adriatic Charter meeting and delivers a major speech "NATO and the Western Balkans" in Montenegro.

2012 Prime Minister Luksić addresses the North Atlantic Council on 21 March.

2013 On 16 October, President Filip Vujanović comes to NATO Headquarters, Brussels.

2014 Prime Minister Milo Đukanović holds talks with the NATO Secretary General and addresses the North Atlantic Council at NATO Headquarters.

NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen holds talks with top officials in Podgorica.

Following the June 2014 NATO Foreign Ministers meeting, the Secretary General announces that NATO will open intensified and focused talks with Montenegro and will assess at the latest by the end of 2015 whether to invite Montenegro to join the Alliance. NATO leaders endorse these decisions at the Wales Summit in September, inviting Montenegro in the meantime to continue its efforts to address the remaining challenges for NATO membership.
Serbia has been a member of NATO’s Partnership for Peace programme since December 2006. Democratic, institutional, and defence reforms are a key focus of cooperation. While not an aspirant for membership of the Alliance, the country is currently in discussions with NATO on deepening cooperation through the development of an Individual Partnership Action Plan.

At the Chicago Summit in May 2012, Allied leaders reiterated their support for Serbia’s Euro-Atlantic integration. They also encouraged Belgrade to continue building a strong partnership with NATO, making full use of its Partnership for Peace (PfP) membership, while at the same time respecting Serbia’s policy of military neutrality. Work is ongoing to provide the framework for reinforced cooperation through the development of an Individual Partnership Action Plan.

“Serbia’s future lies in peaceful cooperation with its neighbours and with the European Union and NATO. […] We have made good progress these past few years in developing a sound basis for partnership and cooperation. It is now up to Serbia to decide if it wants to move forwards in its cooperation with NATO, and how fast,” declared NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen in a speech about the Western Balkans in June 2011.

Kosovo is of course a key subject in NATO’s dialogue with Serbia. The Alliance intervened militarily in early 1999 to bring an end to the violence in Kosovo, subsequently deploying the NATO-led Kosovo peacekeeping force (KFOR) to provide a safe and secure environment and facilitate reconstruction. KFOR remains crucial to guaranteeing security in Kosovo and will remain in Kosovo on the basis of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1244 to ensure a safe and secure environment, including freedom of movement for all people.

At the Chicago Summit, Allied leaders called upon Serbia to support further efforts towards the consolidation of peace and stability in Kosovo. They urged Belgrade and Pristina to take full advantage of the opportunities offered to promote peace, security and stability in the region, in particular by the European Union-facilitated dialogue. The NATO Secretary General welcomed the Belgrade-Pristina Agreement on Normalisation, that was eventually concluded in April 2013 as a big step forward for regional peace and security. He underlined that NATO and in particular KFOR would support the implementation of this latest agreement to the best of its ability within its current mandate.

**Framework for cooperation**

Serbia indicated its intention to become an active participant in the Partnership for Peace (PfP) in its PfP Presentation Document submitted to NATO in September 2007. It submitted its first Individual Partnership Programme (IPP) under the PfP in early 2009. Areas of cooperation and specific events in which Serbia wishes to participate are detailed in this document, which is jointly agreed with NATO.

In April 2011, the North Atlantic Council approved Serbia’s request to develop an Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP) with NATO. The IPAP is a jointly agreed framework in which a partner nation lays out its reform goals and the areas where NATO can provide assistance to achieve those goals. It will help to organise bilateral cooperation, ensuring that NATO and individual Allies can provide support to Serbia in achieving its reform goals. The IPAP offers an important step forward in
the relationship, as it will allow NATO and Serbia to deepen both their political consultation and practical cooperation.

The NATO Military Liaison Office in Belgrade, established in December 2006, supports Serbian defence reforms, facilitates Serbian participation in activities in the framework of the Partnership for Peace programme and provides assistance to NATO’s public diplomacy activities in the region.

Key areas of cooperation

Security cooperation
The Serbian armed forces have cooperated with KFOR for many years through the Joint Implementation Council (JIC), based on the 1999 Military Technical Agreement between KFOR and the Serbian armed forces (Kumanovo Agreement).

In July 2005, Serbia signed a transit agreement with NATO to allow Allied forces serving as part of KFOR to pass through Serbian territory. This agreement between NATO and Serbia mirrors similar arrangements between NATO and other countries across and beyond Europe. The transit agreement provided for the establishment of the NATO Military Liaison Office in Belgrade, which liaises with the Serbian military authorities on the practical aspects of the implementation of the transit agreement.

Training is an important part of security cooperation and Serbian personnel participate in activities organised under the PfP programme. Moreover, Serbia’s Chemical, Biological, Radiological and Nuclear (CBRN) Training Centre in Krusevac was recognised as a Partnership Training and Education Centre in 2013, opening its activities to Allies and partners.

Defence and security sector reform
Defence and security sector reforms are core elements of cooperation. An important vehicle for this cooperation has been the Serbia/NATO Defence Reform Group (DRG). The group was jointly established in February 2006 to provide advice and assistance to the Serbian authorities on reform and modernisation of Serbia’s armed forces, and to build a modern, affordable, and democratically-controlled defence structure.

Serbia also joined the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) in 2007. The PARP provides a structured basis for identifying partner forces and capabilities that could be available to the Alliance for multinational training, exercises and operations. It also serves as a planning tool to guide and measure progress in defence and military transformation efforts.

The reforms undertaken within the DRG and the PARP are supported through the selection of training activities and exercises.

The Alliance as a whole and individual Allies have considerable expertise upon which Serbia can draw in the area of defence and security sector reform. An important priority will be working together to further promote transparent democratic control over the armed forces.

The Allies have supported a number of NATO/PfP 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 June 2007. A third Trust Fund project for the destruction of approximately 2,000 tonnes of surplus ammunition and explosives was launched in July 2013.
Another Trust Fund project to develop alternative livelihoods for former members of the Serbian armed forces was completed in 2011. The implementing agent for this project is the International Organization for Migration (IOM). This project, carried out over five years and worth €9.6 million, helped almost 6,000 discharged defence personnel in Serbia start small businesses.

**Science and environment**

Serbia has been actively engaged within the framework of the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme since 2007. The SPS Programme enables close collaboration on issues of common interest to enhance the security of NATO and partner nations. By facilitating international efforts, in particular with a regional focus, the Programme seeks to address emerging security challenges, support NATO-led operations and advance early warning and forecast for the prevention of disasters and crises.

Today, scientists and experts from Serbia are working to address a wide range of security issues, notably in the fields of defence against chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) agents, counter-terrorism, environmental security and disaster forecast and prevention of natural catastrophes.

**Public information**

Serbia and NATO aim to improve public access to information on the benefits of cooperation with NATO and the key elements of NATO-Serbia cooperation. A broad and effective communications strategy is an important aspect of PfP cooperation. The NATO Military Liaison Office in Belgrade plays a role in this process.

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. The current NATO Contact Point Embassy in Serbia is the embassy of the Slovak Republic.
Evolution of relations

1999 A 78-day NATO air campaign is triggered by violence in Kosovo.

The NATO-led Kosovo peacekeeping force (KFOR) is deployed to maintain security and support reconstruction efforts. KFOR and Serbian Armed Forces sign Military Technical Agreement (Kumanovo Agreement).


2003 Belgrade formally applies for PfP membership.

The Federal Republic of Yugoslavia is replaced by a looser state union of Serbia and Montenegro.

NATO completes a PfP trust fund project to destroy 28,000 surplus small arms and light weapons in Serbia.

2005 Serbia hosts a PfP trust fund workshop ‘Together reducing unsafe surplus tools of war’ in Belgrade.

Serbia and NATO sign a transit agreement for KFOR forces.

NATO launches a PfP trust fund project to develop alternative livelihoods for former Serbian armed forces personnel as the service is downsized.

2006 Serbia joins the Partnership for Peace.

NATO opens a Military Liaison Office in Belgrade.

2007 Serbia joins the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP).

NATO completes a PfP trust fund project that safely removed 1.4 million anti-personnel landmines from Serbian territory.

In September, Serbia submits its PfP Presentation Document to NATO.

2009 Serbia agrees its first Individual Partnership Programme with NATO.

2010 NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen meets the President of the Republic of Serbia, Boris Tadic while in New York.

2011 In April, the North Atlantic Council approves Serbia’s request to undertake an Individual Partnership Action Plan (IPAP) with NATO.

In June, Serbia hosts the Allied Command Transformation Strategic Military Partners Conference, one of the largest NATO partnership events each year.

2012 At a meeting of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council on 11 December, ambassadors observe a minute of silence in memory of the Serbian Ambassador to NATO, Branislav Milinkovic, who had passed away the previous week.
NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen welcomes the Belgrade-Pristina Agreement on Normalisation, on 19 April, congratulating all parties for their constructive approach to finding a lasting solution through EU-mediated talks. He emphasises that NATO will continue to ensure a safe and secure environment throughout Kosovo and stands ready to support the implementation of this latest agreement.

In June, the North Atlantic Council accepts Serbia’s offer to make its Chemical, Biological, Radiological and Nuclear (CBRN) Training Centre in Krusevac a Partnership Training and Education Centre, opening its activities to Allies and partners.

A project was launched in July to assist the Serbian Ministry of Defence in the decommissioning of Serbia’s stocks of approximately 2,000 tonnes of surplus ammunition and explosives.
NATO’s relations with Sweden

NATO and Sweden actively cooperate in peace and security operations and have developed practical cooperation in many other areas including education and training, and defence reform.

Swedish cooperation with NATO is based on a longstanding policy of military non-alignment and a firm national consensus. From this basis, Sweden is not pursuing NATO membership, but selects areas of cooperation with NATO that match joint objectives.

The Allies view Sweden as an effective and pro-active partner and contributor to international security, which shares key values such as the promotion of international security, democracy and human rights.

An important area of cooperation is the country’s support for NATO-led operations. Sweden is currently contributing to the peacekeeping operations in Kosovo and Afghanistan, and is planning to contribute to the post-2014 mission in Afghanistan. In the past, it supported the NATO-led operation in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Sweden is one of the Alliance’s most active partners. It has been cooperating with NATO since the creation of the Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme in 1994 and has since been utilising partnership tools to expand this relationship and exchange knowledge and experience with Allied and partner countries in a myriad of different fields.

**Key areas of cooperation**

**Security cooperation**

Sweden is an active contributor to NATO-led operations. Its first contribution dates back to 1995 when it sent a battalion to the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Since 1999, Sweden has provided a mechanised company and support units to the peacekeeping force in Kosovo.

Since 2003, Swedish personnel have been working alongside Allied forces as part of the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan, providing specialist units and logistical support.

Sweden led the multinational Provincial Reconstruction Team (PRT) in Mazar-e Sharif from 2006. The PRT became a Transition Support Team in 2012, under the lead of Sweden’s Senior Civilian Representative in northern Afghanistan. Sweden is planning to be an operational partner in the post-2014 NATO-led mission in Afghanistan – Resolute Support.

In April 2011, Sweden decided to contribute to Operation Unified Protector (OUP), NATO’s military operation in Libya under United Nations Security Council Resolutions 1970 and 1973. As part of Operation Unified Protector, the Swedish Air Force deployed eight JAS Gripen aircraft to Sigonella Air Base in Sicily, Italy to enforce the no-fly zone over Libya, supported by an air-to-air refuelling capable C-130.

Sweden participates in numerous PfP exercises. The country makes a number of units available, on a case-by-case basis, for multinational operations, training and exercises, including EU- and NATO-led. The objective for the Swedish Armed Forces is to be able to sustain up to 2,000 personnel continuously deployed on operations, either nationally or internationally. This pool of forces includes significant land, naval and air assets, including mechanised and armoured units, submarine,
corvettes, combat and transport aircraft with a deployable airbase unit, combat and combat service support elements, as well as specialist support.

In 2013, Sweden joined the NATO Response Force (NRF), alongside Finland and Ukraine, and it participated in Exercise Steadfast Jazz which served to certify the NRF rotation for 2014.

Sweden’s role in training the forces of NATO partner countries is also greatly valued by the Allies. In April 1999, NATO formally recognised the military training centre in Almnäs as a PfP Training Centre. In 2004, the centre moved to new premises in Kungsängen, north of Stockholm. SWEDINT, the Swedish Armed Forces International Centre’s activities include exercises and training, with a focus on humanitarian assistance, rescue services, peace-support operations, civil emergency planning and the democratic control of the armed forces. The centre regularly organises courses and training exercises within the PfP. In January 2012 - in support of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 and related resolutions on strengthening the role of women, peace and security – the Nordic countries established a Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations, to make sure that gender perspectives continue to be integrated into military operations.

Sweden’s close ties with its neighbours Norway, Denmark and Finland are reflected in its participation in Nordic Defence Cooperation (NORDEFCO), a further practical and efficient way for like-minded states to contribute to regional and international security and to practise cooperation, including pooling and sharing. In Sweden’s case this activity is pursued alongside the Nordic Battlegroup and regionally around the Baltic Sea and in northern Europe.

Sweden participates in the Operational Capabilities Concept (OCC). It continues to submit its land, maritime and air force units for evaluation in accordance with the NATO OCC Evaluation and Feedback programme. Sweden participated in the March 2011 Baltic Region Training Event (BRTE). Conducted by NATO Air Command Ramstein, BRTE is a series of planning, training and execution events for enhancing interoperability and building capabilities in the Baltic States.

**Defence and security sector reform**

Participating in peacekeeping and peace-support operations alongside NATO Allies has complemented Sweden’s own process of military transformation. Participation in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) influences Swedish planning and activities, aimed at developing the capabilities and enhancing the interoperability of the Swedish Armed Forces. The Allies and other partners also benefit from Swedish expertise. For instance, Sweden contributes to NATO’s programme of support for security-sector reform in the western Balkans, southern Caucasus and Central Asia.

Sweden is contributing to the development of the EU Battlegroup concept. It is cooperating with Estonia, Finland and Norway, among other countries, in the development of a multinational rapid reaction force for EU-led peace-support operations. During periods that the Swedish parts of the force are not on stand-by for EU needs, they will be available for operations led by both the UN and NATO.

Sweden joined the Strategic Airlift Interim Solution (SALIS) in March 2006 and is also participating in the Strategic Airlift Capability (SAC) initiative. Designed to meet the strategic airlift requirements of SAC member nations for national missions, SAC resources can be used for NATO, UN, EU or other international missions.
Sweden has also supported a number of Trust Fund projects conducted in other partner countries which were focused on areas such as the retraining and reintegration of military personnel, stockpile management and the destruction of surplus weapons.

Civil emergency planning

Civil emergency planning is a major area of bilateral cooperation. The aim is for Sweden to be able to cooperate with NATO Allies in providing mutual support in dealing with the consequences of a major accident or disaster in the EAPC (Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council) area. In line with this, Sweden has participated in numerous NATO Crisis Management Exercises, in addition to several maritime exercises. Additionally, Swedish civil resources have been listed with the EADRCC (Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre). Units include search and rescue teams, medical experts and protection and decontamination units.

Sweden has also previously worked with NATO to improve both emergency response and crisis management. In April 2011, Sweden conducted a joint civil-military-police exercise, Viking 11. It took place in six different countries simultaneously with Sweden as the lead nation and with participants from the United Nations, a wide range of non-governmental organisations and agencies, armed forces from about 25 countries and civilians and police from various countries and organisations. The overall objective of Viking 11 was to train and educate the participants in planning and conducting a UN-mandated Chapter VII Peace Operation/Crisis Response Operation.

Science and environment

Under the Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme, scientists from Sweden have participated in numerous advanced research workshops and seminars on a range of topics. Topics have included information security, mesoscopic physics, the environmental role of wetlands, the protection of civilian infrastructure against terrorism, and human trafficking.

Framework for cooperation

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. Key areas include security and peacekeeping cooperation, crisis management and civil emergency planning.

Participation in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) is helps develop the interoperability and capabilities of Swedish forces which might be made available for NATO training, exercises and multinational crisis-management and peace-support operations.

Evolution of relations

Sweden has a longstanding policy of military non-alignment that remains in effect today. In line with this, Sweden is not pursuing NATO membership but joined the new Partnership for Peace in 1994 to work alongside Allies in areas where bilateral aims converge. In 1997, the country joined the new Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC). Sweden has demonstrated a strong political commitment to the EAPC, and has been generous in its financial contributions to Partnership Trust Funds, as well as offering practical assistance to other partners though the provision of training.

Sweden joined the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) in 1995 to foster interoperability with NATO forces in peace-support operations. Since joining PfP, Sweden has played an active role and offers expertise to other partners and Allies, with a special focus on peacekeeping, civil emergency planning and civil-military cooperation.
**Key milestones**

1994  
Sweden joins the Partnership for Peace (PFP).

1995  
Sweden joins the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP).

1996  
Sweden contributes forces to the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

1999  
Swedish forces participate in the NATO-led peacekeeping force in Kosovo. SWEDINT, the Swedish Armed Forces International Centre, is designated a PfP Training Centre.

2000  
Swedish forces join NATO-led forces in Afghanistan.

2008  
Sweden hosts live demonstration, involving NATO Allies and Swedish civilian and military forces, to test new ways of effectively sharing critical information in emergency situations (Exercise Viking 2008).

In September, Sweden conducts a joint exercise with NATO in Enköping designed to enhance civil-military cooperation during civil emergency.

2009  
In May, Swedish Minister of Defence Sten Tolgfors visits NATO HQ.

2010  
In March, Sweden co-hosts a seminar “NATO’s New Strategic Concept – Comprehensive Approach to Crisis Management” with Finland.

In April, Sweden participates in a NATO Response Force (NRF) maritime exercise (Brilliant Mariner).

In May, Sweden participates in an international cyber defence exercise (Baltic Cyber Shield) organised by several Swedish governmental institutions and the Cooperative
Cyber Defence Centre of Excellence.

2011

Sweden conducts multinational Exercise Viking 2011 with international organisations and NGOs participating in the operations.

In April, Sweden decides to contribute to Operation Unified Protector, NATO’s military operation in Libya under UN Security Council Resolutions 1970 and 1973.

2012

In January, a Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations is established, hosted by the Swedish Armed Forces International Centre.

2013

In January, NATO’s Secretary General visits Sweden to discuss how to further strengthen cooperation.

Sweden contributes to the NATO Response Force and participates in Exercise Steadfast Jazz, which served to certify the NRF rotation for 2014.

2014

In January, NATO’s Secretary General visits Sweden to discuss further potential for the relationship.

Sweden and Finland participate in Iceland Air Meet 2014, under the command of Norway. This occurred during Norway’s deployment to Iceland to conduct NATO’s mission to provide airborne surveillance and interception capabilities to meet Iceland’s peacetime preparedness needs.
NATO’s relations with Switzerland

Switzerland joined NATO’s Partnership for Peace in 1996. NATO and Switzerland actively cooperate in crisis-management training and operations. Practical cooperation is also being developed in a range of other areas.

NATO values its relations with Switzerland, which the Allies view as an effective partner and contributor to international security. The Allies and Switzerland share key values, such as the promotion of international security, democracy, human rights, international humanitarian law, fundamental freedom and the rule of law. NATO and Switzerland select areas of practical cooperation that match their joint objectives.

Since joining the Partnership for Peace (PfP) and becoming a member of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC), Switzerland has played an active role in the partnership. It offers expertise and education and training to other partner countries and Allies, with a special focus on humanitarian missions, humanitarian law, human rights and civil-military cooperation as well as on transparency and democratic control of armed forces.

Another important area of cooperation is the country’s support for NATO-led operations. Switzerland continues to contribute to the peace-support operation in Kosovo. From 2004 to 2007, it supported the NATO-led operation in Afghanistan.

Framework for cooperation
NATO and Switzerland detail areas of cooperation in the country’s Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme (IPCP), which is jointly agreed every year. Also, 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.

Key areas of cooperation include crisis-management and response operations; international efforts to promote regional stability, especially in south-eastern Europe; promotion of humanitarian law, transparency and democratic control of armed forces; training with other partner countries; demining efforts; and the destruction of arms and ammunition. Other important areas of cooperation include disaster relief and the promotion of interoperability.

Switzerland also hosts more than 30 regular courses within the PfP framework and develops training materials in areas such as democratic control of armed forces, international humanitarian law, humanitarian demining, civil-military cooperation, security policy, arms control and disarmament. Moreover, the country has supported the development, use of and training for a web-based central management platform (ePRIME) for all EAPC/PfP activities.

Key areas of cooperation

Security cooperation
Cooperation between Switzerland and NATO deepened during the crises in Bosnia and Herzegovina and in Kosovo. In late 1995, the Swiss opened their airspace, rail and road networks to the NATO-led Implementation Force (IFOR) that was responsible for implementing military aspects of the Dayton Peace Agreement for Bosnia and Herzegovina.
In line with and within the limits of its neutrality, Switzerland participates in peace-support operations or multilateral cooperation in military training. 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). On this basis, the Swiss government decided to contribute to the Kosovo Force (KFOR) in 1999, which was the first time the Swiss participated in a NATO-led peace-support operation.

Currently, a Swiss contingent (“SWISSCOY”) is serving within KFOR as part of the Multinational Task Force - South (MNTF-S). The contingent counts a maximum of 220 armed forces personnel and consists of a contingent support element, an infantry company, a transportation platoon, two medium-sized transport helicopters, and staff officers on different HQ levels throughout KFOR. A medical team and a catering staff support the Manoeuvre Battalion located in Suva Reka. Medical specialists and military police also provide support to MNTF-S. Joint Regional Detachment (JRD) North in Kosovo is currently being led by a Swiss officer. In June 2011, the Swiss government and parliament extended the SWISSCOY mandate until the end of 2014, which will continue to be adapted to the needs of KFOR. 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.

Switzerland has made available a number of military and civilian capabilities for potential peace-support operations under UN or OSCE mandates. 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, as required by the Federal Law on the Armed Forces and Military Administration. The 2010 Reports on Security Policy and on the Armed Forces foresee an increase, both in quantitative and qualitative terms, of the Armed Forces’ contributions to peace-support operations over the next years. Specialised military personnel may be engaged for medical evacuation and humanitarian operations on short notice.

One of the most active members of the PfP Consortium of Defense Academies and Security Studies Institutes, Switzerland has also declared a number of training facilities available for PfP training activities. These include the Center for Information and Communication Training in the Swiss Armed Forces in Berne, the mountain training centre of the Swiss Armed Forces in Andermatt, the international training centre of the Swiss Army (SWISSINT) in Stans and the Tactical Training Centre at the Swiss Officers’ Training Centre in Lucerne.

A number of civilian training facilities have also been made available for the PfP framework. These include the Geneva Centre for Security Policy (GCSP), which has been certified as a Partnership Training and Education Centre, the Geneva International Centre for Humanitarian Demining (GICHD), the Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces (DCAF) and the International Relations and Security Network (ISN) based in Zurich.

Every two years, Switzerland organises the “International Security Forum”, which addresses current issues concerning international security policy. The 10th edition entitled “Facing a World of Transitions” took place on 22-24 April 2013 in Geneva.
Switzerland also promotes the application of the law on armed conflicts and humanitarian law. Recently, the country has taken on a leading role in promoting international standards for the regulation of private security companies.

**Defence and security sector reform**

In June 2010, the Swiss government approved the Report on the Security Policy of Switzerland, replacing the previous security policy from June 1999. In line with this policy, the country aims to further improve efficient and effective cooperation between the different layers of national authority and with other states and organisations. It also aims to contribute to stability and peace beyond Swiss borders. It highlights cooperation with other states to reduce the risk posed to Switzerland and its population by instability and war abroad, as well as to show solidarity with the international community.

The security policy reiterates the three principal tasks of the armed forces as laid down in the Constitution: preventing war, and in case this fails, defending the country and population, contributing to international peace and security, and supporting the civilian authorities in case of serious threats or major natural or man-made disasters. Contributions to international peace and security, in particular, require a high degree of interoperability with Allied and partner country forces. For this reason, increased interoperability for peace-support and humanitarian aid operations is a priority for Switzerland. Participation in the PfP Planning and Review Process and the Operational Capabilities Concept is instrumental in this process.

Switzerland also contributes valuable resources to NATO in terms of support of security sector reform activities with other partner countries, with a special emphasis on democratic control of the armed forces, search and rescue training, international humanitarian law courses and other areas. In particular, the country has been a strong supporter of the Partnership Action Plan on Defence Institution Building (PAP-DIB), which aims to build capacity and reduce corruption in the defence sector.

Switzerland is an active donor to Partnership Trust Fund projects in partner countries and has supported 14 projects since 2000, two of which it co-led. Under these projects, Switzerland along with individual Allies and partners has supported the destruction of mines, arms and ammunition in Albania, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Montenegro, Serbia and Ukraine, as well as ammunition stockpile management and destruction in Mauritania. More recently, the country co-led the first-ever Trust Fund project in Jordan. The country is also co-leading a Trust Fund on Building Integrity in Defence Institutions as part of the PAP-DIB. It has also supported a Trust Fund project in Serbia for the reintegration of demobilised military personnel into the civilian workforce.

**Civil emergency planning**

Civil emergency planning is a major area of cooperation. Switzerland aims to cooperate in providing mutual support in dealing with the consequences of major accidents or disasters in the EAPC area. It has contributed through the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre to disaster-response operations in NATO member states and partner countries. Switzerland participates in numerous training events and exercises, including several crisis-management exercises.

**Science and environment**

Switzerland has been actively engaged with the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme since 1990. The SPS Programme enables close collaboration on issues of common
interest to enhance the security of NATO and partner nations. By facilitating international efforts, in particular with a regional focus, the Programme seeks to address emerging security challenges, support NATO-led operations and advance early warning and forecast for the prevention of disasters and crises.

Today, scientists and experts from Switzerland are working to address a wide range of security issues, notably in the field of cyber defence. Most recently, two advanced research workshops were held on the development of national cyber security strategies (in collaboration with the NATO Cooperative Cyber Defence Centre of Excellence in Tallinn) and on best practices for computer network defence.

**Public information**

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. The current NATO Contact Point Embassy in Switzerland is the embassy of the United Kingdom.

\(^1\) Certified as a Partnership Training and Education Centre
**Milestones in relations**

1995
Switzerland opens its land and air transport corridors to NATO-led peacekeeping forces operating in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

1996
Switzerland joins the Partnership for Peace (PfP).

1997
Switzerland signs the Security Agreement.

1999
Switzerland joins the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP).

Swiss forces participate in the UN-mandated NATO-led peacekeeping force in Kosovo (KFOR) and Switzerland plays a leading role in assuaging the refugee crisis.

Supreme Allied Commander Europe visits Switzerland.

The Geneva Centre for Security Policy is certified as a PfP Training Centre.
Switzerland organizes the 1st annual Conference for the new PfP Consortium of Defense Academies and Security Studies Institutes.

2000
Switzerland hosts PfP training exercise “Cooperative Determination 2000”.

NATO Secretary General visits Switzerland.

2003
Switzerland signs the PfP Status of Forces Agreement (SOFA).

2004
Swiss staff officers join the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan to support reconstruction efforts.
NATO Secretary General visits Switzerland.

2007

Switzerland co-leads a Trust Fund project in Jordan and supports other Trust Fund projects in Albania, Serbia and Montenegro.

2008

Switzerland co-leads a Trust Fund on Building Integrity in Defence Institutions.

Supreme Allied Commander for Transformation visits Switzerland.

2009

High-level parliamentary delegation led by the President of the Swiss National Council visits NATO HQ.

2010

Switzerland and NATO mark the end of the first phase of the Building Integrity and Reducing Corruption Risks in Defence Establishments initiative with the release of "Building Integrity and Reducing Corruption in Defence: A Compendium of Best Practices" and launch the second phase of the initiative.

Supreme Allied Commander Europe visits Switzerland.

The SWISSINT training centre in Stans is recognised as a PfP Training and Education Centre.

2011

The Swiss Parliament prolongs the Swiss contribution to KFOR until 2014.

2012

Deputy Supreme Allied Commander Europe visits Switzerland.

Deputy State Secretary for Foreign Affairs, George Martin, visits NATO Headquarters.

During a visit to Switzerland in November, NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen stresses the importance of cooperative security and building stronger security partnerships in talks with Swiss government leaders.
NATO’s relations with Tajikistan

NATO’s relations with Tajikistan should be viewed through the Partnership for Peace (PfP) framework which the country joined in 2002. NATO and Tajikistan actively cooperate in the fight against terrorism and have developed practical cooperation in many other areas. The Individual Partnership Programme (IPP) lays out the programme of cooperation between NATO and Tajikistan.

Framework for cooperation
Dialogue takes place within the framework of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC). The NATO Secretary General’s Special Representative for the Caucasus and Central Asia, James Appathurai, conducts high-level political dialogue with Tajik authorities through regular visits to the country. The NATO Liaison Officer in Central Asia also visits Dushanbe regularly and reviews cooperation with the government.

NATO and Tajikistan are developing practical cooperation in a number of areas through the country’s Individual Partnership Programme (IPP), which is jointly agreed for a two-year period. Key areas include security and peacekeeping cooperation, especially counter-terrorism cooperation and border security, crisis management and civil emergency planning.

Key areas of cooperation

Security cooperation
Tajikistan plays an important role in supporting Allied operations in Afghanistan through the hosting of French military aircraft at Dushanbe Airport. The Allies and Tajikistan also cooperate in the fight against international terrorism. NATO is supporting the country in its efforts to create an educational course on counter-terrorism for the Military Institute of the Ministry of Defence. Tajikistan also exchanges relevant expertise and information with the Allies.

Tajikistan has listed a number of units as available for NATO/PfP operations and training exercises. Participation requires a government decision in each individual case. The units include an infantry platoon to support PfP activities within Tajikistan, a group of staff officers and a group of military medics. Tajikistan is also seeking to enhance cooperation with NATO Allies in mine-clearing activities. The country has participated in a number of PfP exercises with NATO Allies and other partner countries.

Defence and security sector reform
Tajikistan aims to develop sustained and effective democratic control of its armed forces. In consultation with the Allies, the country is developing coordination procedures between the government, parliament and the military. It is also in the process of reforming its armed forces. Cooperative processes with the PfP framework assist in achieving these goals and enhance the country’s ability to take part in peacekeeping or other operations alongside NATO forces. Tajikistan is also considering participation in the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP) mechanism.

The Allies are available for consultations on Tajikistan’s efforts to consolidate its defence policies, strategies and relevant legislation. NATO is also ready to support the country’s efforts to modernise
and mobilise relevant state resources. NATO and Tajikistan are working to further cooperate in strengthening the country’s border security and countering cross-border crime, especially drug trafficking. To that effect, Tajikistan has sent numerous personnel to attend counter-narcotics training sponsored by an initiative of the NATO-Russia Council.

Military education is a key area of cooperation. Joint efforts are ongoing to develop courses in several areas, including border security and control, as well as language training. NATO and Tajikistan continue to work on preparing selected individuals from the country for NATO-related activities and the possible introduction of Alliance standards in the country’s military education programmes. Tajikistan has sent officers to take part in NATO familiarisation courses and in various other courses at the NATO School at Oberammergau.

A PfP Trust Fund project to help eliminate stockpiles of large munitions, as well as assess the security of weapons’ storage facilities is currently under development.

Civil emergency planning
Tajikistan is working to further familiarise itself with Allied disaster-relief organisation and procedures in order to further develop its own capabilities. The country is considering the creation of its own disaster-relief operation centre and the creation of a small, NATO-compatible disaster-relief unit.

The Allies are working with Tajikistan in developing early warning systems for natural disasters. Individuals from Tajikistan have participated in NATO-run tactical and operational civil-military-cooperation courses. A NATO introductory course on civil emergency planning took place in Dushanbe in July 2011.

Science and environment
Scientists from Tajikistan have received grant awards in a number of areas under NATO’s Science for Peace and Security (SPS) programme. In 2006, a networking infrastructure grant was issued to upgrade the cooperative area network in the Tajik technical university.

In 2010, specialists from Tajikistan attended a NATO Science for Peace and Security sponsored programme designed to teach scientist and engineers the latest technology to secure the cyber networks of the educational and scientific communities in the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) region.

Collaboration with NATO and other Partner countries is also ongoing on uranium extraction and environmental security, and new SPS projects are under preparation.

Tajikistan also participates in the Virtual Silk Highway project, which aims to increase internet access for academic and research communities in countries of the Caucasus and Central Asia through a satellite-based network.

Public information
Tajikistan and NATO are working together to increase public understanding of NATO and the benefits of cooperation. The country is also aiming to increase public awareness in support of defence and security reforms.
Networks with universities, non-governmental organisations, and the press and media in order to increase awareness of the Alliance and Euro-Atlantic security issues continue to be enhanced through different activities. These include, among others, international conferences in Tajikistan and Tajik participation to yearly NATO-Afghan Student Forums. Work is ongoing on the potential establishment of a NATO Depository Library at the Tajik National University of Dushanbe.

NATO supports educational activities relevant to security and defence issues in the country. Since 2005, NATO’s Public Diplomacy Division has sponsored a summer academy in Tajikistan which brings together advanced students from around the country and beyond, to learn about and discuss international security issues.


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. The current NATO Contact Point Embassy in Tajikistan is the embassy of France.

**Evolution of relations**

NATO-Tajikistan relations date back to 1992, when the country joined the North Atlantic Cooperation Council (later renamed the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council in 1997). Tajikistan joined the Partnership for Peace in 2002 to work alongside the Allies in areas where bilateral aims converge. Since joining PfP, Tajikistan has played an active role in hosting and participating in PfP exercises, with a special focus on command and control, civil-emergency planning and civil-military cooperation. There remains further scope for deepening cooperation.
Key milestones


2002 Tajikistan joins the Partnership for Peace.

2003 Tajikistan is connected to the Virtual Silk Highway.

President Emomali Rahmon of Tajikistan makes his first visit to NATO HQ.

2004 NATO Secretary General Jaap de Hoop Scheffer visits Dushanbe

The Allies sign a transit agreement with Tajikistan in support of the NATO-ISAF operations in Afghanistan

Tajikistan completes destruction of over 1200 landmines under a PfP Trust Fund project.

2005 The annual NATO-sponsored Summer Academy in Tajikistan runs its first course.

2007 On 2 July 2007, Tajikistan’s Foreign Minister, Hamrokhon Zarifi, visits NATO Headquarters for discussions with the NATO Secretary General.

A group of government officials from Tajikistan visit NATO Headquarters and the Allied Operational Command to explore possibilities to deepen cooperation with NATO in different areas.

2008 NATO expert team visits Dushanbe.

Annual NATO-sponsored Summer Academy takes place in Tajikistan.

2009 President of Tajikistan, Emomali Rahmon, visits NATO Headquarters in February for discussions with the NATO Secretary General and opens a Tajik Painting Exhibition.

2010 President of Tajikistan, Emomali Rahmon, meets with NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen while in New York.
NATO’s relations with Turkmenistan

NATO’s relations with Turkmenistan should be viewed through the Partnership for Peace framework, which Turkmenistan joined in 1994. 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.

NATO and Turkmenistan actively cooperate in security-related, science and environmental issues and other areas. An Individual Partnership Cooperation Programme (IPCP) lays out the programme of cooperation between NATO and Turkmenistan.

Turkmenistan is expected to attend the meeting on the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan, which is taking place in expanded format at the NATO Summit in Chicago in May 2012.

Framework for cooperation
Regular political dialogue takes place within the framework of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC). In addition, the NATO Secretary General’s Special Representative for the Caucasus and Central Asia, James Appathurai, conducts high-level political dialogue with Turkmen authorities. The NATO Liaison Officer in Central Asia also visits Ashgabat regularly and reviews cooperation with the government.

NATO and Turkmenistan are developing practical cooperation in a number of areas through the country’s Individual Partnership Cooperation Programme (IPCP). Turkmenistan’s cooperation with NATO aims at introducing and familiarizing Turkmen personnel with NATO and Partnership for Peace (PfP) issues, as well as enhancing deepening cooperation in areas such as border control and security, civil emergency planning, and defence planning. Turkmenistan is also participating actively in the NATO-Russia Council pilot project on counter-narcotics training for Afghan and Central Asian personnel.

Key areas of cooperation

Security cooperation
Based on its policy of permanent neutrality, Turkmenistan does not offer any armed forces units or infrastructure in the context of NATO-led operations. However, Turkmenistan is prepared to contribute, on a case-by-case basis, to disaster relief, humanitarian and search and rescue operations.

Every year, officials from Turkmenistan’s armed forces 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 familiarizing officers with combating terrorism techniques and illegal trafficking issues, border security and control, defence planning and budgeting, language training, medical services and other areas.

In the case of trafficking, in particular, Turkmenistan has worked with NATO to address several of these issues. Since 2006, Turkmenistan has sent numerous personnel to attend counter narcotics training sponsored by an initiative of the NATO-Russia Council.
Civil emergency planning
Civil emergency planning and disaster-relief coordination are key areas of cooperation. Turkmenistan is developing its civil response capacity for natural and man-made emergency situations in consultation with the Allies. It is also working to prepare Turkmenistan’s units to contribute to international disaster relief operations. This includes updating planning procedures and organization methods for rescue operations.

To assist Turkmenistan with its intention of establishing a Ministry of Emergency Situations, NATO held a seminar on civilian emergency planning in Ashgabat in 2009. Personnel from the Civil Defence Department of the Turkmen Ministry of Defence and national civil emergency planning experts attended the seminar, which covered basic principles of disaster management and civil emergency planning.

Science and environment
Since its involvement with NATO’s science activities began in 1996, Turkmenistan scientists and experts have participated in over 30 activities. Additionally, under the Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme, Turkmenistan has received grant awards for over 8 cooperative projects for scientific, environmental and educational collaboration.

These collaborative projects include studies into radiological risks and the safe handling of radioactive waste in Central Asia, oil spill risk prevention and pollution in the South Caspian Sea and strategic management of sensitive natural resources.

Turkmenistan’s main priorities under the SPS Programme are defence against terrorism and countering security threats. To address these concerns, officials from Turkmenistan have previously participated in NATO funded projects, including an Advanced Training Course designed to teach the latest counter-terrorism methods and strategies in May 2010.

As part of a networking project, teachers from European institutes trained Turkmen from different institutions, via internet-based distance-learning technologies. A grant awarded in 2008 supported the expansion of the academic and educational internet communication system in Turkmenistan, including the connection of additional academic centres in Ashgabat and medical colleges in other regions of the country, as well as training Turkmen researchers in how to use the network.

Turkmenistan also participates in the Virtual Silk Highway project, which aims to improve internet access for academics and research communities in the countries of the Caucasus and Central Asia through a satellite-based network.

Public information
NATO continues its information and outreach activities with Turkmenistan. In 2011, Turkmen parliamentarian and diplomatic officials visited NATO Headquarters for a series of information and discussion sessions on the current NATO’s priorities, including its partnerships with Central Asian Republics.

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. The current NATO Contact Point Embassy in Turkmenistan is the embassy of the United States.
Evolution of relations

NATO-Turkmenistan relations began in 1992, when the country joined the North Atlantic Cooperation Council (later replaced by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, EAPC, in 1997). Relations further developed in 1994, when Turkmenistan joined the Partnership for Peace programme. Through this framework, cooperative initiatives have expanded to include a range of activities in which the aims of NATO and Turkmenistan coincide.

Milestones

1994  Turkmenistan joins the Partnership for Peace (PfP).
1995  Turkmenistan and NATO agree on the country's first Individual Partnership Programme (IPP).
2002  Turkmenistan hosts regional PfP civil emergency planning courses.
2003  Turkmenistan is connected to the Virtual Silk Highway.
2007  The NATO Secretary General meets with the new Turkmen President at NATO Headquarters.
       Turkmenistan hosts a mobile training team of the NATO-Russia Council pilot project on counter-narcotics training for Afghan and Central Asian personnel.
2008  Turkmen President Berdimuhamedov participates in the NATO Summit meeting in Bucharest.
2009  Turkmenistan hosts a NATO seminar on civilian emergency planning in Ashgabat.
2010  Major General Yaylym Berdiyev, Minister of Defence of Turkmenistan, meets the Secretary General at NATO Headquarters.
NATO’s relations with Uzbekistan

Uzbekistan is actively developing relations with NATO and has identified a broad range of areas for dialogue and practical cooperation through its Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme (IPCP). This IPCP forms the basis of its cooperation with NATO and includes, for instance, the development of armed forces and countering modern security threats.

Defence-related fields of cooperation are being carried out primarily through the Planning and Review Process (PARP), which Uzbekistan joined in 2002. Other areas of practical cooperation include education, training of personnel, civil emergency planning and science.

Uzbekistan first engaged in relations with NATO in 1992, when it joined the North Atlantic Cooperation Council (later replaced by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council in 1997). It has since joined a series of other programmes to reinforce its foreign policy strategy of promoting peace and stability in Central Asia as one of its key priorities is to prevent wars and armed conflicts.

Key areas of cooperation

Security cooperation
From 2002 onwards, Uzbekistan played an important role in supporting Allied operations in Afghanistan. Uzbekistan permitted Germany the use of its airfield at Termez. It also allowed over-flight and transit permission for Allied forces and supplies. Uzbekistan continues to be a main transit route for humanitarian supplies to Afghanistan, the majority of which is delivered via the Hairaton Bridge. Specialists from Uzbekistan also assisted in implementing tangible infrastructure projects in Afghanistan, including the reconstruction of ten bridges connecting the northern part of the country with Kabul.

In 2009, Uzbekistan, along with Russia, Ukraine, Kazakhstan and Belarus, completed an agreement with NATO allowing the transportation of non-lethal ISAF cargo to Afghanistan by rail.

Defence and security sector reform
NATO supports the democratic and institutional reform processes in Uzbekistan. Specifically in the area of defence and security sector reform, NATO and individual Allies have considerable expertise that Uzbekistan can draw upon.

Uzbekistan’s participation in the PARP since 2002 aims to attain interoperability between elements of its armed forces and those of NATO Allies. While there was a pause in PARP cooperation following the events in Andijan in 2005, Uzbekistan reaffirmed its participation in the programme in 2010.

Along with several other countries in Central Asia, Uzbekistan has received counter-terrorism training through NATO-funded courses. In May 2010, officials from Uzbekistan attended an Advanced Training Course, funded through NATO’s Science for Peace and Security Programme, to learn the latest counter-terrorism methods and strategies. Uzbekistan has also benefited from counter-narcotics training, which has resulted in improved capabilities to interdict narcotics trafficking.

Uzbekistan continues to participate in seminars and workshops on defence policy and strategy within the PfP framework, as well as military education of Uzbek officers, with an emphasis on English language training. Since 2013, Uzbekistan has engaged in a Defence Education and Enhancement
Programme (DEEP) with NATO. This programme provides expertise on how to build, develop and reform educational institutions in the security, defence and military domain. Over the next three years, NATO-led multinational teams of academics will provide assistance in developing four courses in the fields of NATO familiarisation, NATO staff planning procedures, counter-terrorism, and civil emergency planning. Work has also begun on the establishment of a Partnership for Peace Training Centre in Uzbekistan.

**Civil emergency planning**

Civil emergency planning and disaster-relief coordination are significant areas of cooperation. Uzbekistan hosted the first EAPC exercise held in Central Asia in April 2003. Exercise Ferghana 2003 simulated an international response to a major earthquake in the region.

NATO and Uzbekistan are continuing cooperation in this area today. Uzbekistan is developing its civil response capacity for natural and man-made emergency situations in consultation with the Allies. This includes updating planning procedures and organisation methods for rescue operations.

**Science and environment**

Under the Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme, Uzbekistan has received grant awards for over 50 projects for scientific and environmental collaboration, while scientists and experts from Uzbekistan have had leading roles in 164 activities, including in various cooperative activities as participants and key speakers.

Uzbekistan has participated in a number of scientific projects with NATO Allies, including the Virtual Silk Highway project, which aims to improve internet access for academic and research communities in countries of the Caucasus and Central Asia through a satellite-based network.

In May 2013, a workshop held in Samarkand, Uzbekistan addressed the prevention of potential crises and conflicts through disaster forecasting, modeling, and sustainable development. Also ongoing is a multi-year research project to assess and monitor trans-boundary water pollution – an area of crucial importance to the social and economic well-being of populations in the region. The project includes experts from Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, and Uzbekistan.

**Public Information**

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. The current NATO Contact Point Embassy in Uzbekistan is the embassy of Italy.

Cooperation in the area of public diplomacy with Uzbekistan aims to raise awareness of the Alliance and the benefits of partnership with NATO as well as engaging with key opinion formers and civil society. In 2014, NATO opened a Depository Library in Uzbekistan’s University of World Economy and Diplomacy in Tashkent. Academics, government officials and opinion formers from Uzbekistan are also regularly invited to visit NATO Headquarters for briefings about the Alliance.

**Framework for cooperation**

Dialogue takes place within the framework of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC). The NATO Secretary General’s Special Representative for the Caucasus and Central Asia, James Appathurai, conducts high-level political dialogue with Uzbek authorities through regular visits to the country. The NATO Liaison Officer in Central Asia is based in Tashkent and is responsible for regularly engaging with the government on cooperation.
Under the PfP programme, NATO and Uzbekistan are developing practical cooperation in a number of areas through the country’s IPCP, PARP and the DEEP.

**Evolution of relations**
NATO-Uzbekistan relations began in 1992, when Uzbekistan joined the North Atlantic Cooperation Council (later replaced by the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council in 1997). Relations further developed in 1994, when Uzbekistan signed up to the PfP programme, and in 2002, when the country acceded to the PARP.

The process of supporting Uzbekistan’s domestic reforms intensified, and the country’s role in PfP activities continued to increase. While Uzbekistan-NATO relations declined to some extent following the events in Andijan in 2005, currently NATO and Uzbekistan engage in regular dialogue through the EAPC and are actively redeveloping cooperation in a number of specific fields.
Key milestones

1992 Uzb

1994 Uzbekistan joins the Partnership for Peace (PfP).

1995 Uzbekistan signs a security agreement with NATO.

1996 Uzbekistan and NATO agree on the country's first Individual Partnership Programme (IPP).

Uzbekistan signs the PfP Status of Forces Agreement (SOFA) with the Allies.

2002 Uzbekistan is connected to the Virtual Silk Highway.

Uzbekistan joins the PfP Planning and Review Process (PARP).

2003 NATO and partner countries complete a major disaster response exercise in Uzbekistan.

2005 NATO’s Secretary General, Jaap de Hoop Scheffer, calls for an independent investigation into the events at Andijan in May; the NATO Parliamentary Assembly adopts a declaration also recommending an independent investigation into these events.

2008 Uzbekistan signs an agreement to carry out a Science for Peace and Security project aimed to destroy the country’s stocks of mélange, a very toxic substance.

2009 Conversion of the country’s stock of the toxic mélange into a harmless chemical
begins near Samarkand.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>NATO completes arrangements with several countries, including Uzbekistan, for the transit of non-lethal ISAF cargo to Afghanistan by rail.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Mélangé conversion project successfully completed.</td>
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<td>2011</td>
<td>President of the Republic of Uzbekistan, Islam Karimov, visits NATO Headquarters and meets with the NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen in January.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Uzbekistan’s Foreign Minister Abdulaziz Kamilov and Defence Minister Kabul Berdiev attend the 25th NATO Summit in Chicago.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>In April, Uzbekistan agrees its first Individual Partnership Cooperation Programme with NATO. Office of the NATO Liaison Officer opens in Tashkent. A Defence Education and Enhancement Programme (DEEP) is established with Uzbekistan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>NATO Depository Library is opened at the University of World Economy and Diplomacy in Tashkent, Uzbekistan.</td>
</tr>
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Partners across the globe

NATO’s relations with partners across the globe

NATO cooperates on an individual basis with a number of countries which are not actually part of its formal partnership frameworks¹. Referred to as “partners across the globe” or simply “global partners”, they include Afghanistan, Australia, Iraq, Japan, the Republic of Korea, Mongolia, New Zealand and Pakistan.

These countries develop cooperation with NATO in areas of mutual interest and actively contribute to NATO operations. Individual global partners choose the areas where they wish to engage in and cooperate with NATO in a spirit of mutual benefit and reciprocity.

Over recent years, NATO has developed bilateral relations with each of these countries. Global partners now have the same access to partnership activities as those in formal partnership frameworks. Activities range from joint exercises and operations, to strategic-level training on issues of intelligence, information and technology. 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. At Lisbon, Allied leaders declared their intention, as part of a focused effort to reform NATO’s partnerships policy, to better engage with global partners, contributing significantly to international security. Following up on the Lisbon decisions, Allied foreign ministers approved a new partnerships policy at their meeting in Berlin in April 2011.

In line with the new policy, all partners will be treated in the same way, offering them the same basis of cooperation and dialogue. Moreover, there are now more opportunities for meetings in flexible formats, bringing together NATO members and partners with other countries, which NATO may have no bilateral programme of cooperation. These include China, India, Singapore, Indonesia, Malaysia and Colombia. Such meetings have taken place to consult partners on different 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.

Highlights

Partners across the globe, or global partners, work with NATO on an individual basis, outside of the Alliance’s traditional partnership frameworks.

Global partners have the same access to all of NATO’s partnership activities.

Currently, NATO’s global partners include Afghanistan, Australia, Iraq, Japan, the Republic of Korea, Mongolia, New Zealand and Pakistan.
Support for NATO-led operations

The contributions from global partners and other countries to NATO-led operations have a direct, advantageous impact for 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, work alongside the Allies as part of the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF). Other countries, such as Japan, support ISAF efforts of stabilisation 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 SHAPE. Building on lessons learned and reinforcing the habit of cooperation established through 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”.

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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.
NATO cooperation with Australia

Over recent years, NATO has developed relations with a range of countries beyond the Euro-Atlantic area. Australia is counted among these countries, which are referred to as “partners across the globe”. Building on dialogue and cooperation that has been developed since 2005, NATO and Australia signalled their commitment to strengthen cooperation in a joint political declaration in June 2012. This was followed up with the signature of an Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme in February 2013.

The Strategic Concept adopted at the 2010 Lisbon Summit paved the way for a more flexible partnership policy offering all partners the same basis of cooperation and dialogue. The establishment of a single Partnership Cooperation Menu open to all NATO partners enabled Australia to access a wide range of cooperation activities with the Alliance and to formalise its relations with NATO through the development of an Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme tailored to the country’s interests.

NATO and Australia have underlined their shared interest in forging a closer strategic partnership. Beyond cooperation on global challenges, the two sides also agree to work closely on crisis and conflict management, post-conflict situations, reconstruction and facilitating humanitarian assistance and disaster relief.

Practical cooperation

Australia is making a valuable and significant contribution to the NATO-led ISAF mission to stabilise Afghanistan. With some 1100 Australian Defence Force personnel deployed, Australia is one of the largest non-NATO contributors of troops to ISAF. As part of a Provincial Reconstruction Team (PRT) in Uruzgan province in southern Afghanistan, Australian personnel have provided security and deliver reconstruction and community-based projects. Additionally, Australia’s Special Operations Task Group has been operating in direct support of ISAF elements in Uruzgan province.

In addition to its contribution to NATO-led operations in Afghanistan and the former Yugoslavia, Australia and NATO have also worked together on several projects. In 2010, Australia contributed to a NATO Trust Fund project designed to clear unexploded ordinances in Saloglu, Azerbaijan. Australia is also the leading contributor to the Afghan National Army Trust Fund, having pledged €150 million to the fund.

The Australian navy is also currently cooperating with NATO’s Counter-Piracy Task Force to fight piracy off the coast of Somalia as part of Operation Ocean Shield.

Dialogue and consultation

To support cooperation, Australia designated its Ambassador in Brussels as its representative to NATO. It also appointed a defence attaché in Brussels and a military representative to NATO. NATO and Australia have also concluded an agreement on the protection of classified information.

Cooperation is also underpinned by regular high-level political dialogue. In 2005, the then NATO Secretary General visited Australia. Then Australian Foreign Minister Alexander Downer addressed the North Atlantic Council in 2005 and 2006. Former Foreign Minister Stephen Smith met the NATO
Secretary General several times and also subsequently in his capacity as Defence Minister. He addressed the North Atlantic Council in December 2008.

Former Prime Minister Kevin Rudd also participated in the NATO summit meeting in Bucharest in April 2008. As foreign minister, he visited NATO on several occasions, and addressed the North Atlantic Council in January 2012. His successor as foreign minister, Bob Carr, had his first meeting with the Secretary General in April the same year.

Current Prime Minister Julia Gillard made her first trip to NATO in October 2010 to discuss ISAF’s efforts in Afghanistan with NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen. She and Defence Minister Stephen Smith also participated in the November 2010 Lisbon Summit, and both were present at the Chicago Summit in May 2012.

NATO’s Secretary General visited Australia in June 2012 to thank the country for its operational support and to discuss how to strengthen further the security partnership.
NATO’s relations with Iraq

Over recent years, NATO has developed relations with a range of countries beyond the Euro-Atlantic area. Iraq is counted among these countries, which are referred to as “partners across the globe”. Building on cooperation that has developed through the NATO Training Mission in Iraq from 2004 to 2011, NATO and Iraq have agreed to enhance their security dialogue and to promote the further development of the Iraqi Security Forces through capacity building, education and training.

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.

Through a jointly agreed Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme, NATO and Iraq are undertaking further efforts to develop the capacity of Iraq’s security institutions and to cultivate the expertise of its national defence academies. 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.

Prior to the closure of the NATO Training Mission in Iraq (NTM-I) in December 2011, NTM-I staff played a major role in enabling the partnership between NATO and Iraq, matching requests from Iraqi ministries with areas of cooperation open to NATO partners, and coordinating the participation of some 500 Iraqi officers and officials in courses each year.

A NATO Transition Cell operated in Baghdad from June 2012 to end May 2013 to ensure a smooth transition from the NTM-I to a regular partnership programme. This helped the Iraqi government to develop an inter-agency mechanism, the Iraqi Coordination Cell, to determine what capabilities the country needed to develop and facilitate the design and implementation of its cooperation with NATO.

The signing of the NATO-Iraq cooperation programme on 24 September 2012, by NATO Deputy Secretary General Alexander Vershbow and Iraqi National Security Adviser Faleh Al-Fayyadh, marked the formal accession of Iraq to NATO’s “partnership family”. This accord reflects NATO’s commitment to the growing role Iraq plays in building regional stability, peace and democracy. The main areas of cooperation include education and training, response to terrorism, counter-IED, explosive ordnance disposal, defence Institution building and communication strategy.
NATO cooperation with Japan

Japan is the longest-standing of NATO’s “partners across the globe”. Building on initial contacts in the early 1990s, dialogue on common security interests has become more regular and structured. Practical cooperation has been developed in a wide range of areas, including peace-support and crisis-management activities, humanitarian assistance and disaster relief, cyber defence, defence against terrorism, non-proliferation, as well as participation in military activities. Stabilising Afghanistan has been a key focus of cooperation over the past decade. NATO and Japan signalled their commitment to strengthen cooperation in a joint political declaration signed in April 2013, during the visit of NATO’s Secretary General to Japan.

The joint political declaration demonstrates how far the relationship between NATO and Japan has been taken in recent years. It sets out shared strategic interests in promoting global peace, stability and prosperity through pursuing a rules-based international order. It also outlines areas where Japan and NATO can develop closer cooperation, such as crisis management, peace-support operations and disaster-relief efforts, as well as defending against emerging threats from missiles, pirates, or in cyberspace.

Japan is one of a range of countries beyond the Euro-Atlantic area, which share similar strategic concerns and key Alliance values and with which NATO is developing relations.

NATO’s 2010 Strategic Concept paved the way for a more flexible partnership policy offering all partners the same basis of cooperation and dialogue. Choosing from the wide range of cooperation activities available in the Partnership Cooperation Menu, Japan concluded an Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme with NATO on 6 May 2014 - a programme that is tailored to its interests and formalises its relations with the Alliance.

Practical cooperation

Japan has provided much-valued support for the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) and for reconstruction and development efforts in Afghanistan. Japan helped mobilise international support for Afghanistan’s ongoing development by organising the Tokyo Conference in July 2012 and has itself pledged US$5 billion to this end over a five-year period (2009-2013).

In the past, Japan supported efforts to disarm, demobilise and reintegrate former combatants, and it continues to support efforts to reintegrate insurgents under the Afghanistan Peace and Reintegration Program, to which Japan has contributed US$52 million.

Japan has also provided financial support to human security projects in numerous regions of Afghanistan since 2007. Facilitated by ISAF, the Provincial Reconstruction Teams (PRTs) identify critical areas for Japan’s Grant Assistance for Grassroots Projects (GAGP). In 2009, Japan appointed liaison officers to the Lithuanian PRT in Chaghcharan and the Swedish PRT in Mazar-e Sharif to support these programmes. They also maintained a direct presence in the office of the NATO Senior Civilian Representative in Afghanistan to help coordinate the US$20 million worth of GAGP funding.

Moreover, Japan has made valuable contributions to the Afghan National Army (ANA) Trust Fund aimed at equipping and sustaining the ANA, including US$20 million for literacy programmes as well as funds to procure medical supplies. Additionally, Japan has made generous contributions to a
NATO/Partnership Trust Fund project in Afghanistan with a view to enhancing stockpile management and physical security of ammunitions.

Japan has also been contributing generously to the Law and Order Trust Fund for Afghanistan (LOTFA) since 2007, mainly to support the salaries and training of Afghan police. Donations over the three-year period from 2010 to 2012 amounted to almost US$600 million.

Japan has supported similar Trust Fund projects in other partner countries. It is supporting an ammunition stockpile-management project in Tajikistan, the destruction of pesticides in Moldova and the clearance of an ammunition depot in Georgia. It also contributed to a project to clear 571 hectares of contaminated land and safely dispose of unexploded ordnance in Azerbaijan and has been supporting a similar Trust Fund project in Azerbaijan since 2011.

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.

More recently, Japan’s Maritime Self Defence Force has assisted NATO ships with preventing pirate attacks in the Gulf of Aden.

Dialogue
A strategic dialogue involving high-level discussions held alternatively in Japan and at NATO Headquarters in Brussels has been ongoing since the early 1990s. Initial exchanges led to more structured and regular contact.

NATO’s Secretary General visited Tokyo in April 2005 and again in December 2007. In January 2007, during his first term as Prime Minister, Shinzo Abe addressed the North Atlantic Council (NAC). Japanese Foreign Minister Takeaki Matsumoto visited NATO Headquarters in May 2011 and met the current Secretary General, Anders Fogh Rasmussen. The Secretary General visited Japan again in April 2013 for talks with Prime Minister Shinzo Abe and top officials in his government on security issues of shared concern as well as opportunities for deeper cooperation. In May 2014, Prime Minister Shinzo Abe returned to NATO Headquarters in Brussels to hold discussions with the Secretary General and address the NAC. It was during this visit that Japan’s Individual Partnership Cooperation Programme was concluded.

Demonstrating the deepening of relations between NATO and Japan in recent years, Japanese officials have participated in a number of informal exchanges of views with Allies on security issues of mutual interest, such as North Korea, assistance to Afghanistan, cooperation with Central Asia, missile defence and counter-piracy.
NATO cooperation with the Republic of Korea

The Republic of Korea is one of NATO’s “partners across the globe”. Building on dialogue and cooperation that has been developed since 2005, relations were deepened with the signature of an Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme in September 2012. Stabilising Afghanistan has been an important focus of cooperation in recent years, notably with the deployment by the Republic of Korea of a large contingent to support the NATO-led operation there.

NATO is developing relations with a range of countries beyond the Euro-Atlantic area, which share similar strategic concerns and key Alliance values. The Alliance’s Strategic Concept, adopted at the 2010 Lisbon Summit, paved the way for a more flexible partnership policy offering all partners the same basis of cooperation and dialogue. The establishment of a single Partnership Cooperation Menu open to all NATO partners enabled the Republic of Korea to access a wide range of cooperation activities with the Alliance and to formalise its relations with NATO through the development of an Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme tailored to the country’s interests.

The new partnership programme approved in September 2012 promotes political dialogue and practical cooperation in a number of joint priority areas, including response to terrorism, multinational peace-support operations and enhancing interoperability, as well as cooperation under NATO’s Science for Peace and Security Programme.

Practical cooperation

The Republic of Korea is a significant contributor to stabilisation efforts in Afghanistan. From 2010 to 2013, the country led an integrated civilian-military Provincial Reconstruction Team (PRT) 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. As part of the process of transitioning responsibility for security in Afghanistan to Afghan lead, the PRT was phased out and its responsibilities handed over to Afghan authorities. Much of the Korean contingent was reinvested in Bagram, instead of being withdrawn.

At the meeting of the foreign ministers of ISAF contributing nations in April 2011, the Republic of Korea announced its plan to contribute a generous US$ 500 million over five years to support the development of the Afghan National Security Forces and the socio-economic development of Afghanistan. Under this commitment, some US$75 million has been donated to the Afghan National Army Trust Fund between 2011 and 2012.

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.

Political dialogue

NATO and the Republic of Korea initiated dialogue in 2005. At that time, the then Foreign Minister Ban Ki-Moon addressed the North Atlantic Council. Since then, relations have evolved through regular high-level dialogue with the Republic of Korea’s authorities.
In November 2012, NATO Assistant Secretary General for Political Affairs and Security Policy Dirk Brengelmann travelled to Seoul to hold the fifth round of annual high-level staff talks with the foreign ministry, which focused on taking forward the implementation of the Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme.

In April 2013, NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen paid a three-day visit to the Republic of Korea, for talks with President Park Guen-hye and key members of her government to explore opportunities for expanding cooperation. During his trip, the Secretary General reiterated NATO’s strong condemnation of North Korea’s provocative rhetoric and actions, which pose a serious threat to regional and international peace, security and stability, and ended his trip with a short visit to the Demilitarized Zone.
NATO’s cooperation 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 is also being prepared for consideration to be part of the network of Partnership Training and Education Centres.

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.
NATO cooperation with New Zealand

In addition to its partnership frameworks, NATO cooperates with a range of countries on a bilateral basis. Referred to as “partners across the globe,” they share similar strategic concerns and key Alliance values. Australia, Japan, the Republic of Korea and New Zealand are all examples of global partners. The Strategic Concept adopted at the 2010 Lisbon Summit paved the way for a more flexible partnership policy offering all partners the same basis of cooperation and dialogue.

NATO and New Zealand have had regular contact since 2001. During her term in office, former Prime Minister Helen Clark came regularly to NATO Headquarters. Former New Zealand Foreign Minister Phil Goff met the then Secretary General Lord Robertson twice, and regular exchanges have continued since then.

In February 2011, NATO’s Deputy Secretary General travelled to New Zealand, where he held discussions with Minister of Foreign Affairs Murray McCully, Minister of Defence Wayne Mapp, Chief of Defence Force R. R. Jones, and other officials. The Prime Minister is expected to come to NATO Headquarters in early June 2012.

Practical cooperation

New Zealand contributes to the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan, where the country leads a Provincial Reconstruction Team (PRT) in Bamyan. In July 2011, Bamyan became the first of seven areas to transition to Afghan leadership under a plan announced by President Karzai in March 2011. New Zealand continues to contribute to ISAF including with the New Zealand National Support Element (NSE) based at Bagram Air Force Base (BAF).

This is not the country’s first troop contribution, as several New Zealand officers served in the NATO-led Stabilization Force (SFOR) in Bosnia and Herzegovina. In fact, New Zealand continues to support the EU-led force that took over from NATO. New Zealand is involved in meetings and discussions related to ISAF operations, at ministerial, heads of state and government and working level. On that basis, the then Prime Minister Helen Clark attended the meeting of ISAF troop-contributing nations that took place at the Bucharest Summit in April 2008. Foreign Minister Murray McCully participated in such discussions at the Lisbon Summit in November 2010.

The Allies and New Zealand have also moved forward on other areas such as arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation, disaster relief and crisis management, and education and training. New Zealand also participates in a number of technical activities, primarily focused on areas related to peace support operations.

1. The Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, the Partnership for Peace, the Mediterranean Dialogue and the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative.
NATO’s relations with Pakistan

Over recent years, NATO has developed relations with a range of countries beyond the Euro-Atlantic area. Pakistan is counted among these countries, which are referred to as “partners across the globe.” NATO’s relations with the country have developed progressively since the Alliance assisted Pakistan following the devastating earthquake in 2005. Political dialogue and practical cooperation have since expanded significantly, in particular on Afghanistan. Allied nations and Pakistan share a common interest in stability in the region and in defeating extremism.

With NATO leading the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF), Afghanistan is an important focus of cooperation (see below), especially regarding the shared objective of bringing security and stability to the country. Several high-level political talks between NATO and Pakistan have also addressed other areas of concern, including narcotics trafficking in Afghanistan and Afghan refugees. Allied leaders at the May 2012 NATO Summit in Chicago reaffirmed that “countries in the region, particularly Pakistan, have important roles in ensuring enduring peace, stability and security in Afghanistan and in facilitating the completion of the transition process.”

NATO-Pakistan relations go beyond the Alliance’s mission in Afghanistan. NATO and Pakistan have developed regular exchanges at various levels, including visits by senior officials and leaders in civil society. High-level political exchanges have taken place, including visits by the former and current NATO Secretary General. President Asif Ali Zardari has previously visited NATO Headquarters to address the North Atlantic Council on his vision for cooperation. Military consultations also take place, and NATO has opened selected training and education courses to Pakistani officers. Secretary General Rasmussen visited Islamabad in July 2010, when it was agreed to develop a Joint Political Declaration. However, developments in the country and the 26 November 2011 incident along the Afghan-Pakistani border hampered progress. President Zardari’s participation in the ISAF meeting at the Chicago Summit on 21 May 2012 highlighted efforts on both sides to restore a full-fledged relationship.

Past interactions have provided opportunities to support the democratically elected authorities, cooperate with the military, build trust and understanding, and promote a culture of cooperative security focused on areas of common interest, such as regional stability and the fight against terrorism. NATO also aims to multiply interactions with parliamentarians, opinion leaders and the civil society at large to encourage dialogue on NATO’s policies.

The Allies’ adoption of a more efficient and flexible partnership policy in April 2011 paved the way to enhance practical cooperation and political dialogue with “partners across the globe” in the same fashion as with other partners. This means that Pakistan, like other partners, will have access to NATO’s Partnership Cooperation Menu (PCM) should the country wish to develop a formal bilateral programme of cooperation with NATO.

Cooperation on Afghanistan
Instability, extremism and terrorism in Afghanistan pose a threat to both Pakistan and the wider international community. As Pakistan’s then Prime Minister Shaukat Aziz put it during a visit to NATO on 30 January 2007, “Pakistan is committed to a strong, stable Afghanistan. The one country that will
benefit the most, after Afghanistan itself, will be Pakistan.” Although Pakistan has expressed reservations with some operational issues, dialogue on Afghanistan is continuing with the Alliance.

Pakistan’s support for the efforts of NATO and the international community in Afghanistan remains crucial to the success of the Alliance’s mission. In early July 2012, NATO’s Secretary General welcomed Pakistan’s announcement that the ground supply lines to Afghanistan – which had been closed since November 2011 – were re-opening, allowing for the resumption of the transit of ISAF supplies through Pakistan.

The work of the Tripartite Commission, a joint forum on military and security issues that brings together representatives from the NATO-led ISAF operation, Afghanistan and Pakistan, reflects the importance of NATO-Pakistan military-to-military cooperation in the context of Afghanistan. The Tripartite Commission meets regularly at various levels to exchange views and discuss security matters of mutual concern. It focuses on four main areas of cooperation: intelligence sharing, border security, countering improvised explosive devices (IEDs) and initiatives relating to information operations. The Joint Intelligence Operations Centre (JIOC), a joint initiative designed to improve intelligence coordination between Afghanistan, ISAF and Pakistan, opened in Kabul in January 2007.

Evolution of relations

After a devastating earthquake struck Pakistan in October 2005, NATO launched an airlift of urgently needed supplies and deployed engineers, medical units and specialist equipment to the country. In order to facilitate the relief effort, NATO established a massive air-bridge, in addition to utilizing the assets of the NATO Response Force (NRF).

Following the end of the mission in February 2006, political dialogue between NATO and Pakistan intensified. Practical cooperation has gradually enhanced the relationship, starting with the opening of NATO training courses to Pakistani officers. Since 2009, NATO has developed a Tailored Cooperative Package (TCP) of Activities, listing a series of education and training opportunities open to Pakistani officers and representatives. Contacts between the Pakistani senior military leadership and NATO’s authorities were also intensified in this context. In addition, NATO recently organised multiple activities aimed at making its role clearer to the Pakistani public, including visits of parliamentarians, opinion leaders and journalists.

Pakistan and NATO’s relationship continued to develop during devastating floods along the Indus River in July 2010. Responding to a request from Pakistan for help, NATO member nations, partner countries and other non-governmental organizations donated several hundred tonnes of humanitarian aid in the form of generators, food, boats, tents, clothing, medical equipment and supplies, field hospitals, blankets, mosquito nets and water purification systems. Coordinated by NATO’s Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC), the Alliance provided airlift and sealift assistance, starting in August 2010, for the delivery of the donated goods.

At their meeting in Berlin in April 2011, Allied Foreign Ministers listed Pakistan as one of NATO’s partners across the globe. As such, in the framework of the establishment of a single Partnership Cooperation Menu (PCM) open to all NATO partners, Pakistan will be able to access a wide range of cooperation activities with the Alliance and develop a more effective individual programme.
Milestones

2005

(March) Visit to Pakistan by Ambassador Alessandro Minuto Rizzo, NATO Deputy Assistant Secretary General.

(October) Start of Pakistan earthquake relief operation; NATO airlifts supplies via two air bridges, from Germany and Turkey.

(December) General Ahsan Saleem Hyat, Vice Chief of Pakistani Army Staff, visits NATO teams at Arja, Pakistan.

2006

(January) End of NATO’s earthquake relief operation in Pakistan. Almost 3500 tons of relief supplies, over 7600 people moved, more than 8000 patients treated. In addition, roads cleared, schools and shelters built.

(May) Alliance officials visit Pakistani President Pervez Musharraf and other officials in Islamabad.

(September) First Pakistani military officers and civilians attend courses at NATO School in Oberammergau, Germany.

(November) First visit by top Pakistani officer, General Ehsan ul Haq, Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, to NATO Headquarters.

2007

(January) Opening of Joint Intelligence Operations Centre (JIOC) at ISAF HQ. The JIOC facilitates joint intelligence operations between ISAF and the Pakistani and Afghan armies.

(January) Visit to NATO by Prime Minister of Pakistan; NATO and Pakistan agree on Afghanistan approach.

(February) Visit of high-level Pakistani civil and military officials, as well as representatives of the think-tank community, to NATO HQ and commands.

(May) First visit by a NATO Secretary General to Pakistan. NATO and Pakistan agree to hold regular high-level political exchanges.

2008

(January) NATO Secretary General Jaap de Hoop Scheffer met President Pervez Musharraf in Brussels to discuss current security situation in the region and cooperation between NATO and Pakistan.

(January) A visit by the Senate’s Joint Standing Committee on Defence was organised to NATO HQ and SHAPE. Pakistani parliamentarians have also been invited by the NPA to its plenary meetings including in Berlin and Valencia

(November) Pakistani Chief of Army Staff General Ashfaq Parvez Kayani meets NATO Secretary General at NATO Headquarters.

2009

(January) NATO Secretary General Jaap de Hoop Scheffer visits Pakistan for meetings with President Zardari, Prime Minister Gilani, Foreign Minister Qureshi, Defence Minister Mukhtar and General Kayani, Chief of the General Staff, as well as
other senior officials.

(January) The North Atlantic Council agree on the role of the Embassy of Turkey in Islamabad as the NATO Contact Point Embassy in Pakistan. This crucial step complements the practical cooperation framework to facilitate political exchange and working-level coordination.

(May) Pakistani Chief of Army Staff General Kayani visits NATO Headquarters for meetings with NATO’s civilian and military leadership.

(June) President of Pakistan Asif Ali Zardari visits NATO Headquarters for a meeting with the North Atlantic Council – the first elected President of Pakistan to address the Council.

(August) A group of Pakistani opinion leaders visits NATO Headquarters and SHAPE.

(October) A seminar on Pakistan is held, at which international experts on the country engage in discussion with NATO Ambassadors.

(December) NATO and Pakistan establish an annual work programme or Individual Tailored Cooperation Package (TCP) of activities which provides the basis for practical cooperation.

2010

(February) Pakistani Minister of Foreign Affairs, Shah Mahmood Qureshi, meets the Secretary General and addresses the North Atlantic Council.

(June) Pakistani Prime Minister Yousuf Raza Gilani, accompanied by a large government and parliamentary delegation, meet the Secretary General and address the North Atlantic Council.

(July) First visit by NATO Secretary General Rasmussen to Islamabad, during which an agreement is reached with the Government of Pakistan to jointly develop a political declaration as a framework for partnership.

(August) Following Pakistan’s request for help, NATO begins providing airlift and sealift assistance for the transport of humanitarian aid donated after the country’s devastating floods. More than 700 tons of humanitarian items have been delivered on some 19 flights to assist the Pakistani population.

2011

(September) EADRCC is activated at Pakistan’s request in response to monsoon floods.

(November) Pakistan closes ground communication lines for ISAF transit following an incident along the Afghan-Pakistani border.

2012

(May) President Zardari participates in the extended format ISAF meeting at NATO’s Chicago Summit.

(July) Pakistan announces the re-opening of ground supply lines to Afghanistan for the transit of ISAF supplies.
The wider institutional framework

A "comprehensive approach" to crises

NATO’s 2010 Strategic Concept underlines that lessons learned from NATO operations show that effective crisis management calls for a comprehensive approach involving political, civilian and military instruments. Military means, although essential, are not enough on their own to meet the many complex challenges to Euro-Atlantic and international security. Allied leaders agreed at the Lisbon Summit in November 2010 to enhance NATO’s contribution to a comprehensive approach to crisis management as part of the international community’s effort and to improve NATO’s ability to contribute to stabilisation and reconstruction. At the Chicago Summit (May 2012), Allies agreed to establish “an appropriate but modest” civilian crisis-management capability at NATO Headquarters and within Allied Command Operations (SHAPE).

The effective implementation of a comprehensive approach requires all actors to contribute in a concerted effort, 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.

NATO is improving its own crisis-management instruments and has reached out to strengthen its ability to work with partner countries, international organisations, non-governmental organisations and local authorities. In particular, NATO is building closer partnerships with actors that have experience and skills in areas such as institution building, development, governance, the judiciary and the police. These actors include the United Nations (UN), the European Union (EU), the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), the African Union (AU), the World Bank and some non-governmental organisations.

In March 2011, NATO agreed on an updated list of tasks to update its Comprehensive Approach Action Plan. These tasks are being implemented by a dedicated civilian-military task force that involves all relevant NATO bodies and commands. Building on experiences from the Western Balkans, Afghanistan and Libya, NATO’s working methods (both internal and those used to work with external partners) are being adapted across all NATO activities to meet the requirements of a comprehensive approach to crisis situations.

Four key areas of work

The implementation of NATO’s contribution to a comprehensive approach is a permanent feature of the Alliance’s work. NATO is working to make improvements in several key areas of work including the planning and conduct of operations; lessons learned, training, education and exercises; cooperation with external actors; and public messaging.

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 and its ability to contribute, when required, to stabilisation and reconstruction, Allies agreed to form an appropriate but modest civilian capability to interact more effectively with other actors and conduct appropriate planning in crisis management. Moreover, a Comprehensive Approach Specialist Support (COMPASS) programme was set up in 2009 to build up a database of national civil experts in three main fields – political, stabilisation and reconstruction, and media – to be drawn upon for advice at the strategic, operational and theatre levels.

**Lessons learned, training, education and exercises**

Applying a comprehensive approach means a change of mindset. The Alliance is therefore emphasising joint training of civilian and military personnel. This promotes the sharing of lessons learned and also helps build trust and confidence between NATO, its partners and other international and local actors, which in turn encourages better coordination. In some cases, lessons learned are being developed at staff level with the UN, for example, related to Libya and Kosovo.

NATO also regularly invites international organisations to participate in NATO exercises to share knowledge about Alliance procedures for crisis response as well as share views and perspectives.

**Enhancing cooperation with external actors**

NATO is actively building closer links with other organisations and actors on a regular basis while respecting the autonomy of decision making of each organisation.

Cooperation has become well established with the UN, UN agencies, the EU and the OSCE, in particular, as well as with the World Bank, the ICRC, the International Organization for Migration, the AU, INTERPOL and the League of Arab States. This takes the form of staff talks, staff-to-staff contacts at various levels, high-level exchanges, ‘NATO education days’ and workshops. At the Wales Summit in September 2014 for instance, NATO Foreign Ministers held for the first time a meeting with the EU High Representative for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy, the OSCE Chairman-in-Office and the Secretary General of the Council of Europe to discuss closer cooperation and issues of common concern.

**Public messaging**

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.
NATO’s 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.

NATO’s 2010 Strategic Concept commits the Alliance to prevent crises, manage conflicts and stabilise post-conflict situations, including by working more closely with NATO’s international partners, most importantly the UN and the European Union.

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.

Over the years, NATO-UN cooperation has been extended beyond operations to include consultations between NATO and UN specialised bodies and agencies on issues such as crisis assessment and management, civil-military cooperation, training and education, logistics, combating human trafficking, mine action, civilian capabilities, women, peace and security, arms control and non-proliferation, and the fight against terrorism.

The complexity of today’s security challenges has required a broader dialogue between NATO and the UN. In 2010, following the signing of the 2008 UN-NATO declaration on cooperation, 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. This enhanced cooperation is an integral part of NATO’s contribution to a Comprehensive Approach to crisis management and operations.

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.

Cooperation is being further developed on issues of common interest, including in communication and information-sharing; capacity-building, training and exercises; lessons learned, planning and support for contingencies; and operational coordination and support.

Cooperation continues to develop in a practical way, taking into account each organisation’s specific mandate, expertise, procedures and capabilities. There are regular exchanges and dialogue at senior and working levels on political and operational issues. 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 in the area of crisis management and in the fight against terrorism. In recent years, staff-level meetings and high-level visits have become more frequent. 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 take place on an annual
basis between the Secretariats of NATO and the UN. Similar meetings also take place with other UN organisations, such as the UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), and NATO experts participate in events organised by other UN bodies.

As detailed below, NATO contributes to the work of a number of UN committees and bodies set up to address the challenges of terrorism; the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and their means of delivery; promoting the rights and role of women in conflict; the protection of civilians, including protection of children affected by armed conflict; the illicit trade in small arms and light weapons; and disaster relief.

**Key areas of cooperation**

**Counter-terrorism**
NATO contributes actively to the work of the UN Counter-Terrorism Committee (UN CTC) – established in accordance with UN Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1373 in the aftermath of the 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States – and participates in special meetings of the Committee bringing together international, regional and sub-regional organisations involved in this process. NATO and the UN conduct reciprocal briefings on progress in the area of counter-terrorism, in their respective committees. NATO is also committed to supporting the UN Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy.

**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 seminars with the active participation of partner countries and international organisations. In addition, NATO addresses the implementation of UNSCR 1540 at regional and sub-regional levels in order to better identify the real needs of countries for assistance.

**Women, peace and security**
NATO remains committed to the full implementation of UNSCR 1325 on Women, Peace and Security and related Resolutions, which are aimed at protecting and promoting women’s rights, role and participation in preventing and ending conflict. In line with the NATO/Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council Policy, the Alliance has together with its partners made significant progress in implementing the goals set out in these Resolutions. In this regard, NATO has endorsed a Strategic Progress Report on mainstreaming UNSCR 1325 and related Resolutions into NATO-led operations and missions. Furthermore, in August 2012, the NATO Secretary General appointed a NATO Special Representative for these issues. In this context and to further advance this work, the Allies have tasked the North Atlantic Council to continue implementing the Policy and the Action Plan; undertake a review of the practical implications of UNSCR 1325 for the conduct of NATO operations and missions; and further integrate gender perspectives into Alliance activities.

**Protecting children in armed conflict**
NATO also remains committed to the implementation of UNSCR 1612 and related Resolutions on the protection of children affected by armed conflict. At the 2012 NATO Summit in Chicago, NATO leaders expressed their concern at the growing range of threats to children in armed conflict and strongly condemned that they are increasingly subject to recruitment, sexual violence and targeted
attacks. NATO-led operations, such as the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan, are taking an active role in preventing, monitoring and responding to violations against children, including through pre-deployment training and a violations alert mechanism. This approach, based on practical field-oriented measures, demonstrates NATO’s firm commitment on this issue, as does the recent appointment of a NATO Focal Point for Children and Armed Conflict in charge of maintaining a close dialogue with the UN. NATO-UN cooperation in this field is creating a set of good practices to be integrated in NATO training modules and taken into account in possible future operations.

**Small arms and light weapons**

NATO also contributes 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, adopted in July 2001 by nearly 150 countries, including all NATO member states. It consists of measures at the national, regional and global levels in the areas of legislation, destruction of weapons that have been 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. Every two years, the UN holds the Biennial Meeting of States to Consider the Implementation of the Programme of Action. Through the Ad Hoc Working Group on SALW, established in 1999 within the framework of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, NATO supports the implementation of the Programme of Action with outreach activities, including at regional and sub-regional level.

**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 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 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 states 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 United Nations 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 fulfill this mandate in December 1995. One year later, it was replaced by a 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 former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia¹.

**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 work closely with the United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan (UNAMA) and other international actors that are supporting governance, reconstruction and development. The close cooperation takes place in various settings, in Afghanistan as well as in UN and NATO capitals. It includes co-membership of the Joint Co-ordination 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 are also consulting closely on their respective postures in Afghanistan. NATO is keeping the UN well informed of the planning for the NATO-led train, advise, and assist mission that is set to begin in January 2015.
**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 African Union’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 African Union in 2007, NATO accepted to assist the African Union 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 African Union via a Senior Military Liaison Office in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The Alliance also protects UN shipping in support of AMISOM.

**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, 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 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.

1. Turkey recognizes the Republic of Macedonia with its constitutional name.

**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 protect each other, setting a spirit of solidarity within the Alliance.
NATO-EU: a strategic partnership

Sharing strategic interests, NATO and the European Union cooperate on issues of common interest and are working side by side in crisis management, capability development and political consultations. The European Union is a unique and essential partner for NATO. The two organisations share a majority of members (22), and all members of both organisations share common values.

Institutionalised relations between NATO and the European Union (EU) were launched in 2001, building on steps taken during the 1990s to promote greater European responsibility in defence matters (NATO-Western European Union cooperation). The political principles underlying the relationship were set out in the December 2002 NATO-EU Declaration on a European Security and Defence Policy (ESDP). The declaration also reaffirmed EU assured access to NATO’s planning capabilities for the EU’s own military operations. Later, 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.

With the enlargement of both organisations in 2004 followed by the accession of Bulgaria, Romania and Croatia to the EU, NATO and the European Union now have 22 member countries in common.

At the Lisbon Summit in November 2010, the Allies underlined their determination to improve the NATO-EU strategic partnership. This was reinforced by NATO’s 2010 Strategic Concept which commits the Alliance to prevent crises, manage conflicts and stabilise post-conflict situations, including by working more closely with NATO’s international partners, most importantly the United Nations and its strategic partner - the EU.

NATO’s Strategic Concept clearly states that an active and effective EU contributes to the overall security of the Euro-Atlantic area. The European Union’s Lisbon Treaty (in force end 2009) provides a framework for strengthening the EU’s capacities to address common security challenges. 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.

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. The Chicago Summit in May 2012 reiterated these principles by underlining that NATO and the EU share common values and strategic interests. Fully strengthening this strategic partnership is particularly important in the current environment of austerity. In this context, the NATO Secretary General engages actively with his EU counterparts and has addressed the European Parliament’s Foreign Affairs Committee in joint session with the sub-committee on Security and Defence on numerous occasions.

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.
2. 28 NATO member countries: Albania, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, 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, the United Kingdom.

**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 European Union and NATO; respect for the interests of EU and NATO members 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 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.
Cooperation in the field

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 former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia

On 31 March 2003, the EU-led Operation Concordia took over the responsibilities of the NATO-led mission, Operation Allied Harmony, in 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 European Union.

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 European Union 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 NATO Deputy Supreme Allied Commander Europe 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 European Union 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 in Kosovo (EULEX), 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

NATO and the EU are playing key roles in bringing peace and stability to Afghanistan, within the international community’s broader efforts to implement a comprehensive approach in their efforts to assist the country. The NATO-led International Security Assistance Force helps create a stable and secure environment in which the Afghan government as well as other international actors can build democratic institutions, extend the rule of law and reconstruct the country. NATO welcomed the EU’s launch of a CSDP Rule of Law Mission (EUPOL) in June 2007. The European Union has also initiated a programme for justice reform and is helping to fund civilian projects in NATO-run Provincial Reconstruction Teams (PRTs) that are 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
Since September 2008, NATO and EU naval forces are deployed side by side (respectively Ocean Shield and EUNAVFOR Atalanta), with other actors, off the coast of Somalia for anti-piracy missions.

3. Turkey recognises the Republic of Macedonia with its constitutional name.

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 European Union 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 European Union are committed to combat 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 (CBRN) attacks. The two organisations also cooperate in the field of civil emergency planning by exchanging inventories of measures taken in this area.

New areas of cooperation
Since the adoption of NATO’s new Strategic Concept at the Lisbon Summit in November 2010, which identifies the need for the Alliance to address emerging security challenges, several new areas of cooperation with the EU are taking place, in particular energy security issues and cyber defence. In this context, NATO and EU staffs have been holding consultations in order to identify the specific areas in which the two organisations could enhance their cooperation in these fields.
Participation
The organisations have 22 member countries in common. Albania, Canada, Iceland, 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.

However, Cyprus which is not a PfP member and does not have a security agreement with NATO on the exchange of classified documents, cannot participate in official NATO-EU meetings. This is a consequence of decisions taken by NATO in December 2002. Informal meetings including Cyprus take place occasionally at different levels.

Key milestones
Feb 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 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).

Jan 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 Common Foreign and Security Policy. 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".

**Dec 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**

European Council meeting in Cologne decides "to give the European Union the necessary means and capabilities to assume its responsibilities regarding a common European policy on security and defence".

**Dec 1999**

At the Helsinki Council meeting, EU members establish military "headline goals" to allow the EU, by 2003, to deploy up to 60,000 troops 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.

**Sep 2000**

The North Atlantic Council and the interim Political and Security Committee of the European Union meet for the first time to take stock of progress in NATO-EU relations.

**Dec 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).

**Jan 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.
<table>
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<th>Date</th>
<th>Event Description</th>
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<td>May 2001</td>
<td>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.</td>
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<td>Nov 2002</td>
<td>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.</td>
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<td>Dec 2002</td>
<td>EU-NATO Declaration on ESDP.</td>
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<td>March 2003</td>
<td>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 former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia.</td>
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<tr>
<td>May 2003</td>
<td>First meeting of the NATO-EU Capability Group.</td>
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<td>July 2003</td>
<td>Development of a common strategy for the Western Balkans.</td>
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<td>Nov 2003</td>
<td>First joint NATO-EU crisis-management exercise.</td>
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<td>Feb 2004</td>
<td>France, Germany and the United Kingdom launch the idea of EU rapid-reaction units composed of joint battle groups.</td>
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<td>Dec 2004</td>
<td>Beginning of the EU-led Operation Althea in Bosnia and Herzegovina.</td>
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<td>Sep 2005</td>
<td>Transatlantic (NATO-EU) informal ministerial dinner (New York).</td>
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<td>Oct 2005</td>
<td>Agreement on Military Permanent Arrangements establishing a NATO Permanent Liaison Team at EUMS and an EU cell at SHAPE.</td>
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Nov 2005  
NATO Permanent Liaison Team set up at the EU Military Staff.

March 2006  
EU cell set up at SHAPE.

April 2006  
Transatlantic informal ministerial dinner gathering NATO and EU Foreign Affairs ministers (Sofia)

Sep 2006  
Transatlantic informal ministerial dinner gathering NATO and EU Foreign Affairs ministers (New York)

Jan 2007  
Transatlantic informal ministerial dinner gathering NATO and EU Foreign Affairs ministers (Brussels)

April 2007  
Transatlantic informal ministerial dinner gathering NATO and EU Foreign Affairs ministers (Oslo)

Sep 2007  
Transatlantic informal ministerial dinner gathering NATO and EU Foreign Affairs ministers (New York)

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March 2009  
Transatlantic informal ministerial dinner gathering NATO and EU Foreign Affairs ministers (Brussels)
Sep 2010  Transatlantic informal ministerial dinner gathering NATO and EU Foreign Affairs ministers (New York)

Dec 2010  At the Lisbon Summit in November 2010, 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 to enhance the NATO-EU cooperation.

Sep 2011  Transatlantic informal ministerial dinner gathering NATO and EU Foreign Affairs ministers (New York)

Sep 2012  Transatlantic informal ministerial dinner gathering NATO and EU Foreign Affairs ministers (New York)

Feb 2013  On 11 February, the 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.

Dec 2013  The Secretary General addresses the European Council in Brussels.

March 2014  On 5 March, NATO and EU Political and Security Committee (PSC) Ambassadors hold informal talks on Ukraine.

June 2014  On 10 June, NATO and EU PSC Ambassadors hold more informal talks on Ukraine.

3. Turkey recognises the Republic of Macedonia with its constitutional name.
NATO’s relations with the OSCE

NATO and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) work together to build security and promote stability in the Euro-Atlantic area. They cooperate at both the political and the operational level in areas such as conflict prevention and resolution, post-conflict rehabilitation, crisis management, as well as in addressing new security challenges.

At the political level, NATO and the OSCE consult each other on thematic and regional security issues of common interest such as border security and disarmament. At the operational level, cooperation in conflict prevention, crisis management and post-conflict rehabilitation has been particularly active in the Western Balkans.

The two organisations complement each other’s efforts on the ground. NATO initiatives to support defence reform, including arms control, mine clearance and the destruction of stockpiles of arms and munitions, dovetail with OSCE efforts aimed at preventing conflict and restoring stability after conflict. Close cooperation between NATO and the OSCE is an important element in the development of an international “Comprehensive Approach” to crisis management, which requires the effective application of both military and civilian means. At the Lisbon Summit in 2010, the Allies decided to enhance NATO’s contribution to a comprehensive approach to crisis management as part of the international community’s effort and to improve NATO’s ability to deliver stabilisation and reconstruction effects.

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. Encompassing the political/military, economic/environmental and human dimensions, the OSCE plays an important role in promoting security and cooperation. The Allies aim to further enhance NATO’s cooperation with the OSCE.

Political dialogue

NATO and the OSCE regularly exchange views and information on key security-related issues such as border security, disarmament, arms control (in particular, controlling the spread of small arms and light weapons), energy security and terrorism. The two organisations also cooperate on environmental issues that are a threat to security, stability and peace through the Environment and Security Initiative (ENVSEC)¹.

In recent years, dialogue has expanded to include terrorism and other emerging security challenges, which are among the priority areas for each of the two organisations. Following the Prague Summit in 2002 – when NATO Allies expressed their desire to exploit the complementarity of international efforts aimed at reinforcing stability in the Mediterranean region – NATO and the OSCE began developing closer contacts regarding their respective dialogues with countries in the region.

Political relations between NATO and the OSCE are governed today by the "Platform for Co-operative Security", which was launched by the OSCE in 1999 at the NATO Istanbul Summit. Via the Platform, the OSCE called upon the international organisations whose members adhere to its principles and commitments, to reinforce their cooperation and to draw upon the resources of the international community in order to restore democracy, prosperity and stability in Europe and beyond.
Since the Platform was adopted, experts from both NATO and the OSCE have met regularly to discuss operational and political issues of common interest in the areas of conflict prevention, crisis management and post-conflict reconstruction operations. Moreover, in December 2003, the OSCE’s "Strategy to Address Threats to Security and Stability in the 21st Century" recalls the need – in a constantly changing security environment – to interact with other organisations and institutions taking advantage of the assets and strengths of each other.

Dialogue also takes place at a higher political level. The NATO Secretary General is occasionally invited to speak at the OSCE Annual Security Review Conference. The OSCE Secretary General addressed the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) Ambassadors meeting in 2007 and 2008. NATO regularly participates in the annual meetings of the OSCE Ministerial Council, as an observer. The OSCE Chairperson-in-Office is also invited to some of the meetings held at NATO Headquarters in Brussels.

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 United Nations (UN) Development Programme, the UN Economic Commission for Europe and the UN Environment Programme.

Cooperation in the Western Balkans

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 United Nations Security Council Resolution (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 implementation of the civilian aspects of the peace agreements.

NATO assisted the OSCE in its work in the area of arms control and confidence and security-building measures in the country. By providing security for OSCE personnel and humanitarian assistance, NATO has, inter alia, contributed to the proper conduct of elections under OSCE auspices.

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 United Nations Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK). It is tasked, among other things, with supervising the progress of democratisation, building of institutions, and the 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.
NATO also had close cooperation with the OSCE in 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.

Border security

NATO and the OSCE also 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 aimed at enhancing 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 now been extended to Central Asia, where the two organisations carry out complementary projects and programmes.

2. Turkey recognizes the Republic of Macedonia with its constitutional name.
Cooperation with parliamentary and non-governmental organisations

The NATO Parliamentary Assembly

NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg addressing NATO Parliamentary Assembly in The Hague (November 2014)

The NATO Parliamentary Assembly is an interparliamentary organization, which brings together legislators from NATO member countries to consider security-related issues of common interest and concern.

The Assembly is completely independent of NATO but provides a link between NATO and the parliaments of its member countries, helping to build parliamentary and public consensus in support of Alliance policies.

Since the 1980s the NATO Parliamentary Assembly (NATO PA) has assumed additional roles by integrating into its work parliamentarians from NATO partner countries in Europe and beyond.

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.

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 directly those parliaments of countries actively seeking Alliance membership;
- to increase cooperation with countries which seek cooperation 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 257 delegates from the 28 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 14 associate countries, four Mediterranean associate countries, as well as observers from seven other countries take part in its activities.

Interparliamentary assemblies such as the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly, the Council of Europe Parliamentary Assembly and the Western European Union Assembly also send delegations.

The European Parliament is entitled to send ten 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 and eight sub-committees, which cover the major security and policy challenges confronting the Alliance: democratic governance, transatlantic defence cooperation, future capabilities, the civil and economic dimensions of security, science and technology, including energy and environmental security, partnerships and the Mediterranean and Middle East.

The Sub-Committees meet several times a 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, sixteen Sub-Committee meetings and a variety of other meetings.

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.

Towards deeper relations with Russia and Ukraine

At the end of the Cold War, the NATO PA made contacts with Russia and Ukraine. Its relations with these two countries were given a new impetus in 1997. 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 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 “at 27”. This committee, which meets twice a year during sessions, has become 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. Members of the NATO-PA were involved in election monitoring, supporting the international community’s effort.

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 focussed 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.
The Atlantic Treaty Association and Youth Atlantic Treaty Association

The Atlantic Treaty Association (ATA) is an independent organization designed to support the values enshrined in the North Atlantic Treaty. Created 18 June 1954, the ATA is an umbrella organization for the separate national associations, voluntary organizations and non-governmental organizations that formed to uphold the values of the Alliance after its creation in 1949.

Composed of Members, Associates Members and Observer Members, the ATA seeks to inform the public of NATO’s role in international peace and security. To achieve this goal, it holds international seminars and conferences and has launched several initiatives, including the Central and South Eastern European Security Forum, Ukrainian Dialogue and Crisis Management Simulations. The ATA is also an active participant in NATO’s Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme and Mediterranean Dialogue.

The ATA has a youth division - the Youth Atlantic Treaty Association (YATA) - which was formed in 1996. Although several of the Members and Associate Members had youth divisions prior to this date, the creation of YATA served to pull these separate divisions together to help coordinate activities. Similarly to the ATA, YATA seeks to inform the younger generation of NATO’s role in international security.

The role of the ATA and YATA

The ATA

The ATA has several aims, including upholding the values set forth in the North Atlantic Treaty, promoting democracy, and educating and informing the public of NATO’s work and responsibilities. It also strives to promote solidarity between the people of the North Atlantic region, those in countries which have signed up to the Partnership for Peace Framework, those participating in the Mediterranean Dialogue and people who are directly concerned with Euro-Atlantic security.

In addition to promoting increased solidarity, the ATA also seeks to increase cooperation between various organizations 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 conducts research into NATO’s open door policy, i.e., enlargement and promotes the development of civil society in the Black Sea and Caucasus regions.

The ATA encourages discourse and debate with the goal of establishing a solid comprehension of key Alliance issues. It also engages in a dialogue with Mediterranean and Middle Eastern countries that cooperate with the Alliance. In addition to this, it works to develop relations between organizations in different countries by connecting with civil society groups that support the basic principles of the North Atlantic Treaty and aiding in developing relations between its Members.

YATA

The ATA’s youth division - YATA – was formed in 1996 during the ATA’s General Assembly in Rome.

It works in close cooperation with the ATA, supports its activities and shares its primary goals. They include educating and informing the public 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.
YATA also seeks to encourage cooperation between the youths of NATO member countries and partner countries, and between various international organizations to generate debate about the role of security institutions.

Although 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), Latvia (LAYS) and Portugal (PAYS), as well as Crisis Management Simulations and regional conferences. YATA also works with NATO’s Public Diplomacy Division to organize international conferences and seminars where young leaders from the national YATA chapters are able to meet the NATO Secretary General, other NATO officials and Alliance leaders to discuss and debate 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**
The Assembly is the top decision-making body of the ATA. It 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**
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**
Bureau members plus up to three delegates from each ATA Member, Associate Member and Observer Member associations make up the Council. 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 at the General Assembly.

**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, it has Members and Associate Members.

**The Committee of Patrons**
The Committee of Patrons is comprised of previous ATA Presidents and other people who have served 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 Secretary General is in charge of day-to-day operations for the ATA, furthering its goals and aims, implementing the decisions of the Assembly, Council and the 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 ATA: Members, Associate Members and Observers.

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

Currently Albania, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Moldova, Montenegro, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States are ATA Members.

Associate Members
The national associations that make up the Associate Members of ATA come from non-NATO countries that have signed up to PfP. 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.

Current Associate Members include Armenia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Finland, Georgia, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia¹, Russia, Serbia, Sweden and Ukraine.

Observer Members
Associations from non-NATO countries who have not signed up to PfP, but whose countries either participate in the Mediterranean Dialogue or have a direct interest in Euro-Atlantic security issues can still 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.

Currently, only Israel is an Observer Member.

¹. Turkey recognizes the Republic of Macedonia with its constitutional name.

Evolution of the ATA
Following the creation of the Alliance in 1949, several separate organizations in NATO member countries formed with the goal of informing the public of NATO’s activities and its role in international relations. Eventually the organizations came together under the umbrella of the Atlantic Treaty Association after its creation on 18 June 1954.

Although previously focused on public debate and discussion about NATO’s activities during the Cold War, after the dissolution of the Soviet Union and with it the Warsaw Pact, the ATA’s focus...
expanded. It now extends beyond the Euro-Atlantic region to include Central and Eastern Europe, as well as the Caucasus and the Mediterranean regions. Several of the ATA’s more recent initiatives, such as the Central and South Eastern European Security Forum, Ukrainian Dialogue and Crisis Management Simulations, highlight this new focus.

In addition to being an active participant in NATO’s PfP programme and the Mediterranean Dialogue, the ATA also hosts several international seminars and conferences each year in order to further its objectives.

1. Turkey recognises the Republic of Macedonia with its constitutional name.
NATO’s civilian and military structures

Civilian organisation and structures

NATO 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 28 member countries are represented at all levels of the committee structure on a wide range of security and defence issues.

NATO has an extensive network of committees, covering everything from political, to technical or operational issues. Some of them are supported by working groups.

The principle of consensus decision making is applied at each and every level of the committee structure.

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).

Each member country is 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 Secretariat and the International Military Staff.

NATO has an extensive network of committees, covering everything from political, to technical or operational issues. 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.

NATO committees were reviewed in June 2010 so as to help NATO respond more effectively to security concerns and to the need for more integrated, flexible working procedures.

The principal committees

The North Atlantic Council (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
- NATO Air Traffic Management 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 attacks of September 11, 2001. 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 NATO Secretary General

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 Secretary General is also NATO’s chief spokesperson and the head of the Organization’s International Staff.

The post is currently held by Jens Stoltenberg, former Prime Minister of Norway, who took up his responsibilities on 1 October 2014.

The function of Secretary General is filled by a senior statesman with high-level political experience in the government of one of the member countries. The person is nominated by member governments for an initial period of four years, which can be extended by mutual consent.

**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, the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council and the Mediterranean Co-operation Group. 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 organizations 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 for a fifth year.

The position has traditionally been held by a European statesman.
International Staff

Some 1,000 civilians work within NATO’s International Staff (IS) at NATO Headquarters in Brussels, Belgium. The primary role of the IS is to provide advice, guidance and administrative support to the national delegations at NATO Headquarters. It 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

The IS consists of a staff of 1,000, composed solely of nationals from NATO member countries. It provides advice, guidance and administrative support to the national delegations at NATO Headquarters, Brussels, Belgium. It helps implement all decisions taken at any committee level. The IS is headed by the NATO Secretary General.

The IS is headed by NATO’s Secretary General, who from an administrative point of view, is also a member of the IS. Staff members are recruited from NATO member countries. Worldwide, some 6,000 civilians work for NATO in different agencies and strategic and regional commands.

The IS is currently being reviewed as part of a broader package of reform being undertaken within the Organization, in line with commitments made under the 2010 Strategic Concept.

Role and responsibilities

The IS is an advisory and administrative body that supports the delegations of NATO members at different committee levels and helps implement their decisions. For instance, the IS produces policy papers, background notes, reports and speeches on issues relevant to NATO’s political and military agenda. It supports and advises committees, and prepares and follows up on their discussions and decisions, therefore facilitating the political consultation process. It also 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, seven divisions, each headed by an Assistant Secretary General, and a number of independent offices headed by directors.

The Private Office

The Secretary General heads the IS and has a Private Office that includes a director and staff, the Deputy Secretary General, a Policy Planning Unit and the Council Secretariat.

Divisions

The IS fulfills a number of roles filled by different divisions:
• **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, economic and security affairs, as well as relations with other international organisations and partner countries.

• **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, defence against weapons of mass destruction 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, and civil emergency planning and exercises.

• **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.

• **Emerging Security Challenges Division**: this division was more recently created to deal with a growing range of non-traditional risks and challenges. It started its work at the beginning of August 2010 and is focusing on terrorism, nuclear issues, the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction, cyber defence and energy security, as well as NATO’s science programme.

• **Public Diplomacy Division**: communicating with the wider public is one of NATO’s priorities. The Public Diplomacy Division is responsible for informing different target audiences about NATO’s activities and policies through the media, the NATO website, multimedia products, seminars and conferences.

• **Executive Management Division**: this division manages staff, finances and security standards. 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 NATO Office of Security and the NATO Office of Resources, both headed by a Director; the Intelligence Unit; the Office of the Legal Adviser; the Office of the Financial Controller; and an independent International Board of Auditors.

The NATO Office of Security is a distinct body responsible for coordinating, monitoring and implementing NATO’s security policy, for overall security within NATO and for the NATO Headquarters Security Service.

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 HQ.

**Evolution of the International Staff**

The IS was created in 1951 to support the North Atlantic Council (NAC). It was made responsible for the preparation and follow-up of action in all matters of the Council. 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. One of the most recent restructuring exercises stemmed from the November 2002 Prague Summit, when 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.

More recently, a review of the IS has been launched as part of a larger package of reform – that of the military command structure, organisations and agencies, and NATO committees. This process forms part of NATO’s commitment to “engage in a process of continual reform, to streamline structures, improve working methods and maximise efficiency”, made in the Strategic Concept endorsed at the Lisbon Summit, November 2010.
NATO Headquarters

NATO Headquarters is the political and administrative centre of the Alliance and the permanent home of the North Atlantic Council, NATO’s senior political decision-making body.

The Headquarters is located at Boulevard Leopold III, 1110 Brussels, Belgium, on the northeast perimeter of the city. It is 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.

**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.

The Headquarters hosts over 5,000 meetings every year.

Initially based in London, the Headquarters were 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 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 in 1967.

These facilities, however, are no longer adequate in view of the Alliance’s enlargement and transformation. As such, in 1999, NATO Heads of State and Government agreed to construct a new headquarters to meet the requirements of the Alliance in the 21st century. It is situated across the road from the existing Headquarters in Brussels.

In November 2002, at a signing ceremony held during the Prague Summit, the Belgian Government transferred to NATO concessionary rights for the construction of the new buildings.
New NATO Headquarters

The new NATO Headquarters will be a secure, collaborative network-enabled capability supporting NATO business for you and for future generations.

The construction of the new NATO Headquarters started in October 2010 and is planned to be completed in 2016. NATO will start to move immediately after completion.

The design of the new headquarters provides flexibility to NATO.

- The new building will be able to accommodate NATO’s changing requirements into the future as the design and the standard fit-out allows for a configurable use of the building.
- The design of the building, using standard components which provide additional flexibility for the future.
- The new building will enable all Allies to have the space they require and there is also space for expansion should the need arise.

NATO will have a sustainable and environmental friendly new headquarters, with low environmental impact and optimized energy consumption.

- The new building provides for reduced heating, cooling and ventilating power thanks to thermal insulation, thermal inertia and effective solar protection of glazing.
- The new building provides for optimized energy consumption thanks to geothermal and solar energy use, co-generation of electricity and heating and advanced lighting systems.
- The new building enables NATO to reduce its headquarters’ environmental impact thanks to recycled demolition materials, green roofs, integration into Brussels’ broader urban planning, effective water management and reduced travel needs by staff using video teleconferences.

The new headquarters is built for purpose that incorporates appropriate security measures compatible with the political and military nature of NATO.

- The new headquarters will be secure and maximize the automation of security processes but will minimize the inconvenience to the users.

The costs of the new NATO HQ are transparent and minimized and several cost saving measures were taken.

The following contracts have been awarded and costs are known or foreseen:

- Demolition (De Meuter / Interbuild / CEI-De Meyer) 10 M€
- Architecture, Project Design and Quality Management (SOM-ASSAR, ACG, SOCOTEC, SNC-LAVALIN) 115 M€
- Construction (BAM Alliance - including 20 M€ nationally funded construction costs) 458 M€
• Electronic Security Systems (Siemens / Putman) 17 M€
• Audio Visual Infrastructure (Televic) 26 M€
• Active Network Infrastructure (Lockheed Martin) 62 M€

The following contracts are expected to be awarded in the future:
• Other ICT Services (Data & Application Migration, Operation & Maintenance)
• Furniture

Estimated costs for the contracts to be awarded: 62 M€

**Total estimated construction costs** 750 M€

Additional costs include items such as: Governance of the project, Transition from the current HQ, Annual Revision, Contingencies, Construction security and Claim settlements. There is a strict ceiling of 1,1 B€ for the entire project.
NATO Contact Point Embassies

**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 decision-making body within NATO. PDD coordinates the CPE network and liaises closely with each CPE.
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), which 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 the Strategic Commanders 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 the HQ 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 ISAF 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 is constantly evolving. Additionally, the permanent
exchange of information and specialized knowledge and experience between military experts and the political actors at NATO Headquarters is 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.
The Military Committee

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 months after the Alliance came into being. It is the primary source of military advice to NATO’s civilian decision-making bodies – the North Atlantic Council and the Nuclear Planning Group.

Highlights

The Military Committee (MC) is the senior military authority in NATO. It is the primary source of military advice to the North Atlantic Council (NAC) and the Nuclear Planning Group, and assists in developing strategic policy and concepts. It also provides guidance to the two Strategic Commanders – Allied Command Operations and Allied Command Transformation.

The Military Committee, chaired by the Chairman of the Military Committee, provides an essential link between the political decision-making process and the military structure of NATO. It meets at the level of Military Representatives shortly after meetings of the NAC to follow up on Council decisions, and at the level of Chiefs of Defence Staff three times a year.

Its advice is sought prior to any authorization for military action and, consequently represents an essential link between the political decision-making process and the military structure of NATO.

It also provides military guidance to the Alliance’s two Strategic Commanders and assists in developing overall strategic policy and concepts for the Alliance. In this context, it prepares an annual long-term assessment of the strength and capabilities of countries and areas posing a risk to NATO’s interests.

It meets frequently at the level of Military Representatives (MILREPs) and three times a year at the level of Chiefs of Defence (CHODs). It is chaired by the Chairman of the Military Committee, who is nominated for a three-year term.

Roles and responsibilities

Consensus 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 authorization by the North Atlantic Council of NATO military activities or operations. It therefore 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 Operations 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) from NATO member countries who serve as their country’s Military Representatives (MILREPs) to NATO, representing their Chief of Defence. 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 countries 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 chaired by the Chairman of the Military Committee, who is NATO’s senior military official. He directs the day-to-day business of the Military Committee and acts on its behalf. He is also the Committee’s spokesman and representative, making him the senior military spokesman for the Alliance on all military matters.

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. These meetings follow closely those of the North Atlantic Council, so that the Committee may follow up promptly on Council decisions.

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, the Mediterranean and off the Horn of Africa, the need for the Council and Military Committee to meet more frequently to discuss operational matters has greatly 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 decisions and policies on military matters are implemented by the appropriate NATO military bodies.
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 in Brussels and one in the form of an informal Military Committee Conference is hosted by a NATO member country, on a rotational basis.

Cooperation with partners
In the framework of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council and Partnership for Peace programme, the Military Committee meets regularly with partner countries at the level of national Military Representatives (once a month) and at the level of Chiefs of Defence (twice a year) to deal with military cooperation issues. The Military Committee also meets in different formats in the framework of the NATO-Russia Council, the NATO-Ukraine Commission, the NATO-Georgia Commission, and with the CHODs of the seven Mediterranean Dialogue countries.
Chairman of the Military Committee

The Chairman of the Military Committee is NATO’s senior military officer, by virtue of being the principal military advisor to the Secretary General and the conduit through which consensus-based advice from NATO’s 28 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 (Allied Command Operations and Allied Command Transformation) and the Director of the International Military Staff.

He also directs the daily business of the Military Committee, acts on its behalf and is the Committee’s spokesman.

He directs the day-to-day business of the Military Committee, NATO’s highest military authority, and acts on its behalf.

The Chairman is also the Committee’s spokesman and representative, making him the senior military spokesman for the Alliance on all military matters.

The current Chairman is General Knud Bartels of Denmark. He took up his functions on 2 January 2012.

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 directs its day-to-day business and acts on behalf of the Committee in issuing the necessary directives and guidance both to the Director of the International Military Staff and to NATO’s Strategic Commanders. He represents the Military Committee at the North Atlantic Council, and other high-level political meetings such as the Defence Planning Committee and the Nuclear Planning Group, providing consensus 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 in contacts with the press and media. 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, the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, the NATO-Russia Council, the NATO-
Ukraine Commission and the Mediterranean Dialogue, 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. The CMC-elect has served preferably as Chief of defence or an equivalent capacity in his own country, and is a non-US officer of four-star rank or national equivalent.
International Military Staff

The International Military Staff (IMS) is the executive body of the Military Committee (MC), NATO’s senior military authority.

It is responsible for preparing assessments, studies on NATO military issues identifying areas of strategic and operational interest and proposing courses of action. It also ensures that NATO decisions and policies on military matters are implemented by the appropriate NATO military bodies.

The IMS’ work enables the Military Representatives of the Alliance’s 28 member countries to deal with issues rapidly and effectively, ensuring that the MC provides the North Atlantic Council (NAC) with consensus-based advice on all military aspects of policy, operations, and transformation within the Alliance.

The IMS is an independent body within NATO that comprises approximately 500 dedicated military and civilian personnel from NATO’s member states, working in an international capacity for the common interest of the Alliance.

It is headed by a Director General and divided into five functional divisions and several branches and support offices. It is able to move swiftly into a 24/7 crisis mode for a limited period of time without additional personnel.

The strength of the IMS 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.

Role and responsibilities

The International Military Staff 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. The role of the IMS is to provide the best possible strategic military advice and staff support for the Military Committee.

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.

Several key positions are located within or attached to the Office of the Director General of the IMS:

- the Executive Coordinator (EXCO): the incumbent 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;
- the Public Affairs and Strategic Communications Advisor (PA&SCA): the incumbent 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;
- the Financial Controller (FC): the incumbent advises key officials on all IMS financial and fiscal matters;
• the Legal Officer (LO): this person provides guidance on all legal issues to the Chairman and Deputy Chairman of the MC, the Director General of the IMS and all organisations under the authority of this office, and the MC.

• the NATO Office on Gender Perspectives (NOGP): they provide 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 liaison with the NATO IS and international organisations concerned with the integration of a gender perspective into military operations, as well as with gender-related issues.

The five divisions
The IMS’ key role is to support the MC, and to do this it is organised into five functional divisions responsible for the following:

• The Intelligence Division provides intelligence support to all NATO HQ elements, NATO member states and NATO Commands. The Division provides strategic warning and situation awareness to all NATO HQ elements. Its 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 Operations Division closely monitors ongoing NATO operations, follows exercises and training and provides advice on all related NATO operations. It also follows the implementation of decisions taken by the MC with regard to NATO operations. The Division’s core activities: crisis response planning and operations; management of contingency reactions to international crises; planning and conducting all operations of air, land and maritime matters.

• The Plans and Policy Division is involved in all policy and planning matters such as Alliance defence policy and strategic planning. This division supports and gives military advice to the Director general of the IMS (DGIMS) and the Chairman of the MC essentially on three areas: Strategic Policy and Concept; Nuclear Deterrence and Chemical, Biological, Radiological and Nuclear Defence Policy; Defence and Force Planning.

• The Cooperation and Regional Security (C&RS) Division develops military Cooperative Security Policy and is the main point of contact for NATO HQ military Cooperative Security with partners from the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council and Partnership for Peace, Mediterranean Dialogue, Istanbul Cooperation Initiative and with Partners Across the Globe. Additionally, C&RS is the main military contact with all non-NATO member states who conduct operations with the Alliance. Military advice on NATO involvement in different aspects of disarmament, arms control and cooperative security issues is also developed.

• The Logistics and Resources Division develops and defines policies and principles, plans and concepts on all matters concerning logistics, medical, armaments, research and development, and civil emergency planning. In addition, the Division is the focal point for NATO’s military manpower, financial and security investment issues.
**Additional functions and offices**

- The **NATO HQ Consultation, Command and Control Staff (NHQC3S)**, combines the communications elements of both the IMS and the IS. This means it is an integrated staff with IMS and IS personnel that serves the NAC, the MC and the C3 Board. Two of its branches are mainly coordination branches: one is focused on overall policy and governance of the C3 domain and the other focuses on the implementation aspects. The Information Assurance and Cyber Defence Branch, the Information Communities of Interest Services Branch and the Spectrum and C3 Infrastructure Branch are subject-matter branches.

- The **NATO Situation Centre (SITCEN)** serves as the focal point within the Alliance for the receipt, exchange and dissemination of information. It monitors political, military and economic matters of interest to NATO and partner countries on a 24-hour basis. The SITCEN also provides facilities for the rapid expansion of consultation during periods of tension and crisis.
**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. The 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: the Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe, more commonly known as SHAPE.

**Highlights**

ACO, located at SHAPE in Mons, Belgium, is responsible for the planning and execution of all NATO military operations.

The command's aim is to maintain the integrity of Alliance territory, safeguard freedom of the seas and economic lifelines and preserve or restore the security of its members.

ACO is one of two strategic commands at the head of NATO’s military command structure. It consists of a small number of permanently established headquarters operating at the strategic, operational and tactical levels.

It is headed by the Supreme Allied Commander Europe, or SACEUR, who exercises his responsibilities from SHAPE.

ACO is one of two strategic commands at the head of 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 they form what is called the NATO Command Structure (NCS), whose function is first and foremost to be able to address threats and should deterrence fail, an armed attack against the territory of any of the European¹ Allies. Ultimately, the NCS plays an essential role in preserving cohesion and solidarity within the Alliance, maintaining and strengthening the vital transatlantic link and promoting the principle of equitable sharing among Allies of the roles, risks and responsibilities, as well as the benefits of collective defence.

ACO must ensure the ability to operate at three overlapping levels: strategic, operational and tactical, with the overarching aim of maintaining the integrity of Alliance territory, safeguarding freedom of the seas and economic lifelines, and to preserve or restore the security of NATO member countries. Moreover, in the current security environment, deploying forces further afield has become the norm.

Decisions to streamline NATO’s military command structure were taken in June 2011 as part of a wider process of reform. ACO was principally affected by this reform, the full implementation of which is expected by the end of 2015, when all entities involved will reach full operational capability.

With this reform, new tasks stemming from the 2010 Strategic Concept were included and the Alliance’s level of ambition maintained. Elements of ACO will gain in flexibility and provide a deployable Command and Control (C2) capability at the operational level, offering choices and options for rapid intervention that have not previously been available to the Alliance. Moreover, a Communication and Information Systems (CIS) Group has been formed as part of the military command structure to provide additional deployable communication and information systems support. Once fully implemented, the reform will lead to an estimated reduction in personnel of...
approximately 30 per cent (from 13,000 to 8,800). The military command structure proper has been downsized from 11 entities to seven².

Links with the NATO Force Structure will be reinforced. The Force Structure is composed of Allied national and multinational deployable forces and headquarters placed at the Alliance’s disposal by member countries on a permanent or temporary basis. National contributions are made available for NATO operations at appropriate states of readiness when required. Rules of deployment and transfer of authority to NATO command can vary from country to country.

1. It is considered that whereas Article 5 applies to the entire NATO Treaty Area, the NATO Command Structure’s operational area of responsibility does not include the territory of the United States or Canada. This is not meant to imply that the NATO Command Structure should not be able to support the United States and Canada should the territory of these two Allies be subject to an armed attack, but rather to acknowledge that defensive operations on the territory of these two Allies will be conducted, commanded and controlled in accordance with bilateral arrangements and not under the auspices of the NATO Command Structure.

2. These figures cover Allied Command Operations and Allied Command Transformation.

The military command structure

As previously explained, ACO is a three-tier command with headquarters and supporting elements at the strategic, operational and tactical level. 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 missions. Joint forces are 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.

SHAPE, at the strategic level, is at the head of six operational commands, two of which are supported by tactical (or component) level entities.

Allied Command Operations

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 the commander of the US European Command, which shares many of the same geographical responsibilities. SACEUR is responsible to the Military Committee, 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 Military Committee is the primary source of military advice to the NAC and NPG.

Operational level commands: Brunssum and Naples

The operational level consists of two standing Joint Force Commands (JFCs): one in Brunssum, the Netherlands, and one in Naples, Italy. Both have to be prepared 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 in Brunssum or Naples, 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 two 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 for NATO membership.

**Tactical level commands: Izmir, Northwood and Ramstein**

**Land, maritime and air commands**

The tactical (or component) level consists of what is called Single Service Commands (SSCs): land, maritime and air commands. These service-specific commands provide expertise and support to the Joint Force Commands at the operational level in Brunssum or Naples. 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 ready 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 and a Deployable Air Command and Control Centre. The air elements are also structured in a more flexible way to take account of the experience gained in NATO-led operations.

**Additional air support**

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 the HQ AIRCOM when required.

- **DACCC**: this entity based in Italy consists of three elements. Firstly, a DARS or Deployable Air Control Centre + Recognized Air Picture Production Centre + Sensor Fusion Post. 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) have been split into two: the deployable CIS capabilities and the static CIS capabilities.

The NATO CIS Group based in Mons, Belgium will provide deployable communications and information systems support for ACO. The NATO CIS Group is responsible for the 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. The 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 Communication and Information Systems (CIS) Group will be supported by three NATO Signals Battalions located at Wesel, Germany, Grazzanise, Italy, and Bydgoszcz, Poland. These three will be complemented by various smaller elements (Deployable CIS modules) elsewhere.

**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 available for the Alliance and organized 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.

Final agreement is awaited on the NATO NAEW&C Force. The Force Commander is conducting a comprehensive Force Review that will determine the size and shape of the Airborne Warning & Control System (AWACS) capability for the future and is adapting the capability to match the new manpower ceilings decided in the context of the new Command Structure. 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 17 Boeing E-3A ‘Sentry’ AWACS aircrafts. NATO operates this fleet, which provides the Alliance with an immediately available airborne command and control (C2), air and maritime surveillance and battlespace management capability. The fleet of six Boeing E-3D aircraft based in Waddington, Lincolnshire, United Kingdom, is manned by RAF personnel only. The United Kingdom exercises limited participation, but her fleet of E-3D aircraft is an integral part of the NAEW&C Force.

NATO is acquiring an Alliance Ground Surveillance (AGS) system that will provide SACEUR with 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 Hawk Unmanned Airborne Vehicles and the associated command and control base stations, as well as 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. It is expected to be available to the Alliance in the 2015-2017 timeframe.

**Evolution**

The 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, 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 (SC), one for the Atlantic, and one for Europe; there were three Regional Commanders under the Supreme Allied Commander, Atlantic (SACLANT) and two under the 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 the Allied Command Operations (ACO). The Supreme Allied Commander Europe and his staff at the
Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE) situated in Mons, Belgium, were henceforth responsible for all Alliance operations, including those previously undertaken by SACLANT. The reform resulted in a significant reduction in headquarters and Combined Air Operations Centres – from 32 command centres down to 9 – 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 new Command Structure is forward-looking and flexible, as well as leaner and more affordable. In comparison to the previous structures, it will provide 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 new Command Structure was approved by NATO defence ministers in June 2011. It transitioned to its new format (Transition Day) on 1 December 2012 and is expected to be fully implemented by the end of 2015.
Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR)

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, 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 and, as such, is responsible to the Military Committee for the conduct of all NATO operations. He is traditionally a US commander, dual-hatted as Commander of the US European Command. NATO’s first SACEUR was General Dwight D. Eisenhower, the five-star general in the US Army who served during the Second World War.

SACEUR, traditionally a United States Flag or General officer, is dual-hatted as Commander of the US European Command. His NATO command is exercised from the Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE) at Casteau, near Mons, Belgium.

The current Supreme Allied Commander Europe is General Philip M. Breedlove, United States Air Force.

General Breedlove took up his functions on 13 May 2013 after having served as Commander, United States Air Force Europe; Commander United States Air Force Africa; Commander Headquarters, Allied Air Command, Ramstein; and Director, Joint Air Power Competence Centre.

**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 NATO’s Military Committee. SACEUR analyses these operational needs in cooperation with the Supreme Allied Commander Transformation.

SACEUR 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 Military Committee, 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 Allied Command Operations. Through his own activities and those of his public information staff he maintains regular contacts with the press and 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 in the
  framework of the Partnership for Peace and NATO’s relationships with Russia, Ukraine and
  Mediterranean Dialogue 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, 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
The SACEUR is appointed by the US President, confirmed by the US Senate, and approved by the
North Atlantic Council of NATO.

There is no assigned term for the SACEUR. It has ranged from one to eight years.

Evolution of the function
On 2 April 1951, the war hero General Dwight D. Eisenhower, US Army, 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.
Allied Command Transformation

Allied Command Transformation (ACT) leads many initiatives designed to transform NATO’s military structure, forces, capabilities and doctrine. Its main responsibilities include education, training and exercises, as well as conducting experiments to assess new concepts, and promoting interoperability throughout the Alliance.

Highlights

ACT leads the transformation of NATO’s military structure, forces, capabilities and doctrine. It is mainly responsible for education, training and exercises, conducting experiments to assess new concepts and promoting interoperability throughout NATO. ACT is one of two strategic commands at the head of NATO’s military command structure. It directs a small number of subordinate commands and has strong links with educational and training facilities, as well as with the Pentagon, other national entities and the NATO Force Structure in general. It is headed by the Supreme Allied Commander Transformation, or SACT, who exercises his responsibilities from headquarters in Norfolk, Virginia, the United States.

ACT is one of two strategic commands in NATO, the other being Allied Command Operations (ACO). Together they 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 European Allies. Ultimately, the NCS plays an essential role in preserving cohesion and solidarity within the Alliance, maintaining and strengthening the vital transatlantic link and promoting the principle of equitable sharing among Allies of the roles, risks and responsibilities, as well as the benefits of collective defence.

Headquarters, Supreme Allied Commander Transformation (HQ SACT), located in Norfolk, Virginia (United States) is the only NATO command in North America. It houses the command structure of ACT and directs ACT’s various subordinate commands: the Joint Warfare Centre in Norway, the Joint Force Training Centre in Poland and the Joint Analysis & Lessons Learned Centre in Portugal. It also has strong links with the Pentagon and other US military entities, national headquarters, NATO-accredited Centres of Excellence (see below for explanations), educational and training facilities, think-tanks and with the NATO Force Structure in general.

The Supreme Allied Commander Transformation (SACT) is a four-star level flag or general officer. He 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).
**ACT’s role and structure**

ACT was created as part of a reorganisation of the NATO Command Structure in 2002. This was the first time in NATO’s history that a strategic command was solely dedicated to “transformation”, demonstrating the importance placed by Allies on the roles of transformation and development as continuous and essential drivers for change that will ensure the relevance of the Alliance in a rapidly evolving global security environment.

ACT is organised around four principal functions:

- strategic thinking;
- the 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 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 Communications and Information Systems School, Portugal (from 2016 or 2017 – currently located in Italy), 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 threefold: to develop and promote issues of strategic importance to transformation; articulate policies to direct Alliance transformation efforts; and support the development of NATO strategic-level concepts which clarify how transformation may be achieved.

**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 Alliance forces. The Directorate focuses on science and technology, and maintains collaboration with industry to infuse innovative ideas and transformative principles into NATO capability development processes and products. In addition, it establishes and maintains a transformation network and constitutes a hub within the NATO organisation and between member countries to promote continuous reform of NATO forces, structures and processes.
**Joint Force Training**

Joint Force Training (JFT) directs and co-ordinates all ACT activities that are related to the conduct of individual and collective training and exercises. The aim is to continually provide the Alliance with improved capabilities and enable its forces 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, Belgium. As the name indicates, the SACTREPEUR represents SACT at NATO Headquarters, acting as SACT’s representative to the Military Committee and attending all relevant meetings – committee, working group or other. 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, Belgium. It deals primarily with defence and resource planning issues, as well as implementation. In doing so, it interacts with different NATO entities: the International Military Staff and the International Staff at NATO Headquarters, Brussels, with ACO, other NATO bodies and agencies and individual Allies.

**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. Through strong links with US military entities, the office establishes and maintains working relations with other governmental and non-governmental bodies in and around Washington D.C.

**Military Partnership Directorate**

The Military Partnership Directorate (MPD) provides direction, control, co-ordination, 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, Belgium with a Staff Element at HQ SACT in Norfolk, Virginia.

**Joint Warfare Centre in Stavanger, Norway**

The Joint Warfare Centre’s (JWC) main task is to train NATO 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.

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.
The JWC assists ACT’s work with new technologies, modelling and simulation. It also conducts training on and works at developing new concepts and doctrine for joint and combined staffs. In addition, it performs collective staff training for partner countries and new NATO members.

JWC assists ACO in evaluating joint force training and has formal links to both NATO agencies and national and multinational training centres.

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

The Joint Force Training Centre (JFTC) focuses on joint and combined training of NATO 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.

The Centre provides support and expertise in the training of Alliance and partner forces, runs courses, conducts training and provides advice to a variety of audiences. It cooperates with national training centres, including Partnership for Peace (PfP) Training Centres and Centres of Excellence to ensure the application of NATO standards and doctrine in combined and joint fields.

As a priority, JFTC provides expertise to help 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.

**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, 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. It ensures that key factors and lessons identified are characterised and appropriate action is proposed. The JALLC therefore contributes directly to improving operations through the identification of shortfalls in capabilities by delivering relevant, timely and useable lessons learned products.

**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 facilities and agencies.

**NATO’s educational and training facilities**

**The NATO Defense College**

At the political-strategic level, the NATO Defense College in Rome, Italy is NATO’s foremost academic institution. It contributes to Alliance objectives by developing its role as a major centre of education, study and research on transatlantic security issues. Founded in 1951, several thousand senior officers, diplomats, and other officials have since passed through its doors.
Its main tasks are to help prepare both civilian and military leaders for senior appointments within NATO; conduct outreach activities directed at partner countries; and provide fresh perspectives to NATO decision-makers. It also provides an annual venue, through the Conference of Commandants of Defence Academies, for an exchange of views on best practices across the Alliance and beyond.

The NATO School

The NATO School in Oberammergau, Germany operates under the auspices of ACT, but also supplies training support to operations. It is NATO’s key operational-level training facility, providing short-term, multidisciplinary individual training tailored to military and civilian personnel from NATO, PfP, Mediterranean Dialogue and global partners. As part of its support to NATO operations, the NATO School has hosted personnel from non-NATO countries such as Afghanistan and Iraq. In addition, it serves as a facilitator for the harmonisation of programmes with the Partnership Training and Education Centres.

The NATO Communications and Information Systems School

Currently located in Latina, Italy (moving to Oeiras near Lisbon, Portugal in 2016 or 2017), the NATO Communications and Information Systems School (NCISS) is one of the Alliance’s key training institutions. It provides advanced training to civilian and military personnel from NATO and non-NATO countries in the operation and maintenance of the Alliance’s communications and information systems. Like the NATO School, NCISS falls under the guidance of ACT and provides support to NATO-led operations.

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

The role of these centres is to provide high-quality education and training to the Euro-Atlantic community.

They are accredited by NATO, but are funded nationally or multi-nationally outside of the Organization’s command structure. Their relationship with NATO is formalised through memoranda of understanding.

The first Centres of Excellence to be fully accredited by NATO were the Joint Air Power Competence Centre in Germany and the Defence Against Terrorism Centre of Excellence in Turkey. Many more have been established since then.

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 (ACT) 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 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. This reform principally affected ACO. Where ACT is concerned, apart from developing stronger links with Centres of Excellence and the NATO Force Structure, the only physical change that stemmed from the reform was the move of what was previously known as the NATO Undersea Research Centre (NURC) (now the Centre for Maritime Research and Experimentation in La Spezia, Naples), to the agency structure of the Alliance as an organisational element linked to research.

Footnotes
3. It is considered that whereas Article 5 applies to the entire NATO Treaty Area, the NATO Command Structure’s operational area of responsibility does not include the territory of the United States or Canada. This is not meant to imply that the NATO Command Structure should not be able to support the United States and Canada, should the territory of these two Allies be subject to an armed attack, but rather to acknowledge that defensive operations on the territory of these two Allies will be conducted, commanded and controlled in accordance with bilateral arrangements and not under the auspices of the NATO Command Structure.
4. The NATO 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.
5. Joint forces are 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.
Supreme Allied Commander Transformation (SACT)

Supreme Allied Commander Transformation (SACT) was created in 2002, in the overall process of reform of NATO’s command structure. He 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 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.

SACT is responsible to NATO’s highest military authority, the Military Committee, for promoting and overseeing the continuing transformation of Alliance forces and capabilities.

The current Supreme Allied Commander Transformation is French Air Force General Jean-Paul Paloméros. He took up his functions on 28 September 2012.

**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.

He makes recommendations to NATO’s political and military authorities on transformation issues. For day-to-day business, he reports to the Military Committee, 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 cooperation with Allied Command Operations, he analyses NATO’s operational needs, in order to identify and prioritize the type and scale of future capability and interoperability requirements and to channel the results into NATO’s overall defence planning process.

He also leads efforts to explore new concepts and doctrines by conducting experiments and supporting the research, development and acquisition of new technologies and capabilities.

The SACT is responsible for NATO’s training and education programmes, which are designed to ensure that 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**
The SACT is proposed by a NATO member country and approved by the North Atlantic Council of NATO. There is no assigned term for the SACT.

**Evolution of the function**
From 2002 to 2009, SACT has been a United States Flag or General officer, and dual-hatted as Commander of the U.S. Joint Forces Command, the post responsible for maximizing future and present military capabilities of the United States. His command is exercised from the Headquarters of Alliance Command Transformation in Norfolk, Virginia, United States, which is also where U.S. Joint Forces Command has its Headquarters.

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: General Stéphane Abrial from 2009 to 2012 and, currently, General Jean-Paul Paloméros. 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 2002, before the reform, 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).
Principal NATO committees and policy bodies

NATO 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 28 member countries are represented at all levels of the committee structure on a wide range of security and defence issues.

NATO has an extensive network of committees, covering everything from political, to technical or operational issues. Some of them are supported by working groups.

The principle of consensus decision making is applied at each and every level of the committee structure.

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).

Each member country is 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 Secretariat and the International Military Staff.

NATO has an extensive network of committees, covering everything from political, to technical or operational issues. 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.

NATO committees were reviewed in June 2010 so as to help NATO respond more effectively to security concerns and to the need for more integrated, flexible working procedures.

The principal committees

The North Atlantic Council (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
NATO Air Traffic Management 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 attacks of September 11, 2001. 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 North Atlantic Council

The North Atlantic Council is the principal political decision-making body within NATO. It brings together high-level representatives of each member country to discuss policy or operational questions requiring collective decisions. In sum, it provides 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. 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 NAC is chaired by the Secretary General and its decisions have the same status and validity at whichever level it meets.

It is the only body that was established by the North Atlantic Treaty (Article 9) in 1949 and that has the authority to set up subsidiary bodies, as deemed necessary.

The Nuclear Planning Group has comparable authority to the NAC for matters within its specific area of competence, i.e., nuclear policies, planning and consultation procedures.

All members have an equal right to express their views and share in the consensus on which decisions are based. 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 North Atlantic Council (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.

Strictly speaking, the NAC is not the only body within NATO that carries such a high degree of authority. The Nuclear Planning Group (NPG) has comparable authority for matters within its specific area of competence. However, in practice, the NAC convenes far more frequently than the NPG and covers a broader scope of themes—as broad as the member countries decide it should be. Consequently, it is commonly referred to as NATO’s principal decision-making body.

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.”

**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 NAC is chaired by the Secretary General. In the absence of the Secretary General, 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 prime ministers and 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 with responsibility 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. A similar role is played by the Nuclear Planning Staff Group on behalf of the Nuclear Planning Group.

Other aspects of political work may be handled by the Political and Partnerships Committee. 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 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 its decisions recorded and circulated. A small Council Secretariat ensures the bureaucratic 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 HQ supports the work of the Council, either directly or indirectly, and helps to ensure that Council decisions are implemented.
The 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 the 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.

The Defence Ministers of all member countries, except France, meet at regular intervals in the NPG, where they discuss specific policy issues associated with nuclear forces. The Alliance's nuclear policy is kept under review and decisions are taken jointly to modify or adapt it in the light of new developments and to update and adjust planning and consultation procedures.

NATO's senior body on nuclear policy issues
Whilst the North Atlantic Council (NAC) is the ultimate authority within NATO, the NPG (which meets annually in Defence Ministers format at 27, minus France) acts as the senior body on nuclear matters within NATO.

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 the light of the ever-changing security challenges of the international environment and to adapt it if necessary.

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 Cárnation 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.
The Military Committee

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 months after the Alliance came into being. It is the primary source of military advice to NATO’s civilian decision-making bodies – the North Atlantic Council and the Nuclear Planning Group.

Highlights

The Military Committee (MC) is the senior military authority in NATO.
It is the primary source of military advice to the North Atlantic Council (NAC) and the Nuclear Planning Group, and assists in developing strategic policy and concepts.
It also provides guidance to the two Strategic Commanders – Allied Command Operations and Allied Command Transformation.
The Military Committee, chaired by the Chairman of the Military Committee, provides an essential link between the political decision-making process and the military structure of NATO.
It meets at the level of Military Representatives shortly after meetings of the NAC to follow up on Council decisions, and at the level of Chiefs of Defence Staff three times a year.

Its advice is sought prior to any authorization for military action and, consequently represents an essential link between the political decision-making process and the military structure of NATO.

It also provides military guidance to the Alliance’s two Strategic Commanders and assists in developing overall strategic policy and concepts for the Alliance. In this context, it prepares an annual long-term assessment of the strength and capabilities of countries and areas posing a risk to NATO’s interests.

It meets frequently at the level of Military Representatives (MILREPs) and three times a year at the level of Chiefs of Defence (CHODs). It is chaired by the Chairman of the Military Committee, who is nominated for a three-year term.

Roles and responsibilities

Consensus 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 authorization by the North Atlantic Council of NATO military activities or operations.
It therefore 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 Operations 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) from NATO member countries who serve as their country’s Military Representatives (MILREPs) to NATO, representing their Chief of Defence. 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 countries 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 chaired by the Chairman of the Military Committee, who is NATO’s senior military official. He directs the day-to-day business of the Military Committee and acts on its behalf. He is also the Committee’s spokesman and representative, making him the senior military spokesman for the Alliance on all military matters.

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. These meetings follow closely those of the North Atlantic Council, so that the Committee may follow up promptly on Council decisions.

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, the Mediterranean and off the Horn of Africa, the need for the Council and Military Committee to meet more frequently to discuss operational matters has greatly 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 decisions and policies on military matters are implemented by the appropriate NATO military bodies.

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 in Brussels and one in the form of an informal Military Committee Conference is hosted by a NATO member country, on a rotational basis.

Cooperation with partners
In the framework of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council and Partnership for Peace programme, the Military Committee meets regularly with partner countries at the level of national Military Representatives (once a month) and at the level of Chiefs of Defence (twice a year) to deal with military cooperation issues. The Military Committee also meets in different formats in the framework of the NATO-Russia Council, the NATO-Ukraine Commission, the NATO-Georgia Commission, and with the CHODs of the seven Mediterranean Dialogue countries.
The Defence Planning Committee (Archived)

The Defence Planning Committee was a former senior decision-making body on matters relating to the integrated military structure of the Alliance. It was dissolved following a major committee review in June 2010 and its responsibilities absorbed by the North Atlantic Council.

Highlights

The Defence Planning Committee (DPC) was the ultimate authority on all questions related to NATO’s integrated military structure.

It provided guidance to NATO’s military authorities and oversaw the force planning process.

It had the same level of authority as the North Atlantic Council (NAC) and the Nuclear Planning Group on matters within its competence and, when it was dissolved in 2010, its responsibilities were absorbed by the NAC.

Between 1966 and April 2009, France was not represented on this committee as a consequence of its withdrawal from the integrated military structure.

It provided guidance to NATO’s military authorities and oversaw the force planning process. The force planning process identifies NATO’s military requirements, sets planning targets for individual countries to contribute to those requirements, and assesses the extent to which members meet those targets and provide other forces and capabilities to the Alliance.

Momentarily, just before being dissolved, all member countries were represented on the DPC. However, between 1966 and April 2009, France was not represented on this committee as a consequence of its withdrawal from the integrated military structure.

Authority and responsibilities

The DPC was the ultimate authority within the Alliance on all questions related to the Alliance’s integrated military structure. It effectively had the same level of authority as the North Atlantic Council (NAC) and the Nuclear Planning Group on matters within their competence.

It implemented decisions taken by the participating countries in relation to collective defence planning and issues pertaining to the integrated military structure of the Alliance. It also approved force goals and ministerial guidance for future NATO defence planning.

Although its work focused on the integrated military structure and military and defence related issues, the NAC also discussed some of these matters before entirely taking over the DPC’s responsibilities in 2010. Conversely, in 2003 at the outbreak of the Iraq crisis, the Council moved the decision to authorize NATO military authorities to implement defensive measures to assist Turkey to the DPC.

This was the result of a disagreement among member countries 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 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.
On 16 February 2003, with the cohesion of the Alliance under strain, Lord Robertson, the then 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 DPC. At the time, it was composed of all member countries, except France, which did not participate in NATO's integrated military structure. The Committee was able to reach agreement and on 19 February 2003 it authorized the military authorities to implement, as a matter of urgency, defensive measures to assist Turkey under the name of Operation Display Deterrence.

**Participants**

Members participating in NATO's integrated military structure were represented on the DPC. As such, between April 2009 and June 2010, all member countries had a seat on this committee.

In the past, between 1966 and 2009, France was not represented on the DPC as a consequence of its withdrawal from the integrated military structure. However, at the Strasbourg/ Kehl Summit in April 2009, it officially announced its decision to fully participate in NATO military structures.

The DPC used to be chaired by the Secretary General of NATO.

**Working procedures**

As is the case of all NATO committees, decisions were taken by consensus within the DPC.

Its work was prepared by a number of subordinate committees with specific responsibilities. In particular, the Defence Review Committee, which was also dissolved in June 2010, coordinated the force planning process within NATO and examined other issues relating to the integrated military structure.

Similarly to the NAC, the DPC looked to the senior committee with the relevant specific responsibility for the preparatory and follow-up work arising from its decisions.

Within the International Staff, the DPC was principally supported by the Division of Defence Policy and Planning and the Operations Division.

The DPC used to meet, when necessary, at the level of ambassadors and twice a year at the level of ministers of defence.
Deputies Committee

The Deputies Committee (DPRC) deals with cross-cutting issues ranging from strategic and political oversight of areas, such as HR policy and the new Headquarters, to committee reform, as well as acting 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 IS Division or his/her Deputy. 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.
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 fulfill 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.
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 28” 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 “28+1” formats; as well as in “28+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.
Defence Policy and Planning Committee

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.
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 ISAF and KFOR format, i.e., with non-NATO member countries that contribute troops to the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan and the Kosovo Force (KFOR) in Kosovo.

The OPC is supported by the International Staff’s Operations Division.

Creation of the OPC
The OPC was created following the June 2010 committee reform, replacing the former Policy Coordination Group.
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.

It brings together the top national officials responsible for defence procurement in NATO member and partner countries to consider the political, economic and technical aspects of the development and procurement of equipment for NATO forces.

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.

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.

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 Resource Policy and Planning Board

The Resource Policy and Planning Board (RPPB) is the senior advisory body to the North Atlantic Council 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 Council 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 the Infrastructure Committee) reporting to the NAC. The Senior Resource Board itself was created in the 1990s in an effort to optimize 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 manpower 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 North Atlantic Council.

Each year, the RPPB also recommends for approval by the Council 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 Council to monitor the adequacy of resource allocations in relation to requirements.

Working mechanisms

All NATO member countries are represented on this 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 Committee and Investment Committee also attend the Board's meetings.

The Board is supported by the NATO Office of Resources.
Committee on Proliferation (COP)

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 28+1 and 28+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.
Logistics Committee

The Logistics Committee (LC) is the senior advisory body on logistics in NATO.

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.

It carries out its work through subordinate bodies: the Logistics Committee Executive Group, the Movement and Transportation Group, and the Petroleum Committee.

The LC reports jointly to both the Military Committee and the North Atlantic Council, reflecting the dependence of logistics on both civil and military factors.

Role and responsibilities

The LC is responsible for harmonizing and coordinating the development of policy recommendations and coordinated advice on civil and military logistic 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 characterized 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 Maintenance and Supply Agency, the NATO Standardization Agency, 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 harmonizes 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 specialized 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 NATO Maintenance and Supply Agency (NAMSA).

**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 NATO Maintenance and Supply Agency, NATO Standardization Agency 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. The Atlantic Command (SACLANT) 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.
Council Operations and Exercises Committee (COEC)

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.
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 Defense 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 Defense 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.
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.
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.
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.

For NATO, standardization is the development and implementation of concepts, doctrines and procedures that aim to achieve and maintain compatibility, interchangeability or commonality needed for interoperability. Interoperability – the ability to work in synergy in executing assigned tasks – can greatly increase the effectiveness of NATO’s operations and activities through a more efficient use of resources.

The Committee for Standardization meets twice yearly and reports annually to the NAC on standardization activities. It was created in 2001 to oversee the work of the NATO Standardization Organization, which resulted from the merger of two separate standardization bodies, one civilian and one military.

Role and responsibilities
As the senior body responsible for supervising all standardization activities across the Alliance, the Committee on Standardization steers the development of the NATO Policy for Standardization and monitors its implementation. It helps formulate standardization requirements for NATO’s defence planning and facilitates the implementation of NATO standards.

The Committee provides coordinated advice on overall standardization matters to the NAC, to which it reports, as well as guidance and procedures to all NATO bodies as needed. It also acts as the Board of Directors for the NATO Standardization Agency, the implementing body for the Alliance’s standardization work.

Working mechanisms
The Committee for Standardization, comprising delegates from 28 NATO countries and more than 30 partner countries, meets in full format twice a year. It is assisted by National Representatives (CSREPs) with delegated authority, who meet four times a year. The work of the CSREPs focuses on harmonizing standardization activities between NATO and national bodies, and promoting interaction between them in all areas of standardization.

The Committee reaches decisions on the basis of consensus among national representatives. Other representatives have no power of reservation, but have the right to have their views recorded. If consensus among NATO nations cannot be reached, the issue in question can be referred to the NAC.

Normally once a year, the Committee reports to the NAC on progress made in NATO Standardization, proposing actions as needed. It also presents a programme of work for the upcoming year.

The Committee is chaired by the NATO Secretary General, normally represented by two permanent Co-Chairmen, namely the Assistant Secretary General for Defence Investment and the Director General of the International Military Staff. Since September 2000, partner countries have become actively involved in the Committee’s activities.
**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, giving birth to the NATO Standardization Agency as the staffing element of the new NATO Standardization Organization. The Committee was created in 2001 to oversee the work of the NATO Standardization Organization.
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.
Air and Missile Defence Committee (AMDC)

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 and related air power aspects, including air command and control.

The AMDC also supports Alliance work on establishing a ballistic missile defence (BMD) capability by offering specialist advice and expertise to the senior level committee responsible for BMD development.

Main participants
The AMDC is chaired by NATO’s Deputy Secretary General and supported by the Armaments and Aerospace Capabilities Directorate of the Defence Investment (DI) Division. The Vice Chairman of the AMDC is a senior level (two-star) national secondee who serves a two-year term when elected by the AMDC. The AMDC holds meetings twice a year at heads of delegation level, including one within the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) framework with partners.

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. The panel also works to identify opportunities for air and missile defence cooperation, development and research collaboration with members and Euro-Atlantic partners. Under the aegis of the AMDC, a NATO Analytical Air Defence Cell (NAADC) provides support to Allies and partners by developing joint studies of national air defence capabilities and systems.
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.
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 coordination and data management, and to examine further opportunities for cooperation in verification.”

Archived material - 2014
The Archives Committee

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.

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 emphasize the need for the NATO Archives, their benefits, and the requirements for proper funding.

Working mechanisms

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 recognized 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 ongoing development of the NATO Archives Virtual Reading Room, researchers will be able to enjoy even greater access to publicly disclosed NATO documents related to the Alliance’s history, evolution and decision-making process.
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 public 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 analyzes 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 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 organizations 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 organization 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.
NATO Air Traffic Management Committee

The NATO Air Traffic Management Committee (ATMC) is the senior civil-military NATO body with responsibility for air traffic management (ATM).

The ATMC ensures NATO’s interface with civil aviation authorities and is charged with the production, dissemination, monitoring and enforcement of Allied ATM standards, guidance and policy. It also advises the North Atlantic Council (NAC) on all matters related to airspace use and ATM in support of Alliance objectives.

Role and responsibilities

The ATMC’s main focus is to provide ATM support to NATO missions, operations and exercises. Most notably, this vital support is being provided in the Balkans, Afghanistan and Libya, where NATO is working alongside national governments, international and regional bodies and organisations to rebuild and rehabilitate the countries’ respective aviation sectors.

To ensure that Allied forces train and prepare adequately for their contribution to operations, the ATMC monitors aviation modernisation developments. It takes appropriate action to safeguard NATO’s requirements regarding airspace utilisation and evaluates the impact of new ATM and communications, navigation and surveillance (CNS) developments on NATO’s operational capability. The Committee regularly tasks its technical working body, known as the Air Traffic Management-Communications, Navigation and Surveillance Working Group (ATM-CNS WG) to develop consolidated NATO views, policies, doctrines and guidance on ATM matters.

This approach helps the ATMC contribute to ATM harmonisation, interoperability and standardisation for manned and un-manned aircraft. Further, the ATMC helps NATO contribute to security in the civil/military aviation domain through a joint NATO/Eurocontrol ATM Security Coordinating Group.

Main participants

The ATMC is chaired by the Director of the Aerospace Capabilities Directorate in NATO’s Defence Investment (DI) Division. The day-to-day work of the Committee is supported by DI.

Airspace use and ATM require global coordination. Thus, the ATMC ensures cooperation, dialogue and partnership with other national, regional and international aviation organisations and bodies. Representatives of the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO), Eurocontrol, European Commission Air transport, the International Air Transport Association (IATA) and other aviation stakeholders regularly attend ATMC meetings and provide advice and support. Dedicated sessions of the committee take place in cooperation with partner countries. In particular, the ATMC also works with the involvement and support of NATO’s Euro-Atlantic and Mediterranean Dialogue partners.
Principal specialised organisations and agencies

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 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 Agency (NSPA), with headquarters in Capellen, Luxembourg, delivering in-service support, maintenance and logistics support for weapons systems, as well as operational logistics and other services for nations and the Alliance as a whole.

NATO Procurement Organisation (NPO) – The North Atlantic Council decided to merge the Procurement and Support Agencies early 2014, reducing the number of new Organisations initially envisaged from four to three. It has postponed the activation of the procurement entity within the NSPA to the time when programmes are actually assigned by the participating countries.

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 Agency (NSA) was transferred into a NATO Standardization Office (NSO) in July 2014 as a single, integrated NATO HQ staff element.
The 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 Battleground Information, Collection and Exploitation System Agency (BICES), NATO Air Command and Control System Management Agency (NACMA), and NATO Headquarters Information and Communication Technology Service (ICTM).
The NATO Support Agency (NSPA)

The NATO Support Agency (NSPA) is NATO’s integrated logistics and services provider Agency. The NSPA is a fully customer-funded agency, operating on a “no profit - no loss” basis. It brings together NATO’s logistics and procurement support activities in a single organisation, providing integrated multinational support solutions for its stakeholders.

Main tasks and responsibilities
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 nations, both individually and collectively. In line with guidance provided by the North Atlantic Council, it aims to maximise the ability and flexibility of armed forces, contingents, and other relevant organisations to execute their core mission.

NSPA is organised into three business segments: the NATO Airlift Management Programme (NAM), the Central Europe Pipeline System Programme (CEPS) and Logistics Operations.

The NATO Airlift Management Programme acquires, manages and supports the airlift assets that nations can call upon to fulfil their national, NATO, European Union and United Nations commitments. It provides financial, logistics, and administrative services in support of the Heavy Airlift Wing (HAW), a multinational military unit located in Hungary and responsible for operating the Airlift Management Programme-owned aircraft used to meet the requirements of the participating nations in accordance with a pre-agreed allocation of flying hours.

Members of the NAM Programme include Bulgaria, Estonia, Finland, Hungary, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Sweden and the United States. The NAM Programme Board, acting in the collective interests of all NAM member nations, is the governing body for Programme execution.

The Central Europe Pipeline System 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 France, coordinates and designs the planning of cross-border traffic and manages product quality control. It is responsible for operational, technical and financial control, as well as the coordination of business development. Operations run on a 24/7 basis, with the CEPS Programme Office serving as the intermediary between suppliers and national organisations, NATO authorities, and non-military clients.

Members of the CEPS Programme include Belgium, France, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and the United States. The CEPS Programme Board, acting in the collective interests of all CEPS Programme member nations, is the governing body for Programme execution.

The Logistics Operations segment is a grouping of multiple weapon and equipment systems support capabilities, some highly specialised. These are provided using multinational legal frameworks, as well as bilateral and multinational agreements, that enable the consolidation and centralisation of logistics management functions across NATO. All of these capabilities can be used to support NATO
and member nations during exercises and during deployments under North Atlantic Council-approved operations.

The majority of the logistics support provided is outsourced to industry through international competitive bidding. The segment also has an in-house engineering and technical support capability covering a number of specific technologies, such as optoelectronics and calibration.

Logistics Operations maintains a Southern Operational Centre (SOC) in Italy. A number of its staff are deployed to operations and NATO commands to provide front line support.

**The Agency’s structure**

Headquartered in Capellen, Luxembourg, the NSPA employs some 1,200 staff in operational centres in Luxembourg, France, Hungary and Italy. Headed by a General Manager, the NSPA is the executive body of the NATO Support Organisation (NSPO). All 28 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 NSPO to carry out its work. It reports to the North Atlantic Council (NAC).

**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 NSPA Agency was established on 1 July 2012 as a result of the merger of the former in-service support agencies: the NATO Maintenance Supply Agency (NAMSA), the NATO Airlift Management Agency (NAMA) and the Central Europe Pipeline Management Agency (CEPMA).
The NATO Procurement Organisation (NPO)

A NATO Procurement Organisation (NPO) was established on 6 July 2012. This was the first step in the creation of a framework for the execution of multinational armament procurement programmes within the Alliance.

In 2014, the North Atlantic Council decided to merge the Procurement and Support Agencies (NPO and NATO Support Agency (NSPA)), while postponing the activation of the procurement entity within the NSPA to the time when programmes are actually assigned. For the time being, NATO’s major acquisition programmes (such as the NATO Eurofighter and Tornado Management Agency (NETMA), NATO Helicopter Management Agency (NAHEMA), NATO Alliance Ground Surveillance Management Agency (NAGSMA), NATO Medium Extended Air Defence System Management Agency (NAMEADSMA), and NATO Airborne Early Warning & Control Programme Management Agency (NAPMA)) will most likely continue to exist until the NSPA’s mission is fulfilled or participating nations decide to integrate into the new NPO.
The NATO Science and Technology Organization (STO)

The NATO Science and Technology Organization (STO) acts as NATO’s principal organization for science and technology research.

It is composed of a Science and Technology Board (STB), Scientific and Technical Committees and three Executive Bodies; the Office of the Chief Scientist (OCS), the Collaboration Support Office (CSO), and the Centre for Maritime Research and Experimentation (CMRE).

**Main tasks and responsibilities**

The mission of the STO is to help position both national and NATO science and technology investments as a strategic enabler of the knowledge and technology advantage for the defence and security posture of NATO Allies and partners.

The Organisation aims to leverage and augment the science and technology capabilities and programmes to contribute to NATO’s ability to influence security and defence related development. It also supports decisions made at both national and NATO level by providing advice to the North Atlantic Council and national leadership.

**The Organization’s structure**

The Chief Scientist is the chairman of the STB and the senior science advisor to the North Atlantic Council. The Office of the Chief Scientist (OCS) is located in Brussels, Belgium at NATO HQ.

The scientific and technical committees, composed of members from national and NATO bodies, will continue to direct and execute NATO’s collaborative science and technology activities.

Executive and administrative support to NATO’s collaborative science and technology activities will be delivered by the Collaboration Support Office (CSO), formerly known as the Research and Technology Agency (RTA), located in Neuilly-sur-Seine, France.

The Centre for Maritime Research and Experimentation (CMRE), formerly known as the NATO Undersea Research Centre (NURC), located in La Spezia, Italy, will organise and conduct scientific research and technology development, centred on the maritime domain, delivering innovative solutions to address the Alliance’s defence and security needs.

CMRE conducts hands-on scientific and engineering research for the direct benefit of NATO and its’ customers. 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 specialized research to be conducted in core areas of interest for NATO. CMRE’s engineering capability enables rapid exploitation of concept prototypes for use in trials and military experiments. The Centre has also a scientific and engineering knowledge base which is published for use across NATO.

**Evolution**

The STO was created through the amalgamation of the Research and Technology Organization (RTO) and the NATO Undersea Research Centre (NURC). These bodies were brought together following a decision at the Lisbon Summit to reform the NATO agency structure. The standing-up of the STO is part of a three phase implementation process of these reforms.
The first phase is the consolidation phase and runs from 1 July 2012 to 1 January 2013. It comprises the stand-up of the STO, the delivery of the NATO Science and Technology Strategy, the production of the CMRE Business Plan and the delivery of the study pertaining to the Operational Research and Analysis (ORA) function.

The second phase is the rationalization phase. This phase begins on 1 January 2013 and lasts until 1 July 2014. The phase comprises transition of the CMRE to its new business model, the implementation of the NATO Science and Technology Strategy, the implementation of the decisions pertaining to the ORA function and a further consolidation study.

The third and last phase is the optimization phase. It is planned between 1 July 2014 and 1 July 2015. It comprises the optimization of the measures of the rationalization phase and the implementation of the decisions pertaining to a further consolidation study.
Programmes and activities

Air defence

NATO Air Command and Control System (ACCS)

The NATO Air Command and Control System (ACCS) is intended to combine and automate the planning, tasking and execution of all air operations at the tactical level.

In 2014, NATO ACCS will start to replace a wide variety of NATO and national air defence and air command and control systems currently fielded across the Alliance. For the first time, NATO ACCS will provide a unified air command and control system, enabling NATO and the nations to manage all types of air operations both over NATO European territory and when deployed out of area. NATO ACCS will integrate air mission control, air traffic control, airspace surveillance, airspace management and force management functions among other functionalities.

NATO ACCS comprises cutting-edge technology and makes full use of up-to-date data link communications. Using an open-system architecture, the system is designed to make it easier to add functionality, make necessary upgrades and address emerging operational requirement, such as theatre missile defence. It also means that the Alliance is not dependent on a single contractor and so encourages competition among vendors. This way NATO ACCS will be able to adapt to a changing operational environment and play a key role within the Alliance’s military doctrine of network-centric warfare as it will allow improved information-sharing and shared situational awareness to distributed sites in order to support collaboration on robust networks.

NATO ACCS in practice

The NATO ACCS will be one of the major pillars of NATO’s Integrated Air and Missile Defence System (NATINAMDS) capability. For the first time, all air operations including air policing and defensive, offensive and support mission planning and execution will be provided by a unified, multi-entity system.

Further, such operations will be undertaken from a range of static and deployable installations providing the same applications and using the same “look and feel” to give full operational interoperability. Each of these physical entities will be interconnected and will communicate with each other over the NATO secure network infrastructure.

The system: air command and control

NATO ACCS will replace many existing NATO and national air defence systems and will extend the NATINAMDS to the member countries which joined the Alliance in more recent years. Additional projects in support of NATO ACCS will, for example, enhance missile defence command and control capabilities and maintain NATO’s ability to operate in the Single European Sky environment. The Single European Sky is a European Commission initiative by which the design, management and regulation of airspace will be coordinated throughout the European Union.
**Deployability**

As well as static installations in the Alliance’s European Allies, the NATO ACCS programme will provide deployable capabilities to reinforce the static installation on Alliance territory and also on operations beyond NATO’s borders (of which Afghanistan is a recent example).

**Information-sharing**

NATO ACCS is a distributed computer system based on a common design and implemented through common hardware and software; it can essentially be viewed as a system of systems, particularly as the majority of the entities are located in NATO member countries, are nationally-manned and meet both NATO and national requirements. All are dedicated systems which pool their resources and capabilities to create a new, more complex system offering greater functionality and performance than simply being the sum of the constituent parts.

NATO ACCS also shares information with a multitude of external agencies and systems using common data definitions and making maximum use of NATO and international standards to ensure interoperability.

**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 reorganisation 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 both on the NATO Headquarters compound in Brussels, Belgium and in 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. Alliance nations 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 Integrated Air and Missile Defence

NATO Integrated Air and Missile Defence is the integration of capabilities and overlapping operations of all services (air, land and maritime forces) to deter and defend all Alliance territory, populations and forces to ensure freedom of action by negating an adversary’s ability to achieve adverse effects from its air and missile capabilities. It includes a network of interconnected systems to detect, track, classify, identify and monitor airborne objects, and – if necessary – to intercept them using surface-based or airborne weapons systems, as well as the procedures necessary to employ the systems.

NATO member countries started working together in the 1970s to establish an integrated air defence structure and system, combining national assets supplemented as needed by NATO elements. Operating together is both more effective and more efficient in protecting against air attacks than national air defence systems operating independently. With the advent of an Alliance ballistic missile defence (BMD) capability, this structure is now known as the NATO Integrated Air and Missile Defence System (NATINAMDS). It comes under the command and control of NATO’s Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR). The NATINAMDS is a cornerstone of NATO air and missile defence policy, and a visible indication of cohesion, shared responsibility and solidarity across the Alliance.

Components

The NATO Integrated Air and Missile Defence System is comprised of the four functional areas of ‘Command, Control, Communications and Intelligence’ ‘Surveillance’, ‘Active Air Defence’ and ‘Passive Air Defence’. All four functional areas contribute to the Defensive Counter Air (DCA) mission and provide the basis for the protection of Alliance populations, territory and forces and the projection of air and missile defence firepower.

Depending on the mission, NATO Allies commit forces (land, air and maritime) which are assigned to SACEUR. However, the decision on the size and shape of the forces and their equipment to be provided remains a national responsibility.

The Air Command and Control System

Air Command and Control (Air C2) is essential to the success of any operation. The Air C2 structure in NATO is a patchwork of disparate and aging systems that in many cases are reaching the end of their planned operational life.

In recognition of the increasingly joint nature of military operations – as well as of the need to replace aging equipment – NATO has developed a new and more robust capability that will be a C2 system for all air operations. This system, called Air Command and Control System (ACCS), will facilitate the planning, tasking, execution and coordination of all integrated air and missile defence missions in peacetime, crisis and conflict. ACCS will support all of NATO’s static and deployed operations and missions.

Tasks

NATO air policing

NATO air policing is a peacetime mission which requires an Air Surveillance and Control System (ASACS), an Air Command and Control (Air C2) structure and Quick Reaction Alert (Interceptor) (QRA(I)) aircraft 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 and infringements can be recognised, and the appropriate action taken.

Although not all Allies possess the necessary means to provide air policing of their airspace, other countries provide assistance when needed to ensure that no country is left at a disadvantage and equality of security is provided for all.

SACEUR is responsible for the conduct of the NATO air policing mission.

**Theatre ballistic missile defence**

In 2010, NATO fielded an Interim theatre ballistic missile defence capability to protect Alliance forces against ballistic missile threats.

**Ballistic missile defence**

At the 2010 NATO Summit in Lisbon, Allied leaders decided to develop a ballistic missile defence (BMD) capability to pursue collective defence. Specifically, they decided that the scope of the current Active Layered Theatre Ballistic Missile Defence (ALTBMD) programme’s command, control and communication capabilities would be expanded beyond the capability to protect deployed forces to also include NATO European territory, forces and populations.

The United States’ European Phased Adaptive Approach (EPAA) and other possible national contributions were welcomed as valuable national contributions to the NATO BMD architecture.

In May 2012 at the Chicago Summit, NATO leaders declared that the Alliance had achieved an Interim NATO BMD capability. This is a significant first step in implementing NATO’s BMD capability. It offers the maximum coverage within available means to defend NATO’s populations, territory and forces across southern Europe against a ballistic missile attack. The Alliance remains committed to installing full BMD coverage for all NATO European territory by the end of this decade.

**Mechanisms**

The Air and Missile Defence Committee (AMDC) is the senior multinational policy advisory and coordinating body regarding all elements of NATO’s integrated air and missile defence, and relevant air power aspects. It reports directly to the North Atlantic Council (NAC).

The Military Committee Working Group (Air Defence) is responsible for reviewing, advising and making recommendations on air and missile defence issues to NATO’s Military Committee.

Other groups dealing with air and missile defence-related issues include NATO’s Defence Policy and Planning Committee (Reinforced) with particular responsibilities on ballistic missile defence, the Missile Defence Project Group, the BMD Programme Office, and the NATO-Russia Council Missile Defence Working Group. In October 2013, NATO-Russia missile defence-related discussions were paused by Russia, and in April 2014, NATO suspended all cooperation with Russia in response to the Ukraine crisis.

**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 defence matters of common interest.
The air defence partner cooperation programme includes fact-finding meetings with air defence experts, seminars and workshops, visits to air defence facilities and installations, joint analytical studies and a programme for the exchange of unclassified air situation data.
Airborne early warning

AWACS: NATO's 'Eye In The Sky'

NATO operates a fleet of Boeing E-3A 'Sentry' Airborne Warning & Control System (AWACS) aircraft, which provide the Alliance with an immediately available airborne command and control (C2), air and maritime surveillance and battle-space management capability. NATO Air Base (NAB) Geilenkirchen, Germany, is home to 17 AWACS aircraft.

The NE-3A 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 one of the few military assets that is actually owned and operated by NATO. It 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.

Role and responsibilities

The NAEW&C Force performs a unique and valuable role for the Alliance by conducting 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.

In recent years, the force has been deployed on increasingly complex and demanding tactical missions, including among numerous others:

- 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 (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 Armée de l'Air and the US Air Force also helped achieve the objectives of these missions.

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, NATO E-3A 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.

Since 2007, the NAEW&C Force has been used successfully in support of NATO’s counter-terrorism activities in the Mediterranean Sea during Operation Active Endeavour and for numerous other high-visibility events.

Since January 2011, aircraft from NAB Geilenkirchen have been deploying to Afghanistan to support the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) by providing air surveillance coverage as part of Operation Afghan Assist. During Operation Unified Protector, 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). NATO E-3A aircraft also supported Allied ships and submarines enforcing the maritime arms embargo against Libya by providing an aerial maritime surveillance capability.

Protecting NATO populations
As a consequence of the 9/11 attacks, NATO governments have been able to request 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 and the 2013 Dutch royal handover in Amsterdam, the Netherlands. Further, the NAEW&C fleets have consistently provided air support to NATO summit meetings.

Working Mechanism
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 Command Headquarters is co-located with Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE) in Mons, Belgium, and exercises operational control over the Force, consisting of two operational components:
• the E-3A Component based at NAB Geilenkirchen, which operates the 17 NATO-owned NE-3A aircraft (the squadrons are manned by integrated international crews from 15 nations); and
• the E-3D Component based at RAF Waddington, United Kingdom, which operates their six Boeing E-3D aircraft (the component is manned by Royal Air Force 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 Oerland, 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 at 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 NE-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 operations and support of the fleet.

**How the NAEW&C Force works**

All AWACS aircraft undergo continuous modifications for modernisation and for operations and support. An NE-3A aircraft modified under the NATO Mid-Term (NMT) Programme has a standard crew of 16, while the original E-3D requires a standard crew of 18. Whatever the variant, the flight and mission crews are highly-trained men and women whose expertise covers all areas of flight operations, including battle space management, weapons control, surveillance control, data link management and the technical aspects of communications, data systems and mission radar.

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 NE-3A such a uniquely recognisable aircraft. This structure rotates once every ten seconds and provides the NE-3A 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 and three aircraft operating in overlapping, coordinated orbits can provide unbroken radar coverage of the whole of Central Europe.

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.

**Evolution**

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 NAWE&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**

Originally designed as an elevated radar platform, the NATO E-3A 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 NE-3A 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 NAWE&C Acquisition Programme through the Near-Term Programme and on through the Mid-Term Programme, the NAPMO nations have collectively spent/committed, for acquisition and follow-on support, in excess of US$6.8 billion – prohibitively expensive for any single country, but realisable through the collective contribution of the NAPMO nations.

Today NATO is moving forward with a new and improved method of planning and conducting operations. To support the dynamic NATO transformation process, NAPMO is committed to adopt new business approaches and enter into cooperative programmes. The purpose is to expedite the fielding of operational capabilities in response to emerging requirements at a cost that takes into consideration today’s economic realities. In that sense, efforts are underway for the next phase of NAWE&C enhancements, which will allow the force to continue fulfilling its operational mandate well into the future.

To be completed by 2018, Future Upgrade Programmes (FUP) are primarily aimed at enhancing the identification system (Mode5/Enhanced Mode S) and replacing the analogue cockpit technology with modern, digital technology (known as a “glass” cockpit). Communication systems which use Internet Protocol (IP) are also being developed and fielded to support text communications with other command and control (C2) assets.

Possible future enhancements beyond 2018 are currently being assessed by NATO military authorities, which might culminate in a new modernisation programme.
NATO Airborne Early Warning and Control Programme Management Organisation (NAPMO)

The NAPMO is responsible for the management and implementation of the NATO Airborne Early Warning and Control (NAEW&C) programme – a fleet of special, ‘early warning’ aircraft.

The NAEW&C programme currently consists of 18 E-3A aircraft and three trainer aircraft. It provides the Alliance with an immediately available airborne surveillance, warning and command capability.

This capability has been used extensively in NATO operations, as well as to protect major public events in NATO member countries.

What are its authority, tasks, and responsibilities?
The NAPMO was established by a NATO Charter on 8 December 1978 as a NATO Production and Logistic Organisation. This gives it the status of a formal subsidiary organisation of NATO under the provisions of the 1951 Ottawa Agreement on the Status of NATO National Representatives and International Staff.

It is responsible for all aspects of the management, implementation and modernisation of the NAEW&C programme.

It reports directly to the North Atlantic Council, NATO’s principal decision-making body.

Who participates?
The NAPMO’s members are the 15 countries that contribute to the AEW&C programme: Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Spain, Turkey, and the United States. The United Kingdom has its own fleet of E-3D AWACS aircraft which it provides to the NAPMO as a ‘contribution in kind’.

Both the United States and France have their own national AWACS fleets. France attends NAPMO meetings as an observer, however its E-3F AWACS aircraft participate in joint operations with NATO counterparts on a case-by-case basis.

How does it work in practice?
NATO’s Airborne Early Warning and Control Programme Management Organisation consists of a Board of Directors, supported by a Programme Management Agency (NAPMA) which is located at Brunssum, the Netherlands; a Legal, Contracts and Finance Committee; an Operations, Technical and Support Committee; and, a Depot Level Maintenance Steering Group.

Each participating country is represented on the Board of Directors, which normally meets twice a year in formal session, and also in an optional special Spring meeting when required.

Representatives of the NATO Secretary General, the Alliance’s two Strategic Commanders, the NATO AEW&C Force Commander and other NATO bodies, if required, also attend meetings of the Board of Directors, Committees, and Steering Group, but have no voting rights. Decisions are taken on the basis of consensus among the participating countries.

The General Manager of the NAPMA is responsible for the day-to-day management of acquisition related activities in support of the NAEW&C Programme.
Airspace and air traffic management
NATO Air Traffic Management Committee

The NATO Air Traffic Management Committee (ATMC) is the senior civil-military NATO body with responsibility for air traffic management (ATM).

The ATMC ensures NATO’s interface with civil aviation authorities and is charged with the production, dissemination, monitoring and enforcement of Allied ATM standards, guidance and policy. It also advises the North Atlantic Council (NAC) on all matters related to airspace use and ATM in support of Alliance objectives.

Role and responsibilities
The ATMC’s main focus is to provide ATM support to NATO missions, operations and exercises. Most notably, this vital support is being provided in the Balkans, Afghanistan and Libya, where NATO is working alongside national governments, international and regional bodies and organisations to rebuild and rehabilitate the countries’ respective aviation sectors.

To ensure that Allied forces train and prepare adequately for their contribution to operations, the ATMC monitors aviation modernisation developments. It takes appropriate action to safeguard NATO’s requirements regarding airspace utilisation and evaluates the impact of new ATM and communications, navigation and surveillance (CNS) developments on NATO’s operational capability. The Committee regularly tasks its technical working body, known as the Air Traffic Management-Communications, Navigation and Surveillance Working Group (ATM-CNS WG) to develop consolidated NATO views, policies, doctrines and guidance on ATM matters.

This approach helps the ATMC contribute to ATM harmonisation, interoperability and standardisation for manned and un-manned aircraft. Further, the ATMC helps NATO contribute to security in the civil/military aviation domain through a joint NATO/Eurocontrol ATM Security Coordinating Group.

Main participants
The ATMC is chaired by the Director of the Aerospace Capabilities Directorate in NATO’s Defence Investment (DI) Division. The day-to-day work of the Committee is supported by DI.

Airspace use and ATM require global coordination. Thus, the ATMC ensures cooperation, dialogue and partnership with other national, regional and international aviation organisations and bodies. Representatives of the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO), Eurocontrol, European Commission Air transport, the International Air Transport Association (IATA) and other aviation stakeholders regularly attend ATMC meetings and provide advice and support. Dedicated sessions of the committee take place in cooperation with partner countries. In particular, the ATMC also works with the involvement and support of NATO’s Euro-Atlantic and Mediterranean Dialogue partners.
Armaments cooperation and planning

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.

It brings together the top national officials responsible for defence procurement in NATO member and partner countries to consider the political, economic and technical aspects of the development and procurement of equipment for NATO forces.

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.

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.

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.
Arms control and disarmament

NATO’s role in conventional 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.

The 2010 Strategic Concept of the Alliance reiterates the major role of arms control in achieving security objectives, the continued importance of harmonising defence and arms control policies and objectives and NATO’s commitment to the development of future arms control agreements.

One of the most significant achievements in this sphere is the landmark 1990 Treaty on Conventional Armed Forces in Europe (CFE). This Treaty 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. Russia “suspended” its participation in the Treaty in December 2007.

NATO also supports the implementation of a variety of confidence and security-building measures. These include the Vienna Document, a politically binding agreement designed to promote mutual trust and transparency about a state’s military forces and activities, and the Open Skies Treaty, which is legally binding and allows for unarmed aerial observation flights over a country’s territory.

Although not all member states of the Alliance are a party to the Ottawa Convention on anti-personnel mines, all members of the Alliance fully support its humanitarian demining goals. Moreover, the Alliance assists partner countries in the destruction of surplus stocks of mines, arms and munitions through a NATO/Partnership Trust Fund mechanism.

The first decade of the new millennium has also witnessed two other major developments in the field of conventional arms control: the Convention on Cluster Munitions and the UN process “Towards an Arms Trade Treaty”. These initiatives mark the continuing importance and relevance of conventional arms control today for peace and security.

Conventional arms control agreements

The Conventional Forces in Europe (CFE) Treaty

Since the CFE 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.

At NATO summits and ministerial meetings since 2000, the Allies have reiterated their commitment to the CFE Treaty and have reaffirmed their readiness and commitment to ratify the Adapted Treaty. However, 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 parties 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 implement fully their obligations with respect to all other CFE States Parties. However, in the December 2011 foreign ministerial communiqué, Allies stated that these decisions were fully 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.

The Vienna Document
Similarly, under the Vienna Document, thousands of inspections and evaluation visits have been conducted as well as airbase visits and visits to military facilities; also new types of armament and equipment have been demonstrated to the participating states of the Vienna Document. With an aim to reflect the contemporary security policy environment an updated version of the Vienna Document known as the Vienna Document 2011 was approved by the OSCE in December 2011.

The Open Skies Treaty
Under the Open Skies Treaty, more than 850 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. This decision secures the future relevance of the Treaty, adds to its efficiency and reduces implementation costs.
**The UN Programme of Action to Prevent, Combat and Eradicate the Illicit Trade in Small Arms and Light Weapons (SALW) 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. The EAPC Ad Hoc Working Group on SALW and Mine Action contributes to international efforts to address the illicit trade in SALW and encourages efforts to fully implement 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. Every two years, the United Nations (UN) holds the Biennial Meeting of States to Consider the Implementation of the Programme of Action (BMS), to which NATO participates. National delegations from all member states gather every six years to review the progress made in the implementation of the Programme of Action. The International Staff participated in this review on behalf of the EAPC in August 2012.

**Mine action**

The EAPC Ad Hoc Working Group on SALW and Mine Action also supports mine action efforts through Trust Fund projects and information-sharing. In particular, its guest speaker programme provides an opportunity for mine action experts to share their expertise with the Group. These speakers originate from national mine action centres, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) 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 Working Group has broadened its focus to also incorporate issues related to explosive remnants of war and cluster munitions onto its agenda.

**The Convention on Cluster Munitions**

The Convention on Cluster Munitions (CCM) 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.

**The 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. Despite the efforts
put forth by delegations during the four weeks of negotiations, the Conference could not reach agreement on a treaty text. Governments are now considering the next steps to conclude the negotiations in the not-so-distant future. This Treaty is intended to establish common international standards for the import, export and transfer of conventional arms. NATO stands ready to support the Arms Trade Treaty process as appropriate.

**NATO/Partnership Trust Fund projects**

The NATO/Partnership 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 small arms and light weapons, and assisting partner countries in managing the consequences of defence reform. So far, NATO has contributed to the destruction of 4.5 million landmines, 31,000 tonnes of various munitions, 2 million hand grenades, 15.5 million cluster sub munitions, 1,470 man-portable air defence systems (MANPADS), and 615,000 SALW alongside 162 million rounds of SALW ammunition.

Trust Fund projects are initiated by a NATO member or partner country and funded by voluntary contributions from individual Allies, partners, contact countries, 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 (CSBM).

Implementation and verification of arms control agreements fall under the purview of the Verification Coordinating Committee (VCC), including overseeing a designated CFE verification database.

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.

Other fora include the Political Partnerships Committee and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council Ad Hoc Working Group on Small Arms and Light Weapons.

The NATO School Oberammergau (Germany) conducts 12 courses a year in the fields of arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation. Most of them are also open to NATO’s partners across the globe.
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 these policies, while at the same time ensuring that its collective defence obligations are met and the full range of its missions fulfilled.

Allies participate actively in international arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation treaties and agreements. NATO itself does not belong to any treaty as an entity but it continues to encourage its members, partners and other countries to implement their international obligations fully.

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 combating the spread of small arms and light weapons (SALW), munitions and man-portable air defence systems (MANPADS); preventing the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction (WMD) and developing and harmonising capabilities to defend against chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) threats.

Arms control and disarmament are key elements of the Euro-Atlantic security architecture. Over the past two decades, Allies have significantly contributed to more stable international relations at lower levels of military forces and armaments, through effective and verifiable arms control agreements.

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 Strasbourg/Kehl Declaration in 2009 and the Lisbon Declaration in 2010.

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 research, manufacture, or the levels of and/or locales of deployment of troops and weapons systems.

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.

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.” Non-proliferation usually applies to weapons of mass destruction (WMD), which the Alliance defines as a weapon that
is "capable of a high order of destruction and of being used in such a manner as to destroy people, infrastructure or other resources on a large scale."

**WMD 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 (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).

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.

**The 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.

**Conventional forces**

Allies have reduced their conventional forces significantly from Cold War levels. Allies remain committed to the regime of the Conventional Forces in Europe (CFE) Treaty. As a response to Russia’s unilateral “suspension” of its Treaty obligations in 2007, NATO CFE Allies have 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 Chicago Summit in May 2012, 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.

**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 possible level and with an appropriate mix of nuclear and conventional forces. The nuclear weapons committed to NATO have been reduced by more than 95 per cent since the height of the Cold War. NATO nuclear weapon states have also reduced their nuclear arsenals and ceased production of highly enriched uranium or plutonium for nuclear weapons. All Allies are parties to the Nuclear Non-proliferation Treaty (NPT) and view it as an essential foundation for international peace and security.

**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**

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. 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.

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, contact countries and organisations.

**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 have also taken a comprehensive set of practical initiatives to defend their populations, territory and forces against potential WMD threats. As part of NATO’s outreach to Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) partners, Mediterranean Dialogue countries, Istanbul Cooperation Initiative countries and other partner countries, the NATO Conference on Arms Control, Disarmament and Non-Proliferation is the only annual conference, sponsored by an international organisation, dealing with all types and aspects of weapons of mass destruction.

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

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.

**The 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.

**The 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 the 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.

The Comprehensive Concept of Arms Control and Disarmament
In May 1989, NATO adopted a 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.”

The Strategic Concept, adopted at the Lisbon Summit in November 2010 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”.

Defence and Deterrence Posture Review
The NATO Defence and Deterrence 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 this commitment in declarations made at previous summit meetings held in Washington (1999), Istanbul (2004), Riga (2006), Bucharest (2008), Strasbourg-Kehl (2009), Lisbon (2010), and Chicago (2012). At the Strasbourg-Kehl Summit NATO Heads of State and Government 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.
The subject of arms control is also embedded in the 1997 NATO-Russia Founding Act and in the declaration made by Allied and Russian leaders at the 2002 Rome Summit, which set up the NATO-Russia Council.

**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 as well as in defence format.

Within NATO’s cooperative frameworks, the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (in particular, the Ad Hoc Working Group on Small Arms and Light Weapons and Mine Action) and the NATO-Russia Council (in particular, the Arms Control, Disarmament, Non-Proliferation (ADN) format) have central roles. (Note: work in the NATO-Russia Council is suspended.)
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.
As of early 2014, NATO Trust Fund projects have cleared 1,400 hectares of land.
They have also destroyed 4,500,000 anti-personnel landmines and 2,000,000 hand grenades.
NATO 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.

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 Ad Hoc Working Group on SALW (AHWG 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 (quarterly) to address these specific issues. The objective of the Working Group is to contribute to international efforts to reduce the impact of anti-personnel landmines, as well as the threats caused by the illicit trade of SALW.

An annual work programme

The Working Group organises its work around a work programme that it adopts annually. 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 the European Union (EU), the NATO Support 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 Development Programme (UNDP). 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 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 two courses related to SALW and/or mine action that are usually held at the NATO School in Oberammergau, Germany. The first is the “SALW and Mine Action Orientation Course”. Aimed at mid-level management personnel, it provides students with an overview of the most significant political, practical and regulatory issues needed to deal with SALW, conventional ammunition and mine action from a national, regional or global perspective. It includes cross-cutting issues, such as gender mainstreaming that will affect the various facets of issues related to SALW and mine action. The first iteration is currently scheduled for the first half of 2014. A second, more
technical course entitled “SALW Implementation Course”, focuses on the practical and technical elements relevant for conducting site assessment visits, such as the development of appropriate standard operating procedures. Both courses are open to military and civilian personnel from EAPC countries.

NATO support to UN 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. Every two years, the UN holds the “Biennial Meeting of States to Consider the Implementation of the PoA”. The NATO Ad Hoc Working Group supports the implementation of the PoA 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.

On 2 April 2013, the UN General Assembly adopted the landmark Arms Trade Treaty (ATT), regulating the international trade in conventional arms, from small arms to battle tanks, combat aircraft and warships. 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 (PfP) Trust Fund mechanism to assist partners with these problems. 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 executive agents. 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.

As of early 2014, Allies and partners, through the Trust Fund projects, have destroyed or cleared:

- 162,000,000 rounds of ammunition
- 15,500,000 cluster sub-munitions
- 4,500,000 anti-personnel landmines
- 2,000,000 hand grenades
- 615,000 small arms and light weapons (SALW)
- 625,000 pieces of unexploded ordnance (UXO)
- 31,000 tonnes of various ammunition
- 10,000 surface-to-air missiles and rockets
- 1,470 man-portable air defence systems (MANPADS)
- 2,620 tonnes of chemicals, including rocket fuel oxidiser (“mélange”)
- 1,400 hectares cleared

In addition, some 11,800 former military personnel have received retraining assistance through Trust Fund defence reform projects.

The Trust Fund mechanism is open to countries participating in NATO’s PfP programme, the Mediterranean Dialogue and the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative. For instance, in 2014, NATO has engaged in the improvement of safety and security of ammunition storage facilities in Mauritania and the destruction of excess ammunition in Jordan, thus enhancing safety of local communities. Trust Funds are also open to countries where NATO is leading a crisis-management operation. In 2010, NATO successfully completed a Trust Fund project in Afghanistan, achieving its aim of providing the Afghan National Army further means to manage munitions in a safe and efficient way.

Once the project proposal is agreed by the lead nation and the partner country concerned, it is presented to the Political Partnerships Committee (PPC), which is the formal forum to discuss projects and attract volunteer donor support and resources. The Luxembourg-based NATO Support Agency 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.
Civil emergency planning

A key security task of the Alliance

The aim of civil emergency planning in NATO is to collect, analyse and share information on national planning activity to ensure the most effective use of civil resources for use during emergency situations, in accordance with Alliance objectives.

It enables Allies and Partner nations to assist each other in preparing for and dealing with the consequences of crisis, disaster or conflict.

In a rapidly changing world, populations in NATO and Partner countries are threatened by many risks including the possible use of chemical, biological, radiological weapons by terrorists. However, terrorism is not the only challenge. Natural disasters, such as earthquakes or floods and man-made disasters continue to pose a serious threat to civilian populations.

Civil emergencies: a threat to security and stability

Civil emergency planning is first and foremost a national responsibility. However, NATO’s broad approach to security, as described in the 1999 Strategic Concept, recognizes that major civil emergencies can pose a threat to security and stability.

Countries can no longer rely on purely national solutions for large-scale emergencies, particularly given the complex nature of today’s threats and the unpredictable security environment.

While the United Nations retains the primary role in coordinating international disaster relief, NATO provides an effective forum in which the use of civilian and military assets can be dovetailed to achieve a desired goal. Given the requirement for the military and civilian communities to develop and maintain robust cooperation, civil emergency planning in NATO focuses on the five following areas:

- civil support for Alliance Article 5 (collective defence) operations;
- support for non-Article 5 (crisis response) operations;
- support for national authorities in civil emergencies;
- support for national authorities in the protection of populations against the effects of weapons of mass destruction;
- cooperation with Partner countries in preparing for and dealing with disasters.

Civil support for Alliance Article 5 (collective defence) operations

During an invocation of Article 5, the collective defence clause of the North Atlantic Treaty, civil support to the military takes the form of advice provided by civilian experts to NATO military authorities in areas such as decontamination of toxic and industrial chemicals and civil transport, be it air, ground, or sea. Support is provided to military authorities to assist them in developing and maintaining arrangements for effective use of civil resources.

For example, in Active Endeavour, the Alliance’s counter-terrorism operation in the Mediterranean, civil ocean shipping experts provided advice to Allied navies on commercial standards and international law regarding the searching of ships.
Advice and support are demand-driven. In other words, NATO military authorities must request such help if they consider it necessary. Support is provided during peacetime, as well as during the planning and execution of an operation.

Civil support to the military within civil emergency planning should not be confused with civil military cooperation (CIMIC), which concerns interactions between deployed military forces, local authorities and aid agencies in an area of operations in the context of a conflict or disaster situation. CIMIC establishes relationships with civil actors, harmonizing activities and, in some cases, sharing resources, in order to reach goals faster and more efficiently.

**Network of civil experts**
A group of 380 civil experts located across the Euro-Atlantic area are selected based on specific areas of support frequently required by the military. They cover civil aspects relevant to NATO planning and operations including crisis management, consequence management and critical infrastructure. Provided by nations, experts are drawn from government and industry. They serve for three years, participate in training and respond to requests for assistance in accordance with specific procedures known as the Civil Emergency Planning Crisis Management Arrangements.

**Civil Expertise Catalogue and “Reachback”**
The Civil Expertise Catalogue is a list of assets and capabilities which are available to NATO’s military authorities, operational commanders, and the entire military chain of command. Expertise is usually located in national ministries, or in a commercial businesses.

The Catalogue is administered by the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre. Any military commander in need of information or advice on a civilian matter can address a request to the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre. The process for requesting information is what is known as “reachback”.

**The Civil Emergency Planning Rapid Reaction Team**
The Civil Emergency Planning Rapid Reaction Team is a concept designed to evaluating civil needs and capabilities to support a NATO operation or an emergency situation. This concept was approved in 2006.

Within 24-hours of approving a request for advice, a Rapid Reaction Team composed of civil experts taken from the Civil Emergency Planning Committee’s Planning Groups can be deployed to assess civilian requirements across the functional areas of civil protection, transportation, industrial resources and communications, medical assistance and food/water.

If necessary, the team can be augmented by members of the NATO Headquarters international staff, the NATO military authorities, and other national experts. In the case of a humanitarian disaster, the Rapid Reaction Team would coordinate closely with the United Nations and the affected country.

The first example of a deployment of civil experts in accordance with the Rapid Reaction Team procedures happened in August 2008 as a result of the crisis in Georgia.

**Comprehensive Approach Specialist Support (COMPASS)**
NATO Civil Emergency Planning is responsible for the management of the Comprehensive Approach Specialist Support (COMPASS) database which is a list of national civilian specialists deployable for short, medium and long term assignments. They are specialised in the political, reconstruction and
stabilisation and media fields. Their role is to advise NATO forces on fulfilling their task in coordination with other international organisations.

**Support for non-Article 5 (crisis response) operations**

The mechanisms in place for providing civil support for Article 5 operations are applied to non-Article 5 operations as well.

Non-Article 5 operations have been more common thus far than their Article 5 counterparts. Non-Article 5 crisis response operations are those that are mainly conducted in non-NATO countries to prevent a conflict from spreading and destabilizing countries or regions (e.g. peacekeeping operations such as in Bosnia and Herzegovina and Kosovo).

Beginning in the 1990s, NATO engaged in a number of non-Article 5 crisis response operations on three continents: initially in the former Yugoslavia in Europe and subsequently in Afghanistan and Iraq in Asia and in the Darfur region of Sudan in Africa. These operations have covered a wide variety of missions, from crisis prevention to emergency crisis response.

For example, at the request of NATO commanders in Afghanistan, civil experts have provided advice on commercial toxic chemicals, thereby allowing commanders to make operational decisions on their handling.

Also, during the Alliance’s support to the 2004 Summer Olympic Games in Greece, civilian representatives from the Euro-Atlantic Coordination Centre worked closely with military operators in the contingency planning for a possible terrorist attack using chemical, biological or radiological agents. Civil support for these operations has been critical to their success.

**Support for national authorities in civil emergencies**

Providing support to national authorities in times of civil emergencies, natural or man-made, is conducted on an ad hoc basis as requested by national authorities in times of crisis or under extraordinary circumstances.

Requests for assistance from member or partner countries are addressed to the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre, which circulates them to the member countries and Partnership for Peace countries. The Centre facilitates the coordination of responses, and then sends the resulting offers of assistance back to the requesting country.

For example, if a country requests food rations and housing supplies for suffering populations, the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre will match the offers of assistance from contributing nations with the requests of the stricken nation. In this way, duplication of effort is avoided.

Specific instances of assistance included providing support in the aftermath of Hurricane Katrina, which devastated the United States gulf coast in August 2005. In total, 189 tons of relief and emergency supplies were flown to the United States via an emergency transport operation led by NATO.

In certain cases, approval to provide assistance to civil authorities must come from the North Atlantic Council, the Alliance’s principal decision-making body. This can happen when the requestor is not a NATO member or Partner country, or when collective Allied military resources are used. This was the
case in 2005 in Pakistan – which is neither a member nor a partner country – when it requested assistance from the Alliance in the aftermath of a massive earthquake in the Kashmir region. 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.

Most recently, in the wake of massive floods, Pakistan again requested NATO assistance in delivering humanitarian aid from donor countries and organisations. The NATO Council agreed to providing a NATO air-bridge. Between August and November 2010, 23 flights have been flown delivering nearly 1000 tons of humanitarian supplies such as pumps, generators, tents, high energy biscuits and baby food.

**Support for national authorities in the protection of populations against the effects of weapons of mass destruction**

As a result of the 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks and subsequent attacks in Madrid and London, Civil Emergency Planning activities have focused on measures aimed at enhancing national capabilities and civil preparedness in the event of possible attacks using chemical, biological or radiological agents (CBRN).

At Prague in 2002, a Civil Emergency Action plan was adopted for the protection of populations against the effects of Weapons of Mass destruction. As a result, an inventory of national capabilities for use in CBRN incidents (medical assistance, radiological detection units, aero-medical evacuation) has been developed. In addition, guidelines and standards have been developed for EAPC nations to draw upon in the areas of planning, training and equipment for first responders to CBRN incidents. These activities have contributed to enhancing Allies and Partners ability to assist one another in the face of such attacks.

A comprehensive EAPC programme on CBRN training and exercises has been developed. Treatment protocols for casualties following a CBRN attack were developed by NATO’s Public Health and Food/Water Group. NATO’s Civil Protection Group has developed public information guidelines for use before, during and after a crisis.

NATO’s Transport Group has established mechanisms for co-ordination of nationally provided civil transport resources for Alliance use in such areas as mass evacuation and medical evacuation. NATO has also developed a Memorandum of Understanding on the facilitation of vital civil cross border transport to accelerate and simplify clearance for international assistance sent in response to a major incident.

**Cooperation with Partner countries**

Partner countries – those countries that have relationships with NATO through its various cooperation frameworks – have made a significant contribution to the Alliance’s civil emergency planning and disaster preparedness capabilities.

Countries of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council are represented on the Alliance’s civil emergency planning boards and committees. They are also involved in education and training activities.

Civil emergency planning is also a principal component of NATO’s Mediterranean Dialogue. In addition to holding periodic joint meetings between representatives of Mediterranean Dialogue countries and the Civil Emergency Planning Committee, these countries have been invited to
participate in several civil emergency planning activities, including training courses and seminars. Further to the Istanbul Summit’s call in 2004 for a more ambitious and expanded partnership with Mediterranean Dialogue countries, cooperation on disaster response and civil emergency planning has intensified.

Since 2004, civil emergency planning cooperation has been further extended to include the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative countries. To date, NATO team visits to the United Arab Emirates, Bahrain and Qatar have enabled information exchanges on NATO’s civil emergency planning activities.

Within the framework of the NATO-Russia Council, an ad hoc group on civil emergencies facilitates coordination between NATO’s civil emergency planning authorities and the Russian Federation. To date, Russia has hosted a number of important terrorist incident simulation exercises which have significantly contributed to fostering practical cooperation. The consequence management exercise “Lazio 2006,” held from 23-26 October 2006, saw over 250 personnel from Italy, the Russian Federation, Austria, Croatia, Hungary and Romania work side-by-side to test how they can work effectively together in case of a radiological emergency.

Cooperation between NATO and Ukraine began in 1995, following heavy rains and flooding in the Kharkiv region. Support during subsequent flooding has consolidated successful cooperation, and NATO’s Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre has coordinated assistance to the region on several occasions. Ukraine has hosted a number of civil emergency planning exercises.

**CEP’s decision-making bodies**

Because civil emergency planning is a multi-dimensional effort, its management requires extensive coordination within the Alliance, as well as with national civil emergency planning personnel and other international organizations.

The principal body in the area of civil emergencies is the Civil Emergency Planning Committee (CEPC). The operational tool at its disposal is the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC).

**Civil Emergency Planning Committee**

The day-to-day business of the Alliance’s civil emergency planning is guided by the Civil Emergency Planning Committee (CEPC) – formerly known as the Senior Civil Emergency Planning Committee (SCEPC) –, which is composed of national representatives who provide oversight to the work conducted at NATO.

Under the authority of the North Atlantic Council, this Committee meets semi-annually in plenary session and holds regular meetings in permanent session. These meetings are chaired by the Assistant Secretary General for Operations and the Deputy Assistant Secretary General for Planning, Civil Emergency Planning and Exercises.

Given the strong interest of Partner countries in civil emergency planning, CEPC meetings are held in the format of the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council twice-yearly in plenary, encompassing all NATO and Partner countries. Permanent meetings with Partners are held approximately once per month.

Country representation at plenary level is drawn from heads of national civil emergency planning organizations in capitals. At permanent level, members of national delegations at NATO Headquarters normally attend but may be reinforced from capitals.
Planning Groups

Under CEPC’s direction, four technical Planning Groups bring together national government experts, industry experts and military representatives to coordinate planning in various areas of civil activity. These areas are:

- Civil protection
- Transport (civil aviation, ocean shipping and inland surface)
- Public Health, Food and Water
- Industrial resources and communications

These bodies advise CEPC on crisis-related matters and assist NATO military authorities and countries to develop and maintain arrangements for effective use of civil resources.

For example, the Transport Planning Group identifies the availability of commercial surface and air resources and infrastructure to provide cost-effective, rapidly available transport for a potential operation.

The CEPC and the Planning Groups are supported by a team of international civil servants in the civil emergency planning section of the International Staff’s Operations Division.

The Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre

In June, 1998, a Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) was established at NATO Headquarters, based on a proposal made by the Russian Federation. Created within the framework of the Partnership for Peace programme, the Centre coordinates responses among NATO and Partner countries to natural and man-made disasters in the Euro-Atlantic area.

Since 2001, the EADRCC also has a role in coordinating countries’ responses following a terrorist act involving chemical, biological or radiological agents, as well as consequence management actions.

As part of its operational role, the EADRCC organizes major international field exercises in order to practice responses to simulated natural and man-made disaster situations and consequence management. It also organises regular ‘table top’ exercises which are smaller in scope, and as their name implies, do not involve deployments of teams in the field.

Since its launch, the EADRCC has been involved in more than 40 operations around the world, ranging from coordination of relief supplies to refugees, aid to flood, hurricane and earthquake victims, fighting forest fires, and assistance to Greece during the 2004 Olympic Games. In 2005 and 2006, the EADRCC played a central coordinating role in NATO’s humanitarian relief to the United States after hurricane Katrina and Pakistan after the devastating earthquake. From August-November 2010, the EADRCC coordinated the delivery of humanitarian aid to Pakistan via a NATO air-bridge.

The EADRCC has a mandate to respond, subject to agreement by the CEPC, to requests for assistance from the Afghan Government in case of natural disasters. Since 2007, this mandate has now been widened, enabling the provision of CEP support in areas where NATO is engaged militarily. The Mediterranean Dialogue and Istanbul Cooperation Initiative countries can also request assistance through the EADRCC.
Staffed by officials from NATO and Partner countries, the Centre works closely with the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Assistance and other international organisations, including the International Atomic Energy Agency, the World Health Organization, the World Food Programme, and the Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons.

**Support for stabilization and reconstruction**

Steps have been taken since the 2006 Riga Summit to increase the capacity of NATO forces to support stabilization and reconstruction efforts in all phases of a crisis. Primary responsibilities for stabilization and reconstruction would normally lie with other actors, such as local and international organizations and non-governmental organizations. However, security concerns may hinder these actors from undertaking these tasks.

Civilian expertise, drawn from national resources, may be required in the future to advise the military in the context of support for stabilization and reconstruction, in coordination with the host nation. This could include advice on issues such as rebuilding local industry, transport networks, relaunching agricultural production, reconstructing health and civil communications infrastructure.

Close civil-military coordination between actors in the field is an important element of current NATO operations. The Provincial Reconstruction Teams established across Afghanistan are a good example. These small teams of civilian and military personnel work in the provinces to extend the authority of the central Afghan government as well as to help local authorities provide security and assist with reconstruction work.

**Coordination of NATO’s activities with other international organizations**

NATO’s Civil Emergency Planning activities are closely coordinated with other international organizations such as the United Nations, in particular the UN-Office for theCoordination of Humanitarian Assistance (UN-OCHA) and the European Union. One of the most important aspects of cooperation is to be informed about the activities of the various actors involved in disaster relief.

Cooperation with other international organizations is therefore a very high priority for NATO. Every year a large international exercise seeks to enhance cooperation with other international organizations such as the International Committee of the Red Cross, the International Atomic Energy Agency, the Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons and the World Health Organization.

**How CEP has evolved**

The concept of civil support to NATO’s military authorities was articulated early in NATO’s history. The 1956 Report on Non-Military Cooperation by the Three Wise Men says: “From the very beginning of NATO, it was recognized that while defence cooperation was the first and most urgent requirement, this was not enough... security today is far more than a military matter.”

During the Cold War era, civil support focused on planning, preparation, and recovery in the event of an attack from the former Soviet Union.

In 1991, cooperation on civil emergency planning between NATO and the Russian Federation began.

In 1992, in support of the United Nations Department of Humanitarian Affairs, NATO hosted an international workshop on the Use of Military and Civil Defence Assets in Disaster Relief. This workshop - in which 20 international organisations and 40 countries participated - provided the
foundation for subsequent civil emergency planning cooperation activities with Partner countries, primarily in the field of disaster management and response.

In 1994, NATO’s Partnership for Peace programme was launched. That year, four civil emergency planning disaster-related cooperation activities were conducted. By 1999, civil emergency planning had become the largest non-military component of PfP, with 75 activities conducted.

Cooperation between NATO and Ukraine began in 1995, following heavy rains and flooding in the Kharkiv region.

In 1996, NATO and Russia signed a memorandum of understanding on Cooperation in Civil Emergency Planning and Disaster Preparedness. The following year, the Senior Civil Emergency Planning Committee met in Moscow - the first NATO committee to meet in Russia.

In 1997, NATO and Ukraine signed a memorandum of understanding on Cooperation in Civil Emergency Planning and Disaster Preparedness with emphasis on the Chernobyl Disaster.

In June 1998, the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) was established at NATO Headquarters, based on a proposal made by the Russian Federation. It included the establishment of a Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Unit.

NATO’s 1999 Strategic Concept redefined post-Cold War threats and challenges, placing greater emphasis on the importance of civil support to the Alliance’s military operations.

Following this guidance, the North Atlantic Council conducted a thorough review of civil emergency planning - one of NATO’s seven defence planning disciplines - and identified five specific roles which call for civil support to NATO’s military authorities for both Article 5 operations and non-Article 5 or crisis response operations. These roles encompass military operations as well as disaster and humanitarian relief.

After the 11 September 2001 attacks in the United States, renewed efforts were been made to assist member countries in protecting civilian populations against the consequences of attacks from chemical, biological, and nuclear agents.

During the Prague Summit of 2002, NATO Heads of State and Government committed to improving civil preparedness against possible attacks against the civilian population with chemical, biological or radiological agents, by implementing the 2003 Civil Emergency Planning Action Plan.

At the Istanbul Summit in 2004, NATO Heads of State and Government committed to enhancing cooperation with Mediterranean Dialogue countries in the area of civil emergency planning, including the possibility to request assistance from the Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre.

With the launch of the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative in 2004, countries joining were invited to begin participating in training courses and exercises geared to civil emergency planning.

In early 2006, the Civil Emergency Planning Rapid Reaction Team was implemented for rapidly evaluating civil needs and capabilities to support a NATO operation or an emergency situation.
In August 2008, as a result of the crisis in Georgia, two NATO Civil Emergency Planning (CEP) Advisory Support Team visits to Georgia were carried out. The main purpose of these visits was to support the Georgian authorities in assessing disruptions to civil critical infrastructure and to advise the Government on further measures to ensure the restoration of essential services. The teams were composed of civil experts covering areas as diverse as agriculture, electricity, oil, gas, rail transport, seaports, aviation, telecommunications, health and social issues. This was the first example of a deployment of civil experts to a crisis area in accordance with “Rapid Reaction Team” procedures and was a practical demonstration of the civilian dimension of NATO’s partnerships.

In August 2010, following a request from Pakistan in the wake of massive flooding, the NATO Council agreed to provide an air-bridge for three months to help in the delivery of humanitarian aid.
The Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre

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 28 allies plus 22 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.

**Main tasks**

In its coordinating functions for the response of NATO and Partner countries, EADRCC not only guides consequence management efforts, but it 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, EADRCC conducts annual large-scale field exercises with realistic scenarios to improve interaction between NATO, Partnership for Peace (PfP) and other partner countries. Regular major disaster exercises have been organised in different participating countries to practice procedures, provide training for local and international participants, build up interoperability skills and capabilities of the non-standing Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Unit (EADRU), and harness the experience and lessons learnt for future operations.

To this date, EADRCC has conducted thirteen exercises in Ukraine, Croatia, the Russian Federation, Uzbekistan, Romania, Italy, Finland, Kazakhstan, Armenia, Turkey, and Moldova. The next exercise will be held in Tbilisi, Georgia, in September 2012. In 2009, the countries of the Mediterranean Dialogue (MD)¹ and those of the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative (ICI)² were given direct access to the Centre, followed by other partners across the globe³ in December 2011.

All 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. EADRCC has been designed as a regional coordination mechanism, supporting and complementing the UN efforts. Furthermore, EADRCC’s 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 EADRCC.

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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, Iraq, Japan, Mongolia, New Zealand, Pakistan, South Korea (as of March 2012).

**Support for national authorities in civil emergencies**

EADRCC forwards assistance requests to NATO and partner countries which, in turn, respond by communicating their offers of assistance to EADRCC and/or the affected country. The Centre uses AIDMATRIX to keep a record of the assistance offered (including assistance from other international organisations and actors), assistance accepted by the stricken country, delivery dates, assistance still...
required (or updates to the assistance requested), as well as the situation on the ground. This information circulates to NATO and partner countries in the form of daily situation reports, but it is also published on the NATO website.

A multinational team of experts

The Centre is part of the International Staff, Operations Division located at NATO Headquarters in Brussels, Belgium. It is staffed by up to five secondees from NATO and partner countries and three 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, EADRCC can temporarily be augmented with additional personnel from the EAPC delegations to NATO, or NATO’s international civilian and military staff. In addition, EADRCC has access to national civil experts that can be called to provide the Centre with expert advice in specific areas in the event of a major disaster.

Historical background

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 EADRU, a non-standing, multi-national force of civil and military elements, deployable in the event of major natural or man-made disasters in an EAPC country.

Initially, EADRCC was extensively involved in coordinating the humanitarian assistance effort from the EAPC countries supporting the refugees during the Kosovo war in the late 1990s. Since then, however, the Centre has responded to more than 60 requests of assistance, mainly concerning natural disaster-stricken states.

Following the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, EADRCC has also been tasked with the coordination of international assistance from EAPC countries to help deal with the consequences of chemical, biological, radiological, or nuclear (CBRN) incidents, which includes terrorist attacks.

In January 2004, the North Atlantic Council, NATO’s principal political decision-making body, widened 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 the Organization has been involved militarily, with the same provisions as Afghanistan.

In 2005, the Centre contributed to the United States’ response to Hurricane Katrina by coordinating the donations of NATO and partner countries. The same year, the Centre played a central role in the relief effort in Pakistan after the country was hit by a devastating earthquake and, later in 2010, when it was hit by massive floods.
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.
Communication and information systems

NATO Consultation, Command Control (C3)

Text unavailable at the time of the extraction.
Education and training

NATO conducts education and training to ensure that forces from member countries are effective and interoperable, and as part of its cooperation with non-member countries. The three main purposes are to increase the interoperability and effectiveness of NATO-led multinational forces, assist partner countries in their reform efforts, and help bring peace and stability to crisis-hit areas.

Education and training are key agents for transformation. They are complementary activities which reinforce each other. Education focuses on the function of explaining concepts, doctrines and practices and teaching procedures, for instance English language classes and history. Training focuses on practising and applying that knowledge, which helps to assimilate the subject matter completely. Exercises take training a step further by testing acquired knowledge during real-life or computer-assisted exercises with a scenario involving large numbers of participants from a broad range of countries.

Historically, NATO education and training has been focused on ensuring that military forces from member countries can work together effectively in operations and missions. Today, NATO education and training functions have expanded significantly both geographically and institutionally.

Geographically, NATO is working with a larger number of countries through its cooperation with partner countries and through the creation of NATO training missions as far away as Afghanistan and Africa. Institutionally, education and training have been reinforced through the creation, in 2002, of Allied Command Transformation, entirely dedicated to leading the ongoing transformation of NATO’s military structure, forces, capabilities and doctrine. Subsequently, the introduction of new bodies and initiatives has also demonstrated the resolve to reinforce education and training activities for the Organization.

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 aims to ensure the ability of forces to communicate and work with each other. 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.1

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.

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.

Purpose and practical implementation

As explained above, the three main purposes of NATO’s education and training programmes are to increase the interoperability and effectiveness of NATO-led multinational forces, assist partner countries in their reform efforts, and help bring peace and stability to crisis-hit areas.
**Enhancing interoperability**

Troops for NATO operations are drawn from many different countries: the forces of NATO member and partner countries, as well as from countries which are not NATO member or partner countries. Ensuring that these multinational forces can work together effectively despite differences in tactics, doctrine, training, structures, and language is a priority for NATO. This “interoperability” is built in a number of ways.

**Courses and seminars**

NATO’s network of educational institutions offers a broad range of courses on both strategic and operational issues. While courses differ, they tend to focus on knowledge and skills required by individuals who will occupy senior or specialised positions within the structure of the Alliance, or who hold NATO-related posts in their own countries.

The NATO Defense College in Rome, Italy is NATO’s primary strategic-level educational facility and includes areas of study such as trends in the international security environment and their potential effects on NATO countries. It provides training for senior commanders. The NATO School in Oberammergau, Germany is the primary operational-level training centre for students. Operational-level training focuses on joint planning of NATO operations, logistics, communications, civil emergency planning, or civil-military cooperation.

Courses are being offered in an increasing number of locations to ensure all available expertise is being utilised, for instance, civil-military training at the Civil-Military Cooperation (CIMIC) Centre of Excellence, the Netherlands. Courses vary in duration (from a day to several months) and are open to personnel from NATO member countries and some to personnel from countries participating in NATO’s Partnership for Peace (PfP) programme, Mediterranean Dialogue and Istanbul Cooperation Initiative, as well as selected “partners across the globe” (countries which are neither NATO members nor partner countries, also referred to as “global partners”). Some are also open to civilian participants.

**Experimentation and development**

NATO is constantly trying to improve the way its forces operate. In line with its transformation agenda, the Alliance is continuing to focus on the development of new concepts and capabilities to ensure future NATO forces are trained and equipped to the highest possible standard.

NATO countries conduct their own experimentation. The Alliance provides a forum for members to engage in knowledge-sharing regarding concepts and capabilities. It does this through Allied Command Transformation (ACT), which leads the transformation of NATO’s military structure, forces, capabilities and doctrine. ACT enhances training, particularly of commanders and staff, conducts experiments to assess new concepts and promotes interoperability throughout the Alliance.

**Exercises**

Exercises provide opportunities to test and validate all aspects of NATO operations, including procedures, concepts, systems, and tactics. Exercises also build and reinforce interoperability by focusing on practical training for personnel from NATO countries and partners with which the Alliance cooperates.
Working with NATO partners on defence reform

NATO members have reduced levels of military personnel, equipment and bases from Cold War levels and transformed their forces to meet today’s needs. Many partner countries are still going through this process, often with scarce resources and limited expertise.

In 2005, NATO started developing an “Education and Training for Defence Reform” (EfR) initiative that provides a framework for cooperation for both military and civilian personnel. 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. Education is effectively a key agent of transformation and NATO is using it to support institutional reform in partner countries. The Alliance’s education and training programmes initially focused on increasing interoperability between NATO and partner forces. They have since been expanded to provide a means for members and partners to collaborate on how to build, develop and reform educational institutions in the security, defence and military domain.

Tailor-made defence education

Through the Defence Education Enhancement Programme (DEEP), the Alliance advises partners on how to build, develop and reform educational institutions in the defence and military domain. This effort is embedded in partners’ individual programmes (Individual Partnership Action Plans, Annual National Programmes and Individual Partnership Cooperation Programmes), and is a key part of the Enduring Partnership with Afghanistan. There are currently 13 individual country DEEP programmes, with different focuses and at different stages of development, engaging Afghanistan, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Mauritania, Republic of Moldova, Mongolia, Serbia, Ukraine and Uzbekistan. They are run with the support of the PfP Consortium of Defense Academies and Security Studies Institutes (see “Additional training institutions and organisations” for explanations), the Partnership Training and Education Centres and Allied as well as partner defence institutions.

Each partner country participating in defence reform agrees on an individualised programme with NATO that varies in depth and breadth, depending on its interests and level of commitment and cooperation. This can include tailor-made education programmes such as on-the-job training, language training, and resettlement and retraining of redundant military personnel.

Aside from helping individual countries to develop their educational institutions, NATO is also helping develop teaching curricula (“what to teach”), available to all Allies and partners. Six years of committed effort by prominent experts from Allied and partner countries have produced three unique products: the Reference Curricula on defence institution building, on the professional military education for officers and – the most recent one – on professional military education for non-commissioned officers. Work continues on a reference curriculum on the Comprehensive Approach, and the development of curricula related to emerging security challenges is being considered.

Faculty development (“how to teach”) is the third pillar of DEEP. NATO helps maintain an international professional network which brings together defence and military educators from Allied and partner countries to exchange experience in teaching methodologies and help those interested in advice and assistance.
To do all that, the Alliance has developed and relies upon a vast transatlantic web of institutions and individuals who support these projects on a voluntary basis. A large number of Allied and partner institutions have engaged in DEEP: 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, to name just a few. The NATO Defense College and the NATO School Oberammergau also support the programme. The Partnership for Peace Consortium of Defense Academies and Security Studies Institutes - an Austrian-German-Swiss-US initiative - is instrumental in helping NATO to manage the network and the DEEP projects.

The functional Educational Clearing House, led by the Czech Republic, Italy, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Spain, Switzerland and the United States, and supported by the PfP Consortium, plays a critical role in coordinating NATO and national efforts in support of DEEP projects.

Of note, the Alliance is also the hub for a growing network of Partnership Training and Education Centres (PTECs), which currently brings together 29 civilian and military institutions from Allied and partner countries. While originally developed in the framework of Partnership for Peace, the network already includes Egyptian, Jordanian and Mongolian centres. The PTECs, while national institutions, conduct education and training activities related to NATO partnership programmes and policies and contribute substantially to the Partnership Cooperation Menu (PCM).

Courses, seminars and workshops
Partner countries which work with NATO are able to participate in an array of NATO education activities – courses, roundtables, seminars, and workshops.

Advice and expertise
NATO countries are among the most advanced in the world in terms of defence capabilities. Countries cooperating with the Alliance on defence reform are able to take advantage of this expertise. For most countries, this is done through the Partnership for Peace Planning and Review Process (PARP), a mechanism that helps to identify partner forces and capabilities that could be available to the Alliance for multinational training, exercises and operations.

Countries with special relationships with NATO can have additional mechanisms for exchanging advice and expertise. 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, democratic oversight and civilian management of the armed forces and other security sector agencies, defence planning, policy, strategy and national security concepts. Moreover, NATO-led multinational teams of experts can visit partner countries to address the education and training requirements listed in the individual action plans of the countries concerned. This has been the case, for instance, for the South Caucasus countries and Moldova, as well as Mauritania.

An initiative for the Mediterranean and the Middle East
A dedicated Middle East faculty has been established at the NATO Defense College in Rome as part of the NATO Regional Cooperation Course.
Education and training in NATO-led operations
NATO’s efforts to bring stability to crisis areas go beyond deploying troops. Through education and training programmes, NATO is helping countries such as Afghanistan develop its own security institutions and provide for its own security.

Afghanistan
An important aspect of NATO’s engagement in Afghanistan is assisting the country in developing its security structures and forces. NATO’s Training Mission in Afghanistan (NTM-A) was established in November 2009, bringing together NATO and national efforts under one umbrella and working closely with Afghan authorities. Its key tasks include the training and mentoring of the Afghan National Security Forces, support to the Afghan National Army’s institutional training base, and the reform of the Afghan National Police at the district level and below. The Alliance also deployed Operational Mentoring and Liaison Teams to Afghan National Army units at various levels of command. These gradually evolved into Military Advisory Teams and Police Advisory Teams, more generally known as Security Force Assistance Teams.

In 2006, NATO signed a declaration with Afghanistan, establishing a substantial programme of long-term cooperation. This Afghan Cooperation Programme provides for further training assistance, including opening NATO courses and partnership activities to Afghan participation, providing advice and expertise on defence reform and the development of security institutions, as well as specific assistance such as language training.

Subsequently, on 20 November 2010, NATO and the Government of the Islamic Republic of Afghanistan signed a Declaration on an Enduring Partnership at the NATO Summit in Lisbon. The 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 through the transition process. 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.

The African Union
At the request of the African Union (AU), NATO assisted the AU (June 2005-end December 2007) in strengthening its peacekeeping force in Darfur in a bid to halt the continuing violence. Initially, NATO’s support consisted in training AU troops in strategic-level planning and operational procedures. It provided support to a UN-led map exercise and later, in summer 2006, provided training assistance in the fields of pre-deployment certification and “lessons learned”, as well as information management.

Additionally, NATO has been providing subject-matter experts to the AU Mission in Somalia (AMISOM) since 2007, offering expertise in areas such as maritime planning, air movement coordination and logistics. NATO also provides expert and training support to the African Standby Force (ASF), at the AU’s request. The ASF is part of the AU’s efforts to develop long-term peacekeeping capabilities.

Iraq
From 2004 to end 2011, NATO helped Iraq provide for its own security by training Iraqi personnel and supporting the development of the country’s security institutions. NATO trained and mentored
middle- and senior-level personnel from the Iraqi security forces in Iraq and outside of Iraq, at NATO schools and training centres. The Alliance also played a role in coordinating offers of equipment and training from individual NATO member and partner countries.

*The training bodies and institutions*

There are a number of main bodies through which education and training is organised and run. Some operate under the direction of the Alliance and others are external, but complementary to Alliance structures.

**Allied Command Transformation**

Allied Command Transformation (ACT) was created as part of the reorganisation of NATO’s Command Structure in 2002. It 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. Since July 2012, ACT has also been given the responsibility of managing collective training and exercises based on Allied Command Operations’ requirements.

All of the entities attached to ACT fulfil an education and training function. For detailed information, please refer to the “Allied Command Transformation” A to Z page.

**Additional training institutions and organisations**

These are entities that have a relationship with NATO, but are typically administered by sponsor countries, national authorities or civil organisations. They are open to participation by personnel from NATO member and partner countries.

**Centres of Excellence**

These are centres that have been accredited by NATO. One of their roles is to provide high-quality education and training to the Euro-Atlantic community.

They are funded nationally or multinationally and their relationship with NATO is formalised through memoranda of understanding. The first Centres of Excellence to be fully accredited by NATO were the Joint Air Power Competence Centre in Germany and the Defence Against Terrorism Centre of Excellence in Turkey. Many more have been established since then.

**Partnership Training and Education Centres**

Partnership Training and Education Centres focus on the operational and tactical levels of a military operation. Each one has a different area of expertise and provides enhanced training and facilities for personnel from all partner countries. There are currently 24 Partnership Training and Education Centres, which now go beyond the original Euro-Atlantic borders to include Egypt and Jordan.

Education and training activities conducted within these centres are related to NATO partnership programmes and policies.

The NATO School in Oberammergau and ACT co-chair the annual conference of the Commandants of the Partnership Training and Education Centres. This community has been opened to the Mediterranean Dialogue (MD) and to the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative (ICI).

In April 2011, NATO adopted a concept for Partnership Training and Education Centres. It is based on the “Policy for a More Efficient and Flexible Partnership”, which states that “all partners will be offered deeper political and practical engagement with the Alliance, including through support for
defence education, training and capacity building, within existing resources.” With this initiative, NATO has committed itself to supporting interested partners in developing their defence education and training capacities even further.

*Partnership for Peace Consortium of Defense Academies and Security Studies Institutes*

The PfP Consortium was established in 1999 to help promote education in security-related topics. It does this by facilitating cooperation between both civilian and military institutions in NATO and PfP countries in support of NATO priorities such as defence institution building and defence reform.

In 2008 for instance, the PfP Consortium produced what is called a reference curriculum on the Partnership Action Plan on Defence Institution Building (PAP-DIB). This document aims to provide partner countries with in-depth learning objectives and curriculum support for academic courses focused on reforming or building defence institutions. In 2011, a similar reference curriculum was produced on professional military education for officers and, more recently, one has been developed for non-commissioned officers.

The PfP Consortium is also running an Educators’ Programme to familiarise partners with modern teaching methodologies and is supporting Azerbaijan and Kazakhstan in education-related aspects of their Individual Partnership Action Plans (IPAPs).

The PfP Consortium establishes working groups where experts, policy-makers, and defence and security practitioners pool information and develop products such as educational tools or scholarly publications. Participating organisations include universities, research institutions and training centres. The George C. Marshall European Center for Security Studies, Germany forms the Secretariat.

*Education and training: a key activity since 1949*

Collective education and training has been ongoing since the inception of the Alliance in 1949. Over time, it has expanded dramatically and has become an integral aspect of the Alliance’s ability to provide security.

*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.
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 to Rome, Italy in 1966, where it is still located.

The NATO Communications and Information Systems School in Latina, Italy 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 Undersea Research 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. The NATO Training 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 Allied Command Transformation in 2004. Its principal aim is to improve interoperability among Allies and, additionally, between the forces of partner countries.

In 1975, the NATO School in Oberammergau, Germany, received its charter and present name. For almost 25 years, its principal focus was on issues relating to collective defence.

More recently in 2003, the NATO Maritime Interdiction Operational Training Centre was established at Souda Bay, Greece to conduct training for NATO forces in surface, sub-surface, aerial surveillance and special operations activities. It does this through theoretical and practical training programmes, as well as through simulations.

**NATO training opens to partners**

Since the end of the Cold War, the Alliance has increased its political engagement with non-member countries and opened its education and training to these countries.

**Partnership for Peace countries**

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 to increase 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 countries**

The Mediterranean Dialogue was likewise 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).

**Increasing cooperation with all 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 & Lessons Learned Centre in Monsanto, 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 noted the Education and Training for Defence Reform (EFR). EFR helps EAPC 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.

**Transformation through training**

With the creation of the two new strategic commands in 2002, the coordination and coherence of NATO education and training activities was greatly increased. This led to the creation of additional training institutions and initiatives.

**New training centres**

A Joint Warfare Centre in Stavanger, Norway was inaugurated on 23 October 2003. The Joint Force Training Centre in Bydgoszcz, Poland, inaugurated on 31 March 2004, supports training for both NATO and partner forces to improve joint and combined tactical interoperability.

**Stepping up training and partnerships**

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. Provision was also made for cooperation on defence reform. At the same time, the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative (ICI) was introduced, which paved the way for cooperation between NATO and countries from the broader Middle East (Bahrain, Kuwait, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates) in areas such as education and training.

This 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 efforts on defence reform gained added momentum with the creation of the Partnership Action Plan on Defence Institution Building, which outlines what NATO and partners want to achieve in this area.

The Chicago Summit in 2012 reiterated the importance of education and training for the future of the Alliance, a statement which was reinforced by the introduction of the Connected Forces Initiative.
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 practice working together. Exercises have many other functions, not least helping to identify “best practices” (what works) and “lessons learnt” (what needs improving).

NATO has been conducting military exercises since 1951 and individual NATO countries conduct their own exercises as a routine part of their national preparation for operations. Holding frequent exercises that test many different capabilities helps forces operate more effectively and efficiently together in demanding crisis situations.

Exercises vary in scope, duration and form – ranging between live exercises in the field to computer-assisted exercises that take place in a classroom. They are planned in advance by NATO’s two strategic commands – Allied Command Operations and Allied Command Transformation – taking into account strategic priorities and objectives, operational requirements and specific exercise objectives. They have been open to all formal partner countries since 2010 and while a majority of them are military exercises, the Alliance also organises political exercises too.

Highlights

Exercises allow NATO to test and validate concepts, procedures, systems and tactics. They enable military and civilian organisations deployed on the ground to work together to identify "best practices" (what works) and "lessons learnt" (what needs improving).

Exercises contribute to improved interoperability and defence reform.

NATO exercises are open to all formal partner countries, in addition to member countries.

The Alliance has been conducting exercises since 1951.

The aim of NATO exercises

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 practice 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 fulfill 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 open to all formal partners, either as observers or as participants, or as hosts of an exercise. The type of participation is determined by NATO and the partner’s level of ambition in cooperating (whether, for instance, it intends to provide forces to current or future NATO-led operations).

**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 fictional 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 forms 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, practice 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 learnt”). In this way, exercises facilitate continuous improvement of interoperability, efficiency and performance.

**The Military Training and Exercise Programme**

Events and activities related to NATO training and exercises are developed by both 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 first two calendar years, and outlines information on training and exercise activities scheduled for the following three calendar years.

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 eighteen months before the beginning of the next cycle. Preliminary planning culminates in the NATO Training and Exercise Conference, where NATO Commands, NATO 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.

**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 Forces Command Brunssum
- **N** Allied Joint Forces Command Naples

The first letter of the second word denotes the element(s) concerned.

- **A** Air
- **L** Land
- **M** Maritime
- **J** Joint
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.

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 practice collective defence. In other words, they were conducted to ensure that forces were prepared in the case of an attack.

An integrated force under centralised command was called for in September 1950. By December 1950, the first Supreme Allied Commander Europe, U.S. General Dwight D. Eisenhower, was appointed. 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.”

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. From that time on, PfP members were able to participate in peacekeeping field exercises.

In 2002, the NATO Response Force (NRF) was created. 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.
Electronic warfare

Electronic warfare

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.
The term “logistics” can mean different things in different countries and in different contexts. Basically, it is a question of 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 can be seen as the bridge between the deployed forces and the industrial base that produces the materiel and weapons that forces need to accomplish their mission. Effectively, logistics 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. Multinational logistics goes hand in hand with collective logistics, which aims to achieve cost-savings, harmonize life-cycle processes and increase efficiency in logistics support at all times.

The principle of collective responsibility is central to this approach. It is based on the idea that both NATO and participating countries are responsible for the logistic support of NATO’s multinational operations. While NATO is responsible for coordinating and prioritizing the provision of logistic support to deployed NATO forces, each state is responsible for ensuring that - individually or through cooperative arrangements – their own forces receive the required logistic resources.

Logistics is of vital importance for any military operation. Without it, operations could not be carried out and sustained, especially in the case of out-of-area operations.

The Alliance’s current missions are radically different from those it conducted during the Cold War. During the 1990s, NATO operations were still in Europe. However, the September 11, 2001 attacks on the United States led NATO foreign ministers to state, at their May 2002 Reykjavik meeting, that there were no geographical limits to NATO’s area of operations. This posed obvious logistic challenges and NATO logistics doctrine has evolved accordingly, while, at the same time, various initiatives have been launched to develop the required capabilities.

**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 and
- consumer logistics.

Production logistics
Production logistics, also known as acquisition logistics, largely belongs to the industrial domain. It is concerned with planning, design, development and procurement of equipment and therefore includes the following: 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 the 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 the equipment and supply the force.

Although in-service support relates to activities required to assure that weapon system/equipment is available and fit for use, it actually begins with the decision to bring the system into the inventory.

The NATO Maintenance and Supply Organization (NAMSO) is the principal organization responsible for this area.

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, advise the Military Committee on logistical matters in their specific areas of responsibility.

Within these loosely defined domains come concrete areas of activity, of which some fall within the core functions performed by NATO in the field of logistics.

Core functions
Another way of understanding NATO’s responsibilities in the field of logistics is through the functions they fulfill. NATO is responsible for a number of core functions, which can, at times, overlap. They comprise:
Supply
Supply covers all materiel 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 means all actions, including repair, to retain the materiel 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, in peacetime, of the equipment and associated materiel. Repair includes all measures taken to restore materiel to a serviceable condition in the shortest possible time.

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, as seen with helicopters in Afghanistan: some countries have helicopters they could contribute to the operation but lack the 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 to undertake the full spectrum of the Alliance’s roles and missions. It also applies to the logistic support necessary to mount and sustain operations.

Petroleum support
The NATO Petroleum Supply Chain has to be able to respond to the Alliance’s operational requirements, taking into account the deployment distances and dispersions envisaged. Other factors also impact on the fuels delivery capability, such as increased cooperation between member and partner countries, financial considerations and the need for greater interoperability. As such, the fuels delivery capability is constantly reviewed to find innovative ways of responding to new needs.

Infrastructure engineering for logistics
Infrastructure engineering, while not exclusively a logistic function, requires close coordination with logistics as its mission is very closely aligned with logistics in terms of facilitating the opening of lines of communication and constructing support facilities.

The engineering mission bridges the gap from logistics to operations and is closely related to the ultimate success of both.

The acquisition, construction and operation of facilities form the basis for the NATO Security Investment Programme – a term used within NATO for installations and facilities for the support of military forces.

Medical support
An efficient medical support system is needed to treat and evacuate sick, injured and wounded personnel, minimize man-days lost and return casualties to duty. It is considered as a morale booster and a potential force multiplier. It also plays a vital role in force protection.

Medical support is normally a national responsibility, however planning needs to be flexible to consider 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 to meet the logistic information requirements of the NATO commanders and the countries;
- reception, staging and onward movement: this is the phase of 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 logistic and other support, in accordance with negotiated arrangements between NATO and/or contributing countries and the host nation government. It may reduce the amount of logistic forces and materiel 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 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.

Materiel and services also form part of logistics, but are not currently treated by NATO. Services for combat troops and logistic activities include, for instance, manpower and skills provisioning, housing/accommodation, burials, water provision, canteen, laundry and bathing facilities and other services like map redistribution, and postal and courier service.

Logistics principles, policies and planning

The principles and policies guiding NATO logistics were reviewed in 2004 to reflect the practical experience gained from NATO-led crisis-management operations.

The shift to more expeditionary operations and the expansion of operations to include defence against terrorism increased the likelihood of rapid deployment beyond NATO territory.

The presence of forces in locations with little or no Host Nation support at greater distances than previously necessary, operating along extended and perhaps very limited lines of communication, placed an emphasis on deployable logistic capabilities. In addition, assured access to strategic lift (i.e., aircraft) and deployable logistic enablers became crucial.
Evidently, the uncertain location of operations and composition of forces being deployed poses challenges for logistic readiness. Operations of any significant duration also raise sustainability issues, including those related to the logistics force elements required to keep the combat forces supplied and maintained.

In order to respond more effectively to these challenges, NATO has been encouraging multinationality in the delivery of logistic support at all levels.

**Cooperative and multinational logistics**

The way in which logistics functions are performed by NATO is characterized by two permanent features: cooperative logistics and multinational logistics.

**Cooperative logistics**

It focuses on optimizing cooperation in the field of logistics so as to achieve cost-savings, harmonized life-cycle processes and increased efficiency in peacetime, crisis and wartime logistics support.

**Multinational logistics**

It focuses on improving efficiency and effectiveness by developing multinational responses to operational needs, such as lead-nation, role-specialization and multinational integrated logistic support.

Multinational logistics is a slightly more complex concept in the sense that it includes the creation of multinational integrated logistic units.

**Multinational integrated logistic units**

Multinational integrated logistic units, or MILUs, are formed by two or more countries, under the operational control of a force commander at the joint force or component level, to provide logistic support to a multinational force. Belgium, Luxembourg, Greece and Austria formed the first such unit, the BELUGA transport unit, to support the Stabilization Force (SFOR) which succeeded the Implementation Force (IFOR) in Bosnia and Herzegovina in December 1996.

Subsequently, a few MILUs were formed on an ad hoc basis and for a short duration in SFOR and KFOR – the NATO-led Kosovo Force, deployed in 1999.

To achieve economies of scale, NATO is also pooling its logistics resources in the form of standing MILUs. In April 2005, for instance, Bulgaria, Canada, Lithuania, Romania, Slovakia, and then Partnership for Peace (PfP) member Croatia agreed to form and sustain the first such unit, a Joint Theatre Movement Staff (JTMS) MILU. Based on lessons learned for operations and the NATO Commanders’ requirements, the participating countries agreed that this MILU will be renamed Movement Control MILU. The new Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) was signed in March 2010. The unit provides movement control capabilities during NATO operations and exercises.

**The 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). As previously outlined, where the first principle is concerned - that of collective responsibility – it is the driving force of logistics support at NATO.
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 Military Committee document of 2004 (MC 319/2(Final)), which set out NATO principles and policies for logistics.

**Collective responsibility**
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 amongst the nations and NATO is essential. Cooperation across the full spectrum of logistics, including between the civilian and military sector within and between nations, will 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 organizations as required.

**Coordination**
Logistics support must be coordinated amongst nations and between NATO and nations at all levels. It must also be carried out with non-NATO nations and other relevant organizations 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-led operation continuously and for the duration required to accomplish the mission.
**Efficiency**
Logistics resources must be used as efficiently and economically as possible. Needs must be identified in a timely manner to optimize 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 prioritize consignment movement into and within the joint operation area to allow for redirection in accordance with agreements between the commander and national support elements, and to effectively employ logistic assets within the joint operation area.

**The policies**

A hierarchy of policy documents
A formal hierarchy of logistic policies and doctrine exists. At the top are the strategic level logistic policies, which are published as 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;
- Harmonization, Co-ordination and Control Mechanism. This is the formal mechanism through which cooperation objectives and enablers are continuously identified and managed, enablers are put into place and objectives are achieved.

**Responsibility and authority**
All logistic policy documents promulgate the principles outlined in the section above: collective responsibility, authority, primacy of operational requirements, cooperation, co-ordination, assured provision, sufficiency, efficiency, flexibility, and visibility and transparency.

With regards to the general implementation of logistic support, responsibility and authority have a fundamental role to play.

**Responsibility**
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.
The NATO Strategic Commander assumes control of commonly provided resources as directed, and is responsible for their logistic support. He is responsible for establishing the logistic requirements for all phases of an operation and the development of a logistic support plan that supports the operational plan. The Strategic 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.

Nations and NATO authorities have a collective responsibility for ensuring that the NATO Commander has access to the required logistic information.

**Authority**

The NATO Commander has the key authority enabling him to ensure that his force is properly supported and to establish a support organization to meet the operational requirement. His key authorities allow him to: These authorities are also applicable to non-NATO Commanders of a multinational force participating in a NATO-led operation.

- 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 quality and quantity of logistic assets designated to support the forces that will be under his command.

**Logistic planning**

Every logistician in NATO is involved in the process of ensuring that, collectively, the Alliance has sufficient capacity to fulfill its objectives and missions.

**Logistic planning in defence planning**

Logistic 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 harmonized 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 fulfill 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, logistic planning is done through the force planning process and Partnership 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, in consultation with participating countries. 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 implies that there are sufficient stocks or that there is assured access to industrial capabilities, agreements, contingency contracts and other means, including contractor support to operations, to guarantee that requirements are met.

NATO Logistics Vision and Objectives
In 1999, the then Senior NATO Logisticians’ Committee (SNLC – since June 2010, renamed the Logistics Committee) decided to develop the NATO Logistic Vision and Objectives (V&O). Effectively, it is a planning tool that provides the Logistics Committee with a mechanism to co-ordinate and harmonize, on behalf of the North Atlantic Council and the Military Committee, the development and implementation of logistic policies and initiatives within NATO. It also ensures that NATO’s broader logistic 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 ten 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 ten-year period and is updated every four, with a review taking place after two years, if required. It is approved by the Logistics Committee, but logistic and logistic-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.

Logistic planning in operational planning
Logistics operational planning is part of the overall NATO operational planning process. It aims to get what is effectively needed in the field of logistics for a specific operation, whereas logistic planning 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 organizations and non-governmental organizations.

The bodies involved
A number of associated policy committees, organizations and agencies are involved in, or support logistics. They comprise:

- the Logistics Committee (LC);
- the Petroleum Committee (PC) which now reports to the LC;
- Committee of the Chiefs of Military Medical Services in NATO (COMEDS);
- the Civil Emergency Planning Committee (CEPC);
- the Committee for Standardization;
- the NATO-Russia Ad-Hoc Working Group on Logistics;
- the NATO Maintenance and Supply Organization (NAMSO);
- the Central European Pipeline Management Organization (CEPMO);
- the Bi-SC* Logistic Co-ordination Board (Bi-SC LCB);
- 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).)

There is a distinction to be made between the committees and organizations involved in logistics. Committees are bodies that are run by member countries and need full agreement, i.e., consensus to move their decisions forward; organizations are structured forms of multinational funding that work within the framework of an agreed NATO Charter and therefore benefit from relative autonomy. They typically lead to the setting up of a management organization and an implementation agency, i.e., the NATO Maintenance and Supply Organization (NAMSO) and Agency (NAMSA). NAMSA’s director is accountable to the Board of Directors where participating member countries are represented.

The Logistics Committee
The Logistics Committee (LC) is the 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.
The 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 placed under the LC.

The 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.

The Civil Emergency Planning Committee
The Senior 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.

The 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.

Other NATO logistics bodies
The NATO-Russia Ad Hoc Working Group on Logistics
The NATO-Russia Ad Hoc Working Group on Logistics (NRC(LOG)) is a joint civil-military group. It aims to identify opportunities for joint action in all areas of logistics, and initiate and implement civil and military logistics cooperation programmes between NRC member countries. It focuses mainly on promoting information-sharing so as to reinforce mutual understanding in the field of logistics.

The Annual Logistic Action Plan incorporates all NRC initiatives in logistic cooperation on both civilian and military sides.

NATO Maintenance and Supply Organization
The NATO Maintenance and Supply Organization (NAMSO) provides logistic support to NATO or to its member countries individually or collectively. Its aim is to maximize, in times of peace and war, the effectiveness of logistics support to armed forces of NATO states and to minimize costs.
Central European Pipeline Management Organization (CEPMO)
The Central Europe Pipeline Management Organization – or CEPMO - is the organization that manages NATO’s Central Europe Pipeline System (CEPS).

The CEPS is the largest element of the NATO Pipeline System (NPS). Its principal purpose is to meet operational requirements in Central Europe in times of peace, crisis and conflict. This means that CEPMO’s priority is to ensure that, when needed, military missions conducted in Central Europe or using European airbases as an intermediate hub, are guaranteed fuel that meets the required technical specifications at all times.

Once military requirements in peacetime have been satisfied, any remaining capacity may be used for commercial purposes, under strict safeguards, to help reduce costs.

Bi-SC Logistic Co-ordination Board
The Bi-SC Logistic Co-ordination Board (Bi-SC LCB) is responsible to the Strategic Commanders for advice and recommendations on logistics guidance and doctrine, concepts, structures, plans and procedures in support of NATO operations. It is responsible to the Senior NATO Logisticians’ Conference (SNLC) for the development of joint logistical doctrinal documents and the review of other logistic documents, with the aim of achieving consistency and harmonization of logistic doctrine and procedures throughout the range of NATO publications.

The Bi-SC LCB was established by the Strategic Commanders in 1996 as their senior forum for co-ordinating Alliance-wide concerns for logistic policy and planning between Strategic Commanders, the NATO Command Structure, NATO members and designated agencies.

Bi-SC Movement and Transportation Forum (Bi-SC M&T Forum)
Bi-SC Movement and Transportation Forum (Bi-SC M&T Forum) is responsible to the Strategic Commanders for advice and recommendations on movement and transport guidance and doctrine, concepts, structures, plans and procedures in support of NATO operations.

The Bi-SC M&T Forum was also formed in 1996 and is the senior forum for co-ordinating 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 Commanders’ movement and transport responsibility and from concepts and policies developed by NATO HQ.

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 HQ.

The 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 1990’s, when it was understood and accepted that the strategic situation that had underpinned this principle had undergone a fundamental change.
Effectively, this meant that during the Cold War, NATO logistics was limited to the North Atlantic area. The Alliance planned the linear defence of West Germany 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 evolved to supply fuel to NATO forces in Europe. The NATO Maintenance and Supply Agency (NAMSA) 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 recognized 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 organizations, and peace support operations in the Balkans. All 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 logistic 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, which most NATO countries include in their logistic structures, one for each brigade, when fewer would have been sufficient for the force.

**Increased cooperation and multinationality**

As such and as early as January 1996, NATO logisticians recognized 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, possibly at a far distance 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 mobilization and/ or emergency legislation. Additionally, there was the need to integrate non-NATO military forces and their logistic support.
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 logistic 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, and includes greater consideration of the efficient use of civil resources.

As a result of their experiences in NATO-led operations, states 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 September 11, 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 relies heavily on airlift for movement, reinforcements and supplies. Most of its airlift requirements are 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 because it can take days to travel from the capital to the provinces by road, which can even be impossible in the winter if there is 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.
Logistics Committee

The Logistics Committee (LC) is the senior advisory body on logistics in NATO. 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.

It carries out its work through subordinate bodies: the Logistics Committee Executive Group, the Movement and Transportation Group, and the Petroleum Committee.

The LC reports jointly to both the Military Committee and the North Atlantic Council, reflecting the dependence of logistics on both civil and military factors.

Role and responsibilities

The LC is responsible for harmonizing and coordinating the development of policy recommendations and coordinated advice on civil and military logistic 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 characterized 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 Maintenance and Supply Agency, the NATO Standardization Agency, 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 harmonizes 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 specialized 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 NATO Maintenance and Supply Agency (NAMSA).

**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 transportsations 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 NATO Maintenance and Supply Agency, NATO Standardization Agency 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. The Atlantic Command (SACLANT) 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.
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.

The NATO Pipeline System (NPS) consists of ten distinct storage and distribution systems for fuels and lubricants. In total, it is approximately 12,000 kilometres long, runs through 13 NATO countries and has a storage capacity of 5.5 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 organizations, with the exception of the Central Europe Pipeline System (CEPS), which is a multinational system managed by the Central Europe Pipeline Management Organization.

The 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 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.

Structure and geographical reach

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 United Kingdom Government Pipeline and Storage System (UKGPSS).

The two multinational pipeline systems are:
- the North European Pipeline System (NEPS) located in Denmark and Germany;
- the 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 utilization 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 14 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 refueling 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.
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.

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 the “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 all CEPS Programme member nations. 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 Agency (NSPA).

Facts 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 5,500 km of pipeline with diameters ranging from 6 to 12 inches. This network of pipelines links 30 NATO depots and six depots for non-military use (offering a total storage capacity of 1.22 million m3), 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 the 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 m³ delivered in 2013, 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 new 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).

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 all CEPS Programme member nations. It is comprised of representatives from each member nation.

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 is 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 war-time 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.

**The development of 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 were increased in support of the French forces involved in Operation Unified Protector.
Medical support

Committee of the Chiefs of Military Medical Services in NATO

The Committee of the Chiefs of Military Medical Services in NATO (COMEDS) is the senior committee for medical care within the Organization. It acts as the central point for the development and coordination of military medical matters and for providing medical advice to the NATO Military Committee.

The military medical community plays a key enabling role within NATO and, more specifically, within NATO’s defence planning process. The military medical community not only provides medical care, but also preventive health care, veterinary support and psychological support for deployed troops. It provides essential combat service support, making it one of the key planning domains for operations, along with armaments, logistics, air traffic management and other areas of specialization.

COMEDS makes recommendations concerning the development and assessment of NATO military medical policy and procedures for medical support. It seeks to improve existing arrangements between member countries in the fields of co-ordination, standardization and interoperability. It also helps to improve the exchange of information between countries so, for instance, advances made by one member state are available to all. Additionally, COMEDS undertakes studies of general and particular interest such as preventive medicine, dental service, food hygiene and military psychiatry. For this purpose, it has several subordinate working groups and expert panels to which subject matter experts contribute.

The meetings of the chiefs of Military Medical Services are conducted bi-annually and include participants from member and partner countries.

Roles and responsibilities

COMEDS

As explained above, COMEDS advises the Military Committee on military medical matters affecting NATO. It also acts as the coordinating body for the Military Committee regarding all military medical policies, procedures and techniques within NATO. In recent years, COMEDS has come to represent the medical community at NATO HQ, in the NATO Standardization Organization, as well as in specific areas such as defence planning and the chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear (CBRN) field.

COMEDS’ objectives include improving and expanding arrangements between member countries for coordination, standardization and interoperability in the medical field and improving the exchange of information relating to organizational, operational and procedural aspects of military medical services in NATO and Partner countries.

The military medical support system

COMEDS is a key component of the Alliance’s military medical support system, principally in the preparation phase of an operation. It facilitates the development of medical capabilities in individual countries and helps to improve the quality and interoperability of capabilities between them.

Generally speaking, the military medical support system contributes to preserving the “fighting strength” and meeting the increasing public expectation of an individual’s right to health and high
quality treatment outcomes. Medical services make a major contribution to force protection and sustainability. Effectively, health is a key force multiplier of fighting power.

Countries that allocate forces to NATO retain responsibility for the provision of medical support to their own forces. However, upon Transfer of Authority, the NATO commander shares the responsibility for their health and will determine the medical support requirements. Multinational arrangements usually require more responsibility of the NATO commander.

**Working mechanisms**

**Frequency of meetings**

COMEDS meets biannually in plenary session and reports annually to the Military Committee.

**Composition**

The chairman is elected by the committee in plenary session for a three year term. The country of origin of the chairman is also responsible for providing a Liaison Officer to NATO HQ. He/she is the point of contact for military medical matters for NATO HQ and individual countries. For practical reasons, this Liaison Officer cooperates closely with the medical branch of the International Military Staff, which also supports his/her work. COMEDS also cooperates closely with the medical branch of Allied Command Operations (ACO) and Allied Command Transformation (ACT) in developments regarding defence planning, capability development, standardization needs, training and education and certification.

In December 2009, the chairmanship of COMEDS was transferred from Germany to the Netherlands.

COMEDS is composed of:

- the Chiefs of the military medical services of all member countries;
- the International Military Staff medical staff officer; and
- the medical advisors of the two strategic commands – ACO and ACT.

Its meetings in plenary session, as well as its activities benefit from the participation of the following observers:

- the Chiefs of the military medical services from all Partnership for Peace, Mediterranean Dialogue and Istanbul Cooperation Initiative countries;
- the Chairman of the Joint Medical Committee;
- a representative of the NATO Standardization Agency, the Military Committee, the Senior NATO Logisticians Committee, the NATO Military Medical Centre of Excellence, the Human Factors and Medicine Panel of the NATO Research and Technology Agency, the Health and Societal Dimensions Panel of the NATO Science for Peace and Security Committee, and the CIOMR, the organization of military medical reserve officers.

COMEDS can also invite partners from “Contact countries”, non-NATO troop-contributing countries and organizations.
Subordinate working groups

To assist in carrying out its tasks and in addition to the bodies referred to above, COMEDS has a number of subordinate working groups which meet at least annually and address the following topics: military medical structures, operations and procedures (including planning and capability development); military preventive medicine (force health protection); military healthcare; standardization; CBRN issues; emergency medicine; military psychiatry; dental services; medical materiel and military pharmacy; food and water hygiene and veterinary medicine; medical training; mental healthcare; medical naval issues; and medical information management systems.

Evolution

Historically, medical matters within NATO were regarded strictly as a national responsibility. Consequently, for the greatest part of the Alliance’s existence, there was not a high-level military medical authority within NATO.

New NATO missions and concepts of operations have placed increased emphasis on joint military operations, enhancing the importance of coordination of medical support in peacekeeping, disaster relief and humanitarian operations.

COMEDS was established in 1994 for that purpose.

Today, COMEDS is very active in developing new concepts of medical support for operations, with emphasis on multinational health care, modularity of medical treatment facilities, and partnerships. Increasingly, the developed doctrines are open to non-NATO countries and are sometimes released on the internet.

In 2011, COMEDS established the Dominique-Jean Larrey Award in recognition of a significant and lasting contribution to NATO multinationality and/ or interoperability within military medical support or healthcare developments in NATO operations and missions ¹. The award is named after the French surgeon general of the Napoleonic imperial forces, who invented amongst other things the field ambulance, which helped to significantly improve medical care in the field.

Further information

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Footnote:

4. Any individual belonging to the military medical service may be nominated to receive the COMEDS Dominique-Jean Larrey Award. In exceptional circumstances, the award may be given to more than one individual where it is clearly demonstrated that the nominees have individually and collectively met the selection criteria. This includes a military medical organisation and/ or structure. The Award is granted no more than once a year.
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 forecasted – 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.
Public Diplomacy communications and information programmes

Communications and information programmes

With an intergovernmental organization like NATO, individual member governments are responsible for explaining their national defence and security policies as well as their role as members of the Alliance to their respective publics. Complementing these efforts are the programmes developed by NATO itself since NATO also has an obligation to inform publics in member countries and audiences worldwide about its policies and objectives.

NATO aims 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, it engages with the media, develops communications and information programmes for selected target groups including opinion leaders, academic and parliamentary groups, and youth and educational circles. It seeks to reach audiences worldwide, in particular, through the website, the NATO TV Channel on the Internet and social media activities. It also disseminates hardcopy materials and implements programmes and activities with external partners, while at the same time supporting the NATO Secretary General in his role as spokesperson for the Organization.

In sum, communication or public diplomacy efforts encompass all measures and means to inform, communicate and cooperate with a broad range of audiences worldwide, with the aim of raising levels of awareness and understanding about NATO, promoting its policies and activities, and thereby fostering support for, trust and confidence in the Alliance.

Communicating with the public was a concern of the Alliance from its inception. As early as May 1950, just one year after the signing of the Washington Treaty, the North Atlantic Council 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...” (18 May 1950).

The same ethos drives NATO’s communications and information programmes today, as reasserted by NATO Heads of State and Government in 2009: “As NATO adapts to 21st century challenges in its 60th anniversary year, it is increasingly important that the Alliance communicates in an appropriate, timely, accurate and responsive manner on its evolving roles, objectives and missions. Strategic communications are an integral part of our efforts to achieve the Alliance’s political and military objectives.” However, the substantial changes brought about with the information age, mobile media and user-generated content imply a process of constant reform and modernization: communication tools have multiplied and have the potential to hit a bigger and more diverse audience. At the same time, the need for instant communication, direct interaction and information-sharing is increasing.

Role of the communications and information programmes

NATO’s communications and information programmes complement public information activities initiated by the governments of each member country. They are principally undertaken by NATO’s Public Diplomacy Division, which also coordinates all strategic communication activities across all
NATO civilian and military bodies and harmonizes all public diplomacy activities undertaken by other entities belonging to the NATO structure.

**Types of activities**

To adjust to advances in technology, the rise of the 24-hour news cycle and the increasing popularity of social media, 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.

**Communicating and engaging with the public**

**24h media operations**

Press and media provide support for the NATO Secretary General, as the principal spokesperson for the Alliance, in addition to arranging briefings and interviews with journalists, organizing press conferences and press tours, conducting media monitoring and hosting exhibits. They also ensure that at major events, such as summits or ministerial meetings, adequate resources are available for journalists, senior officials and real-time coverage of events. A Media Operations Centre focuses on NATO-led operations and all related media activities. It ensures the coordination of activities, the harmonization of messages and the day-to-day management of communication activities touching on any one of NATO’s operations or missions.

**People-to-people engagement**

NATO organizes cooperation programmes, visits, seminars and conferences involving opinion leaders, parliamentarians, civic society groups and experts in member and partner countries. Effectively, NATO staff help to explain NATO and disseminate information in NATO and partner countries, as well as countries where NATO is engaged, by interacting with academics, think-tanks, bloggers and any other group with an interest in NATO and NATO-related issues. An original project is NATO’s SILK-Afghanistan programme, which provides free internet access for Afghan universities and governmental institutions in support of NATO’s operation in the country.

Visitors can be welcomed to NATO Headquarters and receive briefings and have discussions with experts from NATO’s International Staff, International Military Staff and national delegations on all aspects of the Alliance’s work and policies. Alternatively, NATO officials, including the Secretary General and other senior Alliance officials, participate in special flagship events in member countries and partner countries.

**Mass communication, image-building and branding**

The Alliance publishes and disseminates material that covers a broad range of NATO-related topics in both electronic and print formats, often in a variety of NATO and partner country languages.

The website provides access to details about NATO policies and activities, including public statements, background information, official documents, video interviews, audio files and real-time coverage of major NATO-related events. It also gives access to the resources of the NATO multimedia library, which inter-alia caters for internal and external requests on NATO-related publications. The online NATO TV Channel offers video stories and releases b-roll to broadcast media outlets, thereby broadening NATO’s reach further still. Additionally, the in-house TV and radio studios cover VIP press events and facilitate broadcast media outreach.
While publicly releasable official documents, statements and video stories are offered online, there are also texts, brochures and other products that exist, which explain policy and lend insight into the underlying objectives and rationale of the Organization. They seek to raise public awareness and contribute to an informed public debate on relevant aspects of security policy.

Promoting security cooperation
Communications and information programmes help to stimulate debate on NATO issues and contribute to strengthening knowledge of its goals and objectives in academic circles. Additionally, they give the Alliance access to the views and analysis of the general public and specialized groups within it. Many of the information activities have an interactive, two-way character, enabling the Organization to listen to and learn from the experience of the audiences it addresses, identify their concerns and fields of interest and respond to their questions. There are several instances where NATO is locally set up to increase the impact of its work and interact more frequently with its audiences, for instance with its information offices in Moscow and Kiev. There are also information points in other partner countries and so-called “contact point embassies”, which are literally NATO member country embassies located in partner countries that serve as links between NATO Headquarters in Brussels and target audiences in partner countries.

Coordinating NATO’s strategic communications activities
As well as harmonizing public diplomacy activities undertaken by other NATO entities, the Public Diplomacy Division also coordinates all strategic communication activities across all NATO civilian and military bodies.

Working mechanisms
The North Atlantic Council and Secretary General are in charge of the overall direction of communications and information programmes for both the civilian and military sides of the Alliance.

Civilian dimension
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 aims of NATO. In this respect, the Committee is responsible for the planning, implementation and assessment of NATO’s public diplomacy strategy.

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.

Military dimension
Members of the International Staff who run the different communications and information programmes work closely with the Public Information Advisor to the Chairman of the Military Committee. Although administratively part of the International Military Staff (IMS), the military Public Information Advisor’s office also works with the International Staff to facilitate this coordination.

The Military Committee, as well as the Chairman of the Military Committee in his role as the principal military spokesperson, also provides guidance to direct the communications and information
programmes, with SACEUR and SACT providing guidance on the communication efforts of Allied Command Operations and Allied Command Transformation, respectively.

**Evolution of the communications and information programmes**

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 organization 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.

Since then and over time, NATO’s public diplomacy programmes 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 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 public 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 analyzes 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 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 organizations 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 organization 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.
**Science, research and technology**

**The Science for Peace and Security Programme**

The Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme is a policy tool that enhances cooperation and dialogue with all partners, based on scientific research, innovation, and knowledge exchange. The SPS Programme provides funding, expert advice, and support to security-relevant activities jointly developed by a NATO member and partner country.

Founded in 1958, the Programme contributes towards the Alliance’s core goals and promotes regional cooperation through scientific projects and activities. Over its long history, the SPS Programme has continuously adapted to the demands of the times. 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.

The SPS Programme now promotes civil, security-related practical cooperation, and focuses on a growing range of contemporary security challenges, including terrorism, defence against chemical, biological, radiological, and nuclear (CBRN) agents, cyber defence, energy security and environmental concerns, as well as human and social aspects of security, such as the implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security (UNSCR 1325).

The Programme provides the Alliance with distinctive, non-military communication channels, including in situations where other forms of dialogue are difficult to establish. Accordingly, SPS often serves as the first concrete link between NATO and a partner.

**The SPS Programme: science, partnership and security**

The Programme promotes collaboration and cooperative security based on three core dimensions: science, partnership and security.

**Science**

The Programme helps to foster research, innovation, and knowledge exchange in an effort to address mutual security challenges. SPS has a vast network reaching out to hundreds of universities and institutions across the world.

**Partnership**

The collaborative framework of the Programme brings together scientists, experts, and policy makers from Allied and partner countries to address today’s security challenges. Moreover, the SPS Programme is well known as a tool available to all partners, thus proving that practical cooperation is achievable across political barriers through scientific exchange. Over the past five years the Programme has initiated over 450 collaborative activities in more than 40 partner countries.

**Security**

In line with guidance from NATO nations, all projects developed under SPS must have a relevant security dimension. This fundamental link to security is also reflected in the SPS Key Priorities developed by Allies. All activities funded under the SPS Programme must address one or more of the SPS Key Priorities.
**SPS grants**

The SPS Programme supports collaboration through three established grant mechanisms: multi-year research projects, workshops, and training courses. Interested applicants should develop proposals for activities that fit within one of these formats.

To that end, interested parties submit an application for funding that must be led by project directors from at least one Allied and one partner country. These applications must also directly address 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 approval process, taking into account expert, scientific and political guidance.

This process ensures that all SPS applications approved for funding have been evaluated by NATO experts, independent scientists, and NATO nations themselves.
NATO Research and Technology Organisation

The NATO Research and Technology Organisation (RTO) promotes and conducts co-operative scientific research and exchange of technical information among the 28 NATO and 38 partner countries. The largest such collaborative body in the world, the RTO has more than 3 000 scientists and engineers addressing the complete scope of defence technologies.

Main tasks and responsibilities
The RTO is the primary NATO organization for defence science and technology. It promotes and conducts co-operative research and information exchange, develops and maintains a long-term NATO research and technology strategy, and provides advice to all elements of NATO on research and technology issues.

The RTO carries out research in a range of technology areas:

- Applied vehicle technology
- Human factors and medicine
- Information systems technology
- System analysis and studies
- Systems concepts and integration
- Sensors and electronics technology

The organization also promotes cooperation among the Alliance’s bodies, and NATO member and partner countries to maximize the effective use of modelling and simulation. It provides the NATO Simulation Resource Library to increase the reusability of simulation resources within the RTO community. The RTO also promotes standards applicable in the NATO area of modelling and simulation.

The organization’s structure
The RTO operates at three levels – the Research and Technology Board, technical panels and technical teams – and is supported in its efforts by an executive agency, the Research and Technology Agency.

The RTO’s activities are addressed by six technical panels covering a range of scientific research activities, a group specializing in modeling and simulation, and a committee dedicated to supporting the information management needs of the organization. Each year there are some 140 research activities being conducted by technical teams.

The Research and Technology Board (RTB) is the highest authority in RTO. It is the policy body tasked by the North Atlantic Council through the Conference of National Armaments Directors (CNAD) and the Military Committee to serve as NATO’s single integrating body for the direction and/or co-ordination of defence research and technology.

The board’s membership comprises up to three leading personalities in defence research and technology from each NATO Nation. The members are chosen by the NATO countries and may be from government, academia or industry. Typically, Board members are senior science and technology executives at the deputy under-secretary, deputy assistant secretary or deputy administrator level.
The Research and Technology Agency (RTA) is the executive arm of the RTO, which facilitates collaboration by organizing a wide range of studies, workshops, symposia and other forums through which researchers can meet and exchange knowledge. The RTA has some 30 NATO civilian staff and another 20 military and civilian staff who are provided by the member countries and serve on limited duration rotations.

Evolution
The RTO was formed in 1998 through the merger of the Advisory Group for Aerospace Research and Development and the Defence Research Group.
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 – the ability of diverse systems and organizations 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.

NATO standardization bodies are grouped together under the NATO Standardization Organization (NSO). The NSO includes the Committee for Standardization (CS), which, under the authority of the North Atlantic Council, issues policy and guidance for all NATO standardization activities. The NSO also comprises the NATO Standardization Agency, its executive arm.

Definitions

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 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 the many NATO countries to work together, as well as with their partners, preventing duplication and promoting better use of economic resources.

Military Operational Standardization

The development and implementation of standards in the area of military operations helps multinational forces work more effectively and efficiently together.

Standard

Document, established by consensus and approved by a recognized body, that 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.

Note: Standards should be based on the consolidated results of science, technology and experience, and aimed at the promotion of optimum community benefits.(AAP-42)

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.(AAP-03J)

Allied publication

The name given to both standards and standards-related documents published by NATO. (AAP-42)
**NATO standardization bodies**

**Committee for Standardization (CS)**
The Committee for Standardization (CS) is the senior NATO committee for Alliance standardization and operates under the authority of the North Atlantic Council. It issues policy and guidance for all NATO standardization activities.

The CS is chaired by the Secretary General, normally represented by two permanent Co-Chairmen, namely the Assistant Secretary General for Defence Investment and the Director General of the International Military Staff.

Since September 2000, Partner countries have become actively involved in the Committee’s activities.

The CS meets in full format twice a year and comprises 28 NATO countries and more than 30 Partner countries. It is assisted by National Representatives (CSREPS) with delegated authority, who meet four times a year.

The work of the CSREPs focuses on harmonizing standardization activities between NATO and national bodies and promoting interaction between them in all fields of standardization.

The Committee is the Board of Directors of the NATO Standardization Agency, directing and managing the latter’s work in accordance with its Terms of Reference.

**The NATO Standardization Organization (NSO)**
The NATO Standardization Organization (NSO) is a NATO subsidiary body responsible for harmonizing and coordinating all standardization activities of the member states of the Alliance, NATO’s Strategic Commands and principal committees, and its Partner countries.

The NSO operates under the authority of the North Atlantic Council (NAC), which established the NSO in 1995 by agreeing on a founding charter describing NSO tasks and responsibilities. Each NATO member state is responsible, to the extent that it is capable, to support the NSO’s work.

The NSO has two main functional elements: the Committee for Standardization and the NATO Standardization Agency.

The Tasking Authorities are senior NATO committees that can task subordinate groups to produce Standardization Agreements and Allied Publications. They are therefore deeply involved in NSO activities within their respective fields of standardization.

**The NATO Standardization Agency (NSA)**
A single, integrated body, the NATO Standardization Agency (NSA) has the authority to initiate, coordinate, support and administer standardization activities conducted under the authority of the Committee for Standardization. It is composed of military and civilian staff.

In addition, it especially supports the Military Committee (MC) Joint, Maritime, Land, Air and Medical Standardization Boards through four military operational oriented branches within the NSA. Each of these boards acts as a Delegate Tasking Authority for operational standardization, including doctrine, as delegated by the MC.
The Director of the NSA is the principal advisor to the MC on operational standardization and to the Secretary General on overall standardization matters. He or she is selected by the CS, endorsed by the MC and appointed by the Secretary General, normally for a three-year period. The authority to promulgate NATO Standardization Agreements and Allied Publications is vested in the Director.

**NATO Standardization Staff Group (NSSG)**

The NATO Standardization Staff Group (NSSG) assists the Director, NSA. Its principal task is to harmonize standardization policies and procedures and to coordinate all NATO standardization activities at the staff level. It is responsible for liaising with staff and preparing documentation that contributes to the formulation of standardization requirements for NATO’s military commands and standardization objectives for the NATO Standardization Programme.

**Civil standards within NATO**

It is NATO policy to use suitable civil standards to the greatest extent practical. This includes adopting existing civil standards and transferring NATO standards to civil Standards Developing Organizations (SDOs). The aim is to convert the latter into civil standards and re-adopt them, taking into account Intellectual Property Rights (IPR). NATO’s IPR Policy was approved by NATO member states in 2008.

Technical Cooperation Agreements form the legal basis for the relationship between NATO and civil SDOs. Since 2004, the NSA has established such agreements with 10 SDOs.

**Achievements and Products**

The NATO Standardization Agency (NSA) administers the NATO Standardization Program (NSP), a classified database that prioritizes Alliance standardization requirements as a result of the Force Planning process to achieve interoperability. Force planning aims to promote the availability of national forces and capabilities for the full range of Allied missions.

NATO terminology is stored and managed by means of the NATO Terminology Database, which contains more than ten thousand definitions of NATO terms, helping to promote common understanding.

Combined Operations, reinforced by the forces of NATO partner and other states, cannot be efficient without common standards. Partners’ force contributions to NATO-led operations can only succeed by using the Alliances’ proven portfolio of standards in all standardization fields – operational, procedural, material and administrative.

The products of the NSA ensure that the armed forces of the Alliance and their force-contributing partners can operate efficiently and effectively together.

STANAGs and APs promulgated by the NSA are essential for the Tactical Evaluation programme of the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR). The programme provides SACEUR with a statement describing a unit’s capability to execute its assigned mission. Furthermore, NSA-supported standards are needed to certify units that are selected to become part of the NATO Response Force.
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.

For NATO, standardization is the development and implementation of concepts, doctrines and procedures that aim to achieve and maintain compatibility, interchangeability or commonality needed for interoperability. Interoperability – the ability to work in synergy in executing assigned tasks – can greatly increase the effectiveness of NATO’s operations and activities through a more efficient use of resources.

The Committee for Standardization meets twice yearly and reports annually to the NAC on standardization activities. It was created in 2001 to oversee the work of the NATO Standardization Organization, which resulted from the merger of two separate standardization bodies, one civilian and one military.

Role and responsibilities
As the senior body responsible for supervising all standardization activities across the Alliance, the Committee on Standardization steers the development of the NATO Policy for Standardization and monitors its implementation. It helps formulate standardization requirements for NATO’s defence planning and facilitates the implementation of NATO standards.

The Committee provides coordinated advice on overall standardization matters to the NAC, to which it reports, as well as guidance and procedures to all NATO bodies as needed. It also acts as the Board of Directors for the NATO Standardization Agency, the implementing body for the Alliance’s standardization work.

Working mechanisms
The Committee for Standardization, comprising delegates from 28 NATO countries and more than 30 partner countries, meets in full format twice a year. It is assisted by National Representatives (CSREPs) with delegated authority, who meet four times a year. The work of the CSREPs focuses on harmonizing standardization activities between NATO and national bodies, and promoting interaction between them in all areas of standardization.

The Committee reaches decisions on the basis of consensus among national representatives. Other representatives have no power of reservation, but have the right to have their views recorded. If consensus among NATO nations cannot be reached, the issue in question can be referred to the NAC.

Normally once a year, the Committee reports to the NAC on progress made in NATO Standardization, proposing actions as needed. It also presents a programme of work for the upcoming year.

The Committee is chaired by the NATO Secretary General, normally represented by two permanent Co-Chairmen, namely the Assistant Secretary General for Defence Investment and the Director General of the International Military Staff. Since September 2000, partner countries have become actively involved in the Committee’s activities.
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, giving birth to the NATO Standardization Agency as the staffing element of the new NATO Standardization Organization. The Committee was created in 2001 to oversee the work of the NATO Standardization Organization.