

AIR TRANSPORTATION IN HUMANITARIAN MISSIONS



BY
Phillip Taiwo

A THESIS PRESENTED IN PARTIAL COMPLETION OF THE REQUIREMENTS OF
The Certificate-of-Training in United Nations Peace Support Operations



Peace Operations Training Institute®

AIR TRANSPORT IN HUMANITARIAN MISSIONS

C-130 Hercules

**A RESEARCH PAPER PRESENTED TO THE UNITED NATIONS
INSTITUTE FOR TRAINING AND RESEARCH PROGRAMME OF
CORRESPONDENCE INSTRUCTION IN PEACEKEEPING
OPERATIONS(UNITAR POCI), NEW YORK**

**IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
AWARD OF DIPLOMA OF PEACEKEEPING OPERATIONS OF
THE UNITAR POCI**

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JUNE 2005.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARIES

The United Nations system, with its array of organizations and agencies, governed by decisions of member states, can be said to be somehow complex. Often decisions taken in one governing body differ from those taken in another, as member States may push for contradictory decisions in different directions. Thus, coherence in requests for United Nations operational programs and even from its special agencies may not always exist. Also, the deluge of United Nations humanitarian assistance programs, together with their multiple implementing partners from outside the UN system, usually add to this complexity. The proliferation of relief actors, the inconsistencies of donor responses, disconnected bilateralism (when added to the uncertain boundaries of humanitarian assistance), and the scarcity of resources are all part of the environment faced by the international relief network. But as the dynamics of assorted events seem to wait for no one, there should be a better way to resolve the cycle of crisis.

The three known phases of crisis – be they military conflict, natural disasters, or other forms of crises – can be classified in the following order. The first phase is when particular events start exhibiting signs or indications of Deterioration – known as “Time for Prevention”; the second is the Crisis and Mitigation phase – when international opinion must have been awakened to such early warning signals as: worsening mortality rates, encroaching famines, military buildups, or battering gales/violent storms; while the third is the Stagnation or “Deterioration Again” phase – when the situation shows either signs of recovery or sink into further abject deterioration. In real life there are frequently thin and very brief windows of opportunity between the phases, opened for humanitarian intervention, once the world has woken up to the situation. But what does it take to identify a crisis in the making? And depending on the nature of events, how long should it take the concerned few, such as the United Nations for instance, to respond to catastrophic emergencies anywhere in the world? The natural gestation periods occasioned by human frailties notwithstanding; there are other dimensions to the painful delays: the question of the right of humanitarian intervention (in the internal affairs of member states), and the due process necessary before the granting of mandates for commencement of UN operations by the Security Council (UNSC).

There is yet a different phenomenon – unleashed on humanity soon after the Cold War – the escalation of seemingly uncontrollable intra or inter border conflicts, and the prevailing ascendancy and increasing sophistication of international terrorism – in addition to unrelenting waves of natural disasters, from earthquakes or tsunamis, to hurricanes and devastating floods. These unusual events appear to have provided firm moral ground in support of responsibility for the international community to intervene in order to protect innocent victims of disasters or conflicts, of such magnitude as the unacceptable assault inflicted on our collective consciences, following such horrible events as the Rwanda, Srebrenica massacres, the recent wanton and unprovoked terrorist

attacks on New York and Washington DC, and the occasional devastations of coastal regions by floods caused either as a result of tsunamis or hurricanes.

This paper richly highlights the existence of other Inter-Governmental Organizations (IGOs), International Non-Governmental Organizations (INGOs), as well as Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), which are also involved in humanitarian relief operations, peacekeeping or peacemaking, either in support of, or in spite of the United Nations – principally as a result of unbearable delays often experienced before almost every UN humanitarian interventions.

The paper therefore explores the evolution of humanitarian organizations, and examines the tremendous role played by air transports in the growing trend of humanitarian missions around the world. The paper elaborates on three main themes: the need for the international community to speedily react to disaster relief efforts; advocates for increased development aids by rich countries for the assistance of the under-developed world, and the urgent necessity to fund sub-regional stand-by modules of peacekeeping forces, to ensure quick intervention in crisis situations anywhere in the world.

In order to achieve these desirable objectives, the paper makes a strong case for the establishment of a flexible yet economically viable, unique Air Transport Organization dedicated solely for humanitarian missions within the United Nations system. The study assumes that the UN would rightly undergo its proposed reorganization for more efficient and effective management of world peace; and to justify its existence into the 21st Century, the Security Council (UNSC) would be so structured as to reflect more balanced geopolitical considerations, and that there would be closer working relationships between an enlarged UNSC and other agencies of the UN to facilitate swift decisions, or mandates in support of humanitarian operations. A number of other current issues associated with above proposal are also discussed in detail in this paper, including the complexities of modern peacekeeping and/or peacemaking especially in a multi-cultural, multi-ethnic, and multi-religious setting, with wide and sporadic conflicts – amidst stark under-developed economy – as the Sudanese Crisis, which the paper uses as a case study to test the unique air transport organization under proposal.

Acknowledgement

I will like to thank Commodore Darius F. Onimole, rt., for being my adviser of this thesis and for his assistance, patience and his dedicated and insightful commitment to this work. Without his expertise and guidance, this thesis would not have been possible.

I am also grateful to the Director-Dr. Harvey J. LANGHOLTZ, and staff of United Nations Institute for Training and Research Programme of Correspondence Instruction (UNITARPOCI), for their assistance, patience and valuable guidance in bringing this work to completion.

I am also grateful to Mr. Jorge M. Rodriguez Ponce, my former chief-Air Safety of the United Nations Mission in Sierra Leone (UNAMSIL) - which will further build upon the first stepping-stones laid down in this work – for all his pragmatic insights and guidance.

Finally, I would like to express my profound gratitude to my family, without whose encouragement, assistance and patience this project would have been so much harder to finalize.

CERTIFICATION

**This is to certify that this work was carried out by Philip
TAIWO under my supervision.**

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DEDICATION

**I WISH TO DEDICATE THIS STUDY TO THE GLORY OF GOD AND THE
LOVING MEMORY OF MY FAMILY AND TO ALL PEACE LOVING PEOPLE
ALL OVER THE WORLD.**

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

In recent years humanitarian relief operations have increased in great numbers, just as they have become increasingly complex as the problems they set out to alleviate. Research into the present international political landscape goes some way towards explaining this quantitative aberration; as attitudes of impartial observers have equally changed towards multilateral aids in post-conflict environments, especially after the terrorist attacks on the United States of America (U.S.A), on September 11, 2001 (9/11). However it is measured, humanitarian aid has been growing in volume and funds available for these charitable and caring ventures have more than doubled between 1990 and 2004. It is interesting to note that the growing trend in the number of

humanitarian missions around the world is reflected in the availability of air transport services through which the missions are carried out.. Increasingly, many organizations in this sector are demanding air charters, for obvious reasons. Air transport is therefore crucial to humanitarian missions, promising a fast response and the capacity for contacting remote areas lacking other means of communication. Organizations investing in air charter services for humanitarian missions include the United Nations (UN) and a number of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs).

This study will however focus on the United Nations as the leading contractor. The air-transport services purchased every year by the United Nations from external air operators increased more than 6 times between 2000 and 2004, according to the United Nations Procurement Division. Special attention is drawn to the particular nature of humanitarian and peacekeeping missions which require dedicated aircraft and direct involvement by the operators as far as the relative safety issues are concerned. It is

estimated that humanitarian flights are more exposed to the risk of accidents than all other civil aviation operations, since they are open to unforeseen dangers consistent with the type and nature of the problems being resolved. Safety is thus a key issue, and in recent years, there have been a stronger UN commitment in terms of aviation safety. Unfortunately, the need for more safety and its related higher operating costs appear to be in conflict with tight budgetary constraints in the World Body. But perhaps the greatest constraints faced by humanitarian aid missions, happen to be insufficient speed of response to crises situations.

From Somalia, to the African Great Lakes; the Balkans, back to Liberia and Sierra Leone, including East Timor – to mention but a few – there had been unacceptable loss of lives and properties in these disaster areas before the arrival of international humanitarian assistance. The outcry of concerned governments and organizations world wide, about these wanton but avoidable casualties, have led to serious questions being asked in regard to the necessity for the existence of the United Nations. Without any doubt, the report just submitted to the Secretary General of the

UN by the 15 - Man High Level Panel on : Threats, Challenges and Change in December 2004, dwelt on how the United Nations can best respond to global security threats, amongst other transient issues. With the serious need for safer and swift response to disaster relief's , amidst a growing but competitive air transportation market, it is highly expedient to propose a case study towards the development of a business plan for a unique air operation dedicated to humanitarian missions.

Sudan in the African heartland is chosen as a possible operational scenario, due to its vast land mass and the complexity of its on-going conflict which demands very urgent attention. The United Nations, along with other humanitarian agencies, have been operating in the Sudan soon after the outbreak of hostilities in that multi-cultural community within the last two decades. However, a recent outburst of world-wide condemnation of the Sudanese Government ; coupled with the recent ceasefire signed between the ruling, Islamic Government of Sudan and the Christian/Animist Southern part of the country, appear to be paving the way for a full-scale UN peacekeeping operations in the vast African country.

The motive for these actions can be easily deduced: apart from the presence of rich oilfields in the area ; the fear of a repeat performance of the type of terrible genocide in Burundi/Rwanda, in the late 1990s, could be an added incentive to such an operation. In fact, Southern Sudan is very rich in oil deposits and oil companies from all over the world would be very active in extracting and exploring new reserves in this area as soon as the UN has rendered the area safe.

1.1 Objectives

Consequently, this paper will attempt to investigate the international requirements for air transport in humanitarian missions and analyze its characteristics, in order to develop the proper start-up of an airline dedicated to relief flights and air transport in remote areas, with a special focus on United Nations' operations. The central concern in this study is the urgent need for the international community to develop a safer but swift capacity in its increased commitment to humanitarian missions and post-conflict aids, because of the alarming and continuous threat to world peace. Thus, the prevailing unstable international political landscape, together with the increased need for safety in this particular type of operation, suggest the opening up of a niche market for air transport dedicated to humanitarian missions.

Also, it is assumed that the rising shrill cry from the powerful American Congress against the survival of the UNO would be diplomatically palliated; and that the precarious state of a steadily impoverish and unsafe world , would not weaken the resolve of the General Assembly towards effecting the much needed UN Reforms. And that the envisaged reforms of the World Body may hopefully examine such issues as: how the UN can best respond (that is, speedily react) to global security/disaster issues; examine possible expansion of the Security Council

(UNSC), and create closer links between the UNSC and other UN Agencies – as this would shorten the time-lag for ratification of mandates critical to the authorization of UN Missions.

This paper will thus be discussed in the following order: Identification of the organizations involved in humanitarian missions and areas of operations. Brief economic analysis of the United Nations in humanitarian missions. Analysis of the present geo-political situation and its possible developments. Identification of the characteristics of air transport in humanitarian missions from an operational point of view. Identification of some safety and economic issues related to air transport in humanitarian missions. And having analyzed the above issues, our objective is to present a case study leading to the development of a business plan for starting up an air operations dedicated to humanitarian missions.

CHAPTER TWO

INTERGOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS

This section takes a look at the vital part played in peace and relief operations by international organizations (IGOs), the Military, as well as the nongovernmental organizations (NGOs). The best-known IGO is surely the United Nations (UN). With its global responsibilities and numerous agencies, the United Nations is represented in the field in almost all complex emergencies. However, the UN is rarely the only IGO on the scene. Regional IGOs such as the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE), the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), and the African Union (AU), are becoming increasingly active in responding to conflicts and humanitarian disasters.

IGOs have assumed a growing role not only in responding to crises but also in orchestrating efforts by other international actors—namely, the military and NGOs. International, and particularly Western, reactions to tragedies in the 1990s have unleashed humanitarian impulses that had been more tightly tethered during the Cold War. Ensuring better access to and treatment of victims clearly has become a major concern. The United Nations and its authorized peace operations have been in the vanguard, and most have had humanitarian dimensions and consequences. Inevitably perhaps, their higher profile and the greater responsibilities entrusted to them in complex

emergencies have made IGOs the targets of substantial criticisms in recent years. Sometimes however, the critics fail to recognize that ultimately, the faults of IGOs are mainly the faults of their member-states.

We will therefore examine some definitions and a brief history of IGOs; then outline how they make decisions, how they are funded, and what institutional “cultural” characteristics they tend to display. Next, we shall look at IGOs in action in two key areas: providing and marshaling humanitarian assistance and peacekeeping, both past and present. As earlier stated most attention is devoted to the United Nations system, which has unique responsibilities and authority in the field of peace operations. Nonetheless, this section also indicates the roles played by other IGOs at both global and regional levels. We shall conclude this segment with profiles of UN agencies and IGOs that play prominent roles in peace operations; of these thirty-two profiles, more than half focus on regional IGOs. Throughout, a clear sense of the structure, resources, objectives, and variety of IGOs are conveyed.

2.1. What is an IGO?

In the acronym-laden world of international affairs, an international organization or IO, is any institution that operates in more than one country. An IO might thus be either a nongovernmental entity or intergovernmental organization—hence the use of two other, more specific, acronym, NGO and IGO, to distinguish between the two types. An IGO exists when two or more governments sign a multilateral treaty to form such a body and agree to finance its operations. As international entities that are created by states and that have physical plants, offices, personnel, equipment, and budgets, IGOs possess legal personality in international law : they can sue and be sued ; they can possess property ; and treaties ; they can enter into agreements, conventions, and treaties ; and their staffs enjoy diplomatic status . Most IGOs have more than two member-states, although relatively few aspire to global or universal membership such as the United Nations. In most cases, treaties lay out the underlying rules, norms, and principles that govern IGO operations; identify administrative organs and delineate authority, scope, and functions.

Most IGOs aim to protect and promote the national interests shared by member-states, but such interests can vary according to the functional and regional scope of particular institutions. Their functions are similar to those performed by government’s ministries (for example, agriculture or education). Some IGOs are multifunctional—the European Union (EU) and the Organization of American States (OAS), for example, address very broad range of issues, encompassing not only military, political, and economic cooperation but also cultural and environmental matters—whereas others, such as the Universal Postal Union (UPU) and the World Tourism Organization (WTO), serve only one purpose. Some IGOs, such as the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) and the African Union (AU) are composed of member-states that are located within one limited geographic area, although in some cases membership may embrace out-of-area states with strong interests in the region. For instance, the United States and Canada are

members of both the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) and the ASEAN Regional Forum (ARF) although they are located outside the European and Asian regions.

It is however pertinent to state that while the United Nations has the most significant experiences with peace operations ; over the past ten years regional organizations are being encouraged to play much stronger role in conflict prevention and post conflict reconstruction in their respective regions, than they were hitherto involved during the Cold War. Some of these organizations, such as the OAS, were established decades ago but have only recently developed a peacemaking profile. Other regional institutions, such as the OSCE, are new but are also very important arrival on the scene. Still others, such as the ARF, are barely organizations at all but provide an arena in which member-states can discuss regional security issues.

2.1.1 A Brief History

The Napoleonic Wars resulted in a series of developments that foreshadowed modern IGOs. In 1815 the Congress of Vienna began a series of regular intergovernmental consultations that in turn led to the creation of the Concert of Europe, which sought to orchestrate the foreign policies of the great powers of Europe. Later in the Nineteenth Century, the first IGOs of the modern state system (often called « Westphalian » after the Seventeenth-Century peace conference that spelled out the principles of sovereign units of the international system), emerged to perform essentially nonpolitical tasks such as the regulation of river navigation and communications. In the Twentieth Century, the number of IGOs has dramatically increased, and today there are over two hundred and fifty.

Aftermaths of the two Great Wars have led both idealists and realists to imagine ways to organize international relations that discourage individual countries from pursuing their own narrowly defined national interests unrestrained by an overriding authority. The first real experiment with an IGO with universal membership (that is, open to all countries) that covered security as well as other functional tasks was the League of Nations, which was established after World War I. The league, however, was seen by many as having structural weaknesses that contributed to the outbreak of World War II. At the end of that war, the victorious powers made a second try, creating the United Nations and its system of functional agencies to cover such tasks as agriculture, education, and industry .

The end of the Cold War has thus far resulted in no comparable effort to establish a « third generation » of world organizations, but a number of qualitative changes across a wide front may almost constitute a quantitative equivalent. First, there has been a dramatic increased reliance upon the United Nations for peace operations (twice as many have been mounted in the past decade as in the preceding four, a subject treated in more depth later). Second, there has been an augmentation in the number and scope of regional organizations, which in many ways complement or supplement the United Nations. Such a development foreseen in the UN Charter (or constitution), Chapter VIII

of which contains provisions about the United Nations relationship to regional organizations. They have spread to every region of the world, and many that began as economic associations : for instance, the Economic Community of West African States [ECOWAS] and the Association of Southeast Asian Nations [ASEAN] have moved into the security or conflict resolution fields. Third, other institutions (particularly the OSCE and the Commonwealth of Independent States [CIS] have been created to address security issues, and still others - particularly NATO - are redefining their missions).

In thinking about the division of labor between the universal and regional IGOs, the latter tend to be better placed (geographically) and more motivated to act - since the problems they seek to resolve are considered serious because they are in their backyard - but frequently such organizations lack resources or expertise, and they also may be dominated by a normal major power whose agenda permeates the so-called regional approach to problems. In addition, there often are real questions about the degree of member-states commitment to some regional efforts, especially the humanitarian missions.

2.1.2 The Humanitarian Arena

IGOs play varied and vital roles in the provision of humanitarian assistance to victims of natural and man-made disasters throughout the world. Here, we offer a brief account of the parts played by the most prominent IGO actors, in the process giving some ideas of how those roles have evolved over the past fifty years.

Within the operational arena, the key intergovernmental humanitarian actors are from the UN system: the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs; the UN High Commissioner for Refugees; the UN Children's Fund; the World Food Program; and the UN Development Program. Other parts of the UN system with specialized expertise such as the World Health Organization or the UN Education, Social and Cultural Organization may be called upon in emergencies. And given the increasing budgetary resources available for disasters, many of them are prepared and even eager to expand their operations. Nonetheless, the focus here is on the most essential operational institutions in complex emergencies.

It also should be noted that in the case of operations conducted within a war zone or a highly unstable territory, a number of IGOs' political officers are also likely to be present. All military peace operations, for instance, are headed by a civilian, who usually has a host of advisers on his or her staff. Moreover, special envoys or mediators sent by IGOs may come and go – in former Yugoslavia, for instance, David Owen represented the European Union and Cyrus Vance and Thorvald Stoltenberg represented the United Nations. Frequently, a **special representative of the UN secretary-general (SRSG)** will also be based in a war zone and will visit it often. The insertion of “political” types is a reality that intrudes into peace operations and certainly affects humanitarian activities. The presence of representatives of political masters can complicate operations – the most publicized example probably being the overly restrictive dual - key

arrangements in the former Yugoslavia, whereby the NATO commander's decision to launch air strikes had to be approved by SRSG Yasushi Akashi.

The **Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA)** is of recent origin, dating back to January 1998. Its predecessor from 1992 to 1997, the Department of Humanitarian Affairs (DHA), was established in direct response to donor dissatisfaction with inability of the UN system and international NGOs to coordinate their activities in the crises accompanying the Gulf War, although donor dissatisfaction with performance was a long-standing issue. The major functions of OCHA are consolidated appeals and information sharing, along with humanitarian diplomacy in New York. Part of the "cabinet"

of the UN secretary-general, OCHA is not truly operational, although there is sometimes a field presence in the form of an emergency coordinator. In its earlier incarnation as DHA, it was supposed to be more so. However, its deliberations and advocacy can contribute to the success of operational efforts by the UN system. In particular, information gathering can help improve performance, and fund-raising efforts through the consolidated appeal process (CAP) have given the potential to help rationalize resource mobilization. At the same time, it should be noted that the head of OCHA lacks the authority and budgetary resources to marshal the activities of other UN agencies.

Thus from its new headquarters on the place des Nations in Geneva, the **United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)** is guardian of the 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees and the 1967 Protocol. Its responsibilities include the protection of refugees, their resettlement into a country of first asylum or elsewhere, and their repatriation to their country of origin when possible. Increasingly, the organization has also been charged with "persons in refugee-like situations" who have not fled across an international border – namely, internally displaced persons and war victims who have not moved at all. For instance, in Bosnia not a single one of the 2.7 million persons helped by UNHCR was a refugee in the strict definition of the word. Other UN agencies, as well as some NGOs, are contracted with the UNHCR to implement programs. UNHCR's budget grew dramatically in the 1990s, which led some observers to complain that furnishing assistance had become more prominent than protecting refugee rights. The budget peaked in 1994-95 at some \$1.3 billion, with about \$500 million for the former Yugoslavia and \$300 million for Rwanda. It is now closer to \$1 billion. UNHCR has been awarded the Nobel Peace Prize on two occasions.

In New York, across First Avenue from the United Nations Headquarters itself, the **United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)** provides material assistance such as food, clothing, and medical supplies in relief operations while keeping its eye turned toward longer-term development for women and children. Established in 1946 to provide immediate relief to child victims of World War II, UNICEF receives the bulk of its resources from governments, but about 30 percent comes from private fund-raising (unusual for an intergovernmental organization). During the Cold War, UNICEF was unlike other organizations of the UN system in that it was often able to deal directly with insurgent authorities because of its unusual role in helping the most vulnerable victims –

women and children. About a quarter of UNICEF's annual budget (\$966 million in 1999) is devoted to emergency assistance.

Food insecurity after World War II led to the founding of the **Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO)** in Rome; but the main humanitarian actor operating from that city is the **World Food Program (WFP)**, which was established as a food-surplus disposal organization following the World Food Conference of 1974. Part of WFP's annual budget of more than \$1 billion comes from the FAO's International Food Emergency Reserve, but most comes from voluntary contributions in cash or in kind form bilateral donors. WFP began with a development orientation, but it now devotes about 80 percent of its efforts to emergencies. It coordinates food shipments with other UN agencies and NGOs and has become the logistics specialist within the UN system.

Also, across First Avenue is the headquarters of the **United Nations Development Program (UNDP)** which was established in 1966 as the central source of funding for technical assistance and pre-feasibility projects within the UN system. UNDP has an annual budget of almost \$1 billion. The senior UNDP official in countries is the resident representative, who normally acts also as the resident coordinator for all UN activities. When war erupts, this official may remain to coordinate humanitarian aid, but often he or she is replaced by someone with greater expertise in emergencies and political negotiations, the SRSG. After violence has settled down, UNDP's top official normally returns to replace the secretary-general's personal envoy and to assume overall responsibilities for reconstruction, rehabilitation, and development.

Outside the UN system, the main intergovernmental actor is the **European Community of Humanitarian Organization (ECHO)**. Initially, the former European Community (EC) and now European Union (EU) played a relatively little role in the humanitarian arena, serving mainly as a channel for contributions to other European organizations by member-states. However, since its creation in 1992, ECHO has asserted an important financial role in complex emergencies. In 1994 it became the largest single donor of humanitarian assistance (now donating almost \$1 billion annually).

Another significant intergovernmental actor outside the UN system is the **International Organization for Migration (IOM)** which was originally established in 1951 as the Intergovernmental Committee for European Migration (ICEM). As no appropriate international agency existed to deal with the migration and resettlement of displaced persons and refugees in Europe, nor with the orderly migration of nationals, the countries meeting in 1951 decided to create an international organization with a technical-operational mandate. In the late 1980s, the ICEM's name was changed to reflect its new global mandate. The current objective of the IOM is to ensure, throughout the world, the orderly migration of people in need of international assistance. The IOM has an annual budget of about \$250 million, administered from its Geneva headquarters. Its membership consists of 59 member-states (the United Nations has 189), with other 42 observers.

A transparent actor in the humanitarian arena is, strictly speaking, neither an IGO nor an NGO but rather a hybrid of the two. The **International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC)** is so special, indeed, that it is often considered in a category by itself. A private organization with a board of governors of prominent Swiss citizens, the ICRC is like an NGO in that it receives both private and public contributions (governments typically provide 90 percent of its annual budget, which in the mid-1990s approached \$1 billion, but which has decreased to some \$600 million). However, the ICRC is distinct in that it has a specific recognition in international humanitarian law as the custodian of the Geneva Convention of 1949 and the Additional Protocols of 1977 (also called “the laws of war”). It enjoys, for example, observer status in the UN General Assembly, and its chief delegate in New York meets monthly with the president of the Security Council. The ICRC has unique missions under international humanitarian law, such as monitoring the treatment of prisoners of war and detainees and promoting family reunification.

The ICRC, the international Federation (formerly League) of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC), and their national chapters in some 176 countries constitute the Red Cross “Movement”, which together with signatory governments meets every four years for the International Conference of the Red Cross. Founded in 1864 by a businessman, Jean Henri Dunant, the ICRC has its headquarters in Geneva and is staffed in key international posts largely by Swiss nationals. For specific assignments, it accepts the services of persons from national societies. Its location in a neutral country and its staffing underscore its mandate under the Geneva Convention and the Additional Protocols, that its effectiveness in the humanitarian arena depends on strict neutrality and impartiality. The oldest and largest international humanitarian organization outside the UN system, the ICRC was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1917, 1944, and 1963; Dunant received the first Nobel Peace Prize ever awarded in 1901.

Unlike most humanitarian agencies, the ICRC has clear and carefully elaborated fundamental principles (foremost are neutrality and impartiality), to which its disciplined staff abide with. This provides a consistent approach to activities in about fifty countries. Unlike most NGOs and IGOs, which mount a range of activities from relief to reconstruction and development, the ICRC works only in war zones – both international wars such as that between Iraq and Kuwait and civil wars (which the ICRC prefers to label “no international wars”) such as those in Somalia and Rwanda. In the 1990s, the ICRC completed a major review (the “Avenir Project”) of its mission and values. Formerly, it had a virtual monopoly among private institutions in rendering assistance and protection to all sides in war zones (UNHCR was the major IGO active among refugees). But that has changed in the post – Cold War era as there are fewer barriers to entry by other private and public humanitarian organizations.

2.1.3 Budgets and Financing

The budgets for IGOs typically mobilize resources through a system of progressive assessments, and thus the wealthiest states pay the largest portion of costs. Within the United Nations, for example, the eight largest contributors (the United States of America,

Japan, Germany, the United Kingdom, France, Canada, Italy, and Russia.) account for over 70 percent of the assessed budgetary contributions to both the organization's regular and its peacekeeping budgets. However, it is one thing for an IGO to assess its member's contributions, and quite another to collect them. Perhaps nothing better reflects the fact that an IGO is the servant rather than the master of its member-states than the parlous state of the United Nation's finances: presently, one-third of UN member-states are in arrears in their payments of international obligations. Although as many as 80 percent of member-states may be in arrears at any given time, the United States owes the largest amount (about two-thirds of total arrears). In spite of the so-called deal at the end of 1999 to repay its arrears in order to avoid the loss of the vote in the General Assembly, Washington is likely to remain both the largest contributor and the largest debtor to the world organization.

The situation is different for most humanitarian activities, because they tend to be financed on a "voluntary" rather than an "obligatory" basis. Here, major donors have a great deal more leverage over the use of their contributions than in the more egalitarian UN political context, and payments are usually made in a timely fashion. This financial procedure also means that crises that attract significant public attention or enjoy a high political profile (for instance, Bosnia and Kosovo) may receive adequate resources, while similar but less-known tragedies elsewhere (for instance, Sudan) may go under-funded.

CHAPTER THREE

NONGOVERNMENT ORGANIZATIONS

During the past twenty years, the importance of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) in the international arena has grown significantly. Working alone or partnered with governmental and international organizations, NGOs are essential players in the international response to humanitarian emergencies, human rights abuses, physical and societal reconstruction needs, and reconciliation challenges resulting from conflicts, natural disasters, and other major upheavals.

Often committed to long-term grassroots work within communities in developing voluntaries, these organizations are also capable of rapid action in the face of floods, hurricanes, civil unrest, ethnic and religious conflict, and human rights violations. Whether working alone or along-side military troops, government relief personnel, and UN agencies, NGOs are to be found in every trouble spot throughout the world—from

Rwanda to Bosnia, Kosovo, Nicaragua, and East Timor. Most international NGOs are headquartered in Western countries, where many of them also render assistance to local victims of natural disasters. In spite of these relative achievements, most NGOs are generally mis-understood, and only the largest of these organizations, such as the American Red Cross, Save the Children, Oxfam and a few others, are well known. We will now examine how these organizations came about.

3.1. What is an NGO?

A precise definition of NGOs—also known as private voluntary organizations (PVOs), civic associations, nonprofits, and charitable organizations—is difficult to pin down. The common ground of all NGOs is the desire to make the world a better place, a desire that underlies every organization's mission statement. Beyond this, however, NGOs vary enormously. In this study, we define an NGO as a private, self-governing, not-for-profit organization dedicated to alleviating human suffering; and/or promoting education, health care, economic development, environmental protection, human rights, and conflict resolution; and/or encouraging the establishment of democratic institutions and civil society. In essence, NGOs are dedicated to the service and protection of those sectors of society that tend to be unnerved or underserved by governments and other official institutions such as the United Nations.

The number of these organizations tend to be increasing rapidly. In the 1998-99 edition of its *Yearbook of International Organizations, the Union of International Associations reports* that NGOs around the world now total 16,586, with perhaps 50 percent of these representing Western countries working in the developing world, supporting thousands of indigenous organizations. The number of NGOs has more than doubled since 1978 and is twenty times greater than number of NGOs in 1951. Of the 156 members of InterAction, a membership body for major American relief and development NGOs, over two-thirds were founded after 1960, a majority after 1975. Some of these were created to render assistance in specific upheavals—for example, the conflict in Bosnia, the Ethiopian famine of the mid- 1980s, and the massive flooding in Bangladesh in the 1990s. Most, however, were formed to offer emergency assistance and/or long-term development aid throughout every region of the world as a whole.

3.1.1 A Brief History

The tradition of voluntary organizations devoted to helping others in time of need stretches back across centuries from medieval Europe to Tang China to ancient Rome. The NGO community of today, however, was born in the Nineteenth Century. One of the first NGOs to appear was the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA), founded in Britain in 1844 to help young men cope with an industrializing economy. The International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC, which is actually an international organization but functions like an NGO - as earlier discussed, was founded in 1863 to assist wounded soldiers and prisoners of war in the then medieval war-torn Europe. The

Salvation Army has provided food, shelter, and spiritual uplift to society's outcasts since 1865. The American Red Cross, which works world-wide, was founded in 1881 by Clara Barton and is led and supported by its 1.3 million volunteers. It provides relief to victims of disasters and helps people prevent, prepare for, and respond to emergencies.

In the Twentieth Century, the two world wars saw the creation of a handful of large international agencies. Examples include the American Friends Service Committee, Save the Children, Child Reach (formerly Foster Parents Plan), Catholic Relief Services, and the Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere (CARE). CARE was originally formed as a cooperative of twenty-two organizations that provided aid to victims of World War II; it is now one of the largest independent relief and development agencies in the world, with a budget of over \$380 million. Its activities range from providing health and nutrition programs to supporting agricultural development, population control, and the creation of small enterprises.

The human rights organization Amnesty International was founded in 1961 by a British lawyer who started a letter-writing campaign on behalf of two students held in Portuguese jails for protesting government policies. Amnesty International now has over a million members in one hundred fifty countries and territories. Like Amnesty International, numerous

NGOs were founded to address very specific needs but have since expanded the scope of their operations. The Center for International Health and Cooperation, for example, was formed in response to the war in Somalia in 1992, reacting primarily to the effects of land mines, but has expanded its assistance programs to encompass humanitarian needs and human rights in the former Yugoslavia. In the same year, the International Orthodox Christian Charities began its humanitarian work in the former Soviet Union and is now active there, as well as in the Balkans and the Middle East. Many NGOs were founded by religious groups, sometimes as the relief arm of a church or other religious institutions and sometimes as an outgrowth or the activities of the religious group. For instance, the Mennonite Peace Central Committee draws from the Mennonite peace church tradition in its activities, incorporating conflict resolution and peacemaking principles into its relief and development work. Although developed and partly funded by religious organizations, most of these NGOs, such as the Adventist Development and Relief Agency (the humanitarian agency of the Seventh-Day Adventist Church) and the huge Catholic Relief Services, deliver help regardless of religion, race, or ethnicity.

In the 1990s, the need for humanitarian assistance has grown sharply because of a significant rise in the numbers of refugees and displaced persons, most of whom have been caught up in warfare within their nation's borders. The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees estimates that the total number of refugees (people who have fled across international borders) was 20.3 million in 1999, with an estimated 20-30 million internally displaced persons (people have fled their homes but have not crossed an international border) adding to the numbers.

The global political transformation of the late 1980s and early 1990s have affected the character of international humanitarian activity. The end of the Cold War and of

superpower domination loosened the structures that had contained sectarian and intrastate rivalries. As ethnic and religious conflicts thus proliferated, so the need has grown for organizations specializing in human rights, refugee protection, humanitarian relief, and conflict resolution. NGOs have also intensified their activities in response to the political opportunities provided by the end of the Cold War. Organizations such as the National Democratic Institute and the International Republican Institute—not strictly NGOs as they are quasi-governmental bodies—as well as the many institutions funded by the financier George Soros, have recently sprung up in the United States and Europe to promote democracy, freedom of speech, and civic education in many previously closed societies. Let us now examine how these organizations are funded.

3.1.2 Budgets and Funding

Senior-level NGO executives and their boards devote much time and attention to securing funding for program activities, staff salaries, and overhead. Raising money is a constant concern; whether an organization's annual budget is less than \$100,000 or more than \$100 million, much of that sum will have to be raised every year. Amounts and sources of financial support vary from one NGO to another. For example, in 1993, Catholic Relief Services received 14 percent of its revenues from individual or corporate donations; 80 percent from government grants, in-kind donations, or contracts; and 6 percent from other sources. It received no revenues from foundations. In the same year, Oxfam America received 90 percent of its funding from individual and corporate contributions; 9 percent from foundations; and 1 percent from other sources. It received no revenues from government sources.

Solicitations for private donations take many forms—annual appeals, issue-specific campaigns, year-round membership drives—and are delivered in many ways—direct appeals by telephone or mail, telethons, television commercials and newspaper advertisements, and so forth. Celebrities often lend their name and talent to fund-raising activities: Barbara Bush for AmeriCares; Rosalynn and Jimmy Carter for Habitat for Humanity; Paul Newman and Joanne Woodward for Save the Children. Donations may be in the form of money, securities, bequests, charitable trusts, real, estate, or in-kind gifts. In-kind donations can range from medical supplies to seeds to books and clothing. Although governments may provide most of the in-kind food assistance; companies, hospitals, churches, and other bodies also provide many in-kind gifts.

Some NGOs accept money only from private sources, fearing that the acceptance of government funding will lead to a loss of independence and pressure to compromise organizational integrity. Others accept public money but maintain an uneasy relationship with the government that provides those funds. They complain that governments put economic and political considerations ahead of humanitarian ones. They point out that a government may be giving assistance to victims of officially sanctioned violence while maintaining ties with the offending government through trade relations and sometimes even arms sales. They also claim that some donor governments are reluctant to furnish long-term development aid and instead prefer to concentrate on providing direct relief,

such as food, because it benefits their own economies (alternatively, some governments prohibit aid to sectors that might threaten competition to their own exports).

Notwithstanding such complaints and reservations, public funding has become a significant part of the budgets of some U.S. NGOs. Working in partnership with government organizations or as private contractors to deliver services, NGOs received \$1.3 billion from USAID and \$1.1 billion from other U.S. Government sources and international organizations, making up 25 percent of the 9.5 billion raised by U.S. humanitarian organizations. It should be noted, however, that to be eligible for USAID funding, an NGO must raise at least 20 percent of its funds from sources other than the U.S. Government. In practice, this percentage is much higher; USAID reported that in 1999 the NGOs registered with its programs raised 75 percent of their budgets from sources other than the U.S. government.

The visibility of NGOs has grown in recent years, as television coverage of a series of humanitarian crises has spotlighted the vital role that NGOs play in relieving sufferings. The public's desire to help in these humanitarian emergencies has boosted private funding for some NGOs and sparked the creation of new NGOs dedicated to responding to a particular crisis. Convincing donors that their donations are going to worthwhile causes is one reason why NGOs are conscious of generating and sustaining media attention, and why they may seek to paint a bleak picture of conditions in crisis-torn countries. The high profile produced by the media's typically short-lived or occasional interest, however, does not mean that these NGOs will continue to receive donations when the initial crisis is over. This on-and-off public exposure can actually complicate the financial life of these organizations, which must contend with enormous fluctuations in the level of donations they receive from an audience whose interest in media coverage the crisis attracts. Such exposure also has an impact on staffing and technical capabilities of NGOs, which cannot retain highly skilled or experienced staff without the needed financial resources. The importance of publicity to an NGO's budget can create what may appear to be unseemly competition among other sister NGOs. It can also foster the impression that NGOs focus only on the most dramatic problems. In fact, NGOs often work in obscurity in tense situations long before the television cameras arrive, and they remain committed to helping solve local problems long after international public interest must have faded.

CHAPTER FOUR

HUMANITARIAN RELIEF IN WAR ZONES

Relief in war zones provides a metaphor for the post-cold war era, which is part of its complexity. It signals and reflects some of the most profound historical changes of our time. Although often associated with Africa or the Balkans, the modus operandi of war relief also reflects the essence of social change within industrialized countries. External humanitarian aid is similarly concerned with the changing role of governments and the increasing importance of subcontracting public functions to private or non-governmental organizations (NGOs). In many respects, the present international relief system is a projection of the way in which the West is attempting to solve its own internal problems. In both cases, the focus of public policy has shifted from attempting to manage growth and redistribution to trying to contain the effects of poverty and social exclusion. This structural association between

internal and external public policy is to be expected. It would be surprising if Western governments were advocating wildly different scenarios. In both situations, governance is being redefined in more complex ways as the privatization of public and economic life advances. Relief in war zones is also conditioned by the perceived national and regional interests of Western governments. Thus, while there is a structural similarity at policy level, in practice there is a marked unevenness in application. The afore-mentioned background to

relief in war zones is the growing polarization of the global economy. The existence of a wealth gap between the richest and poorest parts of the world is long-standing.

This polarization is not a random process but is associated with the regionalization of the global economy. Since the 1980s its most dynamic elements have been increasingly integrated with North American, West European and East Asian regional systems. This process has recreated an interest in the existence of economic blocs. Of related concern is evidence suggesting that it is those areas which lie outside the main regional configurations where the effects of global polarization are most pronounced: Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean, the Middle East, Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) countries. Across much of this broad area, average economic indicators have been on the decline as the dynamic regions have continued to grow.

The existence of regional differentiation amidst increasing polarization have recast the boundaries of North and South. A working hypothesis would now define the North as the main bloc areas, including East Asia, while the South represents those regions lying outside or only partially integrated into these regional systems. This includes parts of Eastern Europe and the CIS countries. As the global economy has concentrated within the dynamic regions, a process of withdrawal from non-bloc areas has begun. In place of dynamism, many countries are increasingly unstable. Indeed, while there are exceptions, the broad Africa-Eurasia axis subsumes the overwhelming majority of what the UN classifies as complex emergencies.

It is misleading to see economic polarization and impoverishment as a direct cause of instability. While these may constitute important contributory factors, functional considerations are insufficient explanations on their own. More significantly, the process

of regionalization has given rise to differing political or regulatory dynamics. At the risk of over-simplification, the emergence of free market North American, social democratic West European and strong-state East Asian models of regional integration suggests the existence of different species of capitalism. Rather than differences among the main blocs, however, it is between the dynamic and the crisis regions where the key discontinuity lies.

4.1 Negotiated Access and On-going Conflict

Up to the end of the 1980s, warring parties usually attempted to deny humanitarian assistance to areas controlled by opponents. They were able to pursue a strategy of humanitarian denial largely as a result of the importance previously attached to traditional notions of non-interference in internal matters. As a result, during the Cold War non-government areas in internal wars were out of bounds for most agencies. NGOs tended to operate on the side of the recognized government. During this time, relief programs often took the form of dealing with the symptoms of counter-insurgency and humanitarian denials, of supporting displaced people outside war zones or as refugees beyond recognized borders.

Within the new paradigm, negotiated access has become the principle means of expanding welfare safety-nets in internal wars. In its most basic form, negotiated access involves gaining the consent of warring parties for the movement and delivery of humanitarian aid to civilian populations. Negotiated access is not particularly new. This type of approach has a long pedigree in the field of diplomacy and crisis management. Negotiation was also part of more limited relief operations during the Cold War. What is new is that attempting to secure the consent of warring parties has become the principal means of establishing internationally mandated relief operations that cover all sides in an ongoing conflict. Negotiated access has supplied a post-cold war framework within which integrated multi-sectoral humanitarian programs have been created. While remaining operationally problematic, it has legitimized cross-border or cross-line type programs that were previously out of bounds for most aid agencies. An early example of this approach was the UN's Operation Lifeline Sudan (OLS) in 1989. Variants have emerged in places such as Angola (1990), Ethiopia (1990), Kurdistan (1991), Bosnia (1992) and Rwanda (1994).

Where consent is forthcoming, negotiated access has greatly expanded the scope of humanitarian operations. NGOs are now able to work in situations where, less than a decade ago, this would have been unthinkable. The enlargement of the sphere of UN and NGO activity, however, is not the only factor of significance. Based on consent, negotiated humanitarian programs are vulnerable to obstruction and interference by warring parties. The repeated humiliation of the UN in Bosnia, or the frequent obstruction of OLS by the Sudanese government, is example of this general problem. Nevertheless, negotiated access has great historic and political importance.

During the Cold War, although UN intervention was relatively uncommon, when it did take place it was on the basis of agreed ceasefire or clear peacekeeping arrangements. UN agencies did not attempt to operate in the context of an ongoing conflict. The *ad hoc* UN resolutions that have made negotiated access possible, however, send a different signal. The new paradigm, while not condoning conflict, now appears to accept that political instability is an unfortunate reality in the South. Unable to prevent internal war, the West has resigned itself to finding ways of working within ongoing crises and managing their symptoms.

4.1.1 Conflict, Security and Protection

Working in ongoing conflict has pushed security issues to the fore. During the Cold War, internal conflicts had an organizational cohesion that seems lacking today. Opposition movements usually had defined command structures, clear nationalist or socialist platforms and often held liberated base areas, a situation that superpower rivalry tended to support. Today conflicts are often more fluid. Political ideologies are either less in evidence or take an exclusively ethnic or fundamentalist character. The ending of superpower confrontation has also seen a decline in the significance of borders. The recent military maps of southern Sudan, Angola, Bosnia or Afghanistan have often taken on a leopard spot pattern as political movements have become more fragmented. As a consequence, providing humanitarian aid is more dangerous and often represents the acceptance of situations of high and continuous risk.

The security of aid personnel and relief supplies in negotiated access programs is often tackled in two main ways. The first, and most common, is what is known as non-military security, while the other is military security.

Non-military security

In situations of continuous risk, security planning has become a relative rather than an absolute exercise. In integrated programs where military protection is not provided, it is common to find civilian (sometimes ex-military) security personnel charged with assessing the changing nature of risks. Southern Sudan is an example where such advisors are employed by the United Nations. Agencies are regularly briefed on security matters and evacuation procedures. Through an agreed gradation of response, agency staff are routinely withdrawn and returned to the field according to the security situation. Aid workers and relief supplies consequently ebb and flow with the level of violence. A movement which graphically illustrates the extent to which aid has been incorporated into the rhythm of internal conflict – a situation perhaps unique in the history of warfare.

Military security

The military protection of humanitarian aid is associated with relief operations in Kurdistan (1991), Bosnia (1992-95), Somalia (1992-95), and Rwanda (1994). It is also

linked to the central tenet of the new paradigm – that is, to avert large-scale population movements crossing international boundaries by securing the distribution of humanitarian relief within war-affected countries. In compliance with partnership requirements that such interventions be non-political military humanitarianism avoids direct involvement in the internal affairs of the affected country. The *ad hoc* UN resolutions that have framed military humanitarianism have therefore commonly focused on the protection of agency personnel and relief supplies rather than pacification activities. At most, military protection has frequently involved some form of so-called safe area policy.

This pattern, geared to working in unresolved political crises, has radically changed the nature of peacekeeping. It has given rise to a much broader range of peacekeeping activities. The British Army, for example, has developed an approach termed “wider peacekeeping”. Consent is central to wider peacekeeping and distinguished it from enforcement. While vital for protection operations, consent in modern internal wars is no longer a given. It is a variable factor and in some circumstances may only be partial. Securing consent is often of negotiated access. Wider peacekeeping and helping secure and maintain humanitarian access, hinges upon the management of consent.

In organizational terms, military protection is best understood as an optional appendage to an integrated and negotiated relief program. In the case of Bosnia, for example, UNHCR as lead agency negotiated access on behalf of the aid agencies working under its umbrella. Appropriate protection for convoys was then agreed with the military on the basis of the arrangement reached by UNHCR with the warring parties. It is worth emphasizing the optional nature of military protection because numerous integrated relief programs, such as in Sudan and Angola, are not protected. Indeed, within the crisis regions, non-protected relief programs would seem to predominate.

4.1.2 Service-Packages and Non-Welfare Subcontracting

The involvement of the military in relief operations has begun to expand beyond that of providing protection. The effect of conflict and the systemic crisis within non-bloc areas has led to the erosion and collapse of vital infrastructure. Indeed, such is the extent of global polarization that, in many complex emergencies, the local facilities necessary to mount a large-scale relief operation no longer exist. Aid subcontracting has increasingly involved NGOs, but in many emergencies, the skills and resources required now go beyond the welfare services that most provide. For example, aircraft logistics, air-drops, large-scale commodity handling, engineering repairs, civilian policing, judicial structures, and so on.

Since 1992 Department of Humanitarian Affairs (DHA) has been coordinating attempts to encourage donor governments to make available non-offensive military and civilian assets in the form of service-packages, or self-contained operational units that bring together specific strategic skills or resources. UNHCR has been particularly active in developing the service-package approach. The agency’s poor showing in the aftermath of the Gulf war first prompted a need to increase strategic capacity. The Sarajevo airlift,

however, is held to be the turning point. This indicated that governments were willing to second skilled personnel and military equipment to UNHCR. Some 20 nations provided components that variously supported the airlift through the Geneva based air-cell, the air-hub at Zagreb, and the logistical, transport and liaison facilities at Sarajevo. With the assets provided, UNHCR was able to give the necessary vertical coordination. UNHCR subsequently employed the service-package approach in Rwanda in 1994 to cover logistics, sanitation, civil engineering and security services.

Gradually, it can be deduced that the military and civilian assets of governments are an important constituent of service packages. IGOs and the larger NGOs, however, can also act as service providers. Standby agreements with governments or agencies regarding service provision are seen by UNHCR as central to improving emergency preparedness. Service-packages also illustrate an important feature of the new paradigm: the more complex relief operations become, the greater the spread of international responsibility. At the same time, they illustrate the manner in which military assets are being separated from protection duties. The potential for Western military involvement is therefore widening.

Generally in relation to NGOs, service packages can be seen as a development of public service contracting. At the same time, however, they have allowed new players to compete for contracts. In the logistics field, for example, in both Bosnia and Rwanda one has seen the emergence of private non-profit organizations providing niche services. In southern Sudan, USAID has taken the service-package trend even further. Reflecting an earlier stance in the North, it has called for the logistics component of the OLS operation to be handed over to private contractors. In many respects, where some services are concerned NGOs can claim no major advantage over private contractors

CHAPTER FIVE

HUMANITARIAN NGOs

Humanitarian NGOs are among the best-known NGOs, in part because they make up the largest category and include many of the largest individual organizations. They respond to both natural and man-made disasters on every continent. Some humanitarian NGOs, such as Medicines Sans Frontiers (Doctors without Borders), provide only emergency relief; others, such as World Vision, provide long-term support designed to span a transition from relief to development work. A number of organizations perform both relief and development, often using different staff for the two activities.

These distinctions are not self-evident to an out-sider looking at the day-to-day activities of the different NGOs, for each organization plays many roles in carrying out its mission. We will now examine how humanitarian NGOs came about and how they operate. It should be noted that the overriding goal of most of these charities is the necessity to get to the scene of crises, long before the arrival of any humanitarian organizations, including the United Nations.

5.1 AFRICARE

Africare is a private, nonprofit organization dedicated to improving the quality of life rural Africa. For more than twenty-eight years, Africare has assisted children, women, and families in countries throughout Africa through self-help programs in agriculture, water resource development, environmental management, health and emergency humanitarian aid, and more recently, projects in micro-enterprise development and democratic governance.

In the United States, Africare focuses on building understanding of African development through public education and promotional outreach. Africare's work is supported financially through grants and contributions from corporations, foundations, organizations, the religious community, the U.S. government, international agencies, foreign institutions, and thousands of individual donors.

5.1.1 AMERICAN RED CROSS (ARC)

A member of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, ARC serves as the official representative of the movement in the United States. A humanitarian organization led by volunteers and guided by its Congressional Charter and the Fundamental Principles of the International Red Cross Movement, ARC provides relief to victims of disasters and helps people prevent, prepare for, and respond to emergencies. It seeks to enhance the sister national societies in disaster preparedness and response, primary health care and health education, HIV/AIDS education, blood collection and processing, capacity building, and other programmatic areas. It provides international social services; coordinates youth exchange programs between ARC and sister national societies, promotes international cooperation through community-based programs in the United States, and helps people avoid, prepare for, and cope with emergencies. ARC also provides direct relief to disaster victims and refugees and provides development assistance.

5.1.2 CARE (COOPERATIVE FOR ASSISTANCE AND RELIEF EVERYWHERE)

CARE, which celebrated its fiftieth anniversary in 1995-96, was founded when twenty-two organizations formed a cooperative to rush lifesaving CARE packages to victims of World War II in Europe and, later, in Asia. In the years that followed, CARE sent food, tools, and other relief assistance to people recovering from natural disasters and conflicts throughout the world. In addition, CARE was an early leader in long-term development projects that enable impoverished people to become self-sufficient. CARE is the largest nonprofit, independent relief and development organization in the world and now operates in sixty-two nations in Asia, Africa, Latin America, Eastern Europe, and the former Soviet Union, helping the developing world's poor strive for social and economic

well-being. CARE programs offer technical assistance, disaster relief, training, food, other material resources, and management in combinations appropriate to local needs and priorities. Whatever the method, the guiding principle is that programs provide people with sustainable means to achieve self-sufficiency. Programs are carried out under partnership agreements among CARE, private or government agencies, and local communities.

5.1.3 CATHOLIC RELIEF SERVICES (CRS)

Founded by the Catholic Bishops of the United States in 1943, CRS is the official overseas relief and development agency of the Catholic Church in the United States. CRS assists persons on the basis of need, not creed, race, or nationality. Its first mission provided food and shelter for war refugees. In the 1960s, the agency also began to look for ways to help the poor break out of the cycle of poverty. Emphasis shifted to the promotion of new farming techniques, loans for small business, and health and water projects. Peace building and reconciliation, gender-responsive programs, and the development and strengthening of civil society are active parts of its promotion of social justice in the countries in which it works.

5.1.4 INTERACTION

Formed in 1984, Interaction is a coalition of more than 160 U.S.-based relief, development, environmental, and refugee agencies working in more than a hundred countries around the world. Interaction seeks to enhance the identity autonomy, credibility, and diverse perspectives of each member agency; provide a broadly based participatory forum for professional consultation, coordination, and concerted action; foster the effectiveness and recognition of the private voluntary organization community, both professionally and publicly; and set the highest ethical standards in carrying out its mission. Member

organizations promote economic development and self-reliance, improve health and education, provide relief to victims of disasters and wars, assist refugees, advance human rights, protect the environment, address population concerns, advocates for just public policies, and increase understanding and cooperation between people. Women, who account for 70 percent of the world's poor, are central to many of these programs, and special efforts are made to promote women's participation and equity. The Interaction consortium has standing committees on disaster response, refugees, development policy and practice, public policy, advancement of women, and ethical standards. Other initiatives include the International Advocacy Councils and the Global Connections Project.

5.1.5 INTERNATIONAL RESCUE COMMITTEE (IRC)

The IRC was founded in 1933 at request of Albert Einstein to assist anti-Nazi opponents of Hitler. It provides emergency relief, public health, medical, and educational services to refugees and displaced persons in more than two dozen countries. Through reconstruction and rehabilitation projects, the IRC assists in the repatriation of refugees to their home countries, provides resettlement services for refugees in the United States, and advocates on behalf of refugees, especially refugee women and children.

5.1.6 LUTHERAN WORLD RELIEF (LWR)

LWR began in 1945 to support Lutherans in Germany and Scandinavia after World War II and soon after moved worldwide. Its mission is to assist people outside the United States in disaster and emergency situations and to support development programs on behalf of the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America, the Lutheran Church-Missouri Synod, and other U.S. Lutherans, usually through counterpart church-related agencies. LWR focuses on long-range integrated community development projects. It operates or supports its programs mainly by providing financial and material support and by working to improve harvests, health, and education.

5.1.7 MÉDECINS SANS FRONTIÈRES USA (MSF USA)

A private, nonprofit humanitarian organization, Doctors without Borders (DWB) was founded in 1971 by a small group of French doctors determined to respond rapidly and effectively to public health emergencies, with complete independence from political, economic and religious powers. DWB delivers emergency medical relief to populations threatened by armed conflict, civil strife, epidemics, or natural and man-made disasters. A DWB team provides primary health care, performs surgery, vaccinates children, rehabilitates hospitals, operates emergency nutrition and sanitation programs, and trains local medical staff.

5.1.8 MERCY CORPS INTERNATIONAL (MCI)

Founded in 1979 as Save the Refugees Fund and renamed Mercy Corps International in 1981, MCI is a nonprofit, voluntary organization that works to alleviate suffering,

poverty, and oppression by helping people build secure, productive, and just communities by providing food, shelter health care, and economic opportunities.

5.1.9 OXFAM AMERICA

Formed in 1970, Oxfam America is an autonomous, nonprofit development agency that collaborates with the eight other independent Oxfam's around the world (the name Oxfam comes from the original Oxford Committee for Famine Relief, founded in England in 1942). Oxfam America funds disaster relief and a variety of self-help development projects carried out by grassroots community groups. It seeks to promote self-reliant, participatory development among poor people through projects that assist their efforts to supply more of their own food. Oxfam helps poor people gain more control over resources and decisions that affect their lives. It provides emergency relief assistance to selected countries. It conducts development education program for people in the United States about the causes, challenges, and solutions regarding underdevelopment and hunger.

5.1.10 REFUGEES INTERNATIONAL

Founded in 1979 in response to the forced repatriation of thousands of Cambodian, Laotian, and Vietnamese refugees, Refugees International provides early warning in crises of mass exodus. It seeks to serve as the advocate of the unrepresented—the refugee. In recent years, Refugees International has moved from its initial focus on Indochinese refugees to global coverage, conducting almost thirty emergency missions in four years. The organization mixes quiet diplomacy and the power of the press to mobilize governments and engage the United Nations. Their on-the-ground emergency assessment paves the way for relief agencies and human rights organizations to step in with life-saving measures.

5.1.11 SALVATION ARMY WORLD SERVICE OFFICE (SAWSO)

The Salvation Army was founded by William Booth in London in 1865 as an international movement and an evangelical part of the universal Christian church. SAWSO provides financial and technical assistance to the International Salvation Army in support of its work in a variety of programs including education, health services, relief and disaster services, and community development. It also assists the Salvation Army in developing community-based initiatives that address the underlying causes of poverty in developing countries.

SAWSO was established in 1976 to find long-term solutions to worldwide poverty. Directed by the world headquarters in London, it focuses on five basic areas: health,

employment, community development, disaster relief, and training of indigenous personnel. Financing comes from both the private and the public sectors.

5.1.12 SAVE THE CHILDREN

Save the Children was created in 1932 to respond to the needs of the children of coal miners in Appalachia. In more than thirty-five countries around the world and in fifteen states across the United States, Save the Children helps people learn to help themselves through projects that address interrelated problems and promote self-sufficiency. Save the Children especially focuses on early childhood education, preventive health care, and economic opportunities, including sustainable agriculture and natural resource management and family support. Women are a major focus of Save the Children's work. Through their multiple roles as economic producers, primary caregivers, and community managers, women play a leading role in development. Save the Children programs endeavor to increase women's options to break intergenerational cycles of poverty and ensure a better quality of life for future generations.

5.1.13 UNITED METHODIST COMMITTEE ON RELIEF (UMCOR)

Founded in 1940, UMCOR supports interdenominational hunger and development agencies that provide technical services, rural leadership training, and program development aid to enable rural people to increase their food production and self-reliance. It seeks to aid refugees, provide relief in disaster areas, and confront the challenge of world hunger and poverty.

5.1.14 U.S. COMMITTEE FOR REFUGEES (USCR)

USCR was founded in 1958 to coordinate U.S. participation in the United Nations' International Refugee Year (1959). Since then, USCR has worked to protect and assist refugees in all regions of the world. It defends the rights of all uprooted people regardless of their nationality, race, religion, ideology, or social group. USCR's work is based on the belief that once the consciences of men and women are aroused, great deeds can be accomplished. USCR goes to the scene of refugee emergencies to talk to refugees, record human rights abuses, devise a strategy to provide temporary safety and essential relief, alert the public to the unmet needs of refugees, urge decision makers to intervene humanely in refugee emergencies, and take steps to restore refugees to secure, productive lives.

5.1.15 WORLD VISION

World Vision was founded in 1950 in response to the needs of Korean War orphans. It is a global partnership conducting child-focused emergency relief and sustainable community development in more than forty-five hundred projects. World Vision is an international partnership of Christians committed to transformational development, emergency relief, the promotion of justice, and strategic initiatives to serve the church. It focuses on clean water, education, health care, agricultural improvements, public hygiene, food, shelter, and medical care to victims of natural or man-made disasters.

CHAPTER SIX

ORGANIZATIONS INVOLVED IN HUMANITARIAN MISSIONS

6.1 The United Nations (UN)

The United Nations is of course the leading international organization involved in humanitarian missions. The operational agencies within the UN deliver massive amounts of aids daily, most of which is via air transportation, especially contracted civil air operators. The operational bases change during the supply period of goods and/or commodities, in light of the varying humanitarian requirements. The number of operated aircraft vary hugely as a function of the operations themselves. The international market controls the demand for air operations, and the UN can face the need to simultaneously deploy more aircraft.

An operation like the type already started in Sudan by the UN will require a lot of aircraft. Thus; the UN is a unique international organization of 191 sovereign states, representing virtually every country in the world. It was founded after the Second World War to maintain international peace and security, and to develop friendly relations among nations while promoting social progress, better living standards and human rights. The member states are bound together by the principles of the UN Charter; an international treaty that spells out their rights and duties as members of the world community.

The organization has a well laid out vision for the future. The resulting “Millennium Declaration” applies the purposes and principles of the UN Charter to a new world. To realize that vision, Member States have agreed on specific, obtainable targets aimed at overcoming hunger, democracy, the rule of law, and protecting our environment – and to meet those goals within a specified time-frame. The actual output of these declarations and agreements is always well below the intention of the statement itself. Nevertheless the Millennium Declaration is a clear indication of an increased commitment of all Member States in the delivery of aids to Third World countries.

6.1.1 Peacekeeping and Humanitarian Assistance

There are three major concerns that need to be addressed involving the legitimate use of force by the international community in conflict-affected states. First, while the globalization of news coverage will inevitably make public opinion a greater factor for western governments in deciding whether to make humanitarian interventions, Western TV audiences are not going to appreciate seeing their son die in peacekeeping operations in places far removed from their everyday lives. Convincing arguments are going to have to be produced in order that public opinion does not lead political leaders to veto such operations.

Second, it is inevitable that there will be friction between warring factions and external “police forces” who know little of the country to which they have been sent. Despite the acknowledged need for impartiality when dealing with humanitarian assistance, it is far too easy for one faction in civil conflict to perceive the international community as favoring one side or another. Finally, the use of force may be carried out by sovereign states, most notably the USA, whose military strength makes them the only credible force respected. Effectively with large-scale peacekeeping operations however, this carries the risk of USA being unwilling to intervene when it perceives that it has no real interest in a particular situation, or is unable to intervene because its public and political opinion is firmly against such operations after the failure of such humanitarian missions in Somalia.

There seem to be a minefield of potential problems in the increasing use of the military involvement in humanitarian operations. As a result of the possible perception of a lack of impartiality, UN troops could end up becoming a new force in a civil war, causing even more loss of life, putting humanitarian workers in more danger and could risk

turning public opinion against humanitarian workers against relief work altogether. Thus, as inevitable as they have become, unless used wisely, involving the military could contribute to the institutional impasse in resolving complex emergencies.

However, there can be little chance of success in peacekeeping operations when there is no peace to keep. One of the successes of UN's major peacekeeping operations : the UNDOF Operation in the Golan Heights, was carried out since 1974. The situation then represented a unique difference in the world, between peacekeeping forces being deployed with the consent and co-operation of the parties involved on the one hand; while the peacekeeping elements on the other hand, were being deployed without their consent but armed with the mandate to use force to compel the belligerents to accept the decisions of the Security Council.

Consequently with the UNDOF experience in focus, if military involvement is to be seriously considered , it must be short-termed and highly effective in terms of the numbers deployed while also being absolutely clear in its objectives. 'Wider peacekeeping', which involves traditional operations such as policing ceasefire agreements and maintaining peace for humanitarian work, was always considered to be separate from warlike operations. However, there was little acceptance that peace enforcement and war were two different things. Thus, there was reluctance, especially in Bosnia, to cross the 'Mogadishu Line' between peacekeeping and peace enforcement, since it was thought that once that line had been crossed, the international community would inevitably be at war with the Serbs. In a new development, what has now been accepted by Lieutenant-General Jackson, of NATO's rapid Reaction Corps, and others is that, the main difference between peace enforcement and war was impartiality, as there were no designated "enemy". Peace enforcement is defined as, coercive operations carried out to restore peace in a situation of chaos or between belligerent parties who may not consent to intervention.

This is a positive step towards formulating a role for the military in complex emergencies that will assist aid workers and local people. Yet military involvement in humanitarian work still remains the most contentious issue facing the international aid community today. But increasingly the delivery of humanitarian relief has become part and parcel of peacekeeping

operations in war-torn areas. The complexity of civil conflicts makes simple humanitarian provision these days more dangerous for those who receive and deliver aid. The conflict situations in Kurdish areas of Northern Iraq, Somalia and Bosnia have illustrated the need for some kind of military involvement in the humanitarian process to protect aid supplies, illustrated by the fivefold increase in the UN peacekeeping budget since 1992, to about \$2.8 billion, while the number of military and police personnel involved may have jumped to between 11,000 to about 52,000. Albeit, may be due to the relatively recent calls for military interventions in humanitarian affairs, there appeared to be little institutional memory as to how to run a military-style operation in sub-Saharan Africa.

During the refugee crisis in Zaire towards the end of 1996, international community started to prepare plans to send some military units to secure the airport at Goma and established a corridor into Rwanda through which refugees could return home. However, there was little idea of the conditions that would be faced by troops in Zaire. It is not just the appalling state of the infrastructure of Zaire that UN military force had to face, but also the complex political conditions that existed at the time. The emergence of various militant groups in Eastern Zaire, such as the Mai Mai and Banyamulenge, who began to control parts of the region, threatened the integrity of Zaire's Central Government, making it more difficult for the international forces to deal effectively with their primary consideration - the delivery of humanitarian aid and the return of refugees. The danger of a UN military mission being accused of 'siding' with one group or another was heightened, as various groups vied for control with each other. As Laurent Kabila, then rebel leader and late Head of State stated in different fora, that he was opposed to any force that was not neutral.

Somalia provides a classic example of a situation where humanitarian relief effort led inexorably to a major military action. UN involvement began with a request for assistance from what was left of the Somali government. Humanitarian workers were forced to pay off rival gunmen to deliver supplies, thus involuntarily assisting the war economy. In this kind of situation where any form of law and order has disintegrated, it appeared vital for larger military intervention to protect aid supplies and those who were delivering them. The UN military operation in Somalia: Operation Restore Hope, was perceived to be a failure after the withdrawal of US troops. The military force effectively became a police force, attempting to arrest General Mohammed Aided, and the impartiality that is vital for all humanitarian operations was lost. However, many lives were saved by the actions of military and humanitarian personnel working together and the potential benefits of this cooperation should not be underestimated.

The budgets of humanitarian agencies are now geared ever more towards emergency funding, with OECD humanitarian aid spending rising as a proportion of total aid expenditures. Inevitably, longer-term development initiatives are receiving less attention and resources. The aid industry's institutions are responding to the shift in priorities within the funding bodies, reacting positively to the expanding source of income becoming available for humanitarian assistance. The cost accompanying this trend is that less attention is paid to the establishment of long-term conditions for sustaining livelihoods and development. In addition rivalries over market shares are acute between aid institutions in a context of budgetary squeezes world-wide. As governments struggle to reduce deficits, and given that domestic spending priorities tend to dominate over the aid lobby, there is growing pressure on resource availability.

The Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) is another UN agency involved in the contracting of air operators to facilitate its wide-world operations. Peacekeeping Missions include: monitoring a cease-fire, establishing a buffer zone between two or more belligerents, protecting the delivery of humanitarian aids, assisting with the

demobilization of former fighters and their return to normal life, setting up mine-clearance programmes, the supervision of elections and monitoring and respect for human rights. UN Missions have also been asked to assume temporary administration of certain territories, as in East Timor during the period leading up to its independence in 2002. Indeed, Peacekeeping Operations claim an increasing proportion of the international investment in addressing conflicts around the world. During peacekeeping missions, the DPKO contracts civil air-operators for the transport of goods, UN personnel, vehicles, and any other item deemed necessary for the operations. It is rightly assumed that the DPKO would patronize additional air operators worldwide, in view of the prevailing un-stable condition in the world. Of course the international security situation is continuously changing both from a political and a natural calamity point of view, and the UN involvement may yet embrace more areas of conflict, famine, refugees and natural disasters.

CHAPTER SEVEN

GEOPOLITICAL ANALYSIS

In previous analysis, we were able to demonstrate why there appears to be an increased commitment in the delivery of international humanitarian aid. Driven by official policy of the United States, the international community is trying to improve the conditions of the poorest countries, in order to stem the tide of clandestine immigration and international terrorism which mostly originated from those troubled societies. This would soon become obvious as major changes in the structure of international aid have resulted in the launch of new instruments, such as the Global Fund and the United States Millennium Challenge account; or mooted, as in the case of the International Financing Facility.

A wealthier Third World, it is wisely premised, also means more fertile ground for economic initiatives in these poor states. Consequently, the recurring theme in this study centres on the urgent need for the international community to further step up its commitment to humanitarian missions and peace building efforts, which can only be demonstrated through substantial increases in the current levels of international assistance. Air transport will play a strategic role in this contest, owing to necessity of swiftly moving humanitarian aid, people and freight in areas which are usually vast and uninhabited, which moreover, lack any alternative means of transportation. Furthermore, in the case of emergency response,

air transport is the one of the major means of providing some reasonable timely assistance.

In scenario such as these, air transports will most likely witness two different areas of involvement: the first will be concerned with the delivery of aid and other assistance via humanitarian missions ; while the second area of involvement will be related to the civil air transportation of goods and people in peacekeeping operations. In the next segment of this paper, we shall now illustrate a number of these international humanitarian aid missions, in line with some of the new US development-assistance policy vis-à-vis the UN peacekeeping operations.

7.1 USAID

A notable example of these humanitarian assistance initiatives is a joint strategic plan involving the US department of state and USAID, to work in concert towards more efficient and cost-effective international aid mechanism. This is in line with President Bush's National Security Strategy (2002), which recognizes that diplomacy and development assistance are critically important tools for building a safer, freer and better world. At the same time, USAID will increase its attention toward failed and falling states, which the president "quotes" National Security Strategy recognizes as the source of most significant security threats, end ash namely, international terrorism and the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction (WMD). From this state of the Nation's Address, it is clear that the US future involvement in international security and development would be tangible, and the Millennium Challenge Account (MCA), is a clear demon stration of this.

7.1.1 Millennium Challenge Account (MCA)

The MCA is an important indication of the increased international involvement in delivering

aid to Third World countries. On February 5th 2003, President George W. Bush submitted the MCA bill to the US Congress, thereby allying himself with Presidents Truman and Kennedy in efforts to unveil a vision for development, based on the shared interests of developed and developing nations alike. The President perceives a global development effort predicated on peace, security, and prosperity. Indeed, this initiative is aimed at improving the long and persistent global record of eradicating poverty.

The MCA thus represents a new approach to providing and delivering development assistance to the needy. This new compact-for-development approach breaks with the past by tying increased assistance to performance and creating new accountability for all nations. And the proposal confirms the commitment of the United States to increasing current levels of core-development assistance by 50% over the next three years: thus providing an annual increase of US\$ 5 billion by the fiscal year 2006 – doubling the scale of US property-focused development, when fully implemented. The funds will hopefully, be devoted to programmes that would help hungry and poor people across the world become self-reliant.

7.1.2 The UN Security Council (UNSC) and Peacekeeping Operations (PKO)

Peacekeeping operations today are playing a decisive role in international policies. Western countries are increasingly adopting an intervention strategy in certain countries in the wake of 9/11. Peacekeeping operations are always linked to humanitarian operations, and the UN DPKO often collaborates with other UN agencies (such as the WFP) and NGOs in order to professionally, carry out the mandate(s) of the UNSC.

UN peacekeeping operations depend mainly on the UN Security Council, which has special responsibility for maintaining international peace and security. The Council can exert diplomatic and political pressure on the parties in conflict or else provide a means for settling the dispute, including fact-finding or mediation missions. Once a truce is in place, the Security Council can deploy a peacekeeping operation to help parties carry out their agreements. When persuasion fails, the Security Council may take stronger action, such as imposing economic sanctions or declaring a trade embargo. On some occasions, the Council has authorized member states to use “all necessary means”, including force, to deal with armed control of participating states, such as the: restoration of the sovereignty of Kuwait (1991), the legitimate government of Haiti (1994), peace and security in the Central African Republic (1997), and to end a campaign of violence in East Timor (1999) following a referendum on self-determination.

The Security Council establishes UN peacekeeping operations, where decisions are subject to veto by any of the Council's five permanent members – China, France, the Russian Federation, the UK and the USA. The Council determines the mandate, size, scope and duration of an operation based on recommendations, including financial information, provided by the Secretary-General. The General Assembly then votes on the operation's budget. UNSC also determines peacekeepers' duties according to the requirements of each situation. They may monitor a ceasefire, establish a buffer zone, help former opponents carry out a peace agreement, protect the delivery of humanitarian aid, assist with the demobilization of former fighters and their return to normal life, set up mine-clearance programmes, supervise or conduct elections, train civilian police, and monitor respect for human rights. UN missions have also been asked to assume temporary administration of certain territories, as in East Timor during the period leading up to its independence in 2002.

Peacekeeping operations have their own budgets. The DPKO-approved budgets for the period from 1 July 2003 to 30 June 2004 is about US\$2.81 billion. These are assessed separately by the General Assembly, according to a special scale based on that used for the regular budget. The scale provides for a higher assessment on the five permanent members of the Security Council, which hold the power to veto Council decisions and, as stressed by the Assembly, have "special responsibilities" towards peacekeeping operations.

In 2001, the five – China, France, the Russian Federation, the UK and the USA – were assessed in terms of some 47 per cent of peacekeeping costs (down from 49 per cent in 1998 and 57 per cent in 1992). With effect from July 1 2001, a group of 25 developed countries have been assessed in accordance with the regular budget scale. The remaining member states, grouped into eight categories based on their per capita Gross National Product (GNP), are assessed at progressively reduced rates – with a significant reduction for developing countries. As the member state with the largest Gross Domestic Product (GDP), the USA was assessed at just under 31 per cent for peacekeeping costs in 1996. By 1998, that had dropped to just over 30.5 per cent. At the end of 2001, the assessment was 27.6 per cent.

Member States, regional organizations and the UN Secretariat are working to improve overall preparedness, standby capacity, logistical support and training of peacekeepers. By 2001, 91 Member States had expressed their willingness to enter into standby arrangements with the UN. Sixty-eight of these specified the resources they could make available if they decided to participate in an operation and 36 signed standby agreements. Within this framework, a group of member states has established a Standby Forces High Readiness Brigade to enhance the capacity of their troops to serve together in a peacekeeping context.

Nearly 70 nations are now offering troops in a UN "stand-by" system for peacekeeping duties. Austria, Canada, Denmark, The Netherlands, Norway, Poland and Sweden have

created a Standby Forces High Readiness Brigade which can be for peacekeeping when the conflicting parties agree.

CHAPTER EIGHT

CHARACTERISTICS OF AIR TRANSPORT IN HUMANITARIAN MISSIONS

This section will focus on the characteristics of air transport in humanitarian missions and in particular on the flight planning, operational requirements, safety issues, UN statistics

and budget. A brief analysis of the type of aircraft used in these missions is also included.

8.1 AIRCRAFT

Aviation has changed our world; long distance haulage is no longer an exception but day-to-day business for several millions of people around the globe, including humanitarian relief

operations. Aircraft are the key technical vehicles to transport passengers and cargo, and are operated under extreme **safety procedures**, with the following information representing just some basic details on the most common used aircraft related to their unique operational requirements; so the information that follow on various aircraft can definitely vary from operator – to - operator.

Worldwide logistics : several types of aircraft are either integral to U.S. Ground Units or fly consistently in support of them. Most of the aircraft that fall into the former category are helicopters. All the U.S. armed forces tend to use the same two types of utility helicopters and their variants: the UH-1 Huey (or, to give it its official commercial nickname, the Iroquois) and the UH-60 Blackhawk—their alphanumeric designations and nicknames can vary from service to service, but generally retain the specific *H* (for Helicopter) designation.

The oldest and best known of these single-rotor troop and equipment transporters is the **UH-1**, commonly known as the **Huey**. The Huey can lift up to eight combat-equipped troops and can serve as an aerial command, control, and communications platform. The **UH-60**, or **Blackhawk**, is a more recently fielded and more versatile utility helicopter designed to ultimately replace the Huey. It can carry up to eleven combat troops and has a four-ton external lift capability. Medium-to-heavy lift capability is supplied by the **CH-47 Chinook**, a double-rotor aircraft capable of carrying thirty-three combat-loaded troops and lifting up to thirteen tons of cargo.

Two types of attack helicopters are designed exclusively to support ground combat troops in either an antitank or an antipersonnel role. The older of these is the **AH-1 Cobra**, which, like the Huey, dates from the Vietnam War. The Cobra has a distinctive narrow body design and carries machine guns and rocket pods, but it is limited to daylight operations. A modernized, twin-engine version is still used extensively by the Marine Corps and is called the Super Cobra. The more recent of the attack helicopter, the **AH-64 Apache**, is both more versatile and more lethal in its capability. Larger than the Cobra but somewhat similar in appearance, the Apache can operate in nearly any weather and at night. It has advanced optical systems to complement equally fire control and target-acquisition systems. Its design supports its primary mission, which is to detect and destroy enemy armor using the infrared Hell-fire antitank missile. The Apache also has a nose-mounted 30 mm cannon for ground support in combat situations. In peace operations, the Apache flies in support of utility helicopters, particularly where the situation on the ground is uncertain.

Among **fixed-wing aircraft** used in peace and relief operations, transport aircraft predominate. Some combat-oriented aircraft, such as high-performance fighter-bombers and ground combat support aircraft may also be present if it is necessary to demonstrate resolve

or stage a show of force. Most U.S. military (both fixed- and rotary-wing) have an alphanumeric designation that indicates their function. Although these designations are not painted on the aircraft, military personnel typically refer to aircraft according to these combinations of letters and numbers. The letter *A* designates attack aircraft; *B*, bomber; *C*, cargo; *E*, electronics; *F*, fighter; *H*, helicopter; *K*, tanker; *M*, special operations; and so forth. These letters are followed by numbers and make up the nomenclature of the aircraft. These letters are sometimes used in combination to specify the aircraft's capability or to indicate that it is a variant of the original design. For instance, *EH-60* is the designation of a Blackhawk helicopter configured to conduct electronic surveillance and jamming, whereas *UH-60* designates the utility-configured Blackhawk.

Transport aircraft have a *C* designating. The **C-130**, known as the **Hercules**, is the most recognizable of this group of transport aircraft. It is used by many nations as an aerial lift workhorse. It is a very versatile aircraft, capable of medium-to-heavy lift, but is confined by a relatively short flying range (2,356 miles fully laden). The most attractive feature of the aircraft is its capability of operating on unimproved and short runways. The C-130 is also used for airborne operations. It can accommodate 92 combat troops, 64 fully loaded paratroopers, or 74 non-ambulatory patients when configured as an air ambulance. The **C-141 Starlifter** is the primary strategic lift aircraft in the U.S. inventory. The versatile and reliable C-141 can carry up to 200 combat troops, 155 paratroops, and 103 non-ambulatory patients when configured as an air ambulance, or up to 68,725 pounds of cargo. It has nearly unlimited range because of its in-flight refueling capability. With its large payload capacity, the C-141 is well suited to support humanitarian assistance operations by bringing large quantities of supplies to marshaling areas, from which they can be distributed by C-130s or helicopters to areas in need.

The **C-5 Galaxy** physically resembles the C-141 in design but is much larger—it is indeed one of the largest aircraft in the world and certainly the largest in the U.S. inventory. It can carry oversized cargo over intercontinental distances, taking off and landing in relatively short distances. The newest addition to the U.S. strategic airlift fleet is the **C-17 Globemaster**. The C-17 was designed to deploy large amounts of cargo and troops to hot spots around the world very quickly. It has a smaller capability than the C-5 but costs less to build and is easier to maintain. Like the C-141, it has in-flight refueling capability and can transport troops, medical patients, or cargo, but unlike the C-141 it can land on airstrips no longer

than 3,000 feet and no wider than 90 feet. Aerial refueling is conducted by the **KC-135 Stratotanker**, a modified version of a Boeing 707 commercial aircraft. Equipped with an aerial boom through which it pumps fuel, the KC-135 can refuel all types of aircraft in flight. It has a range of 1,500 miles when fully loaded for in-flight refueling. When used as a cargo aircraft it has a range of up to 11,015 miles, making it a good alternative to other strategic lift aircraft in an emergency.

8.1.1 Flight Planning

Once a geographical area is chosen for the flight, the appropriate map products are assembled and a thorough pre-flight map study begins. The purpose of the map study is to gain familiarity with the general layout of the terrain, vegetation, and the hydrographic and cultural (man-made) features of the area. The map study will also include identifying of any hazards to save flight. Although there are numerous natural terrain features that pose a danger to low-flying aircraft, the primary focus of the hazard review is the identification of man-made features including power lines, microwave towers, radio antennas, etc. There are modern electronic systems available that aid pilots in the process of route selection and planning, such as the Navy's Portable Flight Planning Software (N-PFPS).

Once the aircrew is familiar with the key features of the area, they will evaluate potential routes of flight to the intended objective area. Routes are defined by a sequence of prominent, identifiable landmarks known as **checkpoints**. Generally, the path between the checkpoints is only roughly planned. Routes are planned with specific criteria based on the mission; however, several factors are common to all missions. Route planning should make

the best possible use of the terrain. Since the primary means of navigating relies on visual terrain recognition, one of the fundamental considerations is choosing routes that will sequentially connect easily recognizable terrain features. Terrain features used as aids to navigation fall into three categories: channeling features, checking features and limiting features. A **channeling feature** is used to maintain orientation during transit between checkpoints. Following along a river or mountain ridgeline is an effective use of a channeling feature. A checking feature is an easily identifiable terrain feature that will be visible along the intended route of flight. Any unique natural or man-made feature that can be seen from the planned altitude can be used as a checking feature. Examples include distinct river bends, highway intersections, water towers, lakes, and mountain peaks. Checking features can also be used as route checkpoints. Care must be taken when choosing man-made features as checking features and checkpoints. In tactical scenarios, or when using out-dated mapping products, man-made terrain features can appear and disappear rather quickly and unexpectedly.

Limiting features are easily recognizable landmarks that indicate a checkpoint has been missed or passed. A prominent river, highway, or ridgeline perpendicular to the route of flight can be used as a limiting feature. Generally, 1:250,000-scale maps are used for the majority of the transit from base to the objective area. These maps offer a balanced mix of terrain contour lines for relief and high-level map symbology. They are also manageable and easily handled in the small confines of a cockpit. 1:50,000-scale maps are used once the aircraft approaches five miles of the objective area. These maps offer greater detail, and are therefore good for planning the terminal phase of the flight and the landing zones. Because two or more different scale maps may be used in the course of a single flight mission, a map **changeover point** is chosen and briefed to all crewmembers,

so that everyone involved in navigation is reading from the same map with the same scale at the same time.

Flying with two or more different scale maps presents yet another challenge to the aircrew. When using the high scale map, the aircraft moves much slower over the paper than when a low scale map is used. e.g., one inch on a 1:250,000-scale map is approximately 6,500 meters, while one inch on a 1:50,000-scale map is approximately 1,300 meters. When changing between maps with different scales, the aircrew must be aware of this fact and adjust accordingly. Although this is a basic concept introduced early in initial flight training, it often becomes a major learning point for novice pilots, and must be emphasized throughout the training evolution.

8.1.2 Operational Requirements

Range: the range of an operation varies according to the types of mission. Usually long-distance transportation of aid is accomplished by ships (whenever possible) even if, in the case of inaccessible areas inland or emergency rapid response, long-range aircraft, such as the C5 Galaxy, can be used. Owing to the occasional nature of long-range operations in relief flights, there is no civil airline dedicated to this kind of operation, whereas military aircraft are often used and some civil operators can be occasionally contracted for a limited number of flights, usually for passenger transportation. The most common range of operations in relief flights is medium to short range. Usually the aids to be delivered are concentrated on a main base, conveniently located, from where short- and medium- range aircraft depart for remote areas and camps in order to deliver aids.

8.1.3 Types of Delivery

Apart from transport between camps of personnel involved in humanitarian operations, aid is delivered in two ways: via airdrops and conventional cargo transportation. an airdrop is used when it is necessary to reach a large number of people on the move (usually refugees) or when the landing of the aircraft is not considered to be safe. Air drops are delicate flight operations which require technical ability and have safety implications owing to the sudden change in the aircraft's centre of gravity (CG). Aircraft used for this kind of operation are usually military types, like the civil version of the Hercules C130 (L100) and Buffalo.

Conventional cargo transport is usually accomplished by medium and light aircraft. Aircraft are usually required to have Short Take Off and Landing (STOL) capabilities and must be able to take off and land on unpaved runways. It is preferable that cargo aircraft are equipped with a rear-ramp door, in order to facilitate the loading and

unloading operations from places which lack any kind of equipment and facilities. Unfortunately civil aircraft design does not take the rear-ramp door into consideration, so this particular type of aircraft is only found among military aircraft which have been converted for civil operations.

8.1.4 Weather and Terrain

Adverse climate and terrain are two important characteristics that have to be considering in humanitarian operations. Usually relief flights take place in Third World countries where a hot climate is usual, like the UN Mission in Afghanistan, required the operators to work in extremely cold weather. Weather and terrain have to be considered very seriously. For example, high temperatures can severely affect aircraft performance, thus reducing the payload, while adverse terrain (such as the presence of sand) can badly damage the engines.

In short, humanitarian operations take place in an environment that is far from the one in which most civil aircraft are designed to operate. For this reason, civil versions of military aircraft are usually best suited for this kind of operation, even if there are a few civil aircraft specifically designed to operate in these conditions.

8.1.5 Airfields

Airfields from where humanitarian flights operate range from isolated strips to international airports which have been destroyed by war. Each operator has of course its own peculiarity, but the common factor is that relief flights have to operate from unprepared, damaged or unpaved runways. Sometimes, those runways are just very short strips of sand or grass and STOL capability of the aircraft, together with the latter's tough structure, play a very important role in the success of the mission.

8.1.6 Safety Issues

There are many important safety issues in the field of air transport and humanitarian missions. These are mainly related to:

- The nature of the operation - War risks - Use of old aircraft.
- Use of the World Operators.
- Non-compliance with UN requirements.

The nature of the operation itself provokes important safety issues, owing to the dangerous environment where aircraft have to fly and the lack of any assistance, either from the point of view of Air Traffic Control or ground support.

War risks are often associated with humanitarian flights and are always present in peacekeeping operations. There have been many reports in the past of UN aircraft shot down by enemy fire. Yet another important safety issue is the use of aging aircraft in humanitarian missions. The nature of the operations, together with budget constraints within all NGOs, including the UN, make the use of old aircraft a forced choice. The use of relatively new aircraft in humanitarian missions is not convenient because, apart from economic constraints, aircraft usually have to operate from unprepared, damaged or unpaved runways, thus resulting in their aging prematurely. The only way to satisfy the need for low-budget aircraft together with the need for operating in conditions that inevitably damage the equipment may be to use aging but well certificated aircraft. Undoubtedly lack of appropriate airworthiness checks in Third World countries leads to the indiscriminate use of aged aircraft which could not operate in other parts of the world.

Third World operators are often contracted for humanitarian missions, both for political and economical reasons. A great part of the world humanitarian missions operate in Africa. In its summary 2003, the Aviation Safety Network said: Africa was (during 2003) again the most unsafe Continent. Twenty-eight per cent of all fatal accidents happen in Africa, while the region only accounts for 3% of the world's departures. Russian and East European aircraft are also widely used in humanitarian missions. This region has a very bad safety reputation as well. Every year the highest number of accidents and serious accidents is recorded among airlines operating Eastern European aircraft, such as Tupolevs, Ilyushins, Yaks and Antonovs. Russian airlines are quite common in UN operations, thanks to their very low cost (compared with Western operators) and the wide availability of aircraft particularly suited for this kind of operations. The fact that Russia is also a permanent member of the UN Security Council may also be of some help.

The UN has laid down aviation standards for peacekeeping and humanitarian air-transport operations. The aircraft Operator Requirements are contained in Section 3 of the Aviation Standards and they basically reflect ICAO and JAA requirements (ICAO is a branch of the UN). Hopefully, these Standards will be fully implemented in the near future, thus providing a higher level of safety in this particular field of operations. There are signs of an increased commitment on the part of the UN in this direction, spurred on by the number of air-traffic accidents.

8.1.7 Safety Statistics

There is a lack of accurate aeronautical safety statistics in humanitarian operations. In 2003, the UN WFP began the recruiting of Flight Safety Officers and collecting information on safety matters. An appropriate database is not available during the time of writing. The

following table is the result of reports produced from 1st January 2003 to 1st August 2003 by WFP Flight Operations. The data does not represent the real safety trend because it has not been collected and recorded with the standard format. The names of the operations have been changed to A, B, C, and D for confidential reasons.

Air Transport Service Operation	Hrs Flown	accidents	Serious Incidents	Major & Significant Incidents	Occurrences Without sign. Safety Effect	Undetermined
A	1,562	NILL reported	NILL reported	06	NILL reported	00
B	9,404	01 no fatalities	04	68	53	02
C	2,099	NILL reported	NILL reported	01	NILL reported	00
D	15,537	03 01 fatality On the ground	13	12	30	00

Occurrence Classification

ACCIDENTS	4
SERIOUS INCIDENTS	17
MAJOR and SIGNIFICANT INCIDENTS	87
OCCURRENCES WITHOUT SIGNIFICANT SAFETY EFFECTS	83
UNDETERMINED	02
TOTAL	206
Total Flight Hours:	28,602
Average Accident Rate :	1.4 every 10,000 hours.

Flight accident rates in civil aviation are usually quoted as the number of occurrences per million departures, simply because it is well known that most accidents happen when the aircraft is taking off or landing. Therefore the number of departures provides a more reliable

statistics. Unfortunately, there is no precise data on the number of take-offs and landings in WFP operations but the average leg duration is about 1.5 hours. Taking that parameter as an

indication, it is possible to estimate the WFP flight accident rate per million departures as

210. Even if the accident rate refers to WFP data only and is quite approximate, it is evident that there is a huge difference between this and the civil aviation accident rate which is about one. And on the basis of the data collected, it is probably true to state that humanitarian flight operations are more dangerous than any civil aviation operation.

Air safety and security are usually co-coordinated by security officers in the field. They receive updated information on safety matters and coordinate the operations accordingly. The security officers have the power to cancel any flight at any time, to close any field to flight operations and to order safety evacuations.

8.1.8 Economic Issues

Contracting the United Nations: The UN and the major humanitarian organizations such as ICRC provide contracts by call for tender only. To bid for a UN call it is necessary to be registered as a UN vendor. The office concerned with this is the UN Procurement Division (PD). To be considered for registration within the UN, potential suppliers shall provide the Procurement Division with information which includes:

- Application Form
- Most current and valid copy of certificate of incorporation
- Latest certified/audited financial statements, (i.e. balance sheet and income statement)
- General information about the company, including copies of standards of quality certification
- Letter of reference from at least three clients to whom the company has provided goods/services over the past twelve months.

Prospective suppliers must have a minimum of three years operational experience in their line of business. The UN, on the basis of the financial soundness of the supplier and the experience and relevance of the goods or services offered, will evaluate each complete application and finally add the airline to the list of UN Air Charter Services Operations. Once the company has been registered with the UN, it is possible to bid for the periodical Call for Tenders that are regularly issued in accordance with the number of current UN

operations. Contracting an inter- governmental organizations like the UN also involves some

political networking. Operators are formally chosen on the basis of:

- 1 Requirements issued in the Call for Tender.
- 2 The airline's operational and technical compliance with the requirements.
- 3 Economic offers.

Once the operational requirements are issued on the Call for Tender and met by the operators, the lowest bid will win the contract. Usually the Call is closed a few hours

after the official opening date and time. On the whole, the UN issues about four or five Calls for Tender per month in the Aircraft Charter Service.

Budget constraints and safety: UN operators are faced with budget constraints that make the establishment of a high standard of safety very difficult. Therefore in order to reach the desired degree of safety, it is necessary for the contracted operator to fulfill its obligations, as laid out in the Aviation Standards. The correct implementation of Safety Standards results in higher operating costs to the operator. It is obvious that many Eastern European and African operators are able to meet the desired level of quality and safety only from a formal point of view. Consequently they are also able to offer aircraft to the UN at a lower price.

The requested level of safety and quality in air operations can be reached by the UN only when greater attention is paid to the operator's standards. If operators comply with the applicable Aviation Standards this should be reflected by higher price offers in the UN Invitation to Bid.

As an example, we can take a light cargo aircraft operating under a JAR-OPS AOC. A reasonable offer for operating that aircraft could be US\$1,200 per flight hour. An African operator can offer a similar aircraft for only 6/700 US\$ per hour, thanks to the several "short cuts" allowed by the system. During 2003, many East European aircraft were modified according to JAR-OPS requirements (mainly on the avionic side) and there were signs of rising concerns about safety among Third World operators. However, UN air operations need a stronger implementation of the required Aviation Standards and of course the UN should be ready to pay for this.

8.1.9 UN STATISTICS

The following statistics below focus on goods and services purchased by the UN from external companies. The growth trend is particularly evident in the air transport services purchased by the UN from external air operators. This increased from about US\$175 million in 2000 to about US\$276 million in 2004. This investment is forecasted to increase further in the years to come, even if the final data are not yet available at the time of the writing.

All data are in US dollars (US\$) :

Goods and Services Purchased by the UN from External Companies

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Air Transport					
Total	175	222	234	206	276

Source: United Nations Procurement Division(2004).

8.1.10 UN BUDGET

Within the UN the department responsible for budgeting is the Fifth Committee (Administrative and Budgetary). At the time of writing, the Fifth Committee has just presented the budgets outline for 2004-2005 to the General Assembly. The Committee now holds the Secretary-General's report on the proposed programmed budget outline for 2004-2005 containing a preliminary indication of the resources that the Organization may require for that period. To arrive at its final estimate, the report takes as a starting point the current level of appropriations and related commitments, amounting to some US\$2.7 billion. On that basis, the Secretary-General has, in terms of 2002-2003 prices, proposed a preliminary estimate of resources amounting to some US\$2.86 billion. That amount reflects real growth of \$158 million, or 5.8 per cent, compared with the approved appropriations for 2002-2003.

CHAPTER NINE

CASE STUDY: Starting an Airline Dedicated To Humanitarian Missions

Having identified the main organizations involved in air transport for humanitarian missions along with their characteristics, we shall now examine a case study on starting an air operation dedicated to this market.

Many people in the world today are reeling from the effects of unfortunate natural disasters or from the effects of wars and civil strife. Often, aircraft are the only safety and expedient means of getting emergency or life sustaining supplies and personnel to those in need. In accordance with the overall objective of this paper, there is the need to set up a unique air transportation dedicated for humanitarian missions, which could be named : "Air Relief

Project" or "United World Airline". This proposed airline will always be readily available for use by the United Nations and its agencies in conflict and/or in situations of natural disasters, and which when not in direct use by the UN, would be so flexibly structured as to be able to make money for the UN through chartering/cargo, or through normal passenger hauling - as an ordinary commercial air services—thus being economically viable to support itself.

9.1.1 The Operational Scenario

Sudan is the operational scenario targeted for the start up of such a typical operation. This much-troubled country is one of the largest African states and suffers from, among other developmental issues: lack of good road networks plus other relevant communication infrastructures. Consequently, the most effective way to provide the necessary support of food and freight to such a vast territory, especially the Southern (mainly Christian/Animist) part of the country –which is also ravaged by endless war and famine – is through air transportation. The situation is known to be different in the Northern and Capital City, Khartoum – home to the official government – where a ceasefire has recently been signed. Interestingly, as result of very rich oil deposits in Southern Sudan, a number of the World Powers are very active in, and sensitive to the political and economic developments in the Sudan as a whole.

This is the general scenario within which the United Nations is striving to deploy a massive peacekeeping operation in support of the armistice signed between the Northern and Southern Sudan – the significant incentive, obviously being propelled by the presence of rich oil fields. It is rightly estimated that the United Nations will require so many types of aircraft for this nature of complex operation, in addition to the existing fleet operating within Operation Lifeline Sudan (OLS).

9.1.2 The Complex Political Emergency in Sudan

The origins of the current complex political emergency in Sudan date back more than forty years, when the First Civil War began. Boundaries drawn up during the Colonial period do not reflect the reality of a country populated or controlled by: nomadic tribes in the most northern part of the country (which includes the Nubian Desert, rich in an ancient Egyptian heritage) ; the Islamic-run official government of Sudan in the Northern part of this multi-cultural, multi-ethnic, and multi-religious country, and the Christian/Animist population in the south – where the rebel movements, mainly represented by the by the Sudanese People Liberation Army (SPLA) – control the oil belt found in the south.

Key features of the war included the deliberate targeting of civilians, the denial of all possible support to the opposite side, and the attempt to gain access to valuable resources. The result has been a chronic state of emergency which defies the traditional model of a contained, short-term event. These are periods of particularly acute humanitarian

suffering and need, of which the most recent and most severe example have been the 1998 famine in Bahr El Ghazal. However Operation Lifeline Sudan (OLS), a unique tripartite agreement formalized in 1994 between the Government of Sudan (GoS), the rebel movements in the south (SPLA and SSIM) and the United Nations, has resulted in the co-ordination of much of the international humanitarian response to Sudan's complex political emergency. Other essential features of the conflict include:

1. Humanitarian access based on negotiations between the GoS, the SPLA/SSIM and the UN.
2. Significant periods when humanitarian access has been denied.
3. Recognition of the sovereignty of the GoS.
4. The de-facto development of very different operational environments in the government-held northern sector and the rebel-held southern part of the OLS.
5. Growth in coverage of the OLS, particularly in the south, in terms of the locations reached and the number of agencies operating within the framework.

9.1.3 Background

For nearly 20 years, the Sudanese population have been adversely affected by armed conflict, famine and disease, largely associated with the civil war between the Government of Sudan (GoS) and the Sudan peoples' Liberation Movement/Army (SPLM/A). Since 1983, more than two million people have died from conflict-related events and more than 4.6 million people have been displaced, creating the largest internally displaced person (IDP) population in the world. Sudan has experienced three periods of famine over the last 13 years, amongst which are the Bahr el Ghazal in 1988-1989 and on the upper Nile in 1992-1993. In response to the 1988-1989 Bahr el Ghazal famine, the United Nation established Operation Lifeline Sudan (UN/OLS), a tripartite agreement of negotiated access among the GoS, the SPLM/A and the UN. Under this framework, a consortium of United Nations agencies and more than 40 international and local non-governmental organizations (NGOs) provide emergency relief and rehabilitation assistance in Sudan. UN/OLS is a consortium of two United Nations agencies, UNICEF and the World Food Programme (WFP). Operating in Southern Sudan after devastating famine, a result of drought and civil war, the UN/OLS negotiated with the Government of Sudan and the Sudan People's Liberation Movement/Army (SPLM/A) the delivery of humanitarian assistance to all civilians in need, regardless of their location. Although the UN/OLS has saved lives and assisted hundreds of thousands of people, its mission is far from over. Lack of timely rain and the displacement of people prevent farmers from cultivating the land, thereby making it impossible for people of South Sudan to become self-sufficient.

Since the Civil War began in 1983, the United States Government has provided more than \$1.7 billion in humanitarian assistance to the Sudanese population. The US (under the Bush

Administration) has increased its interest in this oil-rich area. Since 2001, following president George W. Bush's appointment of USAID Administrator – Andrew Nations as Special Humanitarian Coordinator for Sudan and former US Senator John Danforth as Special Envoy for Peace to Sudan, the USG has been at the forefront of serious and sustained international engagement with the GoS and SPLM/A. The aim has been to increase humanitarian access to war-affected areas and to support the peace process. By the end of 2002, the US Government's involvement resulted in a formal cessation agreement in the Nuba Mountains area, a framework for the cessation of attacks against civilians, the establishment of periods of tranquility for special humanitarian programmes, and an international inquiry into slavery in Sudan. In addition, US involvement helped to establish a favorable environment for peace talks under the auspices of the regional Inter-Governmental Authority on Development (IGAD), which sponsored peace talks in Machakos Kenya, that led to the Machakos Protocol signed by the GoS and SPLM/A on July 20, 2002. This established an overall framework for peace. A Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) signed on 15th October 2002 called for the cessation of hostilities between the parties and unimpeded humanitarian access throughout Sudan.

As the prospects for long-time peace settlement in southern Sudan improved during 2003, the security situation in Western Sudan worsened. Hostilities and fighting between the Sudanese Liberation Army/Movement (SLM/A), an opposition group operating in Darfur, and forces loyal to the GoS intensified, adversely affecting the humanitarian situation among civilian populations in Darfur.

Understanding Darfur Conflict: The name Darfur is from “darfur” which in Arabic means “the land of the Fur”. Historically, it was an Islamic sultanate located in the western Sudan. The Fur were the ruling ethnic group in the Darfur region before 1916. The Fur began to be converted to Islam in the 1300s. In 1596, the Darfur Sultanate was established and Islam declared the state religion. The Darfur sultanate remained independent through various conflicts in the Sudan, including the Anglo-Egyptian conquest of the Sudan in 1898, before finally being subjugated by the British in 1916 and made part of western Sudan. Darfur's long history of independent, and its resistance to various other groups seeking control of all Sudan, should be taken into consideration to properly understand the present situation.

Darfur is home to some 80 tribes and ethnic groups divided between nomads and sedentary communities. The rebels seem to be drawn from within mainly three communities of the Fur, Massalit and the Zaghawa tribes. The war has inevitably focused upon those areas of Darfur within which the insurgents chose to base themselves. As has been the case in countless wars, many civilians have chosen to flee and remove themselves from these war zones. Although the indigenous peoples of Darfur (the Fur, and several other ethnic groups) and the Arabs have always have relatively distinct

identities, they generally got along well until resources became scarce, then ethnicity and race became a factor in the conflict.

Darfur has historically been one of the most remote regions of Sudan. Even in normal circumstances, the region is hard to reach because it is so far from the capital, Khartoum. Tribal and ethnic conflicts are neither new nor uncommon. Incidents of both small and large scale conflicts are recorded as far back as 1939 and they generally arise from disputes over access to natural resources like range lands and water points as well as livestock trespassing (grazing on farm lands), closure of herd routes and cattle raiding. Larger conflicts normally emerge from tribal disputes, banditry and disputes with transnational migrating communities. The influx of modern small arms since the war in Chad has increased the loss of life during such conflicts and caused polarization on ethnic lines. Historically, North Darfur and parts of West and South Darfur have suffered recurrent droughts. Crop yields have remained low and unpredictable due to erratic rainfall, pest infestation and the lack of agricultural inputs. Livestock has also dwindled due to pasture and water scarcity.

The local labor force has continued to migrate in search of employment leaving behind children, women and the elderly. A combination of these factors over several years has systematically eroded the coping capacities of communities.

The pattern of conflict changed from low-intensity, small-scale outbreaks from the 1950s to the 1970s, to high-intensity, persistent and large-scale battles in the mid 1980s. These conflicts have included those between the Rezegat and Maaleya (1968), Salamat and Taayesha (1980), Binihelba and Meharya (1980), Zaghawa and Gamar (1989). The prolonged drought that began in 1983 drove nomadic Zaghawa and Arab groups southwards into the central Fur region of Jebel Marra. By the time of the 1989 peace conference, several thousand tribesmen had died, tens of thousands had been displaced and 40,000 homes

destroyed. There has also been an additional source of instability in Darfur. Although the ethnically diverse people of Darfur were all Muslims and have a very strong sense of belonging to the Sudan, a sizeable minority also retain some affinity with related groups in neighboring Chad.

In early 2003, two armed groups have waged war in Darfur against the Government of Sudan. These groups, the Sudan Liberation Army (SLA) and the Justice and Equality Movement (JEM), started the conflicts with attacks on towns, government facilities and civilians in Darfur. Several hundreds of policemen were murdered and more than eighty police stations were destroyed in such attacks. This resulted in a security vacuum which further distorted civil society in Darfur with numerous communities responding in their own ways. The conflict subsequently spiralled out of control and has resulted in many deaths and the displacement of hundreds of thousands of civilians in the Sudan. Many others have fled into neighboring Chad, and a growing humanitarian crisis ensued.

There are many dimensions to the conflict, regional, national and international. But, environmental factors-such as encroaching desertification – have led to considerable tension between nomads and more established farming communities. The inter-tribal

violence that has taken place in Darfur has, nevertheless, been portrayed by some anti-government activists and some international media and NGOs as “ethnic cleansing” and even “genocide”. The activities of nomadic Arab tribesmen known as the “Janjaweed” have come into sharp focus. It is claimed that they are sponsored by the Government, which is not true. It is unclear exactly how much control anyone has over the “Janjaweed” gunmen, except their tribal leaders. Usually, all wars lead to series of human rights violations. The conflict in Darfur has been no exception. And as is so often the case in war, the conflict has inevitably been caught up in the propaganda and misinformation that comes with it and that has certainly characterized previous coverage of Sudan. In its wake, efforts at conflict resolution is being hampered and the palpable presence of ethnic hostility will indeed constitute a concrete and tangible cause of future violent confrontations.

9.1.4 Peace Talks

On September 21 2003, the GoS and the SPLM/A extended the negotiated ceasefire by two months to the end of November 2003. This marks the third extension of the original six-month ceasefire signed in October 2002. And on September 25, 2003 following three weeks of direct negotiations between high-level GoS and SPLM/A officials, the parties signed a security agreement. The deal proposes the establishment of two separate armed forces for the Northern and Southern Sudan, integrated military units and an internationally monitored ceasefire agreement following a final peace settlement. Also on October 29 2003, the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UN OCHA) and the Integrated Regional Information Network (IRIN) reported that Verification and Monitoring Team (VMT), an international group mandated in February 2003 to monitor the accord for the cessation of hostilities, had resumed its work, focusing on the creation of a field base near Ler, Western Upper Nile.

Peace Agreement: On January 9, 2005, the Government of Sudan and the Sudan People’s Liberation Movement/Army (SPLM/A) signed a Comprehensive Peace Agreement (the Naivasha Agreement), formally ending over four decades of civil war in Sudan. The Comprehensive Peace Agreement represented the final step in over two years of intensive negotiations since the signing of the Machakos Protocol on July 20, 2002, incorporating 12 previously signed agreements and protocols between the two parties. The signing of the Naivasha Agreement is a historic moment for Sudan, marking a formal end to Africa’s longest running civil war and setting the stage for the possibility of bringing lasting peace to Sudan. Yet the occasion is marred by the on-going conflict and humanitarian crisis in the Western Sudan province of Darfur - which represents the latest example of Khartoum's tendency to treat chronic government shortages as local flare-ups that can be safely carved off and addressed outside international purview or reach. There may be an opportunity, for the Sudanese and the international community, to capitalize on the peace agreement between Northern and Southern Sudan in order to find a lasting resolution to

the situation in Darfur. The international community must seize that opportunity, to ensure that the Comprehensive Peace Agreement is only the first step toward reaching a broader peace throughout Sudan. If not, Darfur and other hot spots could end up sinking this agreement before it even gets off the ground.

9.15 Humanitarian Access

In FY 2003, the USAID led an international effort to mobilize donors to put pressure on the GOS for unimpeded humanitarian access. On October 15 2002, after the denial of access had led to a crisis in September 2002, the GOS and the SPLM/A signed an MOU, stating again that they agreed on terms to allow unimpeded humanitarian access to the entire region. On October 25 2002, a smaller technical group met with the United Nations and agreed on terms to implement the MOU. NGOs operating under the UN/OLS umbrella have benefited directly from increased access, while USAID-supported organizations outside the UN/OLS framework have also expanded operations thanks to improved security conditions. From August 28 to September 2 2003, a US Government delegation led by Roger Winter, US Aid's Assistant Administrator for Democracy, conflict, and Humanitarian Assistance (AA/DCHA), traveled to Sudan to speak with GOS representatives about four humanitarian access concerns: the new government policy on genetically modified food assistance and security in Darfur, Abyei, and the Eastern Front.

9.1.6 Oil fields in the Sudan

Oil seems to have been the final spark for uprisings and the formation of armed opposition groups in Sudan such as the Anyanya 11, and the Sudan People's Liberation Army (SPLA) in 1984. One of the SPLA's first armed activities were targeted at the workers of the oil company Chevron, which planned to construct an oil pipeline running from the oil fields of the South to the refineries located in the northern harbor of Port Sudan. Oil is also a symbol of the Sudanese problem, Sudan's history of decolonization, failed nation-building and its continuing political affairs are reflected in the story of oil. Economic factors, such as oil exploration and extraction, show not only that considerations of the global economy dominate political decision-making but also clearly indicate the underlying sources of the conflict in Sudan. Thus, extreme speed would be required, to manage the precarious state of political affairs and the spread of conflicts over large and disperse areas of this huge land mass. The stage has therefore been set to discuss in some detail, the type of instruments suitable for the establishment of this unique intregal air transport for the humanitarian problems of this scale and complexity which require deft as well as swift peacekeeping, disaster relief as well as peace-building efforts on a continuous basis.

9.1.7 The Aircraft – CASA 212

The United Nations Officers (including the WFP Air Ops Manager and DPKO officers) have underlined the role that the CASA 212 can play in the Sudanese operations. Its ability to take off and land from very short runways or airfields, together with the capability to carry small jeeps or other cargo or up to 19 passengers, make it one of the aircraft best-suited to operate in the Sudanese theatre in the future. The CASA 212 is a very reliable aircraft which has already proved extremely effective in flight operations to remote areas, thanks to its STOL capabilities, its solid structure and its rear ramp door. The two aircraft offered are a –100 and a -200 series, as specified below. Both are certified and available in cargo and/or passenger configurations. The configuration change takes less than an hour. The two aircraft have been JAR-OPS 1-operated and certified, meaning that they are equipped with FDR, CVR, ELF, EGPWS, Terrain Display, B-RNAV, Garmin GPS and weather radar, together with standard navigation and communications equipment. The aircraft are currently maintained in perfect efficiency. All FAA AD, DGAC AD and CASA Mandatory SB have been complied with. Maintenance is performed according to JAR-145 and JAR-OPS 1 regulations and with the use of the approved Maintenance Management Exposition (MME) and Aero plane Maintenance Programme (AMP) During the last eight years, the aircraft maintenance has been performed by the contracted Swedish company Saab Nyge Aero, a well established JAR 145 facility which is also responsible for the maintenance of the CASA 212 fleet operated by the Swedish National Coast Guard. Available Fleet Information can be summarized as follows:

CASA 212-200 SE-LDG

Maximum Take off Weight: 7,700kg

Maximum Payload: 2,600kg

Passenger capacity: 19pax

Max Range: 960NM

Endurance: 5.5hrs

Maximum Speed: 200kts

Maximum Operating Altitude: 25,000ft.

CASA 212-100 SE-LDB

Maximum Take off Weight: 6,500kg

Maximum Payload: 1,650kg

Passenger capacity: 19pax

Max Range: 990NM

Endurance: 6hrs

Maximum Speed: 200kts

Maximum Operating Altitude: 25,000ft.

9.1.8 Aircraft Operations and Policy

Since the aircraft are fully Jar-Ops compliant, they will operate under a JAR-OPS AOC. This choice will ensure a high standard of safety and quality in aircraft operations. The company's policy will be to establish very efficient and safe operations according to United Nations requirements. The intention is to meet successfully the safety requirements which are often ignored by Third World operators. Also, the natural consequence of this policy will be a reduced profit margin since the company's costs will be higher than average, especially in the following areas:

- a. Aircraft Maintenance (under JAR 145 requirements).
- b. Quality Assurance.
- c. Pilot training and qualifications (in accordance with JAR-FCL).

Even if the operational costs of the company will be higher than those of most African companies, it should be emphasized that these will be the result of meeting the increased commitment of the UN to safer air operations. The broader aim is to establish a professional relationship with the various UN Air Ops Departments. Naturally, the initial years of operating under this policy will determine whether or not the increased commitment to Safety and Quality is sustainable by the company. If the economic results prove a negative, the logical response will be to transfer the aircraft say, to an East African AOC.

9.1.9 Contracting the United Nations

As previously stated, only companies registered as UN vendors can respond to the invitation of the UN for air-charter services. To register a company as a UN vendor, both finance and technical criteria must be met. By registering as a JAR-OPS operator, all the technical requirements are basically satisfied. On the financial side, the UN requests a solid background from the prospective suppliers. They must have a minimum of three years experience/establishment in their line of business. The UN, on the basis of the financial soundness and experience of the supplier, will evaluate each complete application and finally add the airline to the current list of UN Air Charter Services operators

The company may not meet the above financial requirements, especially since its incorporation is too recent to fulfill the 'three year' regulation. In this case, it may be possible to provide the UN with financial warrantee by signing a 'performance bond' which is basically a bank guarantee provided by the company to the UN in order to secure the contract. Once the company has been registered within the UN it will be possible to bid for the Call for Tenders concerning UN peacekeeping operations, especially Sudan operation.

9.1.10 Contracts and Pricing.

The UN contracts for the Sudan operation will include long-term agreements with the DPKO, as well as other possible contracts with the WFP. Those contracts usually require a monthly fixed amount of flight hours (80-100) per aircraft. The UN pays the sum to the operator. If this minimum guaranteed flight time is exceeded, the UN will pay the positive difference on a monthly basis. Throughout the term of the contract, the UN will also pay the operator the minimum guaranteed flight time every month. And having a minimum guaranteed flight time and knowing that it usually corresponds to the actual time spent flying; the pricing calculation can be done. This pricing has an enormous bearing on the whole operation, because the UN awards the contract on a price basis. Usually, pricing is expressed as US\$/flight hours. In this calculation, fuel is not considered because it is supplied directly by the UN. In fact, only the fuel necessary for transferring the aircraft to the area of operations is considered. Another important factor concerns knowledge of the other operators involved in the bidding. Once the operators are invited to bid, the bidder offering the lowest price will secure the contract. Pricing for the CASA 212, operated as previously described, has been carried out in terms of the following economic plan. This reflects the price of the aircraft/flight hour of US\$ 1,000 and a contract for 83-hours/aircraft/month (thus giving an easy 1,000 hours per year).

CHAPTER ELEVEN

CONCLUSIONS

In summarizing, five key issues emerge from this analysis:

In the first instance, it is axiomatic to state that humanitarian missions around the world have increased in recent years in direct proportion to the occurrence of conflict and natural disasters. This is evident in the increased funds made available for humanitarian assistance worldwide, which has more than doubled between 1990 and 2000 - the decade following the end of the Cold War. Also it is observed that the air-transport services purchased every year by the United Nations from external air operators increased more than 6 times between the same period.

Secondly, it may be safe to assume that the prevailing international political situation as well as the geopolitical analysis as examined above, could suggest that the international community may be moved to further increase its commitment to humanitarian missions on the basis of tragic occurrences ; with post-conflict peacebuilding operations also attracting slightly more than the current levels of international aid. Throughout the 1990s, there was an emerging groundswell of consensus that the issue of security can never again be resolved with bombs, bullets and elite politics alone, but also through developmental efforts. A redefinition of 'security' was required by the near-disappearance of conventional military threats to the major powers and by an increasing awareness of the costs of the political economy of the new wars, both for affected countries and internationally. The events of 11 September 2001 may have further reinforced the link between international aid and world peace.

Thirdly, from our analysis the United Nations emerged as the leading contractor in the humanitarian/relief theatres ; even if we sadly note that many non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are now very active in that unfortunate field, mainly due to monetary inducements cleverly disguised under various humanitarian slogan . Moreover, over the past two decades, the rate of increase in the size and complexity of NGOs working in the humanitarian field may bare credence to our conclusion. For example, the UNHCR observes that in the 1960s, between 10 to 20 NGO partners were implementing the organization's work. By the 1990s, this figure had risen to several hundreds. Perhaps for the same reason this project has been careful to focus its attention on the United

Nations contracts, but it is evident that many other possibilities for chartering humanitarian flights can be considered.

Fourthly, viewed from another angle our analysis of the operational characteristics of humanitarian flights reveal a very demanding operational scenario and some very important safety issues, owing to the dangerous environment for aircraft, as well the lack of any assistance, either from the point of view of air traffic control or ground support available for relief flights at the theatre of operations. Consequently it is agreed that dedicated aircraft - such as military logistics aircraft must, of necessity, be used for these particular type of operations as it is clearly evident to be best suited for the envisaged rugged environments.

And finally, owing mainly to the apparent economic constraints being currently experienced by the United Nations as well as most humanitarian agencies, some NGOs do no longer properly address safety issues when awarding contracts for relief flight operations. Only aircraft offered at a low hourly cost have the chance of winning a call for tender. Moreover, the market is dominated by the Third World and Russian operators who are able to offer aircraft at significantly lower prices than their Western counterparts. Furthermore, the United Nations has issued Aviation Standards with well-defined Aircraft Operator Requirements, mostly for crew training (including instructions on how to handle dangerous goods, security and CRM ; other requirements include :

1. Quality System.
2. Maintenance requirements.
3. Security managements, and
4. Flight planning, etc.

This study clearly observed that while there have been considerable concern over safety measures within the United Nations for some time now, many humanitarian air operators have failed to comply with these important operational requirements even if these agencies sometimes suffer the consequences in the field as a result of their carelessness.

Conversely, the paper examines these issues from the operators' point of view that the correct implementation of safety standards results in higher operating costs to the operator. And that if operators fully comply with the applicable Aviation Standards, this should be reflected by higher price offers to the United Nations Invitations to Bid, whilst the United Nations for its part should be ready to pay a higher price for the guarantee of operational safety. With this framework in mind, this paper proposed for the establishment of an air transport dedicated for humanitarian and peacekeeping operations

within the UN, using the on-going peacebuilding mission in the Sudan as a pilot project, with the following characteristics:

- 1 Area of operations: The United Nations is known to be deploying a massive peacekeeping operation in support of the armistice signed between the Northern and Southern Sudan, and we have graphically demonstrated that the UN would require additional aircraft for this complex operations - in addition to the already existing fleet operating under the auspices of Operation Lifeline Sudan (OLS).
- 2 Aircraft: In addition to array of military transport aircraft at the disposal of the UN especially from concerned member states- such as the USA - the paper makes a special case for CASA 212. This is because of the special quality of this unique aircraft, especially its ability to take off and land from very short runways or airfields (STOL) , together with its capacity to carry air portable military and/or relief materials, plus up to 19 passengers - makes the aircraft highly suitable for the Sudanese operation.
- 3 AOC: In satisfying the third operational standard requirements, we highlighted the CASA 212 series will operate initially under a JAR-OPS AOC; and that should operations with a JAR-OPS AOC fails because of economic constraints and a very competitive market, the aircraft would be put under an East African AOC, for obvious reasons.

Thus the United World Airlines under proposal would be flexibly structured to incorporate the regional peacekeeping stand-by force modules, as designated by the Scandinavian countries, in emergency situations - while being available for contracting by other IGOs/NGOs - and in times of relative peace, run like a normal commercial/cargo airlines. While this humble ideas may not be exhaustive, it is our hope that our proposals would sensitise vigorous debate especially in the UN General Assembly, where urgent solutions are actively being sought to stem the current tide of both emergency conflicts and natural disaster reliefs.

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ANNEXES

Performance Analysis of the most Used Aircraft in Humanitarian Operations

LOCKHEED L-100

TYPE

Medium range freighter

HISTORY

Lockheed's L-100 freighters are the civil equivalents of the venerable military C-130 Hercules, and have proven to be of great utility, particularly in undeveloped countries.

Lockheed initiated design of the Hercules in response to a 1951 US Air Force requirement for a turboprop-powered freighter. This resulted in the C-130 Hercules, which first flew in prototype form on August 23 1954. Design features included the high mounted wing, four Allison 501/T56 turboprops and the rear-loading freight ramp. The US Air Force ordered the C-130 into series production in September 1952 and since that time more than 2,500 have been built.

The C-130's appeal to freight operators encouraged Lockheed to develop a civil version. The first commercial versions were based on the C-130E model and a demilitarized demonstrator first flew in April 1964. This initial civil development, the L-100 (L-382), was awarded civil certification in February 1965.

This model was soon followed by the L-100 (L-382B) series which introduced an improved freight-handling system. Sales of these initial versions were slow, leading Lockheed to develop the 2.54m (8ft 4in) stretched L-100-20 (L-382E), which offered better freight capacity and operating economics.

The L-100-20 was certified in October 1968, but was soon followed by the even longer L-100-30 (L-382G). The -30 was 2.03m (6ft 8in) longer than the -20, first flew in August 1970, and was delivered in December that year. Most civil sales of the Hercules have featured the L-100-30 variant.

Although basically a civil aircraft, several L-100s are in service with military operators, e.g. in Algeria, Gabon and Kuwait. The last L-100 was built in 1992, while the last military Allison 501/T56-powered C-130 was delivered in 1996.

Had Lockheed Martin not chosen to focus on military variants in 2000, leading to the cessation of the L-100J programme, the latter would have appeared as a commercial derivative of the new generation C-130J Hercules 11, based on the stretched fuselage C-130J-30.

Improvements would have included new 3425KW (4591shp) Rolls-Royce (Allison) AE-2100D3 advanced turboprop engines, driving six blade props and also featuring two crew EFIS flight decks and significantly lower maintenance and operating costs. The C-130J first flew on April 5, 1996, while US FAA civil certification was awarded in September 1998.

POWERPLANTS

L-100-30 – FOUR 3,362kw (4,508SHP) Allison 501-D22A turboprops driving four-blade, constant-speed propellers

PERFORMANCE

L-100-30 – max. Cruising speed 571km/h (308kt), range with max payload 2,472km (1,334nm), range with no payload 8,950 km (4,830nm).

WEIGHTS

L-100-30 – operating empty 35,260kg (77, 7361lbs), max. Take-off, 70,310kg (155,000lbs)

DIMENSIONS

L-100-30 – wingspan 40.41m (132ft 7in), length 34.37m (112ft 9in)

CAPACITY

L-100-30 – flight crew of three or four, max payload of 23,158kg (51,054lbs) comprising pallets or containers.

PRODUCTION

Total number of L-100s built 114 (include 22 L-100s, 27 L-100-20s and 65 L-100-30s).

Source: www.airliners.net/

HS. 748

HISTORY

Built firstly by Hawker Siddeley and then British Aerospace, the rugged HS.748 began life when Avro sought to re-enter the civil market in the 1950s in anticipation of a decline in its military aircraft business.

The HS.748 proved to be reasonably successful sales wise and remains popular in Third World Nations. Surfacing as the Avro 748 in 1958, Hawker Siddeley took over the 748 design in 1959 (Avro being a part of the Hawker Siddeley Group). The new aircraft made a successful maiden flight on June 24 1960 and four prototype aircraft (two for static testing) were built. The first production Series 1 flew on August 30 1961. Series 1 production aircraft were powered by two 1400KW (1880ehp) Dart RDa.6 Mk 514 turboprops and first entered service in December 1961 with Skyways Airways. Only 18 Series 1s were built, however, as by that time the improved Series 2 was already flying. The Series 2, in its 2, 2A and 2C variants, was the most successful of the line, the first flying on November 6, 1961. The Series 2 differed from Series 1, weighing more and using more powerful engines. The series 2B appeared in 1977, offering a range of aerodynamic and other improvements, including an increased wingspan. The most advanced variant of the 748 to appear was the Super 748. It made its first flight in July 1984. Incorporating the improvements of the 2B, it also featured a modernized flight deck, improved efficiency, hush-kitted Dart engines and new galley and internal fittings. Production ended in 1988. Today the 748 remains popular with charter and freight operators.

POWERPLANTS

Series 2A-two 1,700kw (2,280ehp) Rolls-Royce Dart RDa.7 Mk 5342 or Mk 5352 turboprops driving four-blade propellers. Super 748 – two 1700kw (2,280ehp) Dart Mk 5522s.

PERFORMANCE

Series 2A – cruising speed 452km/h (244kt), range with max. Payload and reserves 1,360km (735nm) range with max. Fuel and reserves 3,130km (1,690nm). Super 748 – cruising speed 452km/h (244kt), max. Initial rate of climb 1,420ft/min, range with max. Payload and reserves 1,715km (926nm) range with max. Fuel 3,360kg (7,800lbs) payload and reserves 2,892km (1,560nm).

WEIGHTS

Series 2A – operating empty 12,159kg (26,806lbs), max. Take-off 21,092kg (46,500lbs). Super 748 – empty 6,676kg (14,720lbs), max. Take-off 12,430kg (27,400lbs).

DIMENSIONS

Series 2A – wingspan 30.02m (98ft 6in), length 20.42m (67ft 0in), height 7.57m (24ft 10in), wing area 75.4 sq m (810.8sq ft). Super 748 – same except for wingspan 31.23m (102ft 6in), wing area 77.0sq m (828.9sq ft).

CAPACITY

Flight crew of two. Typical seating for between 48 and 51 passengers, at four abreast and 76cm (30in) pitch.

PRODUCTION

Production ended in 1988 by which time 382 had been built, including 160 assembled in India, comprising mostly Series 2s. About 180 were in commercial use in 1998.

Source: www.hs748.com/

SHORTS 330

HISTORY

The shorts 300, or the 'Shed' as at least one regional airline affectionately dubbed it, is an inexpensive and reliable 30-seat airline, if somewhat slower than most of its pressurized competitors.

The Shorts 330 is a stretched development of the SC.7 Sky van.

Beginning life as the SD330, the 330 retained the Sky van's overall configuration, including the slab-sided fuselage cross-section, supercritical, braced, above-fuselage-mounted wing design (lengthened by 2.97m/9ft 9in) and twin tails. Compared with the Sky van, though, the fuselage is lengthier by 3.78m (12ft 5in), allowing seating for over ten more passengers. Improved performance over the fairly slow Sky van results from two Pratt and Whitney PT6A turboprops driving five-blade props, pointed nose and retractable undercarriage.

More than 60% greater Fuel capacity boosts its range significantly over that of the Sky van.

An engineering prototype of the 330 flew for the first time on August 22, 1974, while a production prototype flew on July 8, 1975. The first true production aircraft followed that December. The 330 entered airline service with Time Air of Canada in August 1976

Initially, Shorts 330s were powered by PT6A45As and 45Bs and were known as 330100s, while the definitive 330-200s feature more powerful PT6A45Rs. The 200s also feature a number of detailed improvements, while items previously available as options were later offered as standard features.

Various freighter versions of the 330 have been developed, including the Sherpa with a rear-loading ramp (in service with the US Air Force and Army as the C23) and the military 330UT.

POWERPLANTS

330100 – Two 875kw (1,173shp) Pratt and Whitney Canada PT6A45 turboprops driving five-blade constant speed Hartzell propellers. 330200 – Two 893kw (1,198shp) PT6A45Rs.

PERFORMANCE

330100 – Max. Cruising speed 356km/h (192kt), long-range cruising speed 296km/h (160kt), initial rate of climb 1,200ft/min, range with 30 passengers and reserves 590km (320nm). 330200 – Max. Cruising speed 352km/h (190kt), long-range cruising speed

294km/h (159kt), range with max. Payload 660km (473nm), range with max. Fuel and no reserves 1,695km (915nm)

WEIGHTS

330100 – Empty equipped in airline configuration 6,577kg (14,500lbs), max. Take-off 10,160kg (22,400lbs). 330200 – Operating empty 6,697kg (14,764lbs), max. Take-off 10,387kg (22,900lbs)

DIMENSIONS

Wingspan 22.76m (74ft 8in), length 17.69m (58ft 1in), height 4.95m (16ft 3in), wing area 42.1sq m (453.0sq ft)

CAPACITY

Flight crew of two. Typical passenger accommodation for 30 at 3 abreast and 76cm (30in) pitch in 10 rows of seats. In combi-freight/passenger configuration the 330 houses freight in the front of the cabin and 18 passengers in the rear.

PRODUCTION

330 production wound up in September 1992 after 136 had been built, including military C23 Sherpas and 330UTs. Approximately 35 were in airline service in late 1998.

Source: www.aictic-cirle-air.com

CASA 212

HISTORY

Initially conceived as a light STOL transport for the Spanish Air Force, the CASA C212 has found a handy market niche and is highly regarded for its utility in underdeveloped regions.

Designed to replace the Spanish Air Force's mixed transport fleet of Douglas C47 Dakotas, CASA Azors and Junkers Ju 52s still in service in the 1960s, the C212 was also developed with the intention of offering a civil variant. Design work began in the late 1960s and the first prototype made its initial flight in March 26 1971. Pre-production examples followed and then the type entered air force service in 1974. The first commercial version was delivered in July 1975.

The basic civil version was designated the C212C, the military version, the C2125. Production of these models ceased in 1978, when CASA switched to the Series 200 with more powerful engines and higher operating weights. The initial Series 200, a converted C212C prototype, flew for the first time in its new configuration on April 30, 1978. A third development of the Aviocar was the Series 300 which first flew in 1984 and was certified in late 1987. Improvements to this model are newer engines and winglets.

The latest development is the C212-400, which was launched at the 1997 Paris Air Show (after its first flight on April 4, that year). It features TPE331-12JR engines which maintain their power output at a higher altitude for improved 'hot and high' performance, and an EFIS flight deck.

POWERPLANTS

C212C – two 580kw (775shp) Garrett Airesearch (now allied Signal) TPE3315251C turboprop engines, driving four-blade propellers. Series 300 – Two 670kw (900shp) TPE33110R513Cs.

PERFORMANCE

C212C – max. Speed 370km/h (200kt), max. Cruising speed 359km/h (194kt), economical cruising speed 315km/h (170kt), range with max. Fuel and 1,045kg (2,303lbs) payload 1,760km (950nm) range with max. Payload 480km (258nm)

Series 300 – max. Operating speed 370km/h (200kt), max. Cruising speed 354km/h (191kt), economical cruising speed 300km/h (162kt), range with 25 passengers and reserves at max. Cruising speed 440km (237nm) – with 1,700kg (3770lbs) payload 1435km (775nm)

WEIGHTS

C212C – empty 3,700kg (8,157lbs), max. Take-off 6,300kg (13,890lbs). Series 300 – empty 3,780 (8,333lbs), operating empty 4,560kg (10,053lbs), max. Take-off 7,700kg (16,975lbs)

DIMENSIONS

C212c & Series 200 – wingspan 19.00m (62ft 4in), length 15.20m (49ft 11in), height 6.30m (20ft 9in), wing area 40.0sq m (430.6sq ft).

Series 300 – wingspan 20.28m (66ft 7in), length 16.15m (53ft 0in), height 6.60m (21ft 8in), wing area 41.0sq m (441.3sq m)

CAPACITY

Flight crew of two, max. passenger seating for 26, typical layout for 22 passengers (3 abreast). Freighter version can accommodate three LD3 containers or two LD2s or two LD727/DC-8s, max. Payload 2,700kg (5,950lbs)

PRODUCTION

Over 435 Aviocars of all models built, including 170 for commercial operators and 265 for military customers. IPTN in Indonesia has built over 90 NC212s under license.

Source: www.aviation-safety.net

DHC 6 TWIN OTTER

Type

STOL turboprop regional airliner utility transport

History

Still Canada's most successful commercial aircraft programme with more than 800 built the Twin Otter remains popular for its rugged construction and useful STOL performance.

Development of the Twin Otter dates back to January 1964 when De Havilland Canada started design work on a new STOL twin turboprop commuter airline (seating between 13 and 18) and utility transport.

The new aircraft was designated the DHC-6 and prototype construction began in November that year, culminating in the type's first flight on May 20 1965. After receiving certification in mid-1966, the first Twin Otter entered service with long-term De Havilland Canada supporter, The Ontario Department of Lands in Canada. The first production aircraft were series 100s.

Design features include double-slotted, trailing-edge flaps and ailerons that could act in unison to boost STOL performance. Compared with the later Series 200s and 300s, the 100s are distinguishable by their shorter, blunter noses.

The main addition to the Series 200, which was introduced in April 1968, was the extended nose, which, together with a reconfigured storage compartment in the rear cabin, greatly increased baggage stowage area.

The Series 300 was introduced from the 231st production aircraft in 1969.

It too featured the lengthened nose but also introduced more powerful engines, thus allowing 450kg (1000lbs) increase in take-off weight. It also boasted a 20-seat interior. Production ceased in the late 1988.

In addition, six 300s with enhanced STOL performance (DHC-6-300s) were built in the mid-1970s.

POWERPLANTS

100 – Two 431kw (578hp) Pratt & Whitney Canada (formerly United Aircraft of Canada) PT6A-20 turboprops driving three-blade propellers.

300 – Two 460kw (620shp) P&WC PT6A – 27s.

PERFORMANCE

100 – Max. Cruising speed 297 km/h (165 kts); range with max. Payload 1,427 km (771nm); range with 975kg (2,150lbs) payload 1,344km (727nm).

300 – Max. Cruising speed 338 km/h (182 kts); initial rate of climb 1,600 ft/min; range with 1,135 kg (2,500lbs) payload 1,297km (700nm); range with an 860kg (1,900lbs) payload and wing tanks 1,705km (920nm).

WEIGHTS

100 – Basic operating empty 2,653kg (5,850lbs); max. Take-off 4763kg (10,500lbs).

300 – Operating empty 3,363kg (7,415lbs); max. Take-off 5,670kg (12,500lbs).

DIMENSIONS

100 – wingspan 19.81m (65ft 0in); length 15.09m (49ft 6in), height 5.94m (19ft 6in); wing area 39.0 sq m (420 sq ft).

300 – Same except for length 15.77m (51ft 9in) or 15.09m (49ft 6in) for floatplane variants.

CAPACITY

Flight crew of two standard regional airliner interior seats at three abreast and 76cm (30in) pitch.

Can be configured as an executive transport, freighter, aerial ambulance and survey aircraft.

PRODUCTION

Production completed in 1988 and comprised 115 Series 100s, 115 Series 200s and 614 Series 300s.

BEECHCRAFT KING AIR 200

TYPE

Turboprop passenger's transport

HISTORY

The king Air 200 is a continuation of the king Airline, with new features including the distinctive tall, more powerful engines, greater wing area and span, increased cabin pressurization, greater fuel capacity and higher operating weights than the king Air 100.

Beech began design work on the Super king Air 200 in October 1970, culminating in the type's first flight on October 27, 1972. Certified in mid-December 1973, the king Air 200 went on to be the most successful aircraft in its class, eclipsing such rivals as the Cessna

Conquest and Piper Cheyenne. Today, the king Air 200 is the only one of the three in production.

The improved B200 entered production in May 1980. This version features more efficient PT6A42 engines, increased zero fuel max. Weight and increased cabin pressurization. Sub-variants include the B200C with a 1.32m x 1.32m (4ft 4in x 4ft 4in) cargo door, the B200T with removable tip tanks and the B200CT with tip tanks and cargo door. The Special Edition B200E was certified in October 1995 and features an EFIS avionics suite as standard.

Various special mission king Air 200s and B200s have been built, including those for calibration, maritime patrol and exploration purposes. In addition, several hundred Super King Airs have been built for the US military under the designation C12.

The 1500th commercial King Air 200 was built in 1995. In 1996 Raytheon dropped the 'Super' prefix for all 200, 300 and 350 model King Airs.

POWER PLANTS

200 – Two 635kw (850shp) Pratt & Whitney Canada PT6A41 turboprops driving three-blade, constant-speed propellers. B200 – two 635kw (850shp) P&WC PT6A42s.

PERFORMANCE

200 – Max. Speed 536km/h (289kt), max. Cruising speed 515km/h (278kt). Initial rate of climb 2,450ft/min.

Range with reserves at max. Cruising speed 3254km (1757nm), at economical cruising speed 3495km (1887nm).

B200 – max. Speed 536km/h (289kt), economical cruising speed 523km/h (282kt). Initial rate of climb 2450ft/min.

Range with max. Fuel and reserves 3,658km (1974nm) at 31,000ft and economical cruising speed.

WEIGHT

200 – Empty 3318kg (7315lbs); max. Take-off 5670kg (12,500lbs).

B200 – empty 3675kg (8102lbs); max. Take-off 5670kg (12,500lbs).

DIMENSIONS

Wingspan 16.61m (54ft 6in); length 13.34m (43ft 9in), height 4.57m (15ft 0in); wing area 28.2sq m (303.0sq ft).

CAPACITY

Flight crew of one or two. Accommodation for a maximum of 13 passengers in main cabin, plus a further passenger beside the pilot on flight deck. Typical corporate seating layout for six in main cabin.

PRODUCTION

Over 1700 King Air 200s have been delivered to civil and commercial customers, while over 400 have been delivered to military forces.

