CHAPTER IV

PEACEFUL ROLE OF NSEs

The role of NSEs in the collective security system of the United Nations may be divided, for the sake of convenience, into two parts: peaceful and coercive. By peaceful role of NSEs, we mean the role that is not coercive in nature. This chapter discusses and analyses the said role under the following headings: organizational role, normative role, rule-related role, informational role and operational role.

I. ORGANIZATIONAL ROLE

This is the first and foremost role of NSEs in the collective security system. The working system of collective security presupposes the existence of an international organization, a form of NSEs. International organizations are established by States. After the establishment, it is the international organization which provides structural apparatus to the collective security through its organs and agencies which are also NSEs. The Security Council, the General Assembly, the Secretariat, the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), and the ICJ are the relevant principal organs of the United Nations in this regard. Some of them have certain agencies also to operate effectively.

Besides the above NSEs, there may be other NSEs which could provide organizational framework of peaceful nature in the collective security. Specifically, Chapter VIII of the UN Charter is devoted entirely to the United Nations cooperation with regional organizations and arrangements in the maintenance of international peace and security.
Article 71 of the Charter empowers the ECOSOC to make arrangements for consultation with NGOs in its area of competence.

Many regional groups have cooperated with the United Nations in the maintenance of international peace and security. Under the flexible framework provided by Chapter VIII of the Charter, different forms of United Nations regional cooperation have developed: consultations, diplomatic support, operational support, co-deployment and joint operations. In August 1994 and again in February 1996, the UN Secretary-General convened at the UN Headquarters a high-level meeting with regional organizations that have cooperated with the United Nations in peace and security, to examine patterns of and principles for improving cooperation, and to explore the potential for expounded cooperation in the future.

Around 200 NGOs were present at the 1945 United Nations Conference on International Organization at San Francisco, where the Charter of the United Nations was agreed and signed. Since that time, the United Nations-NGO partnership has grown into a global network, encompassing some 1,600 NGOs in consultative status with ECOSOC under Article 71 of the Charter. Almost 1,500 NGOs are associated with the United Nations Department of Public Information, and many other NGOs are affiliated with the United Nations offices and agencies in every part of the world.

Each of the actors discussed below is already represented in some way through NGOs in consultative status with ECOSOC. Therefore, participation via ECOSOC should deepen on all fronts if these actors obtain some formalized or semi-formalized connection with the Council.
Parliamentarians, as the directly elected representatives of their constituents, are for international organizations an essential link to international public opinion. Without such a link it has become extremely difficult to build recognition, understanding and support for international efforts, especially in recent years as those efforts have become more complex and the international environment more uncertain. At the same time, by carrying the views and concerns of their constituents to the international arena, parliamentarians offer a direct channel for increasing the legitimacy, responsiveness and effectiveness of international organizations. Situated between citizens of States and the community of States, and by definition committed to dialogue, discussion and agreement, parliamentarians are a direct and motive force in maintenance of peace and security. Parliamentarians have engaged in informal consultations with the Secretariat, participated in Member State delegations, contributed to preparations for international conferences and fostered international dialogue by occasionally convening their own conferences at the United Nations through the Inter-parliamentary Union, the world organization of parliamentarians. The Inter-parliamentary Union, for long has consultative status with ECOSOC. Following a request of the General Assembly in its resolution 50/15 of 15 November 1995, the Secretary-General concluded in July 1996, an agreement on cooperation between the United Nations and the Inter-parliamentary Union which will strengthen that cooperation and give it a new and adequate framework. The Secretary-General also meets with parliamentarians and members of State legislatures, upon their request during the official visits to Member States, as the Special Envoys,
Special Representatives and other representatives of the United Nations system do.

While today's major challenges are undeniable in character, it is at the local level where their impact is felt most directly that is why local authorities, such as mayors and metropolitan officials, have become notably more active on global issues and, in some cases, collectively organized across countries on matters of common concern. Local participation enhances the legitimacy and effectiveness of global decisions by helping to ensure that those decisions emerge from the realities of local life and are supported by local action. Yet vigorous and effective local governance is essential not only to global problem-solving: by contributing to health and sustainable human settlements, it is also essential to international peace and security in the broadest sense. In the sphere of peace and security, many local authorities support United Nations efforts through "sister cities" and other such cooperation and cultural exchange programmes, and many cities have declared themselves nuclear-weapon-free zones. Cities have also been strongly supportive of the United Nations by hosting international gatherings and events and by providing homes to the many United Nations offices around the world.

The academia, including universities, research institutes and public policy centres, has acquired an increased importance in world affairs by helping to uncover the dimensions of change and to construct an intellectual platform upon which future efforts may be built. By expanding the flow of ideas, the academia has become increasingly powerful in encouraging public participation in national and international dialogue on
the future and, more important, in shaping the dialogue. Thus, by its very nature, the academia also contributes to ensuring peace and security. Many academic groups have engaged in informal consultations with the Secretariat of the United Nations and its departments, agencies and programmes. They have also participated in practical assistance programmes. The United Nations itself has several research centres and institutions, as well as its own United Nations University, which promotes scholarly debate, research and training across the range of issues relevant to the operation and efforts of international organizations. The Academic Council on the United Nations System, established by scholars, teachers and practitioners from around the world active in the work and study of international organizations, fosters dialogue and cooperation between academia and the various components of the United Nations system.

Business and industry today has more power over the future of the global economy and the environment than any government or organization of governments. Hence, its cooperation with a United Nations effort will provide better results in case of peace and security matters. It can cooperate, both peacefully and coercively, with the United Nations, in such matters. It could engage itself in United Nations work relating to early-stage planning for post-conflict peace-building, with the aim of encouraging foreign investment to facilitate recovery and reconstruction.

II. NORMATIVE ROLE

The United Nations Charter contains a package of principles relating to the collective security system. Settlement of international

1 See Preamble, Articles 1 and 2 of the UN Charter.
disputes by peaceful means,\textsuperscript{2} not to use force against the territorial integrity or political independence of any State,\textsuperscript{3} non-intervention in the domestic affairs of a State,\textsuperscript{4} etc., are some principles to foster peaceful role of both States and NSEs. These norms and principles need explanations and confirmations. NSEs have explained and continued to explain norms relating to the collective security of the United Nations. They have also confirmed those norms in their pronouncements. Sometimes, NSEs have helped in developing supplementary norms to fill the gap in the Charter. Many INGOs and IGOs are involved in normative activities which strengthen the collective security system. The Afro-Asian Peoples Solidarity Organization (AAPSO) was founded for the purpose of coordinating the movement against colonialism and imperialism. Individuals are also important actors in this field. When U. Thant was the Secretary-General of the United Nations, he regularly spoke about the Vietnam war and expressed his hope for a peaceful solution to the conflict.

Several IGOs, including the United Nations, INGOs and individuals, perform the functions of urging disarmament and arms control. When the nuclear threat became more and more evident in the 1950s, a group of eminent figures, including Albert Einstein and Bertrand Russell, made an appeal to the leaders of the nuclear powers. As a result, many scientists of the major nuclear powers met together in the town of Pugwash at the invitation of a Canadian millionaire and philanthropist Cyres Eaton. The Pugwash Movement was the result of that meeting. The purpose of that

\textsuperscript{2} Ibid., Article 2 (3) and Chapter VI.
\textsuperscript{3} Ibid., Article 2(4)
\textsuperscript{4} Ibid., Articles 2(7) and 51.
meeting was to urge upon scientists to discuss questions of international peace and security in their private capacity. Since they were often governmental scientists, they were able to affect governmental policies. Those efforts, consequently, strengthened the collective security system in a peaceful manner. Various academic organizations, e.g., the International Institute for Peace in Vienna, the UNESCO-sponsored Informational Political Science Association (IPSA) and the International Peace Research Association (IPRA) have a universal vocation.

III. RULE-RELATED ROLE

NSEs play an important role in rule-creating as well as rule-supervisory activities. IGOs are directly involved in the process of creating rules relating to the collective security through their ratified conventions. INGOs and other NSEs have limited role in this field. They can provide only proposals for such rules. They can also help in lobbying states to ratify a treaty through their pronouncements and conferences. Though INGOs cannot table resolutions and cannot vote at all in the United Nations, it does not mean that INGOs are unable to promote resolutions successfully. Individuals and specific decisions of the United Nations can also be attributed to NGOs. It has been found that often government delegations which want to promote a specific position on an issue will seek advice and assistance from NGOs. Also NGOs themselves can take the initiative.

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6 Ibid., Jacobson, pp. 136-29.
7 Taylor and Groom, n.5, p.29.
8 Ibid.
9 Ibid.
NGOs may obtain consultative status through action by ECOSOC under Article 71 of the Charter. By working with NGOs, the United Nations benefits from their ideas, expertise and research.\(^{10}\)

In 1947 the Security Council established the Commission on Conventional Armaments. The General Assembly created the Atomic Energy Commission through its first resolution for the purpose of peaceful use and effective control of atomic energy. In 1952 the General Assembly created the Disarmament Commission which was later named as the Conference of the Committee on Disarmament (CCD). The first arms control agreement concluded after the Second World War, however, was not negotiated under the auspices of the CCD. The United Nations invited the States that participated in the International Geographical Year (IGY) to attend a conference in Washington in 1959 to prepare a treaty, which finally came to be known as the Antarctic Treaty in 1959. In 1963, in negotiations in Moscow, the United States, the United Kingdom and the Soviet Union agreed to a treaty under the auspices of the CCD. This treaty is known as the Treaty Banning Nuclear Weapons Tests in the Atmosphere, in Outer Space, and Under Water. In this treaty, there is no provision for an international organization to monitor the ban. Three other treaties negotiated under the auspices of the CCD are the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, 1968; the Seabed Arms Control Treaty, 1971; and the Biological Weapons Convention, 1972. These are few examples of the arms control agreements entered into under the auspices of the United Nations. The General Assembly has endorsed and given its

\(^{10}\) See, *Notes for speakers* (New York, 1992), p.63
approval to other arms control agreements which have not been entered into with the authority of the United Nations. Examples are the Treaty for the Prohibition of Nuclear Weapons in Latin America, 1967, Protocols I and II and several other multilateral and bilateral treaties\(^\text{11}\) relating to arms control and disarmament including Soviet-American agreements.

Some recent developments in respect of rule-creating activities include:\(^\text{12}\)

1. The 1981 Convention on Excessively Injurious or Indiscriminate Weapons that restricts or prohibits the use of mines and body traps, incendiary weapons, and weapons which injure or kill their victims by fragments which X-rays can not detect in the human body;

2. The 1987 Treaty between the United States and the Soviet Union on the elimination of their intermediate-range and shorter-range missiles;

3. The 1990 Treaty on the reduction of conventional armed forces in Europe (CFE);


5. In Latin America, the Presidents of Argentina and Brazil renounced the production and acquisition of nuclear weapons in the 1990 Declaration of Cameron Nuclear Policy;

\(^\text{11}\) See for details, Jacobson, n. 5, p. 186.
6. By 1991 the United States and the former Soviet Union reached an agreement on reducing their strategic nuclear arms (START-I);
7. In 1991, Argentina, Brazil and Chile signed the Mendoza Declaration prohibiting the development, production, acquisition, storage, or transfer of chemical or biological weapons;
8. The “open skies” treaty, signed on 24 March 1992 by 24 States participating in the CSCE meeting in Vienna is perhaps the most wide-ranging confidence-building measure ever agreed, allowing unhindered surveillance and fights through the airspace of signatories;
9. The 1993 START-II;
10. In 1993 the General Assembly commended the Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, Stockpiling and Use of Chemical Weapons and on Their Destruction, which has thus far been signed by 148 member States.

It has been pointed out: “International legal instruments on torture are the result of the Amnesty International's campaigning.”13 The Additional Protocols to the Geneva Conventions of 1949 were initiated by the International Commission of Jurists and the International Committee of Red Cross (ICRC).14 These are examples of some conventions which were negotiated owing to the initiatives of INGOs.

As for the rule-supervisory role of NSEs, it is very limited in scope. Only some IGOs, INGOs and a few other NSEs have been allowed to perform the role. The agreements creating rules generally do not contain

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13 Taylor and Groom, n.5, p.29.
14 Ibid.
provisions for supervisory role of NSEs. A major reason neither IGOs nor INGOs have been given significant rule-supervision role is the difficulty of creating institutions in which all affected States would have confidence.\textsuperscript{15} The rule-supervisory role of international organizations in the security field is modest. It is most extensive with respect to technologies that can be used for peaceful as well as military purposes and with respect to the less powerful countries. Similarly, it is also extensive to those that have been defeated in major wars (such as Germany). Its function is primarily that of giving reassurances that States are observing their obligations, rather than ferreting out violators.\textsuperscript{16}

The Treaty for the Prohibition of Nuclear Weapons in Latin America, the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, and the Protocol and related agreements that brought the Federal Republic of Germany into the Western European Union, involve the rule-supervisory role of international organizations.\textsuperscript{17} As it is observed: "An INGO plays a minor role in monitoring the partial nuclear test ban treaty in that the Stockholm International Peace Research Institute (SIPRI) collects and publishes material on nuclear tests that are conducted."\textsuperscript{18} The Geneva Conventions of 1949 and the Protocols thereto provide the rule-supervisory role of ICRC.

In a very limited sense, the ICJ plays the judicial rule-making and supervisory role in respect of the obedience of rules.\textsuperscript{19} Boutros Boutros-

\begin{footnotesize}
\begin{enumerate}
\item Jacobson, n. 5, p.187.
\item Ibid.
\item Ibid., pp. 187-88.
\item Ibid., p. 187.
\item See Report of the Secretary-General, n.12, pp. 12-14.
\end{enumerate}
\end{footnotesize}
Ghali rightly observed in *An Agenda for Peace* that the docket of the ICJ has grown fuller but it remains under-used resources for the peaceful adjudication of disputes.\(^{20}\)

**IV. INFORMATIONAL ROLE**

Information is essential for both the means and end of a collective security system. As Jacobson observes: “Information is important for all the approaches to security. However, the management of force might be arranged, it is vital to have knowledge about both the intentions and the capabilities.”\(^{21}\)

Many IGOs, INGOs, the media and other NSEs may get involved in providing information. They can help in clarifying the position and capabilities of States and, if necessary, informing such situations to the United Nations. On the basis of such information, the United Nations may proceed for further action in respect of collective security. According to Jacobson, “general debate is the most formal and stylized exchange of information that occurs within the international organizations.”\(^{22}\) Information is also helpful in building the mutual confidence between disputant States. Arrangements for the free flow of information are required for the confidence building measures in particular.\(^{23}\) In recent years the United Nations system has been developing a valuable network of early-warning systems concerning the risk of nuclear accidents and mass movement of


\(^{21}\) See Jacobson, n. 5, p.163.

\(^{22}\) *Ibid.*, pp. 163-64.

\(^{23}\) *An Agenda for Peace*, n. 20, para 23, 25 and 26.
populations, the threat of famine and the spread of disease.\textsuperscript{24} Regional arrangements and organizations have an important role in early warning.\textsuperscript{25} In using the technique of fact-finding, "an IGO appoints an individual or a group of individuals to investigate at the site of an incident, the issues in a dispute between States and to report their findings to the IGO. The assumption is that if the facts are widely known, the parties to the disputes will somehow resolve their differences."\textsuperscript{26}

There are numerous examples of NSEs playing an informational role. In 1955 the General Assembly established the Scientific Committee on the Efforts of Atomic Radiation. This committee provides, periodically, published reports on the efforts of atomic radiation. These reports are useful in tracing out the existence of atomic dangers. Some other examples\textsuperscript{27} are the Institute of Strategic Studies (ISS), the Stockholm International Peace Research Institute (SIPRI), the United States Arms Control and Disarmament Agency (USSCDA), the Pugwash Conferences on Science and World Affairs, Amnesty International, the International Committee of Red Cross, Human Rights Watch, the International Federation for Human Rights, the Human Rights Internet (an international communications network and clearing-house for human rights information), and the Anti-Apartheid Movement. Moreover, the United Nations maintains contact with a wide range of NGOs, including the above-mentioned ones, through the Department of Public Information and the Non-Governmental...
Liaison Service (NGLS), sponsored jointly by several agencies and programmes of the Organization.

V. OPERATIONAL ROLE

The peaceful operational role of NSEs includes two types of role: the peaceful means-related role and the peaceful instruments-related role. Peaceful means are mentioned under Chapter VI of the UN Charter. Therefore, the peaceful means-related role is covered under Chapter VI of the Charter. As for peaceful instruments, the United Nations has developed a range of instruments for controlling and resolving conflicts between and within States. The most important of them are preventive diplomacy and peace-making, peace-keeping, peace-building, disarmament, sanctions, and peace enforcement. The first three can be employed only with the consent of the parties to the conflict and, therefore, not coercive or peaceful in nature. Sanctions and enforcement, on the other hand, are coercive measures and thus, by definition, do not require the consent of the party concerned. Disarmament can take place on an agreed basis or in the context of coercive action under Chapter VII. Hence, it should be clear that the peaceful operational role of NSEs in the collective security system of the United Nations is not exclusively covered under Chapter VI of the UN Charter and may have a scope beyond it.

PEACEFUL MEANS-RELATED ROLE

Under Chapter VI of the UN Charter, NSEs can get themselves engaged in amicable or peaceful means-related activities such as arbitration, judicial settlement, negotiation, good offices, mediation,
conciliation, enquiry and other activities not involving the element of coercion. Bruno Simma rightly observes that the notion of peaceful means as used in Article 33(1) of the Charter appears to encompass all those formal procedures for the peaceful settlement of disputes which are characterized by the absence of unilateral action and strict equality of the parties. Simma further observes that the listing in Article 33(1) is not to be understood as indicating any substantive priorities. However, negotiations occupy a somewhat special position: Frequently, the existence of a conflict can only be identified through mutual contact and discussion. Negotiations are also indispensable as a first step towards attempting to settle a dispute.

As for the role of NSEs, various regional tribunals and the ICJ are involved in arbitral and judicial activities. Negotiation between disputants may be initiated or facilitated by NSEs. Almost all NSEs, except the arbitral and judicial ones, have the capacity to involve themselves in negotiation, good offices, mediation and conciliation. In case of enquiry, even the arbitral and judicial NSEs may be involved. The operational role of the ICJ is different from its rule-related role. In the rule-related role, the ICJ

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29 Ibid.
30 For latest involvement of these NSEs, see the Report of the Secretary-General, n. 12, pp. 12-14.
resolves legal problems. But in the operational role, it makes efforts to resolve extra-legal issues.\textsuperscript{31}

**PEACEFUL INSTRUMENTS-RELATED ROLE**

This role of NSEs includes their peaceful activities in respect of preventive diplomacy and peacemaking, peace-keeping, peace-building and disarmament. The United Nations does not have or claim a monopoly of any of the instruments of peace and security including also the above-mentioned instruments. All can be, and most of them have been, employed by regional organizations, by ad-hoc groups of States, or by individual States. But the United Nations has unparalleled experience of them and it is to the United Nations that the international community including NSEs has turned increasingly since the end of the Cold War. The United Nations system is also better equipped than regional organization or individual member States to develop and apply the comprehensive, long-term approach needed to ensure the lasting resolution of conflicts.\textsuperscript{32} Perceived shortcomings in the United Nations performance of the tasks entrusted to it have recently, however, seemed to incline member States to look for other means, especially, but not exclusively, where the rapid deployment of large forces is required.\textsuperscript{33}

\textsuperscript{31} For detailed discussion on legal and extra-legal issues, see J.G. Starke, *Introduction to International Law* (New Delhi, 1994), pp. 486-512 generally and pp. 505-6 in particular.


PREVENTIVE DIPLOMACY AND PEACEMAKING

It is evidently better to prevent conflicts through early warning, quiet diplomacy and in some cases, preventive deployment than to have to undertake major politico-military efforts to resolve them after they have broken out. The Security Council's declaration of 31 January 1992 mandated the Secretary-General to give priority to preventive diplomacy and peace-making activities. The Secretary-General accordingly created a Department of Political Affairs to handle a range of political functions that had previously been performed in various parts of the Secretariat. That Department has since passed through successive phases of restructuring and is now organized to follow political development worldwide, so that it can provide early warning of impending conflicts and analyse possibilities for preventive action by the United Nations, as well as for action to help resolve existing conflicts.34

Preventive diplomacy may be performed by the Secretary-General personally or through senior staff or specialized agencies and programmes. It may also be performed by the Security Council or the General Assembly. Regional organizations may do the same in cooperation with the United Nations. NSEs may be involved in measures to build confidence, fact-finding, early warning, preventive deployment and demilitarized zones.35

The Security Council, the General Assembly, the ICJ and the Secretary-General have important roles in respect of peace-making.36 Individuals designated by the Security Council, the General Assembly or the Secretary-General can be involved in peace-making through mediation.

34 Ibid., para 26.
35 An Agenda for Peace, n. 19, para 24-33.
36 For details, ibid., para 35, 36 and 38-39.
and negotiation. The United Nations has utilized the services of some distinguished persons and statesmen to facilitate the processes of peace.\textsuperscript{37} They can bring a personal prestige that in addition to their experience can encourage the parties to enter into serious negotiations. The ICJ is relevant here due to Articles 36 and 37 of the UN Charter. Under these Articles, the Security Council has power to recommend to Member States the submission of a dispute to the ICJ.\textsuperscript{38}

Experience has shown that the greatest obstacle to success in these endeavours is not, as is widely supposed, lack of information, analytical capacity or ideas for United Nations initiatives. Success is often blocked at the outset by the reluctance of one or other of the parties to accept United Nations help. This is as true of inter-state conflicts as it is of internal ones, even through United Nations action on the former is fully within the Charter, whereas in the latter case it must be reconciled with Article 2 (7) of the Charter.\textsuperscript{39}

Collectively Member States encourage the Secretary-General to play an active role in this field; individually they are often reluctant that he should do so when they are party to the conflict. It is difficult to know how to overcome this reluctance. Clearly the United Nations cannot impose its preventive and peace-making services on Member States when they do not want them. Legally and politically their request for, or at least acquiescence in, United Nations action is a \textit{sine qua non}. The solution can only be long-term. It may lie in creating a climate of opinion, or ethos, within the

\textsuperscript{37} \textit{Ibid.}, para 37.
\textsuperscript{38} \textit{Ibid.}, para 40.
\textsuperscript{39} \textit{Supplement to An Agenda for Peace}, n. 32, para 27.
international community in which the norm would be for Member States to accept an offer of United Nations good offices. 40

One of the main difficulties in this field is that of finding senior persons who have the diplomatic skills and who are willing to serve for a while as special representative or special envoy of the Secretary-General. As a result of the streamlining of the senior levels of the Secretariat, the extra capacity that was there in earlier years no longer exists. 41

Another important problem relates to the establishment and financing of small field missions for preventive diplomacy and peace-making. Accepted and well-tried procedures exist for such action in the case of peace-keeping operations. The same is required in the preventive and peace-making field. Although special envoys can achieve much on a visiting basis, their capacity is greatly enhanced if continuity can be assured by the presence on the ground of a small support mission on a full time basis. There is no clear view amongst Member States about whether legislative authority for such matters rests with the Security Council or the General Assembly, nor are existing budgetary procedures well-gear ed to meet this need. 42

Two solutions are possible. The first is to include in the regular budget a contingency provision for such activities. The second would be to enlarge the existing provision for unforeseen and extraordinary activities

40 Ibid., para 28.
41 Ibid., para 30.
42 Ibid., para 31.
and to make it available for all preventive and peace-making activities, not just those related to international peace and security strictly defined.\textsuperscript{43}

(B) PEACE-KEEPING

The United Nations can be proud of the speed with which peace-keeping has evolved in response to the new political environment resulting from the end of the Cold War. The last few years have, however, confirmed that respect for certain basic principles of peace-keeping is essential to its success. Three particularly important principles are the consent of the parties, impartiality and the non-use of force except in self-defence. Analysis of recent successes and failures shows that in all the successes these principles were respected and in most of the less successful operations one or other of them was not.\textsuperscript{44}

There are three aspects of recent mandates that, in particular, have led peace-keeping operations to forfeit the consent of the parties, to behave in a way that was perceived to be partial and/or to use force other than in self-defence. These have been the tasks of protecting humanitarian operations during continuing warfare, protecting civilian populations in designated safe areas and pressing the parties to achieve national reconciliation at a pace faster than they were ready to accept. The cases of Somalia and of Bosnia and Herzegovina are instructive in this respect. In both cases, existing peace-keeping operations were given additional mandates that required the use of force and therefore could not be

\textsuperscript{43} Ibid., para 32.
\textsuperscript{44} Ibid., para 33.
combined with existing mandates requiring the consent of the parties, impartiality and the non-use of force.\footnote{Ibid., paras 34 and 35.}

NSEs can get themselves involved in peace-keeping activities. Increasingly, peace-keeping operations require civilian officers, electoral officials, human rights monitors, refugee and humanitarian aid specialists, and police and military personnel. For their training, NSEs like governmental or non-governmental organizations and the UN Secretariat may be involved. They can also provide logistics in peace-keeping operations.\footnote{An Agenda for Peace, n. 19, para 51 and paras 55-59.}

(C) PEACE-BUILDING

The validity of the concept of post-conflict peace-building has received wide recognition. The measures it can use - and they are many - can also support preventive diplomacy. Demilitarization, the control of small arms, institutional reform, improved police and judicial systems, the monitoring of human rights, electoral reforms and social and economic development can be as valuable in preventing conflict as in healing the wounds after conflict has occurred.\footnote{Supplement to An Agenda for Peace, n. 32, para 47.}

The implementation of post-conflict peace-building can, however, be complicated. It requires integrated action and delicate dealings between the United Nations and the parties to the conflict in respect of which peace-building activities are to be undertaken.\footnote{Ibid., para 48.}
Two kinds of situations arise in case of peace-building. The first is when a comprehensive settlement has been negotiated, with long-term political, economic and social provisions to address the root causes of the conflict, and verification of its implementation is entrusted to a multifunctional peace-keeping operation. The second is when peace-building, whether preventive or post-conflict, is undertaken in relation to a potential or post-conflict without any peace-keeping operation being deployed. In both the situations the essential goal is the creation of structures for the institutionalization of peace.49

Most of the activities that together constitute peace-building fall within the mandates of the various programmes, funds, offices and agencies of the United Nations system with responsibilities in the economic, social, humanitarian and human rights fields. In a country ruined by war, resumption of such activities may initially have to be entrusted to, or at least coordinated by, a multifunctional peace-keeping operation. But as that operation succeeds in restoring normal conditions, the programmes, funds, offices and agencies can re-establish themselves and gradually take over responsibility from the peace-keepers, with the resident coordinator in due course assuming the coordination functions, temporarily entrusted to the special representative of the Secretary-General.50

It may also be necessary in such cases to arrange the transfer of decision-making responsibility from the Security Council, which will have authorized the mandate and deployment of the peace-keeping operation, to

49 Ibid., para 49.
50 Ibid., para 53.
the General Assembly or other inter-governmental bodies with responsibility of the civilian peace-building activities that will continue.51

Post-conflict activities should be incorporated as soon as feasible into the development strategy of the country. However, during the immediate, fragile post-conflict phase, which by nature is transitory, such activities are quite distinct from normal development activities. Following activities may be undertaken by NSEs in this respect.52

(1) RELIEF AND HUMANITARIAN ASSISTANCE

Humanitarian assistance is always aimed at providing the strict minimum needs to meet the so-called "immediate and basic needs of people (e.g., food, water, primary health care). As a general rule, therefore, it is a need that stands by itself and is not strictly related to the political goals of post-conflict peace-building. Confidence-building measures are important, even at the emergency phase. As a general policy, education and training should be part of any United Nations humanitarian and relief operation.

Following measures are relevant here:

Emergency Measures

1. Undertaking emergency action to ensure basic survival for returnees and internally displaced persons (shelter, food, water, health and sanitation, basic household kits, farm tools and inputs).

2. Undertaking quick-impact micro-projects at the local level to facilitate the transition from relief to rehabilitation. Criteria have to be established

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to ensure the sustainability of quick-impact projects in order to avoid uncoordinated and isolated activities without linkages to a broader rehabilitation strategy.

3. Ensuring funding for emergency programmes.

Education and Training

1. Quick assessment of the education and training needs of all groups of the population.

2. Assessment of the physical condition of the infrastructure (during conflicts, schools are often used by the combatants as army barracks and the educational process is completely stopped, e.g., Liberia, Somalia).

3. Provision of basic training and learning materials for teachers, children, demobilized soldiers, among others, adopted to this particular situation.

Following types of activities are included here:

(a) FOOD AID

The United Nations system has extensive experience in the provision of food aid, both in response to emergencies, primarily natural disasters, and as a form of development assistance. Most of the principles and practices that have been developed over the years apply in equal measures to a post-conflict situation and so are not reiterated at length here. Probably the most difficult challenge is to ensure that food aid provided for emergency relief does not conflict with longer term development objectives.

Under food aid, following activities are included:
(i) Using food aid specifically in post-war rehabilitation; assisting in building up food production capacity; assisting in resettlement of refugees, returnees and internally displaced persons; providing food to ex-combatants both as part of the demobilization package and as assistance during a period of re-conversion and re-employment; restoring/building up civic services capacity by assisting civil servants, teachers and health workers until such time as funding and budgetary provisions are made to pay their salaries; building up human resources capacity, school and hospital feeding, material and child health (MCH) centres, training, rehabilitating infrastructure either by providing food aid in food-for-work programmes or by directly securing funding and arranging for repairs/re-organization of ports, transport facilities and the like.

(ii) Ensuring that food aid is distributed in an equitable manner to all vulnerable groups (including refugees, displaced persons, demobilized soldiers, disabled people) irrespective of their affiliation to parties to the conflict. A disparity of treatment of these groups would create tensions which would have a negative impact on the peace process.

(iii) Meeting the food needs of people who have lost their capacity to grow or acquire food and/or have been forced to leave their houses (dispossessed and displaced persons, refugees and returnees).

(iv) Rehabilitating food production capacities damaged by the conflict by ensuring the availability of essential inputs, including seeds, tools, fertilizers, pesticides, draught animals and livestock (e.g., by
exchanging external food supplies and food aid for local seed grain to ensure adequate seed reserve.

(v) Identifying post-conflict and developmental food-for-work schemes (e.g., demining, rehabilitation and reconstruction of the physical and social infrastructure, including roads, bridges, water supply and transport networks, schools, clinics and health facilities) to follow the emergency phase.

(vi) Judging the timing and nature of the interventions (i.e., providing free emergency food when starvation is threatening, but avoiding saturating the market and thereby discouraging planting for the next harvest).

(vii) Reducing external support gradually so that basic food requirements are satisfied while avoiding delays in securing local food security and continued dependence on international food aid.

(viii) Encouraging closer cooperation between donor organizations involved in relief and those involved in recovery and development activities, so that the former are fully supportive of the latter.

(b) POTABLE WATER AND SANITATION

Very often in a conflict situation, water and sanitation are neglected or destroyed, with immediate negative effects on the health situation of the community. In most post-conflict situations, there is an urgent need to restore and protect available supplies and make medically safe water accessible to all population groups, thereby reducing the burden on the health system.

NSEs may perform the following activities in this respect:
(i) Providing emergency water supplies, if water sources are severely contaminated.

(ii) Providing new bore holes as an alternative source until water quality improves.

(iii) Restoring existing facilities, including isolating the damaged section of piped water supply and sanitation systems, undertaking temporary repairs, ensuring disinfection and monitoring water quality at delivery points, and preparing plans and estimates for complete rehabilitation.

(iv) Establishing and maintaining appropriate toilets and providing disinfectant and material for the temporary repair of sewerage systems.

(v) Preparing a detailed plan for the rehabilitation of water supply facilities.

(vi) Constructing new wells, storage tanks, reservoirs and water distribution systems.

(vii) Campaigning to ensure continued maintenance of water supply sources and adequate sanitation near water supply points.

(viii) Organizing in-service training in the rehabilitation and maintenance of water facilities, environmental sanitation and hygiene.

(c) HEALTH

Basic health services and health institutions (including administrative structures) often disintegrate during conflicts because of the pressure to treat the victims of hostilities. In addition, the health infrastructure is destroyed or damaged during the conflict. A post-conflict health care
programme needs to be rebuild both institutions and infrastructure as an integral part of a national health programme and to ensure its validity through emphasis on local capacity, institutions-building, training and the like.

Activities relevant here are the following:

(i) Identifying immediate life-saving activities.

(ii) Assessing present and potential situations with regard to epidemics and disease outbreaks in the community, the types of war injuries and psychological traumas, the state of health of displaced persons and returnees and the size and distribution of the conflict-affected population.

(iii) Assessing the resources needed and the local response capacity.

(iv) Sensitization and training campaigns on health and sanitation, with a special focus on communicable diseases and women and children.

(v) Activating primary health care services through distribution of emergency drugs and medical supplies, contraceptive services, adolescent care, protection from rape and counselling to rape victims, and reorganization of health centres and hospital facilities, including the strengthening of managerial capacity at all levels to promote effective, efficient and sustainable health services delivery.

(vi) Caring for those suffering from physical or mental war injuries, including civilians with psychological traumas with attention to the particular needs of women, children and adolescents, such as protection from sexual violence including rape.
(vii) Organizing health assistance in collective centres to assist ex-combatants, returnees and other dislocated persons.

(viii) Enhancing quality health care through nutrition services, drug abuse prevention counselling, opening dispensaries and laboratories, distributing medical kits and prosthetic materials and establishing primary health care services.

(ix) Planning and operating effective long-term sustainable health services at central and local levels, to ensure access of basic packages of public health and health care services to meet the needs of the majority of the population.

(d) MINE CLEARANCE

Mines are a major impediment to all stages of economic, social and political regeneration. The removal of land-mines and mines in estuaries, waterways and rivers can be a prerequisite for most other post-conflict peace-building activities. In post-conflict situations where the number of mines is large, mine clearance becomes a long-term operation, albeit with some short-term priorities. This is a dangerous and time consuming activity, which is often carried out at great expense. The experience of El Salvador and Mozambique has shown the advantages of competent international private companies with the appropriate technologies. In the first-phase, these companies should have as part of their contractual obligations a strong training component for local de-miners and managers, who should be fully associated with the demining projects from the beginning of operations. In the second phase, local private companies or joint ventures should be created which could take over the demining activity
when the contract of the international companies expires. This process should be closely monitored by the Government of the country concerned through its policy and evaluation structure. Such an approach would guarantee the immediate employment of local operational units formed on the spot at low cost. In addition, it would have the sympathy of a large group of donors willing to provide financial resources.

Activities which may be conducted by NSEs in this field are:

(i) Determining the approximate extent and nature of the land-mine problem in the country.

(ii) Undertaking a nation-wide survey to locate and identify mined areas, enlisting the help of ex-combatants for the location of their own mine fields.

(iii) Facilitating financial support, which will largely depend on voluntary contributions. To allow demining to start as soon as possible, the budget of peace-keeping operations may include a small amount for this purpose.

(iv) Conducting detailed individual minefield surveys.

(v) Formulating a mine awareness educational plan and formulating procedures for reporting unexploded ordnance and artifacts.

(vi) Formulating a plan for mine clearance and the disposal of explosive artifacts, including assessment of the financial implications.

(vii) Establishing mine clearance priorities (e.g., to respond to the need to open and/or establish vital infrastructure as quickly as possible, to needs relating to refugee repatriation and settlement or to the need to re-establish the main revenue-earning capabilities of the country).
(viii) Detecting and clearing mines from surveyed minefields.
(ix) Implementing mine awareness training programmes.
(x) Ensuring demining before any development projects start in mines areas.
(xi) Creating an in-country mine clearance management team, which can be developed into a national mine clearance authority.
(xii) Undertaking in-country mine clearance training.
(xiii) Training in-country demining managers.

(e) LOGISTICS

In situations calling for emergency assistance, measures to facilitate the timely and efficient delivery of required materials are crucial. Relevant activities in this respect are:

(i) Setting up an office with a stock of essential items and equipped with communication facility to ensure the launching of an operation without delay.
(ii) Preparing operation plans, incorporating necessary lead times for recruitment of personnel and purchase and shipping of equipment.
(iii) Mobilizing logistic expertise and local knowledge.
(iv) Inspecting sites and making technical surveys.
(v) Quantifying the various supplies that need to be delivered month by month, to different locations and that have to be transported from locations world-wide.
(vi) Identifying logistics requirements and possibilities within the country.
(vii) Subcontracting logistical functions to private contractors such as NGOs and private firms (e.g., computerization of the voting registration in Cambodia).

(viii) Establishing a pre-approved reserve fund for immediate emergency expenditures.

(ix) Determining for each sea and river port, the types/sizes of vessels able to be received and the current discharge, handling and storage capacities.

(x) Determining for both international airports and airstrips in the affected areas the type of aircraft able to land and take off and the operational facilities available, navigation aids, refuelling points and so forth.

(xi) Evaluating all possibilities for transporting and storing the planned supplies.

(xii) Locating/hiring a transport firm to move supplies from the port or rail head to delivery points.

(xiii) Managing the arrival of supplies by a freight forwarding company.

(xiv) Deploying and scheduling of immediately available means of transport on specific routes and using of available storage capacity.

(xv) Providing a central procurement and storage office.

(xvi) Preparing a delivery schedule and monitoring performance accordingly.

(xvii) Identifying actions which need to be taken to increase capacity (such as minor repairs of roads) and specifying for each the material and
expertise needed, the expected cost and implementation schedule and the expected capacity increase or saving.

(xviii) Monitoring the situation and revising operational plans if and when requirements and possibilities change.

(xix) Building up, if possible, stocks of supplies in advance of peak requirements to ensure that delivery will be maintained at a steady rate.

(xx) Building up stocks of supplies as close as possible to targeted locations if it is expected that weather or other conditions will make transportation difficult in the foreseeable future.

(xxii) Establishing a radio network between all key locations (central control unit, ports, airports and major warehouses).

(xxii) Making arrangements for the disposal of equipment, including the possibility of transferring it to the host Government.

(f) SECURING FINANCIAL RESOURCES

Urgent and substantial financial contributions are essential to provide expeditiously and effectively relief and humanitarian assistance to people suffering from the effects of conflict. It is essential that measures be taken to ensure that requests for financial resources are based on real and emergency needs and that appropriate coordination mechanisms are provided to avoid duplication and to maximize the effectiveness of the available resources.

Activities relevant here may include the following:

(i) Assessing the basic requirements.
(ii) Preparing and issuing United Nations consolidation inter-agency appeals taking into account the assessment and identifying the affected populations, the availability of local resources, the minimum outside help required and the detailed estimated cost.

(iii) Formulating an integrated operations plan.

(iv) Preparing and issuing sectoral appeals made by United Nations agencies.

(v) Preparing and issuing interim appeals (in situations where assistance has to be provided before the completion of a well-structured inter-agency appeals).

(vi) Establishing modalities for the coordination of the actions of funding agencies with those of executing agencies and for the coordination of actions and policies among both sets of organizations.

(vii) Organizing donor conferences to secure a better response to consolidated appeals by providing information concerning ongoing operations and incipient emergency situations, and an opportunity for dialogue on the country’s development and projected financial requirements.

(g) RE-BUILDING THE GOVERNMENTAL ADMINISTRATIVE APPARATUS

The re-building of the governmental administrative apparatus will involve a careful process of re-establishing legitimacy, confidence and normalcy in the system. This process will need to be started during peace-making activities, continued in a transitional period and maintained during the rebuilding and reconstruction phase under a new Government.
This has been an immediate priority in countries that have severely affected by civil unrest (e.g., Rwanda, Somalia). Rudimentary public administration is key to involving the parties to the peace agreement in beginning to restore economic capacity, obtaining the parties' perspective on the most urgent post-conflict peace-building needs, and following up as well as coordinating the implementation of post-conflict peace-building activities.

Activities performed by NSEs in this respect may include the following:

(i) Restoring security and confidence, including policing authority and the judicial system.

(ii) Restoring the government treasury, including banking and the monetary system, to enable payment of salaries.

(iii) Rebuilding the civil service through a public service census, human resource planning and development. Repatriation and secondment as necessary.

(iv) Redesigning governmental legal frameworks.

(v) Promoting capacity-building initiatives related to humanitarian relief activities, especially those of NGOs and communities at the local level, focusing on the delivery of key services. This would reinforce the emerging local capacity, while re-establishing civil administration.

(vi) Identification of currently active units and organizations, especially at the local level, through a process of needs identification to identify
the exact dimensions of civil administration which require restoration.

(vii) Assisting the parties involved in the peace agreement in identifying an appropriate structure for the interim governmental apparatus.

(viii) Surveying the state of the current administrative apparatus.

(ix) In collaboration with the Prime Minister's office, ministries of the interior and justice, law and order and ministries of finance, economic affairs and planning, identifying, mobilizing and coordinating international support as well as budgeting in general.

(x) In collaboration with the treasury and central bank (or monetary authority), mobilizing domestic resources and allowing for the beginning of rudimentary financial transactions in support of post-conflict peace-building activities.

(xi) Providing necessary material and especially technical support to launch the rebuilding.

(2) DEMOBILIZATION AND REINTEGRATION

Early and effective demobilization of ex-combatants is essential to build durable peace and is a function that is best undertaken under the auspices of the United Nations or another international organization. Before the combatants are disarmed and demobilized, it is necessary to ensure that a reintegration programme has been prepared, funded and made ready for implementation in step with demobilization.
(a) DEMOBILIZATION OF EX-COMBATANTS

Very careful demobilization planning is required and this takes time and requires advance planning. Confidence-building measures among conflicting parties in a wide variety of areas should be undertaken from the very beginning. The comparative experience of Central America, Ethiopia, Mozambique and Uganda demonstrates that alternative time tables can be designed to suit different conditions. One thing to be kept in mind is that a conflict between the "culture of development" and the "culture of peacekeeping" is likely to arise. NSEs and their experts are not supposed to replace local people in doing any work; they should teach the locals how to work and let them do it. The time required for the work to be done is less important than the way in which it is done. In a peace-keeping operation, on the other hand, the main task once a cease-fire and separation of forces have been obtained and political solutions to conflicts have been achieved is to disarm troops, resettle them as soon as possible and consolidate peace. There is hardly any time for teaching; time has a very high cost, especially when large numbers of troops are deployed. Substantive work must be done by the United Nations military and civilian staff to speed up the process and have things done effectively and in a timely fashion.

Under the demobilization process, following activities may be performed by NSEs:

Demobilization planning:

(i) Elaborating a demobilization plan and programme, including time table, stages and costs.
Encampment phase:

(i) Selection and agreement on assembly areas/encampment sites/verification centres.

(ii) Arranging adequate living conditions for the combatants to be demobilized (food, water, shelter, health and sanitation). The peacekeeping operation needs a specific approach to food provision which is quite different from the humanitarian approach. The number of calories required by restless soldiers who have guns in their hands and know how to use them is, by definition much higher than the number of calories needed by unarmed civilians.

(iii) Ensuring discipline and order in the assembly areas during the demobilization phase. Providing soldiers with good food in ample quantity may be the best way to keep them quiet and assure the smooth implementation of the demobilization process. The Special Representative of the Secretary-General should be given the authority to make the necessary decisions about the quality and quantity of food, without wasting precious time in fighting against bureaucratic rules and procedures.

(iv) Ensuring funding for the encampment phase.

(v) Disarming combatants under the supervision of the United Nations or an appropriate regional organization.

(vi) Storing and keeping custody of and disposing of the collected weapons and ammunition.

(vii) Setting up a technical unit, with civilian personnel seconded from United Nations agencies and the United Nations volunteers, in
charge of the preparation and equipment of the assembly areas (in coordination with military observers); the registration of soldiers (in coordination with military observers); the preparation and delivery of demobilization documents (in coordination with the relevant ministries and military observers); the establishment of a reliable database (in coordination with the International Organization for Migration and Military Observers). The technical unit should be present in each assembly area, together with the military observers, and be able to provide the technical skill and administrative expertise that the military observers lack.

(viii) Planning the full utilization of the combatants' time during the encampment phase. Providing information on demobilization benefits (demobilization allowances, demobilization cards to access future payments, and procedures for the purpose, civilian clothing, food rations, etc.), counselling (vocational, psychological), literacy and educational activities, training in life skill (information on civil life, rights and responsibilities, civic education), accelerated agricultural skill or business training (if time permits) and information on reintegration programmes and options, recreation and physical education.

Transition Phase:

(i) Preparing a detailed logistical plan for the transportation of ex-combatants to their selected home areas.

(ii) Ensuring physical and financial resources for the plan.
(iii) Arranging advance information to local administrations and receiving communities on the details of ex-combatants and their dependents.

(iv) Setting up local arrangements and procedures for occurring demobilization benefits.

(v) Providing incentives for resettlement in the area through agriculture (land, seeds, farm tools, draught animals, credit, extension services).

(vi) Exploring other options for paid or self-employment in the local area in cooperation with the community (food-for-work schemes, community development schemes of NGOs/donors), setting up small and micro-enterprises and businesses.

(vii) Provision of additional incentives (e.g., house-building material, access to social services, food rations).

(b) REINTEGRATION OF EX-COMBATANTS, REFUGEES AND DISPLACED PERSONS

The objective of the reintegration programme is to facilitate and assist the reintegration of ex-combatants into the civilian and productive life of the country.

In the post-conflict situation, other conflict-affected groups also need reintegration assistance in varying degrees: returnees, internally displaced persons, and the resident population, particularly in areas of intense fighting. Reintegration of target groups is a complex and expensive activity rendered extremely difficult in stagnant economies. Advance planning for reintegration, at least for short to medium term, should be undertaken well before the demobilization process starts. Close coordination between
Demobilization and reintegration planning is essential in all situations. An organization should be established at the national level for the planning and coordination of reintegration programmes for ex-combatants and other target groups. Activities relevant are the following –

Reintegration Phase:

(i) Designing adequate short, medium and long-term programmes for reintegration and supporting them through the provision of training and technical assistance, including literacy, mine awareness training, psychological education and teaching of appropriate life skills. Special emphasis should be placed on reintegration programmes that simultaneously promote reconciliation (e.g., former combatants working side by side in a new police force). Peacekeeping operations should confine their actions to short-term projects and the bridging plans to be worked out in coordination with the World Bank, United Nations Development Programme and other programmes and agencies of the United Nations system in-charge of the medium and long-term projects. The Special Representative of the Secretary-General, as part of his/her coordinating role, should stimulate and monitor the design of long-term programmes and projects which are necessary to the smooth implementation of the peace agreement and to its follow-up, without replacing the relevant organizations or overlapping with their work.

(ii) Ensuring that essential peace-related expenditures are reflected in the economic programme of a country and that adequate financing from foreign and domestic resources is secured.
(iii) Identifying the needs of different target groups and designing reintegration options to suit local conditions.

(iv) Assessing credit schemes in terms of their affording ability by beneficiaries in order not to burden the beneficiaries with debts they cannot possibly service.

(v) Providing some kind of indemnity through a reintegration support-scheme to demobilize military personnel who, given the difficulties and long-term nature of the process of reintegration, are likely to be unemployed for a certain period of time, depending to a large extent on the possibilities for economic reactivation and employment creation of the country. This can act as a strong incentive and facilitate smooth demobilization and reduce the risk of demobilized soldiers becoming involved in criminal activities.

Substantive Activities:

(i) Promoting sustainable employment through an integrated approach involving inter-linked activities in the areas of employment-intensive rehabilitation/reconstruction programmes at the community level, skills and entrepreneurship training and small enterprise development.

(ii) Arranging allocation (or purchase) of land for cultivation of and providing essential inputs and support (seeds, farm tools, draught animals, extension services).

(iii) Facilitating private-sector development through skill training, business training, credit and support services (raw materials, technology, marketing).
(iv) Facilitating job creation in the formal sector by increasing the employment intensity of public and private investment programmes.

(v) Undertaking employment-intensive programmes for rehabilitation and reconstruction of infrastructure (roads, bridges, communication and transport networks, schools, clinics and health facilities, water supply systems, community facilities).

(vi) Reactivating formal and informal commercial networks for both production inputs (seeds, fertilizers) and final products.

(vii) Facilitating housing for target groups.

(viii) Sensitizing and encouraging the receiving communities, especially in area of high density of target groups, and designing and implementing special local investment and social service programmes.

Support Activities:

(i) Defining the role of NGOs, Church group workers’ and employers’ organizations, and other NSEs, relevant under different programmes.

(ii) Capacity-building in voluntary organizations of demobilized combatants (veterans’ associations).

(iii) Capacity-building of “delivery mechanism” and community-based organizations to operate effectively in post-conflict situations.

(iv) Making provisions for literacy and remedial education programmes and accelerated vocational and technical training.

(v) Establishing job placement and counselling mechanism.
(vi) Establishing and strengthening a non-discriminatory legislative and institutional framework for all affected groups, especially for property rights, contractual obligations and civil rights.

(vii) Providing and enforcing protective measures, including amnesties and other guarantees concerning the safety of returnees.

(viii) Assisting in improving and strengthening the social cohesion of communities through shelter and human settlements programmes.

(ix) Identifying those factors which make illicit forms of income-generation (including drug production and trafficking) compelling to refugees and displaced persons. Providing external assistance in a sustainable manner to limit the appeal of such factors.

(c) ADDRESSING THE NEEDS OF OTHER VULNERABLE GROUPS

WOMEN

Although they may not necessarily have been engaged in combat, women suffer during and after conflict, as a result of role changes (income earners, household heads), displacement (loss of traditional family, and community support networks), psycho social trauma (loss of family members), physical abuse (rape and torture) and subsequent problems of acceptance by the post-conflict receiving community. The need to provide special assistance programmes for the re-integration of women has not been fully recognized.

Activities covered here are of two types: substantive and supportive.

Substantive Activities
(i) Promoting measures aimed at ensuring the participation of women in all levels of public life (economic and political); in particular, after a conflict, ensuring the presence and effective participation of women in all public structures which work for consolidation of the peace process and respect for the peace agreements (at the community level as well as at the national level).

(ii) Providing services to maintain women's health, including support for nutrition, disease prevention and reproductive health services.

(iii) Providing specific assistance and training on health implication of communicable diseases (AIDS has taken a serious turn for the worse because of wars and conditions of refugee and settlement camps).

(iv) Providing psychological care and counselling for action of rape and other forms of sexual violence within a framework of programmes to meet the general needs of women, children and adolescents. The presence of female staff is essential for the provision of these services.

(v) Developing and implementing special programmes of reintegration through the creation of sustainable livelihoods (e.g., facilitating access to land, property and other assets).

(vi) Promoting women's access to special education and vocational training and business training programmes to increase their employability and income-generating opportunities.
(vii) Improving women's access to credit through flexible schemes in combination with business training to enable them to establish small and micro-enterprises in the rural, urban and informal sectors.

(viii) Promoting women's employment in all sectors, including the formal sector, through post-conflict affirmative action programmes.

(ix) Providing counselling and support-services to cover specific conflict-related needs (capacity-building for post-conflict women's organizations, dealing with psychological trauma, facilitating access to employment and income generating activities and facilitating access to training and credit).

Support Activities

(i) Raising awareness among reintegration planners of the special needs of women ex-combatants and other vulnerable groups.

(ii) Establishing and strengthening a non-discriminatory legislative and institutional framework for the protection of women's legitimate rights, and providing and enforcing protective measures.

CHILDREN AND MINORS

There are two aspects: child combatants involved directly in conflict-activities (not necessarily fighting) and children affected by conflict directly and indirectly. The needs at the macro level appear to be the same, but at the micro level they could be quite different. Child combatants under the age of 16 years are frequently not covered by reintegration programmes because they are not recognized as combatants. This generally means to coverage or only a humanitarian approach which, in any case, is limited by
funding and capacity. The overall problem of children affected by conflict is very large and can also be divided into a few categories. In this regard, activities which may be performed by NSEs may include the following:

(i) Assessing the condition of children affected by the war.

(ii) Advocating policies and programmes which contribute to the preservation or re-establishment of a stable family environment.

(iii) Ensuring that preventive measures are taken to limit factors likely to induce drug abuse among minors traumatized by conflict.

(iv) Developing special reintegration programmes for ex-combatants who are minors.

(v) Ensuring the rapid re-opening of schools and other community services to meet children's basic rules.

(vi) Ensuring the rapid identification, adequate documentation and medical screening of unaccompanied children.

(vii) Setting up programmes for family tracing and family reunification.

(viii) Supporting foster families or orphanages for displaced, orphaned and abandoned children in countries where there is no tradition for caring for extended family and children. Otherwise, children should have a normal family life.

(ix) Developing programmes for the prevention of prostitution of minors.

(x) Providing health-related activities for children, including physical rehabilitation of disabled children.

(xi) Providing culturally appropriate and community-based counselling to minors traumatized by war.
(xii) Training social workers and teachers with respect to the specific needs of minors in different circumstances.

(xiii) Providing assistance to single mothers and displaced mothers with children (day care centres, literacy programmes, training for income generation and small-scale loan programmes).

(xiv) Developing vocational training programmes for street children.

PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES

Conflicts create large numbers of physically and mentally wounded, many of whom suffer permanent disability. This is particularly the case when use is made of weapons, such as mines, which wound rather than kill many victims, and in cases of intra-State conflicts, whose physical and mental abuse of non-combatants may inflict psychological damage. Peace-building requires a concerted effort to reintegrate these victims of war into society. Relevant activities may include the following:

(i) Identifying disabilities among non-combatants, as well as combatants, and assessing the short and long-term needs.

(ii) Providing emergency relief and humanitarian assistance for immediate medical rehabilitation and emergency survey procedures for base-line assessment.

(iii) Providing low-cost technical aids, prostheses and wheel chairs, and encouraging technology transfer in this area.

(iv) Planning and designing transport housing and public structures to provide accessibility for all persons.
(v) Encouraging community-based rehabilitation, including training of trainers for personal assistance to the disabled and measures to facilitate the independence of the disabled to provide services and to create opportunities for the social integration and the economic independence of disabled individuals in local communities.

(vi) Preventing disabilities through demining.

(vii) Advocating any legislation necessary to protect the human rights of disabled persons, and taking action to prevent further violation of human rights that would be a major cause of disability.

(viii) Integrating people with disabilities (including moderately disabled persons, people with less obvious disabilities, households having a disabled person and elderly disabled persons) into the planning and management of all programmes and activities and avoiding the segregation or institutionalization of disabled people.

(ix) Ensuring that programme of vocational training, education, civil rights legislation and health care respond to the needs of people with disabilities.

(x) Ensuring that health care, education, vocational training and employment programmes include persons with disabilities.

(xi) Creating a fund for the war-disabled (including children) so that those with disabilities that do not allow them to work, and their families, have a source of income.

(xii) Creating a solidarity fund for the continued supply of artificial limbs, wheel chairs and other support for children disabled by conflict.
(3) ENHANCEMENT OF HUMAN RIGHTS AND BUILDING PARTICIPATORY SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT AT ALL LEVELS

(a) STRENGTHENING HUMAN RIGHTS

The violation of human rights has often been one of the causes of conflicts, and human rights have usually suffered further as a result of the conflict itself. This includes violation of the principles of international humanitarian law, especially in intra-State conflicts. Enhancing respect for human rights, in all its aspects, should be a cornerstone of peace-building efforts. Faithful observance of the rules of international humanitarian law during and immediately after violent conflicts could also advance the goal of peace and stability. Activities in this respect include –

(i) Determining modalities for United Nations human rights activity, for example, an international tribunal, a commission of inquiry, a “truth commission”, a human rights observation mission (on its own or within or co-deployed with a peace-keeping operations), a United Nations human rights office, a programme of technical advice and cooperation, an education campaign, or visiting special rapporteurs or working groups.

(ii) Healing conflict-torn societies (ending impunity, bringing human rights violations to justice, establishing mechanisms to bring to light misdeeds of war with the help of “truth commission”, granting amnesty and security guarantees to former parties to conflicts, ensuring accountability and national reconciliation) and purging the military, police, judiciary and other organs of the State.

(iii) Assisting and rehabilitating victim of human rights violations.
(iv) Tracing disappeared persons (normally a function of the International Committee of the Red Cross).

(v) Collecting information about human rights violations and channeling it to national and international including United Nations human rights bodies.

(vi) Maintaining human rights, investigating and publicizing violations and undertaking public education.

(vii) Providing public information and basic education to enhance awareness at all levels of society of international human rights standards.

(viii) Providing protection to women and children through specific sensitization of police forces.

(ix) Mobilizing the media to disseminate information on human rights and to divulge violations.

(x) Human rights training in primary, secondary and tertiary education.

(b) STRENGTHENING A PARTICIPATORY SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT

The lack of a participatory system of government is at the heart of many of the intra-State conflicts in the world today. Long-term consolidation of peace requires that this situation be remedied by using a model of participatory system of government that is not imported and that responds to the aspirations and the cultural values of the people. It is necessary to enable all members of society without discrimination, to participate fully in political, civil, economic, social and cultural life, with a view to preventing a return to violence. This frequently requires constitutional reform, electoral
reform, judicial reform, and reform of the police and armed forces. It also requires ratification of ILO standards. Activities covered under this respect are the following –

(i) Consolidating freedom of expression and information (including freedom of the press), the right of peaceful assembly, freedom of association and freedom of movement.

(ii) Consolidating the right to participation in government directly or through freely chosen representatives, without distinction of any kind.

(iii) Consolidating the right of every citizen to vote and to be elected at genuine periodic elections on the basis of universal and equal suffrage, held by secret ballot, guaranteeing the free expression of the will of the electors, including former insurgents.

(iv) Consolidating the right of every citizen to have equal access to public service.

(v) Strengthening mechanisms of governmental accountability.

(vi) Facilitating the establishment and registration of political parties and trade unions.

(vii) Strengthening the mechanism of participation at the community level, including the participation of women, in the planning, implementation and evaluation of economic, social and other programmes.

(viii) Respecting or strengthening local or national traditional forms of popular participation.
(ix) Developing measures for the full participation of persons belonging to national, ethnic, religious or linguistic minorities, including disabled persons in these populations, in all aspects of the political, economic, social, religious and cultural life of society and in the development of their country.

(x) Developing measures to ensure the full and free participation of indigenous people in all aspects of society, in particular in matters of concern to them.

(xi) Developing training programmes and information campaigns to raise awareness and consciousness among people about their rights to participate in the political and economic life of their country and about the way they can do it according to the laws and constitution of the country.

(c) ELECTIONS

The role of the United Nations is not only to maintain peace but also to help create an environment in which peace can be sustained. In this context, the provision of supervision and/or assistance for the conduct of free and fair elections in which populations in post-conflict situations can determinate their own political future, can be of paramount importance. In some cases, the United Nations will be involved in the actual planning, organizing and conducting of the elections (e.g., Cambodia). In the regard, relevant activities are:

(i) Undertaking, on the basis of a request from the Government, a needs assessment mission to clarify the type of United Nations involvement, the support available from non-United Nations parties
or sectors, and the political, human rights, logistical and security situation in the country.

(ii) Formulating the modalities, time-table and financial requirements of the electoral assistance to be provided by the United Nations.

(iii) Providing technical assistance to the electoral authorities, including the drafting of electoral laws, and coordinating and supporting other international observers.

(iv) Providing coordination and accreditation of and logistical support to international observers, who become an important part of the monitoring and international legitimation that a successful election requires.

(v) Supporting different groups participating in elections. In a peacekeeping operation the intellectual and operational equilibrium between parties is an essential element for the effective and timely implementation of the peace agreement. Often a guerrilla organization which has spent many years in the bush needs financial and logistical support in order to settle in the capital and to be able to function properly as a political party. If this process is not solved, the peace process can become endless. The creation of a trust fund with the support of the international community to facilitate the transformer of military organizations into political parties may be the solution.

(vi) Undertaking civic and voter education programmes and determining rules of conduct in election campaign monitoring.
(vii) Undertaking public relations activities, particularly in the country but also elsewhere, to explain and promote the purpose and scope of United Nations involvement.

(viii) Establishing a political environment conducive to free and fair elections.

(ix) Training election personnel in election techniques (procedures for logistics, registration, voting, ballot counting and complaint adjudication).

(x) Helping to monitor the correct functioning of democratic institutions after the completion of the peace-keeping operation and the holding of free and fair elections. Otherwise, there is a serious risk that the newly elected parliament will be given a marginal role to play.

(xi) Establishing a trust fund earmarked for the proper functioning of democratic institutions, especially the legislative and judicial powers, getting a much intellectual and financial support from the international community as possible.

(xii) Providing post-election assistance aimed at facilitating the transition from election and democratization activities to the establishment of programmes for good governance.

(d) CRIME PREVENTION AND THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE

Law and order has often broken down as a result of intra-State conflicts, or has been exercised at great cost in terms of the violation of human rights. Rebuilding a system of justice and establishing or reestablishing the rule of law are among the necessary ingredients for an equitable and plural society in which the human rights of all citizens are
properly respected. Although criminal justice is usually a priority, strengthening the entire administration of justice and ensuring a functioning judiciary is sometimes required (e.g., in Rwanda there is a need for tribunals to adjudicate property claims effectively, efficiently and authoritatively). NSEs in this respect may help in the following activities:

(i) Obtaining a comprehensive view of the existing criminal justice arrangements and the law and order situation in the country.

(ii) Undertaking a needs assessment exercise for each element of the criminal justice system (e.g., the police, the judiciary, prosecutorial services, the legal profession and correctional arrangements).

(iii) Identifying the need for new or revised legislation, paying particular attention to the country's legal tradition but taking into account universally accepted principles.

(iv) Determining the level of local expertise and identifying modalities, such as, for improvement.

(v) Identifying the requirements for an effective and independent police force and criminal justice system, including facilities and equipment.

(vi) Establishing mechanisms for conflict prevention or peaceful resolution of conflicts and establishing an early warning system for preventing conflicts or escalation of conflicts.

(vii) Identifying the financial resources required for strengthening national capacity to maintain law and order so that both the police and the judiciary can be served by people of the highest standards.
(viii) Providing external assistance in the preparation of new or revised legislation, managing the criminal justice system, upgrading professional skills and providing new equipment.

(ix) Establishing in circumstances of national institutional collapse, a transitional criminal justice system with capacities to arrest, hold and perhaps even by criminal suspects (e.g., Cambodia, Somalia).

(4) REHABILITATION, RECONSTRUCTION AND RECONCILIATION

(a) REHABILITATION AND RECONSTRUCTION

In addition to all activities listed below, there are a number of wide-ranging activities that are also likely to be of critical importance in the process of rehabilitation and reconstruction.

Initial conditions in the respective countries, including domestic capabilities and institutional memory and the deterioration to which they were subjected during the conflict, will determine the appropriate policy mix required for the restoration of production and trade. Although such situations may provide an opportunity to eliminate some of the inefficient structures of the past and to adopt more modern technologies and efficient policies, it is important to keep in mind that under these conditions Governments are likely to operate under serious financial and other constraints determined by insufficient trained staff, systems, uncertainty regarding means of payments and large needs for economic reconstruction and rehabilitation.

In countries coming out of conflict or other chaos situations, adequate domestic economic policies and international support to ensure that such situations never recur are imperative. In this regard, the design of
economic policy in general, and fiscal, monetary and exchange rate policies and institutions in particular, should be oriented towards facilitating reconstruction and peace consolidation. Priority should also be given to modernization of the public sector as well as private sector development.

The damage to and/or destruction of industrial production and service facilities as well as housing and engineering structures is often widespread. The social fabric of society as well as the social infrastructure are frequently seriously damaged. The issue of employment promotion and related training as well as technical assistance in planning and programming recovery programmes should be consolidated in relation to all post-conflict situations. An inventory of amicable trained manpower to use in the reconstruction and rehabilitation process is important. The issue of medium and long-term planning to allow for a link between early intervention and longer term durable reconstruction is critical.

Environmental issues are often at the heart of conflicts (e.g., Somalia and to a certain extent Rwanda) and, unless these issues are addressed, the rehabilitation and reconstruction work may well be unsustainable. The environmental consequences of war are often devastating, as in the case of the Gulf war of 1991. The wider impact of crises should also take into account the impact of returning refugees.

A quick restoration of communications services in the post-conflict period invariably serves as a morale-booster for affected populations. Revival of postal links within the country and with the world outside goes a long way in restoring public confidence in the peace process.
(b) TRANSPORT

Destroyed and damaged roads, bridges and other transport infrastructure, including air transport, are a severe constraint on the reactivation of normal economic life in a post-conflict situation. Rehabilitation of basic road and air transport as well as ports, harbours and inland waterways infrastructure is essential for the restoration of the movement of goods and people and hence for economic activity in general. Activities under this category may include the following:

Short-Term Activities

(i) Assessing the damage to different modes of transport.
(ii) Identifying priority repair and reconstruction and quantifying costs.
(iii) Identifying the needs for and sources of: labour supplies and materials; equipment and spare parts; technical assistance and training.
(iv) Preparing standard-design packages for structures on specific designs for each site based on survey information.
(v) Repairing infrastructure for all transport modes.
(vi) Acquiring the immediately necessary transport equipment.

Medium-Term Activities

(i) Restoring a maintenance system for all transport modes, including the necessary training.
(ii) Restoring safety conditions for transport: standard air traffic control and ground safety; safety on roads; and safety on railways.
Long-Term Activities

(i) Developing a transport policy (including investment levels, means of funding, ownership arrangements).

(ii) Preparing a transport master plan defining model roles and plans for future rehabilitation and reconstruction needs.

(c) ENERGY

In many post-conflict situations, one of the priority actions needed is the urgent development of programmes for the rehabilitation, upgrading, operation and maintenance of power plants and transmission systems in order to restore and enhance the provision of power supply to industries, agriculture, transport and households. In some situations, the presence of power and/or research reactors may require special measures. Activities performed by NSEs in this respect are the following:

(i) Assessing the energy supply and demand situation in the post-conflict area; appraisal of patterns of energy use and opportunities for inter-fuel substitution.

(ii) Assessing the condition of equipment required for control, monitoring, measuring, testing, transmission and end-use.

(iii) Defining the requirements for the repair, upgrading and retrofitting of power plants and transmission systems.

(iv) Defining the energy management options to develop an integrated energy resources planning strategy which emphasizes energy demand management and efficiency improvements.

(v) Installing measuring, metering, monitoring and testing equipments.
(vi) Developing standardized operation and maintenance plans and manuals.

(vii) Developing training programmes in energy management, maintenance skills and repair techniques.

(viii) Developing and installing maintenance and energy management systems.

(ix) Surveying small-scale installations and renewable energy sources for supplying electricity to isolated areas.

(x) Formulating a national energy policy, including the reorganization of the tariff structure and promotion of new and renewable sources of energy.

(d) REHABILITATION OF CIVIL SOCIETY

As conflicts are increasingly recognized to have social origins, so social structures and processes are likely to be profoundly affected by conflicts, whatever their nature may be. The need to heal the social fabric of societies, to foster the re-establishment of relations among groups that were previously in conflict, to strengthen the civil institutions that represent them and to promote participation of the population in the formulation of rehabilitation programmes may be decisive in avoiding a recurrence of the conflict. Relevant activities are the following:

At the national level

(i) Socio-cultural analysis: analyse the culture, traditions and institutions in the country and in the regions where conflict has occurred to facilitate peacemaking and the design of post-conflict
activities. Focus on the origin of social differentiation; structures of authority within ethnic groups and within their subdivisions, and relevant cultural characteristics.

(ii) Social impact analysis: identification of potential beneficiaries of the peace process.

(iii) Capacity-building: national institutions responsible for planning need to have the capacity to assess the social effects of the conflict. This entails an analysis of the composition of the population resulting from migration, internal displacement, population movements in terms of ethnic composition, age and gender, social vulnerability (prevalence and location of groups of the population that the war has made vulnerable); problems with the reintegration of young people; social institutions; family, marriage and fertility.

At the local level

(i) Assessment of local social needs: communities, organizations, vulnerable and ethnic groups affected by war, and those included in the negotiations, should present their priorities for the formulation of medium and long-term rehabilitation programmes.

(ii) Promotion of social solidarity and cohesion within the communities with potential for renewed conflict: innovative programmes must be designed emphasizing cultural, ethnic or religious diversity, and institutions must be developed with a view to strengthening community solidarity and reducing community violence.
(e) INTER-STATE JOINT VENTURES FOR PEACE-BUILDING

One of the fundamental prerequisites for global peace is friendly and
good-neighbourly relations among countries. Although United Nations post-
conflict peace-building is largely devoted to intra-state settings, it is
essential to involve previously hostile parties to inter-state conflict in
mutually beneficial undertakings which will not only contribute to economic
and social development but also act as confidence-building measures
necessary for lasting peace. Activities relevant here are the following:

(i) Establishing legal and operative frameworks for cooperation.

(ii) Setting up consultative procedures for the harmonization and
coordination of policies on issues of common interest in the
economic, social, environmental, technological and political fields.

(iii) Setting up mechanisms for the selection of projects and
establishing a consolidated system of operational, administrative
and financial management of projects.

(iv) Establishing an information exchange system on technical
capacities, projects past successes, information sources, training
programmes and the like.

(v) Formulating an emergency inter-country programme for dealing
with urgent issues such as demining; demobilization; integration of
ex-combatants, returnees, displaced persons and food aid.

(vi) Identifying and evaluating financing machinery and provision of
financing agreements.

(vi) Establishing common marketing services to support marketing of
products in the region (evaluation of productive projects, market
research, identification of dealers and exporters of proposed products, preparation of a registry of enterprises, traders and exporters).

(viii) Promoting regional cultural and sporting events.

(ix) Elaborating joint education and awareness programmes for human rights and the culture of peace targeted to educational systems, institutions of law enforcement, the media, groups of opinion leaders and the general population.

(x) Developing peaceful conflict-resolution methods based on a common cultural and traditional heritage.

(xi) Establishing a standing inter-state office for crisis prevention and crisis monitoring.

(D) DISARMAMENT ON AN AGREED BASIS

This type of disarmament is not of the coercive nature.\(^{53}\) Hence, it is included under the peaceful role of NSEs. Broadly speaking, “disarmament” is a process of reducing the size of and expenditures on armed forces, dismantling and destroying weapons, progressively eliminating the capacity to produce new weapons, and releasing military personnel and integrating them into civilian life. Policy-makers in some countries oppose the use of the word “disarmament” partly because it is assumed to mean discarding weapons altogether, and partly because they view it as too narrow a term. They prefer the expression “arms control”: a regime regulating, constraining or reducing weapons and military activities according to the terms of specific policies or agreements. Other countries have maintained that

\(^{53}\) See supplement to an Agenda for Peace, n. 32, para 23, pp. 57-62.
“arms control” does not necessarily imply a commitment to limit and reduce arms, and favour the term “disarmament”.

Since its founding, the United Nations has considered the issue of disarmament to be among one of its priority concerns. It was during the Cold War that the General Assembly held two special sessions on Disarmament, in 1978 and 1982. These sessions served the purpose of identifying long-term objectives, priority, issues and strategies.

One of the decisions reached by the first Special Session on Disarmament (SSODI) was to establish a Disarmament Fellowship Programme at the United Nations which is now attended by diplomats from thirty countries. The Second Special Session on Disarmament (SSODII) launched a World Disarmament Campaign aimed at generating public understanding and support for the organizations having disarmament objectives.

The General Assembly works through two bodies open to all members: the Disarmament and International Security Committee (First Committee), which deals with all disarmament items on the Assembly’s agenda, and the United Nations Disarmament Commission, a specialized deliberative body which focuses on specific issues. Together, these bodies give the entire UN membership the regular opportunity to deliberate and make recommendations on all items of interest in the field of disarmament and international security and peace.

The Conference on Disarmament, which has a limited number of members, is the single global disarmament negotiating forum. The Conference has a unique relationship with the United Nations. The
conference defines its own rules of procedure and develop its own agenda, taking into account the recommendations of the General Assembly, and reports to the Assembly annually. It has considered a wide range of items related to nuclear and other weapons of mass destruction as well as to conventional weapons. For example, after long negotiations, it concluded the 1992 Chemical Weapons Convention. The Conference also concluded Comprehensive Nuclear Test Ban Treaty (CTBT).

The United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research (UNIDIR) is an autonomous institution established by the General Assembly in 1980 to undertake independent research on disarmament and related problems, particularly international security. UNIDIR's current work covers three main lines of research: nuclear non-proliferation, disarmament and conflict resolution, concentrating on the disarmament of warring parties as an integral part of peace-keeping operations; and regional security issues, mainly on arms limitation and confidence-building in the Middle East.

The UN disarmament agenda for the future is likely to be placed in the context of broader political initiatives for preventive diplomacy, peace-making and peace-keeping. Whereas peace-keeping deals with the incidence of armed conflicts, preventive diplomacy addresses the causes of conflicts and peace-making addresses the consequences of conflicts. Disarmament deals with the instruments of armed conflicts and its tasks continue irrespective of whether or not these instruments are actually used.

The elimination of nuclear weapons and of other weapons of mass destruction (WMD) continue to be major disarmament concerns, especially after 9/11. At the same time, other issues have been gaining prominence.
In an innovative step, arms transfers of major conventional weapons systems are being monitored by the United Nations Register of Conventional Arms, opened in 1992. The Secretary-General is promoting efforts to address the problem of land-mines and other light weapons. Efforts are also under way to deal with the growing need for conversion from military to civilian fields of activity and for the safe and cost-effective destruction of weapons. The question of verification and compliance with the wide range of agreements now in existence has taken a new importance in the context of regional measures of confidence-building.

Among the major areas for ongoing efforts at disarmament, in which NSEs may also perform some activities, in the near future are the following:

1. Multilateral negotiations and conclusion on an understanding to bring CTBT into force.
2. Measures to strengthen the Biological Weapons Convention, including consideration of possible verification procedures.

VI. OTHER PEACEFUL ROLES

Besides the above-mentioned peaceful roles, NSEs can perform some other peaceful roles also. Important roles among them are the following:
1. REGIONAL ARRANGEMENTS-RELATED ROLES

Under Chapter VIII of the UN Charter, NSEs can play a variety of roles relating to regional arrangements or agencies. They can make efforts in promoting cooperation of regional organizations with other organizations including the United Nations. Boutros-Ghali rightly says: "The Charter deliberately provides no precise definition of regional arrangements and agencies, thus allowing useful flexibility for undertakings by a group of States to deal with a matter appropriate for regional action which also could contribute to the maintenance of international peace and security." Such associations or entities could include treaty-based organizations created before or after the founding of the United Nations, as well as regional organizations for mutual security and defence. Besides these entities, others may include organizations for general regional development or for cooperation on a particular economic topic or function and groups created to deal with specific current political, social or economic issues.

Regional arrangements or agencies can possess the potential that could be utilized in serving the functions relating to the innovative measures and their departures. Although the Security Council has the primary responsibility to maintain international peace and security, NSEs can be involved in regional action as a matter of decentralization, delegation and cooperation with the United Nations. Such efforts would not only lighten the burden of the Security Council but also contribute to a

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54 See An Agenda for Peace, n. 20, para 60-65.
55 Ibid., para 61.
56 Ibid.
57 Ibid.
58 Ibid., para 64.
sense of democratization, participation and consensus in international affairs. Consultations between regional arrangements and agencies and the United Nations could do much to build consensus on the nature of a problem and the measures required to address it. Regional arrangements or agencies may participate in complementary efforts with the United Nations and in joint undertakings of it. Such participation would encourage States outside the region to act supportively. The Security Council can choose specifically to authorize a regional organization to take the lead in addressing a crisis within its region. Such a choice of authorization could serve to lend the weight of the United Nations to the validity of the regional efforts.

Regional organizations were created because of the absence of a truly universal collective security system. But the position of such organizations has changed after the establishment of the United Nations. The end of the Cold War has made further changes in their position. Accordingly, the United Nations has recently encouraged a variety of complementary efforts. Boutros-Ghali rightly observes: "Just as not two regions or situations are the same, so the design of cooperative work and its division of labour must adapt to the realities of each case with flexibility and creativity". This new type of utilization of regional organizations may be illustrated by a few examples. In Africa, three different regional groups – the Organization of African Unity (OAU), the League of Arab States and

59 Ibid.
60 Ibid.
61 Ibid.
62 Ibid.
63 Ibid, para 62.
64 Ibid.
the Islamic Conference - joined hands with the United Nations in dealing with the crisis in Somalia. In the Asian context, for example, the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) brought the parties to the Cambodian conflict together at an international conference in Paris. Both ASEAN and the UN worked together in this context. In the case of El Salvador, a unique arrangement, known as "the Friends of the Secretary-General", reached through the mediation of the Secretary-General. On the Nicaragua issue, a highly complex effort was initiated by leaders of the region and conducted by individual States. Efforts undertaken by the European Community with the support of its member States and States participating in the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe (CSCE) have been of central importance in dealing with the crisis in the Balkans and neighbouring areas.

2. COORDINATION

Just as the United Nations does not claim a monopoly of the instruments discussed above, neither can it alone apply them. All the efforts of the Security Council, the General Assembly and the Secretary-General to control and resolve conflicts need the cooperation and support of other players on the international stage: the Governments that constitute the United Nations membership, regional and non-governmental organizations, and the various funds, programmes, offices and agencies of the United Nations system itself. If United Nations efforts are to succeed,
the roles of the various players need to be carefully coordinated in an integrated approach to human security.65

A new trend in recent years has been the establishment of informal groups of Member States, created on an ad hoc basis to support the Secretary-General in the discharge of peace-making and peace-keeping mandates entrusted to him. They are normally referred to as "Friends of the Secretary-General for ...." They have no formal mandate from the General Assembly or the Security Council and comprise States with a particular interest in the conflict in question. They have material and diplomatic resources that can be used to support the Secretary-General's efforts. Their value to him is as a sounding board, as a source of ideas and comments and as a diplomatic instrument for bringing influence to bear on the parties. This arrangement has been of value in a number of instances. It is nevertheless necessary to maintain a clear understanding of who is responsible for what. The Secretary-General has the mandate from the relevant inter-governmental body and must remain in the lead. The members of the "Friends" group have agreed to support the Secretary-General at his request. If they take initiatives not required by the Secretary-General, there is a risk of duplication or overlapping of efforts, which can be exploited by recalcitrant parties. Such initiatives can also raise questions in the inter-governmental body that expects the Secretary-General to retain responsibility for the mandate entrusted to him and to report to that body on his implementation of it.66

65 See Supplement to An Agenda for Peace, n. 32, para 81.
66 Ibid, para 83-84.
Non-governmental organizations also play an important role in all United Nations activities concerning collective security. The changed nature of the United Nations operation in the field has made it necessary to devise procedures that do not compromise their non-governmental status but do ensure that their efforts are properly coordinated with those of the United Nations and its programmes, funds, offices and agencies. Non-governmental organizations have also had great success in mobilizing public support and funds for humanitarian relief in countries affected by international or domestic conflict.67

Within the United Nations system there are three levels at which coordination is required: within the United Nations Secretariat; between United Nations Headquarters and the head offices of other funds, programmes, offices and agencies of the United Nations system; and in the field.68

The multifunctional nature of both peace-keeping and peace-building has made it necessary to improve coordination within the Secretariat, so that the relevant departments function as an integrated whole under the authority and control of the Secretary-General. Proposals the Secretary-General makes to the General Assembly or the Security Council on peace and security issues need to be based on coordinated inputs from the departments of Political Affairs, Peace-keeping Operations, Humanitarian Affairs and Administration and Management and others. Guidance to the field must similarly be coordinated, in order to ensure that chiefs of

67 Ibid, para 90.
68 Ibid, para 90.
missions do not receive conflicting institutions from different authorities within the Secretariat.⁶⁹

In an international bureaucracy inter-departmental cooperation and coordination come even less naturally than they do in a national environment. It has required some efforts to ensure that the above objectives are met. The Secretary-General has been entrusted with the main responsibility in this regard to the Task Force on United Nations operations and to inter-departmental groups at the working level on each major conflict where the organization is playing a peace-making and peace-keeping role.⁷⁰

Improved coordination is equally necessary within the United Nations system as a whole. The responsibilities involved in multifunctional peace-keeping operations and in peace-building transcend the competence and expertise of any one department, programme, fund, office or agency of the United Nations. Short-term programmes are needed for cease-fires, demobilization, humanitarian relief and refugee return; but it is the longer-term programmes that help rebuild societies and put them back on the path of development. Short-term and long-term programmes need to be planned and implemented in a coordinated way if they are to contribute to the consolidation of peace and development.⁷¹

Such coordination has to date proved difficult to achieve. Each of the agencies concerned has its own inter-governmental legislative body and its own mandate. In the past, there also has been insufficient interaction, in

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⁶⁹ Ibid, para 91.
⁷⁰ Ibid, para 92.
⁷¹ Ibid, para 93.
both directions, between those responsible in the Secretariat for designing and implementing peace-making, peace-keeping and peace-building activities and the international financial institutions, who often have an all-important say in making sure that the necessary resources are available.\textsuperscript{72}

As regards coordination in the field, the current practice, when a peace-keeping operation is deployed, is to entrust this task to a Special Representative of the Secretary-General. Cambodia, El Salvador and Mozambique are successful examples, not least because of the cooperation extended to the Special Representatives by the various other components of the United Nations system.\textsuperscript{73}

3. FINANCIAL SUPPORT

Nothing could be done for the collective security system without the financial support. Governments provide the necessary financial resources. There is no other direct source of funds. The failure of Member States to pay their assessed contributions for activities they themselves have voted into being makes it impossible to carry out those activities to the standard expected. It also calls in question the credibility of those who have willed the ends but not the means - and who then criticize the United Nations for its failure.\textsuperscript{74}

A chasm has developed between the tasks entrusted to this organization and the financial means provided to it. As the Secretary General rightly observed, the truth of the matter is that our vision cannot

\textsuperscript{72} Ibid, para 94.
\textsuperscript{73} Ibid, para 95.
\textsuperscript{74} Ibid, para 97.
really extend to the prospect opening before us as long as our financing remains myopic. 75

The financial crisis is particularly debilitating as regards peace-keeping. 76 The costs of peace-keeping operations are usually apportioned among UN Member States. Observer Missions are generally financed out of the regular administrative budget of the United Nations. Peace-keeping forces are usually financed from separate budgets, which include reimbursement to troop-contributing countries for their “out-of-pocket” expenses. Each Member State is addressed for a certain share of the cost. The scale of assessments, established by the General Assembly, takes into account the relative economic wealth of countries, with the permanent members of the Security Council assessed a larger share.

Despite the new consensus, in favour of peace-keeping, a number of countries continue to decline to pay their share on grounds of principle, while others are behind in their payments. This situation puts an intolerable burden on troop-contributing countries, which usually bear the bulk of the expenses. The failure of Member States to meet their financial obligations for peace-keeping ultimately risks jeopardizing the missions for which the operations were launched, and undercutting the peace-making efforts that depend on them.

Peace-building is another activity that is critically dependent on Member States’ readiness to make the necessary resources available. It can be a long-term process and expensive, except in comparison with the cost of peace-making and peace-keeping if the conflict should recur. One

75 See An Agenda for Peace, n. 20, para 69.
76 See Supplement to An Agenda for Peace, n. 32, para 98.
lesson learnt in recent years is that, in putting together the peace-building elements in a comprehensive settlement plan, the United Nations should consult the international financial institutions well in time to ensure that the cost of implementing the plan is taken into account in the design of the economic plans of the Government concerned. The problems in this area are aggravated by many donors' reluctance to finance crucial elements such as the conversion of guerrillas' movements into political parties, the creation of new police forces or the provision of credit for the purchase of land in “arms for land” programmes.\[77\]

Hence, the peaceful role of NSEs is of expanding nature in its scope and functions in the collective security system of the United Nations. But, NSEs can also play coercive role in the collective security system of the United Nations. Such role of NSEs is dealt in detail in the next chapter.

\[77\] Ibid, para 10.