

DIRECTORATE-GENERAL FOR EXTERNAL POLICIES
POLICY DEPARTMENT



**CSDP MISSIONS AND
OPERATIONS:**
**LESSONS LEARNED
PROCESSES**

SEDE



DIRECTORATE-GENERAL FOR EXTERNAL POLICIES OF THE UNION

DIRECTORATE B

POLICY DEPARTMENT

STUDY

CSDP MISSIONS AND OPERATIONS: LESSONS LEARNED PROCESSES

Abstract

The first Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP) mission was launched in 2003. Since then the EU has launched 24 civilian missions and military operations. Despite the tendency of military operations to attract more attention, the majority of CSDP (Common Security and Defence Policy) interventions have been civilian missions. Since the beginning the actors involved in CSDP recognised the need to learn from the different aspects of missions and operations. The tools and methodologies to guarantee a successful learning process have evolved over time together with the evolution of CSDP. This study represents a first stock-taking exercise of the lessons learned processes at the EU level. The study is divided in three major components. The first component looks at the available literature on the subject of knowledge management with regard to CSDP missions and operations. The study then draws upon short case-studies from the 21 missions and operations to-date with a specific focus on the lessons identified and (possibly) learned in practice. The study concludes with a number of recommendations targeted at how the lessons learning processes could be improved including specific recommendations on the role of the European Parliament.

This study was requested by the European Parliament's Subcommittee on Security and Defence

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ABBREVIATIONS

BiH	Bosnia and Herzegovina
CHG	Civilian Headline Goals
CiLMA	Civilian Lessons Management Application
CIVCOM	Committee for Civilian Aspects of Crisis Management
CMPD	Crisis Management Planning Directorate
CPCC	Civilian Planning and Conduct Capabilities
CSDP	Commons Security and Defence Policy
DG IX	Directorate General of Civilian Crisis Management
DG RELEX	Directorate General of External Relations
EDA	European Defence Agency
EEAS	European Union External Action Service
ELMA	European Union Military Staff Lessons Management Application
ENTRi	Europe's New Training Initiative for Civilian Crisis Management
EP	European Parliament
ESDP	European Security and Defence Policy
EUISS	European Union Institute of Security Studies
EUMC	European Union Military Committee
EUMS	European Union Military Staff
EUSR	European Union Special Representative
EU	European Union
FFM	Fact Finding Mission
FPI	Foreign Policy Instrument
FYROM	Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia
HoM	Head of Mission
MMA	Mentoring, Monitoring, and Advising
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
OPLAN	Operational Plan
OSCE	Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe
PMG	Politico-Military Group
PSC	Political and Security Committee
SG/HR	Secretary General / High Representative
SSR	Security Sector Reform
UN-DPKO	United Nations – Department of Peacekeeping Operations

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The following *ad hoc* study reviews the existing literature and current knowledge on the topic of lessons learned processes for EU Common Security and Defence Policy missions and operations, with an overview of several past and current EU crisis management interventions. The study, requested by the European Parliament Sub-Committee on Security and Defence (SEDE), was elaborated by researchers at the Netherlands Institute for International Relations, 'Clingendael', Conflict Research Unit and at the Trans European Policy Studies Association (TEPSA). Research was conducted between January and March 2012. In that time, the authors undertook an extensive review of pertinent literature, including academic papers, official EU documents and archived sources, media reports, sources from other international defence and security coalitions, such as NATO and the UN-DPKO, publications of independent agencies affiliated to the EU, such as the EU Institute for Security Studies and the European Defence Agency, and research institutions unaffiliated with the EU. In addition, several interviews were carried out (under the Chatham House Rule) with EU officials and staff, both within and outside of EEAS structures, as well as mission staff. These sources inform both the structure and the content of the study. Upon the submission of the initial draft, a workshop was held in Brussels to provide the authors with comments. This workshop was attended by key interviewees, European Parliament and SEDE representatives, members of the public and external experts selected for their unique knowledge on the topic. The forum provided an opportunity to offer feedback to strengthen the draft in terms of precision, accuracy and relevance.

Since the beginning of Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP) interventions in 2003 the EU has launched 24 missions and operations. The EU recognised from CSDP's inception, the need to learn from its own experience in crisis management to improve capacities and efficacy. The methodologies and tools used for learning lessons and identify best practices have been evolving together with CSDP engagement. The literature review has revealed how, as the number of missions and operations increased, knowledge management moved from an *ad hoc* and bureaucratic exercise to a more systematic and defined set of processes. Formalised processes for collecting and learning lessons are still supplemented by informal ways of sharing lessons and finding solutions. However, it is unclear if these informal mechanisms, 'corridor talks' and information sharing through personal networks, contribute to change. While formalised processes mainly capture lessons at the planning and operational level, informal mechanisms seem to be used to address more politically sensitive lessons, such as the decision-making process of launching missions and operations, and mandate writing. More formal effort devoted to assessing the political and strategic level of CSDP could spur more rigorous discussion on the rationale underpinning EU crisis management intervention and on the adequacy of the tools adopted in missions and operations to achieve the desired objectives.

Various actors are involved in the learning processes, EU Military Staff (EUMS), Civilian Planning and Conduct Capability (CPCC) and the Crisis Management Planning Directorate (CMPD) being the headliners. The tools and procedures have been established separately for the civilian and military side, which is reflected in different approaches followed by the three main actors. EUMS leads the learning process for the military side and has developed a sophisticated and comprehensive approach to learning, including specific concepts, structures and tools. In 2008, specific guidelines were delineated on the identification and implementation of civilian missions' best practices and lessons. CMPD and CPCC share the responsibility for identifying lessons from civilian missions, leaving some ambiguity about who is accountable for initiating or overseeing the implementation of new policies or practices in light of these lessons (and thereby learning). The development of civilian concepts and tools for institutional learning (identification, analysis, and implementation) is still ongoing. It would be beneficial if all actors dedicated to lessons learned aligned their concepts and

terminology for processing the lessons that emerge from missions and operations. Recognising there have been attempts to improve the communication between the strategic, planning and operational level, much can still be done to bridge the various levels. Both for the civilian as for the military side, the main challenge lies in successfully implementing the new practices and policies to address lessons and improve efficiency.

This study identifies several challenges to learning embedded in the current lessons structures and procedures. The negative perception that lessons learned processes are a shaming and blaming exercise has been frequently flagged for discouraging cooperation. This perception could be counteracted by shifting to 'ideas to improve the system' or by including more best practices alongside lessons identified. Sensitivity of the actors involved in CSDP with regard to the content of lessons learned reports results in the 'polishing' and censoring of such reports. Seminars, such as the one organised by EUISS on EUFOR Tchad, and joint-exercises like those organised by the EUMS, provide opportunities for identifying and discussing sensitive lessons at a strategic and political level. These less formal events allow for a more open and candid evaluation of the practices and policies guiding the political-strategic actors during the planning phase. Related to this, political sensitivity also restricts access to lessons documents to EU External Action Service bodies and relative committees. This limits the capacities of other relevant EU actors, such as Foreign Policy Instrument, the European Parliament, ENTRI partners, and the European Defence Agency, to use lessons reports to improve their performance, or assist with implementing solutions and best practices.

The study also describes challenges to learning, embedded in the way lessons learned processes are organised and carried out. The first is the lack of clear and methodical dissemination strategies for the lessons identified by formal mechanisms. A more proactive approach of passing lessons to targeted actors responsible for implementation could help in closing the learning cycle. Despite attempts to follow more systematic collection of lessons, a second issue is weak coordination, particularly on the civilian side. The unclear division of labour and responsibilities between CMPD and CPCC creates parallel and yet non-complementary lines of reporting. Thirdly, lessons learned efforts are crippled by insufficient dedicated staff. Following through with the 2008 Guidelines, which envisage a dedicated Best Practice and Lessons Learned officer for each mission, could increase the capacity to identify, share and learn lessons. To make full use of these dedicated officers, the establishment of a network could allow Best Practice officers in the fields and in Brussels to communicate and share lessons between missions as well as vertically from up through the ranks of the EEAS bodies in Brussels. More human resources would not necessarily require a grand investment, but rather a few very strategically placed staff members.

In general throughout this study it emerges how lessons learned systems need a higher profile with the EEAS and EU more widely. Especially the support of high profile personalities could ensure that more attention is paid to the systematic identification and implementation of lessons across CSDP.

General recommendations on improving knowledge management

- The EUMS and CMPD could identify the target audience of the lessons learned documents to improve the strategy of disseminating lessons learned. A proactive approach would be to send relevant lessons reports to specific officers who can apply them directly in their work.
- Including best practices in lessons learned reports could help to alleviate the negative perception that lessons learned processes are a blaming and shaming exercise.
- Aligning lessons learned concepts used by the various bodies within EEAS and adopting common definitions could enhance civilian and military coordination, and serve a more comprehensive approach to lessons learned. Similarly, joint training on learning

methodologies and tools for EUMS, CPCC and CMPD Best Practice and Lessons officers could further promote a common approach.

- Formalising the analysis of the root causes underpinning lessons identified as well as proposing solutions to the issues could help ensure the implementation of the lessons in procedures and policies.
- Given its particular relevance to the lessons on financial procedures, FPI could be more formally integrated into the lessons learned process of CPCC, similar to the way ATHENA is involved in the lessons learned cycle of EUMS.
- Clarifying the division of labour between CPCC and CMPD with regard to lessons learned could help to establish a more structured, comprehensible and cooperative system for lessons learned.
- Exercises that involve all levels of actors from Brussels to the missions, such as the one planned for 2012, could increase the shared understanding of actors' respective roles and encourage more accountability. Also joint training of personnel from CPCC, CMPD and missions could promote harmonisation and deeper understanding of the dynamics at play at each working level.
- In order to improve the framework for learning lessons at the political strategic level, consideration should be given to systematising and developing informal tools for sharing and learning, such as EUISS seminars, workshops and exercises. This could also involve the actors responsible for the political-strategic aspect of CSDP, providing a new (possibly less political) forum for discussion.
- Mission staff, such as the Political Adviser or the Best Practice officer, could be included in strategic evaluations, discussions and analysis of CSDP performance at the Brussels level.
- Designating a Lessons Learned and Best Practice officer per mission (as suggested in the 2008 Guidelines) could lead to building a network of Best Practices officers. More specialised training could also be provided to all officers involved in lessons learned processes both at mission and Brussels level.
- Allowing ENTRi training institutes to use lessons learned and best practice documents in the development of courses curricula may be a very cost-effective lesson implementation method.
- Teams responsible for lessons learned reports could include both EU staff and independent experts. This could facilitate a more transparent and impartial approach to lessons learned studies.
- The gap between the mission level and lessons learned actors in Brussels should be addressed. Further research is needed on this aspect in order to identify ways to improve this relationship.

Recommendations to the European Parliament

- The EP is in a position to raise the profile of the added value of lessons learned exercises. Advocating for the appointment of an influential personality within EEAS to champion progress in collecting, analysing and implementing lessons, is one way the EP could exercise their influence.

- The EP could advocate for the appointment of dedicated Best Practice and Lessons officers in each mission (or possibly shared among missions within a single country). This could be followed up by overseeing the creation of a network of Best Practice officers, including those within CPCC, CMPD and EUMS to form a community of experts, to enhance horizontal as well as vertical learning. The EP could promote the idea among Member States (who must second qualified individuals) and convene conferences of Best Practices and Lessons officers, in order to support the activity as well as benefit from it.
- Financial mechanisms and budget management can be an entry point for dialogue between EP and EEAS on lessons learned and best practices, as the EP has a Treaty-based budgetary oversight role. As part of its civilian mission budgetary oversight capacity, the EP could ensure that proportionate and adequate portions of the CFSP budget is dedicated to evaluation and lessons learned mechanisms.
- According to their Treaty-based budgetary oversight role, the EP could support the function of Best Practice officers in enhancing the cost-effectiveness of missions. Supporting Best Practice officers in their pursuit of more effective and efficient practices can have positive financial implications that the EP could endorse.
- The EP could encourage debate concerning the accessibility of the Council's official documents on lessons learned, particularly with regards to the access of EU bodies involved in CSDP, however placed outside of the EEAS structures. Partial disclosure of relevant sections could be an acceptable compromise, as could de-classifying lessons of completed missions, especially their planning processes.
- The EP could take the lead in reviewing whether the ENTRi system is effective and fulfilling its potential. It could also advocate for ENTRi becoming a tool for lessons dissemination and implementation.
- Inter-parliamentary networks could be mobilised to improve relevant national training and recruitment structures and encourage Member States to follow up with the resources they have committed to CSDP.
- The EP could underwrite lessons learned reviews conducted by external actors, such as impartial research institutes, academic institutes, and NGOs. This could allow for more transparency and augment the available body of literature on CSDP lessons learned.
- The EP could also organise de-briefing sessions for seconded personnel returning from the missions on a bi-annual bases, and organised per region or theme. This would allow for homogenous de-briefing methods and for informing the EP and staff in Brussels of ground-level mission experience.

COMPONENT I: CSDP LESSONS LEARNED – THEORY AND PRACTICE

1. INTRODUCTION

The first European Security and Defence Policy (ESDP)⁽¹⁾ mission was deployed in 2003. Since then the EU has launched 24 civilian missions and military operations. Despite the tendency of military operations to attract more attention, the majority of Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP) intervention are civilian missions. Since the beginning, the actors involved in CSDP recognised the need to learn from their experience in the different aspects of missions and operations. The tools and methodologies to guarantee a successful learning process have evolved over time together with the evolution of CSDP itself. This study aims to map where the lessons learning processes stand now and where they are going, while at the same time looking at the way it has evolved and changed over time.

The study is divided in three major components. The first component will look at the available literature on the subject of knowledge management with regard to CSDP missions and operations. The literature review will help frame the topic and will identify the main official documents of the EU that set the rationale and procedures for lessons learned. Based on this background, the discussion will move to the processes that are currently in place and how the relevant actors are using them (or not) to conduct lessons learned. The research for this component was gathered primarily through interviews with EU officials and staff within the Crisis Management bodies of the European External Action Services (EEAS), namely EU Military Staff (EUMS), Civilian Planning and Conduct Capability (CPCC), and the Crisis Management Planning Directorate (CMPD). Additionally, interviews were conducted with actors outside of the EEAS structures, who play a role in identifying and learning lessons, such as staff from the European Defence Agency (EDA), the ATHENA unit at the Council of the European Union and Foreign Policy Instruments (FPI) at the European Commission.

After this overview of the broader mechanisms for knowledge management, the study will turn its attention to the review of 20 CSDP case studies⁽²⁾, with a specific focus on the lessons identified and (possibly) learned in practice. Attention will be especially paid to how the systems of learning have worked in practice and what are some of the lessons that have emerged in the individual cases. The aim of the case study review is to demonstrate the outcomes of the lessons learned processes, discussed in Component I, as applied to missions and operations. The review of the case studies is based on EU official documents as well as open sources, since most EU lessons learned documents are classified or only partially declassified.

The final section will provide an overall conclusion and a number of recommendations targeted at how the lessons learning processes could be improved. Specific recommendations are also given on the role of the European Parliament in catalysing change and improvement in the way lessons are learned.

¹ ESDP missions and operations become CSDP missions and operations with the Lisbon Treaty. For consistency, the study will generally use 'CSDP' to refer to both pre- and post-Lisbon missions and operations.

² The selection of the case studies reviewed was made by the European Parliament in the inception of the study.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature concerning CSDP missions and lessons learned mechanisms can be divided into two distinct groups. On the one hand, there are official EU documents, Council of the European Union documents, such as concept papers, annual reports or guidelines that define, regulate and standardise the mechanisms of identifying lessons and implementing them in the strategic, preparatory, and planning phases of new missions. On the other hand, a number of external reviews and commentaries of the EU policies provide a critical analysis of CSDP missions and lessons learned processes. Such studies are carried out by think tanks, academia or independent researchers, with or without the auspices of the EU.

2.1 Why is it important to do lessons learned?

Since the earliest days of Argyris and Schön's (1978) organisational learning theory, the process of learning and change within organisational environments has been acknowledged as a field with a self-evident value as an applied discipline⁽³⁾. Within military structures, the lessons learned process has been a necessary standard operating procedure for much longer than its contemporary label would suggest (Vetock, 1988).

'We only learn lessons when things change as a result of our new knowledge. Until then, we have merely identified an area where the organization is not living up to its potential. In a successful learning organization, lessons are identified and turned into lessons learned effectively and efficiently; the organization's Lessons Learned capability enables the organization to reach its full potential,' (NATO, Lessons Learned Handbook Second Edition, September 2011).

As clearly stated in the foreword to the NATO's Lessons Learned Handbook, it is crucial for any organisation to be able not only to identify areas for improvement but also to change in order to correct and improve functioning. The formalisation and standardisation of collecting lessons and integrating them into implemented practices aims to guarantee that lessons are truly learned. However, as 'lessons learned' systems have gained prominence in the field of public policy, increasing numbers of institutions have adopted lessons learned systems to 'reduce the risk of repeating mistakes and increase the chance that successes are repeated.' (Ibid.). Learning from experience is especially crucial for a policy as young and as rapidly-expanding as CSDP. The types of missions and the contexts in which they operate vary greatly. Thus, the institutions devoted to planning and conduct need to reflect meaningfully on their own experiences in order to improve flexibility and efficiency. In the CSDP context, Smith (2011: 7) conceptualised the learning process as 'a process of deliberate reform, consisting of: 1) regularly benchmarking the existing EU rules / values / purposes in a policy domain; 2) actively generating policy-relevant lessons as a result of new missions; 3) deliberately transforming those lessons into cumulative knowledge through feedback / monitoring / evaluation processes; and 4) institutionalizing and disseminating that knowledge for application to future operations.'

It is essential that CSDP missions and operations strive to be ever more efficient and effective in their impact. This message becomes all the more clear in times of limited financial resources. The latest Council Conclusions document on CSDP clearly states the need 'to do better with less' (Council Document, 17991/11, 2011). In the same document, the Council recognises how improvement in the performance of CSDP missions and operations can be achieved through lessons learned

³Sometimes described as the practice-oriented, learning organisation theory. See Senge, P.M., *The Fifth Discipline*, London: Century Business, 1990

mechanisms, identification of best practices and impact assessment (Ibid.). Since lessons learned exercises aim to improve the performance, impact and effectiveness of missions and operations, they can be seen as a cost-effective tool to help achieve EU goals.

2.2 EU Documents

With regard to military operations the available official documents setting the procedures and rationale for lessons learned processes are few. In 2001, the European Capability Action Plan gave responsibility to the EU Military Committee (EUMC) to monitor and evaluate the procurement and planning of EU military capabilities, spurring some lessons learned processes focused on these aspects of operation deployment. With the setting up of crisis management procedures in 2003, the Political and Security Committee (PSC) was identified as the body mandated to initiate the evaluation of lessons learned of military operations through the EUMC (Council Document, 11127/03, 2003). There is no specific reference in this document as to how the lessons learned process would be carried out. However, interviews revealed that lessons learned processes were initially based on a long-standing experience of the military forces to carry out evaluations of military operations (interview with EEAS official, 24 January 2012). In 2007, the EU Military Staff established its own internal lessons learned system based on the NATO Joint Analysis and Lessons Learned Centre (Council Document, 15812/07, 2007). The system was supported by the creation of a database where all lessons learned were stored, the European Lessons Management Application (ELMA) (Council Document, 14384/08, 2008).

On the civilian side, the earliest EU official document found containing reference to CSDP lessons learned was the conceptualisation of missions in the field of Rule of Law (Council Document, 14513/02, 2002). In this first section dedicated to lessons learned, attention is given to both learning from others with more experience in crisis management, such as the UN, and to establishing internal mechanisms and procedures to learn from the EU experience itself. This was followed in 2003 by the *Report on planning and mission support capability for civilian crisis management* (Council Document, 13835/03, 2003). Herein, the PSC describes lessons learned as 'top priority', previously identified by the Secretary General/High Representative (SG/HR). Also dating from 2003, the *Suggestions for procedures for coherent, comprehensive EU crisis management*, assign to the PSC the mandate to request Committee for Civilian Aspects of Crisis Management (CIVCOM) to evaluate lessons learned (Council Document, 11127/03, 2003). Moreover, the *Civilian Headline Goal 2010* (2007) includes 'a robust and systematic lessons learned process,' in the means necessary to improve the quality of CSDP missions. Its predecessor, the *Civilian Headline Goal 2008* (2004), also referred to the need for a more systematic implementation of the lessons identified, both from missions and operations and from the Civilian Headline Goals process itself. The references to lessons learned in the first years of CSDP focus on the importance and relevance of conducting lessons learned, but do not delineate how this should be carried out. Lessons learned are mentioned in reference to civilian missions, while no reference is made to lessons learned for military operations in this nascent period of CSDP (1999-2003).

2008 saw the first official EU document dedicated to setting the standards for lessons learned procedures regarding CSDP civilian missions. The *Guidelines for identification and implementation of lessons and best practices in civilian ESDP missions* (Council Document, 15897/08 2008; hereafter the "Guidelines") were preceded a few months earlier by a document from the general Secretariat of the Council to the PSC titled, *Towards an architecture for evaluation of civilian ESDP missions* (Council Document, 11207/08, 2008). This prior Council document outlines the existing tools to conduct lessons learned, while highlighting the lack of a conceptual framework to combine all the tools into a coherent system and systematise their use. The Guidelines thus aim to fill this gap with regard to

civilian missions; military operations are not included in this document. The Guidelines set the rationale that should underpin the identification of lessons learned as well as the process that should be followed for each step, from identification through analysis, to implementation. The stated purpose of formalising and standardising the learning processes is 'to introduce a culture of improvement of practice reflecting the high political ambition of ESDP, [...], while at the same time maintain a light and flexible structure' (2008: 2). The document also refers to an 'internal methodology' document that should explain in more detail the steps taken to complete the lessons cycle. However, this internal methodology document is restricted, rendering it impossible to say which directions it contains.

The Guidelines aim to be fairly comprehensive in describing the entire cycle of identifying lessons and subsequently learning. They delineate the process of conducting lessons learned as follows: 'The cycle of lessons learned and best practices starts with the identification of lessons and continues with their analysis, endorsement, implementation and dissemination. To ensure that the learning cycle is complete, a further step is to transform the lessons learned into new or revised policies, working methods and best practices and to disseminate them,'(2008). Various new tools for capturing and integrating lessons were suggested. Among them were mentioned, the creation of Best Practice officers in each mission, the writing of thematic reports applicable across missions, and the creation of a restricted website to store all lessons learned documents. The document, however, fails to specify which actors are in the lead for each phase of the learning cycle, or what resources will be dedicated to these activities. These problems remain only partially resolved to this day. For example, Best Practice officers are appointed by the Head of Mission according to need (hence not systematically) and even in the best cases they are double if not triple-hatted officers with other tasks in their dossier⁽⁴⁾. This new conceptual framework for formalising knowledge management was built on the existing practices for military operations of the EUMS, and also on the experience of international institutions such as the UN and Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) (Council Document, 15987/08, 2008). In 2003, a prolonged dialogue took place with the OSCE and the UN on lessons learned and best practices with regard to crisis management (Grevi, Helly and Keohane, 2009 : 101).

The 2008 Guidelines establish that all reports on lessons learned should inform a comprehensive annual report. To date, two annual reports have been produced: for 2009 and 2010⁽⁵⁾. At the time of writing, the 2011 annual report is under way. The first annual report included a review of the ongoing missions and key lessons identified therein, as well as a review of the implementation of the lessons learned procedures as described in the Guidelines. For 2009, it is clear that lessons learned were not yet a systematic practice and some of the proposed tools (for example, the civilian website database) were not yet implemented. A number of concepts were revised during 2009. However, it is not clear whether such revisions were driven by a formal process of learning lessons from previous experiences. The annual report highlights how, until 2009, lessons focused 'in particular regarding types of missions (with a focus on rapid deployment, particularly small as well as big missions), types of mandates (with a focus on police, SSR, rule of law, monitoring) and mission support issues of relevance across missions regardless of type, size or mandate.' (2009: 22) As will be shown in Component II, these focuses reverberate back through lessons identified in missions and operations, at times with notable regularity. From the 2009 report, it emerges that, in the previous years, missions' lessons learned reports have identified lessons at the strategic and operational planning

⁴ EULEX Kosovo is currently the only exception, as it has a dedicated team of officers for best practices and training.

⁵ Both the 2009 and 2010 annual reports are only partially declassified, thus the analysis brought forward in this paper is based on the material that is accessible to the public.

levels. However, the 2009 annual report emphasises areas at the strategic planning level, where improvement is still needed in addressing lessons, such as the planning phase, press and public information, horizontal issues and third parties (Council Document, 16927/09, 2011). At the operational planning and conduct level, more attention should be paid to identifying and implementing lessons in the following areas: chain of command, co-operation between actors, training, rapid deployment, operational planning phase, conduct, finance and procurement, third parties, training and recruitment, press and public information, logistics and communication, and security. Further, an attempt is being made to formalise the closure of the lessons learning cycle with the introduction of various dedicated tools. These include intentions to follow through with the recommendation to appoint a designated lessons learned and Best Practice officer in each mission, and the joint Council Secretariat-Commission “Traffic Lights” documents. These documents address a number of issues afflicting CSDP intervention and track the steps taken to solve the issues and implement solutions.

The second annual report of 2010 shifts its attention towards broadening and improving the system of learning. It proposes the introduction of benchmarking at the operational level and conducting an impact assessment for each mission. The 2010 annual report also identifies areas in the learning cycle that need more attention. Implementation of lessons is stated to be the area that needs most significant improvement, especially when it comes to strengthening the concepts that underpin CSDP missions, such as Mentoring Monitoring and Evaluating (MMA) and Security Sector Reform (SSR). Thematic lessons reports are strongly encouraged to capture horizontal lessons relevant for multiple missions, such as lessons on SSR, MMA and crisis management best practices of EU partners. The 2010 annual report envisages more cooperation between the civilian and military CSDP concerning lessons learned. The common 2011 annual report incorporates lessons from both experiences.

2.3 Independent literature

Many external commentators have discussed and studied European Defence Policy and CSDP missions and operations over the past 10 years (Grevi, Helly and Keohane, 2009; Asseburg and Kempin, 2011; Menon, 2011; Bossong, 2012; among others). In a few papers, academics, think tanks or NGOs focus exclusively on the EU process of learning lessons (Bossong, 2012; Smith, 2011; Raemmler, 2010; Arteaga, 2011). There seems to be widespread agreement on the need for the EU to have functional and standardised processes in place to capture lessons and learn from them. This is seen as crucial if the EU aims to be a competitive and credible crisis management actor. In this sense, the EU would appear to be responding to these calls. However, some commentators have started to ask if the formalisation of the processes in standardised procedures is really necessary or even useful (Bossong, 2012). This doubt stems from the recognition that informal practices for lessons learned have been in place since the first operations and missions, and they are still widely relied upon by staff in Brussels and the field as a pragmatic way of conveying problems and proposing possible solutions.

Informal practices are often essential to identifying lessons, disseminating and integrating them in planning and change of policies and concepts. Commentators have come to wonder if these informal practices are actually more effective and productive than formalised ones (Smith, forthcoming). In several instances, interviewees have confirmed the wide use of informal mechanisms, such as information sharing within personal networks, for learning and improving various phases of CSDP. It remains unclear to what extent these informal strategies catalyse real change since they cannot be methodically tracked or accounted for. Also informal mechanisms are highly dependent on personal relationships, posing doubts about reliability and reach. Formal and informal mechanisms are

preferred according to the area of learning and on the sensitivity of the lessons identified. In his recently published study, Bossong identifies the proliferation of the number of missions as the main obstacle to the informal processes of learning (2012: 18). Together with the role of informal practices of learning, Bossong points out how the high profile of those advocating and leading the learning processes is vital for its success. However, commentators still point at the fact that only a few of the many proposals contained in the 2008 Guidelines have become operative (Bloching, 2011; Keohane, 2011).

While describing lessons learned practices with regard to EU SSR missions, Babaud has demonstrated how lessons learned are predominantly an EU internal affair, as most relevant documents and reports are confidential and classified (2009). In practice, this restriction means lessons learned documents are available only to staff within a limited number of EU bodies, mainly EEAS structures. This protectionist approach can get in the way of institutional and horizontal learning, as documents cannot reach relevant people, including EU staff outside of the crisis management structures. Accountability and transparency are also victims of the classification of lessons learned documents.

2.4 Evolution in the learning processes

The necessity of learning from experience was clear from the time the rationale for CSDP missions was defined. In the first few years of CSDP activities, however, the processes of evaluating and learning from the EU's performance in crisis management did not follow precise procedures. Yet, this did not prevent the EU from learning. On the contrary, a number of lessons-learned reports were written for civilian missions, with a special focus on the planning phase. For the EU Police Mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina lessons learned reports were redacted during the planning phase, after the first 100 days and again after the first year. Interviewees who were involved in planning and conducting civilian missions in these first few years confirmed that lessons learned were carried out and that the informal systems in place succeeded in bringing about change in the procedures and policies concerning CSDP missions. An example of this learning-based progress can be seen in the evolution from pure policing missions, like EUPM BiH to more comprehensive and integrated Rule of Law missions such as EULEX Kosovo (Council Document, November 2006, press release).

It was with the sharp increase in the number and complexity of missions and operations, between 2005 and 2006, that the actors involved recognised the need for a more formalised process of knowledge management. The discussions that followed resulted in the codification of the processes and procedures to be followed in order to capture lessons learned and to disseminate them. The 2008 Guidelines provided a conceptual framework and rationale for dedicating specific resources to lessons learning processes for civilian missions. One reason for this change was the augmentation of staff within the crisis management structures and the fast turnover of personnel both in Brussels and at mission level. Institutional memory became more difficult to retain, requiring a new system to guarantee the continual improvement of CSDP engagement.

The expansion of CSDP activities into new areas brought about other issues that spurred the standardisation of lessons learned processes. By opening the way to theatres of intervention beyond EU neighbours, such as Aceh in Indonesia and the Democratic Republic of Congo, the missions' complexity and confrontation with unfamiliar obstacles increased. For example, the need to exert political leverage beyond Europe's traditional realm of influence brought on new challenges in Africa and Asia (see case study on EUSEC and EUPOL RD Congo in Component II). Both the resources dedicated and the relevance of CSDP missions were put under stress, and the EU was pressed to reform its review mechanisms to increase efficiency and sustainability (interview with EU official, 1 February 2012). This process resulted in the agreement to build a more cohesive architecture for

identifying and learning lessons. Stated in the Council Conclusions on CSDP of December 2011, 'The Council also recognises the need to continuously improve the performance of CSDP missions and operations, including through evaluation of outcomes, benchmarking, impact assessment, identifying and implementing lessons learned and developing best practices for effective and efficient CSDP action,' (Council Document, 17991/11, 2011).

3. THE PROCESS OF LEARNING LESSONS

Lessons learning processes attempt to assess most aspects of CSDP missions and operations. In general, there is a tendency to standardise and formalise the process as much as possible at all levels. More recently, attention has shifted from methodically collecting lessons to ensuring implementation. There is a common recognition that implementation of lessons needs more effort. Unless the lessons identified are translated into changes in practice and policies they cannot be considered learned. In particular, lessons need to be integrated in the revision of the concepts underpinning CSDP.

3.1 Areas of learning

As pointed out in the 2009 annual report with regard to civilian intervention, lessons have been identified especially in the strategic and operational planning as well as in the missions' conduct phase. In the strategic planning phase, lessons have been identified concerning press and public information, horizontal issues, the planning procedures and third parties. In the operational planning phase, lessons identified have focused on the chain of command, cooperation between EU actors, training, rapid deployment, operational planning phase and conduct. At the level of conduct of missions and operations, lessons have emerged in the areas of finance and procurement, third parties, training and recruitment, press and public information, logistics and communication, and security. As it will be shown in the Component II, a number of recurrent themes run through the lessons identified in the case studies (see Annex II, Matrix). These themes correspond to a large extent with the themes that are pointed out in the 2009 annual report.

A number of areas had not yet been targeted by lessons learned cycles in 2009, such as lessons from the political/strategic level, issues concerning Member States, mission support and conduct⁶). The 2010 annual report attempts to address these missed areas. However, even with this report in place, lessons learned are still not effectively carried out at the strategic/political level or with regard to missions' mandates (interview with EEAS staff, 24 January 2012). As one can see in the lessons overview in Annex II, reviews in almost every case study address the feasibility and scope of the mandates. The (initial) mandates of some operations were too broad and ambiguous (e.g. EUPM). Others were very concrete and narrowly defined (e.g. EUJUST LEX-Iraq). Furthermore, reviews of mandates also touch on the adequacy of the mandates (e.g. EUPOL Afghanistan and EUFOR Tchad/RCA) and the combination of short- and long long-term impact (e.g. EUPOL COPPS). Clearly these are more sensitive areas, and it was acknowledged during interviews that it is more difficult to formalise the process of learning when it comes to the decision-making process of launching a mission and writing the mandate. An interviewee suggested that the lack of a formalised process of learning at the political level does not mean that learning and improving does not take place (interview with EEAS official, 26 January 2012). In this sphere, informal mechanisms are used by the actors involved in order to bring change and improvement. Such informal mechanisms involve personal relationships and 'corridor talks', the impact of which cannot be accounted. On the side of military operations, exercises are run at the political/strategic level, namely among the EU institutional level players, including the PSC, Crisis Management Board, Crisis Platform, CIVCOM, EUMC, Politico-Military Group, CMPD, EUMS, and CPCC. These exercises have been described as crucial for capturing lessons at the political/strategic level, however the decision making process for

⁶ In the version of the document accessible to the public, further explanation on these three areas is classified so further comments on what are the lessons that need more attention in these areas are not possible.

launching an operation or the process of writing the mandate remain unaddressed (interview EEAS staff, 24 January 2012).

An area that has been at the centre of lessons learning processes has been the funding and financial mechanisms for both missions and operations. Financing has been an issue for many missions and operations, to the point that a special unit within the Council, ATHENA, has been created for military operations. This unique unit is exclusively tasked to manage a common fund used to speed up the process of procurement and deployment. ATHENA's inception can be attributed to experience of the first operations launched in 2003 and the lessons thus derived.

'The proposal is based on the model approved by the Council in June 2002 for the financing of common costs of EU military operations on a case-by-case basis, as interpreted in the course of operations CONCORDIA and ARTEMIS to address practical problems and as amended to abide by the Council decision of 22 September. It aims at providing the EU with the means to finance common costs as from the initial phase of any operation and with the flexibility to meet operational challenges, while avoiding any extra costs and maintaining a strict and constant control by the Member States, acting unanimously, on spending,' (Council Document, 13668/03, 2003)

In addition to being the response to a lesson identified, ATHENA also runs its own internal lessons learning cycle. Because of its small size, approximately 10 staff members, the process of learning is fairly agile, informal and at the same time direct. ATHENA is supposed to review its mechanisms every three years, but in the first eight years of activity its Council Decision Mandate has been adjusted four times. Each review process resulted in the adoption of Council amendments to improve its functions and efficiency⁽⁷⁾. A special committee formed by representatives of Member States monitors the use of the ATHENA fund for common costs. What can be funded under the common cost banner is specified in a list, agreed upon by the participating Member States. What is or is not on the list is a politically sensitive consideration. Hence, while implementing lessons has been a fairly straightforward process for ATHENA, adding items to the list of common costs is, reasonably, more resistant to quick change.

In the case of civilian missions, financial oversight falls under the European Commission. The Foreign Policy Instrument (FPI) unit of the European Commission is responsible for the financing of CSDP in general. One interviewee identified this arrangement as not suited for purpose, and thus a prominent source of issues that hamper the operational capacity of missions (interview with EEAS official, 20 January 2012). Several cases reviewed in Component II, for example, AMM Aceh, EUBAM Moldova-Ukraine, and EULEX, mention financial flexibility as an area for learning. This topic was also frequently brought up by interviewees. In 2007, a common recognition emerged among the involved EU bodies that a number of issues concerning mission support needed to be addressed. This led to a joint exercise between the (then) Directorate-General for the External Relations (DG RELEX) of the Council Secretariat and FPI of the Commission (interview with EU official, 9 February 2012). The exercise aimed at finding solutions to specific problems identified. A Traffic Light Document was subsequently produced and reviewed every six months to track the state of each issue (Council Document, 16927/09, 2011). Traffic Light Documents cannot be accessed by the wider public⁽⁸⁾.

⁷ Available documents: Council of the European Union, 2004. *ATHENA: Review*; Council of the European Union, 2004. *Council Decision amending Decision 2004/197/CFSP establishing a mechanism to administer the financing of the common costs of the European Union operations having military or defence implications (ATHENA)*; Council of the European Union, 2006. *ATHENA - Review 2006 - Outcome of proceedings*; Council of the European Union, 2007. *COUNCIL DECISION amending Decision 2004/197/CFSP establishing a mechanism to administer the financing of the common costs of European Union operations having military or defence implications (ATHENA)*

⁸ The team responsible for this study could not access the documents in question.

However, most of the measures needed for solving the issues were considered to be implemented within the purview of the actors involved in the exercise, and this process was completed in 2009.

With regards to operational support, the official and formal way of recording and learning lessons is not producing desired changes, particularly with regards to financial mechanisms issues affecting missions. In AMM Aceh (2005), EULEX Kosovo (2008) and EUMM Georgia (2008), among others, lessons concerning the complexity and sluggishness of procurement procedures were identified. Yet, FPI the Commission unit in charge of mission budgets, has no access to the lessons documents nor is consulted during the redaction of lessons learned reports, neither from CPCC nor CMPD⁹). Financial mechanisms issues identified in the missions can reach FPI in two ways: a) Through regular contact between FPI staff and CPCC staff, whereby FPI provides budgeting and resource management advice and support; b) through FPI's seat in CIVCOM meetings where lessons documents are discussed and agreed upon.

Because the financial regulations were not set up for crisis management activities, they are widely considered by the actors involved as inflexible and ill-fit for the context of crisis management (interview with EEAS official, 20 January 2012). However, changing the financial regulations has proven a difficult task. Any change has to fall within the existing financial regulations and needs to be a co-decision of the Council and the European Parliament. The regulations are meant to be applicable across several fields, such as agriculture and fisheries. This rigidity, coupled with the fact that FPI is not accountable to the Council, encumbers the opportunity to change and learn from the experiences of the missions with regard to procurement and finance (interview with EU official, 9 February 2012).

Since an early stage of CSDP, lessons have been repeatedly identified about the lack of available personnel for civilian crisis management as well as about the inadequate or inconsistent level of training of the seconded staff from Member States. While the EUMS engages closely with National Ministers of Defence via the EUMC, there is no comparable engagement of the CPCC with Ministers of Interior or Foreign Affairs, often the ports of call for national secondments. Among examples of staffing gaps are EUPOL Proxima (in administration, finance, communications, IT and transport), EU SSR Guinea Bissau (which had a staffing shortage of nearly a fifth of key positions) and EULEX Kosovo. In other cases (e.g. EUSEC and EUPOL RD Congo) the limited resources prompted the sharing of staff in certain common functions. With regard to the level of training of the seconded staff, several cases (i.e. AMM Aceh, EUPOL COPPS) show that seconded staff lacked certain types of expertise (e.g. on human rights or gender issues). Furthermore, the cases of EUSEC and EUPOL RD Congo and EUPOL Afghanistan show a lack intercultural mediators to bridge possible cultural gaps between the EU and the local situation.

The Civilian Headline Goal (CHG) 2008 and 2010 aimed at addressing these issues, among others, by planning and developing the necessary civilian capabilities for future CSDP missions. The CHG 2008 gives a set of guidelines and recommendations for Member States' more effective recruitment of personnel. The objective of the CHG process was to identify the specific requirements for potential mission scenarios. Member States were then expected to declare their capacity to collectively cover all the requirements. Despite these efforts, recruitment and training of personnel remain issues. In 2009, Korski and Gowan pointed out that the CHG was not succeeding in improving the availability of trained personnel for civilian missions. As a supplementary means to solve the recruitment gap annual High-Level seminars have been launched in 2009 on 'Facilitating the deployment of civilian

⁹ FPI has its own evaluations, conducted by external consultants, of the efficiency of CSDP and the soundness of its financial management systems.

personnel for CSDP' (Council document, 16109/11, 2011). The aim of the seminars is to give 'an opportunity to Member States to identify common problems and learn from each other's progress' (Ibid.: 4). Responsibilities for recruitment and training fall primarily to the Member States, while in Brussels CMPD identifies which missions require in-mission specialisation training or pre-deployment training.

Training of new and current mission staff is another means for the transmission and implementation of lessons. The use of in-mission training for these purposes has been identified multiple times as crucial to ensure the quality and standards of mission staff (interviews with EEAS staff, 18 January 2012, 20 January 2012). Moreover, trainings within missions and also for staff of the EEAS crisis management bodies, could benefit from a section dedicated to understanding and supporting the lessons learning processes. In 2011, Europe's New Training Initiative for Civilian Crisis Management (ENTRi) was launched to respond to the need for standardised and rigorous training of crisis management personnel. ENTRi is sponsored by the European Commission and 13 participating Member States, and its courses are also open to UN-DPKO, OSCE and AU personnel. This new training system is an example of productive coordination between FPI, CMPD and Member States in order to improve CSDP capacity and effectiveness. However in a workshop held in February 2012 on training effectiveness, a series of challenges were highlighted. Among them, the unsystematic use of ENTRi by Member States deploying personnel, the still insufficient number of qualified staff members for missions, and the fact that a third of seconded staff is deployed without adequate training. Moreover, while Member States are responsible for developing the course curricula through participating training institutes, they are not able to use lessons learned documents of CSDP missions or operations in order to incorporate the lessons and best practices that emerged from previous CSDP experience.

There seems to be limited capacity for vertical learning between the strategic and the operational level. One consequence of this disconnect is reflected in critiques of mission mandates, alluded to above. Interviewees pointed out how mandates are written in most cases on the basis of abstract concepts and are not informed by knowledge derived from the operational realities at mission level (interview with EEAS staff, 20 January 2012; interview with mission staff, 13 February 2012). The bridges between the operational/mission level and the strategic/mandate-writing level should be further strengthened to help ensure that mandated tasks reflect realistic capabilities on the ground. For example, in EULEX Kosovo, witness protection capacities were initially underestimated, and the mission was not fully capable to carry out its tasks without eventual adjustments (see EULEX case study, Component II).

3.2 Different actors, different methods

The EEAS structures involved directly in lessons learned processes are CMPD, CPCC and EUMS. These three bodies collaborate with each other on lessons learned cycles, and at the same time their lessons learned activities often run parallel to each other.

3.2.1 The European Union Military Staff (EUMS)

EUMS has drawn from military experience in conducting evaluations and lesson learning processes, including that of NATO. Hence, since the launch of Concordia FYROM in 2003, lessons in military operations have been identified and integrated in a more methodical manner⁽¹⁰⁾ than for civilian

¹⁰ However, in the first few years of activity of CSDP operations lessons learned processes were highly bureaucratic, mainly a box-checking exercise (interview with EEAS official, 24 January 2012).

missions. The fact that military personnel train together on their specific area of expertise facilitates the horizontal exchange of experience and lessons sharing. Exercises are particularly effective to this end and also for finding solutions to the lessons that emerged in previous operations. In 2008, the first exercise focusing on the cooperation between a Military Operational Headquarter and the Civilian Planning and Conduct Capability was carried out (Council Document, 14384/08, 2008). The yearly military exercise of 2010 (MILEX 10) aimed explicitly to 'exercise and evaluate military aspects of EU crisis management at the military strategic and operational level based on a scenario for an envisaged EU-led crisis management operation.' (Council Document, 8443/10, 2009). For 2012, the aim is to involve all levels in the exercise, from the political strategic level to the Civ/Mil strategic level and the Civ/Mil operational level (interview with EEAS official, 24 January 2012).

Since 2007, EUMS can also count on the restricted website, European Lessons Management Application (ELMA), as a tool to access and address lessons. In the first few years of existence, ELMA was simply a receptacle for lessons identified. The cycle of learning was not systematically closed through the implementation of the lessons. Also there was no quality control on the lessons that were entered in the database, which often resulted in repetitive and superficial lessons. Between 2009 and 2010, the EUMS worked toward a coherent framework for the use of the tool. The new concept focused more on the quality of the lessons entered in the system, as well as on the completion of the cycle of learning by tracking each step of the process (see Annex I: Visualisation). The database follows a lesson from its inception (lesson observation), through its analysis (when the root causes of the problem are assessed and identified), to its implementation and integration. In this way, the system can point to obstructions in the process of learning as well as highlight the successful implementation of a lesson. Each step involves relevant actors to ensure the inclusion of all aspects and expertise, but also as a quality check. In the first stages, lessons observations go through the assessment of the EU Military Committee and each lesson has to be agreed upon unanimously by the Member State representatives in the EUMC. The database tracks the cycle of each lesson, including the action plan that is developed to address the issue identified by the lesson. Lessons are also subdivided into categories, such as concepts, training, systems, personnel etc., in order to target the area(s) where change is necessary and follow up so as to close the cycle of learning. To guide this complex process, EUMS has established a Lessons Learned Cell.

The Cell is comprised of two standing dedicated officers, who respond to the deputy director responsible for the integration of lessons. Within the military structures, there are points of contact in each functional area for lessons learned, for example, within movement and transportation, medical and health, logistics, engineering, situational awareness etc. The point-of-contact officers are all double-hatted, involved in the planning or operational phase and in the analysis of lessons. This double role brings its risks, as it can mean officers contributing to the lessons learned cycle are somewhat protective in describing their own role. To counteract that, more training on the topic of lessons learned processes has helped to encourage more personal responsibility and accountability, and also stronger critical analysis in the identification of lessons. In the process of lesson learning, the concept developed by EUMS tries to involve as many stakeholders and relevant parties as possible. Lessons observations for example can be drawn from Member States, ATHENA, Operational Headquarters, CMPD and of course EUMS itself (interview with EEAS official, 24 January 2012).

According to the concept developed by EUMS, the cycle of learning should be initiated according to operational requirements. Therefore, operational commanders should be trigger points to initiate the process. More pro-activity at this level is needed to guarantee the methodical identification of lessons. However, that would reportedly entail a mindset shift away from considering lessons identified as a negative reflection of one's performance (be it officers involved in the operations, or

Member States) to considering lessons learned processes as an opportunity for improvement. At the other end of the process, lessons need to be more pro-actively disseminated to relevant actors to ensure that the lessons are institutionalised. However, at the moment a clear strategy to identify the recipient of each lesson still needs to be developed, as ELMA does not include a targeted dissemination mechanism.

It was reflected by EEAS interviewees that, during the planning phases, there is no time to conduct lessons cycles or consult lessons learned documents (interviews with EEAS staff, 24 January 2012; 20 January 2012). Rather, officers involved in the planning phases 'have the lessons in their minds' (interviews with EEAS staff, 24 January 2012; 20 January 2012). It was widely argued that between missions there is more time available for reflection and analysis of lessons identified during deployment. Military exercises represent an opportunity to experiment and identify lessons and also think over lessons and learn new strategies. It was noted, however, that the civilian counterparts (mainly CPCC) rarely are able to fully participate in exercises. The large number of on-going civilian missions and the CPCC's comparatively small staff translates into limited staff availability. Seminars, such as that held by EU Institute for Security Studies (EUISS) on EUFOR Tchad, have also been identified as a crucial space where the learning process can be supported, promoted and reinforced.

On the operational side, the European Defence Agency (EDA) has proved to be an effective partner in finding solutions to lessons identified during operations. Placed outside of EEAS, and not officially involved in the cycle of learning lessons, EDA works to address challenges identified in military operations and offer more efficient and cost-effective options. For example, the experiences in Afghanistan and in Libya exposed issues in the use of helicopters (see EUPOL Afghanistan case study, Component II). While technical issues about the helicopters themselves were addressed by NATO, EDA addressed the lack of training of the pilots by organising training programmes focused on the specific technology and conditions of operations. Although EDA does not receive lessons learned documents, they have a seat in the EUMC and thereby keep abreast of topical issues discussed in the meetings. Also personal networks and relationships of the EDA staff play an important role in identifying the areas where EDA can provide solutions, enabling them to concentrate on the areas where they can make a difference (interview with EU official, 2 February 2012).

3.2.2 Civilian Planning and Conduct Capabilities (CPCC)

CPCC is the body within EEAS that manages the operational planning and conduct of CSDP civilian missions. Civilian missions represent a much larger portion of CSDP intervention. However, as compared to EUMS, civilian mechanisms and concepts for lessons learned are more embryonic. Lessons from civilian missions are collected after the planning phase as well as after the end of a mission. These lessons are then passed to CIVCOM for discussion and approval and finally sent to PSC, and the process is becoming increasingly systematic. Also 6-month reports from the Heads of Mission include a section on lessons learned. This section does not contain a pre-determined template for what kind of lessons the component should contain, which leaves space for some flexibility and context-specific analysis. However, the sections are kept brief and there is the risk of important but more technical issues not finding their way to CPCC. Lessons pertaining to a more strictly operational level tend to stay within the mission. The lessons that are shared with CPCC are those concerning strategic issues where the bodies in Brussels can have an impact. This retention of mission experience within the mission hampers the opportunity to learn horizontally among missions (interview with mission official, 13 February 2012).

At the moment, there is no repository for the lessons learned reports that arrive from the missions. A database modelled on ELMA is being developed for civilian missions (CiLMA). It is not yet clear who

will take the lead in using CiLMA, and there is as yet no clear vision about who will be responsible for which aspect between CPCC and CMPD. The database alone will not compel people to consult the documents in their work. In fact, in several interviews the admission was made that lessons learned documents are not necessarily consulted on a regular basis by those involved in the planning and conduct of missions (interviews with EEAS staff, 20 January 2012; 24 January 2012; 26 January 2012). Interviews suggest that those involved in planning and conduct of a mission count more on what he/she has retained in his/her mind of the lessons identified in previous missions. This personal knowledge is often shared with other members of CPCC in informal ways, through dialogue, meetings, and exchange of experiences among officials. An example of the latter is the mission in South Sudan (AMIS), where communication has been promoted between those involved in the planning phase and officers who were involved in a similar mission in Afghanistan. To promote this exchange of knowledge, CPCC is about to launch an internal chat room, where the staff can share experiences, lessons and best practices. This informal system allows the discussion of sensitive issues that otherwise may be censored out of official lessons learned documents (interview with EEAS official, 26 January 2012). Recurrent visits to the missions, contact between the Head of operations, the Civilian Operational Commander, his Deputy and the Head of Missions and internal reviews are some of the additional mechanisms to identify the areas that most need intervention and improvement.

The Head of Operation holds monthly meetings with each mission, while within CPCC the Head of Operation meets weekly with the Heads of Section. During these meetings, issues arising from the conduct of the mission, best practices and lessons are discussed. An obstacle to a more systematic process of learning lessons is the limit on the resources available to CPCC for the task. All lessons learned officers are double- if not triple-hatted. Having full time officers within CPCC dedicated to learning lessons, with an appropriate mandate and sufficient tools and skills to fulfil that mandate, would go a long way to improve the quality and regularity of the effort. At mission level, Best Practice officers are rarely appointed, EULEX Kosovo is the only mission that has a Best Practice and Training Office comprising a handful of dedicated officers. However, to incorporate these functions into the mission, the initial EULEX Operational Plan was amended (interview mission staff, 13 February 2012).

The lessons learned material is passed to CMPD to inform the Annual Report on Lessons Learned and for thematic reports (see Annex I: Visualisation). CPCC does not share every lesson identified with CMPD. The decision about which lessons are deemed for internal use only is based on perceived relevance to CMPD, or if it is exclusively an internal technical issue (interview with EEAS official, 26 January 2012). Before the lessons reports reach CMPD, the documents are passed to CIVCOM for the approval of the Member States. It has been noted that this practice results in a significant watering down of content of the lessons learned. Hence, what CMPD ultimately receives is felt to be heavily edited and, at times, censored. If reports are too far removed from reality, lessons cannot play a role in improving missions (interview with EEAS official, 24 January 2012). This seems to be particularly true for political lessons, which carry a higher level of sensitivity for Member States (interview with EEAS official, 24 January 2012). Around political issues the learning process operates at an informal level, based on person-to-person negotiations and dialogue. In contrast, the assessment of the Iraq police-training programme was pointed out as a very beneficial and successful evaluation process precisely because of the openness in the review, and the changes in practice that resulted. CIVCOM advises on steps to be taken in response to lessons identified or can ask for follow up. In the case of the closing of the Guinea Bissau mission, CIVCOM suggested to CMPD to carry out a thematic lessons-learned report on SSR, instead of a mission-specific report. Member States can be the trigger for initiating lessons learned processes through CIVCOM or EUMC. There is an increasing interest

from Member States in the efficiency and relevancy of CSDP missions, especially concerning how money is being used and what is achieved with it.

3.2.3 The Crisis Management Planning Directorate (CMPD)

The establishment of CMPD aimed at improving military and civilian cooperation and increasing alignment between the two types of actors. CMPD is the author of the main lessons learned reports at the political and strategic level, such as the Annual Reports and thematic reports. However, at the moment, CMPD lessons learned officers do not systematically receive the 6-month reports from the Heads of Mission or from CPCC, nor lessons learned documents from military operations. For the Annual Report, CPCC provides CMPD with pre-selected information about lessons identified and learned in the past year. For 2009 and 2010, the Annual Report covered only civilian missions but for 2011 a joint military and civilian Annual Report is being redacted.

Previous to CMPD (which exists since 2010), mission-specific lessons reports tended to be carried out after the planning phase and after a missions' conclusion. Mission reports explicitly addressing the mandate of the mission, such as the one redacted by the Directorate General of Civilian Crisis Management (DG IX) in 2006 on EUPM BiH, have not been done since the institution of EEAS. CMPD can initiate mission-specific lessons reports at any point in time, however to date CMPD has been involved mainly in Annual Reports and thematic reports. This year, an end of mission report will be redacted for EUPM BiH, planned to close summer 2012. Because many lessons are highly context specific, CMPD has started carrying out thematic lessons learned, which aim to provide more widely transferable lessons. The first thematic report concerned Human Rights and Gender mainstreaming (Council Document, 17138/1/10, 2010), and a report is now being redacted about Security Sector Reform. Currently strategic reviews of missions conducted by CMPD do not include a section on lessons learned or identified. However, planners at the political/strategic level would benefit from more systematic lessons learning procedures that capture past experiences of writing mandates and decision-making processes of launching previous missions (interview with EEAS official, 24 January 2012).

The formal process of collecting lessons learned for a thematic report starts with a notification being sent to all relevant parties by CMPD, informing them that a lessons learned process is being initiated. It also organises an informal meeting with other EEAS bodies in order to discuss the aim of the report and gather views on the report's scope and relevance. This is followed by sending a questionnaire to the mission(s), asking as many people as possible from the mission to contribute, facilitating comparisons between different sources within the mission. In Brussels, meetings are conducted with the relevant EEAS bodies, the Council, the Commission as well as civil society organisations that have a specific expertise in the country or region in question. The questionnaire is supplemented by a team of CMPD officers visiting the mission(s) to meet with as many key parties as possible, including key partners (NATO or UN for example), as well as local and national stakeholders, and NGOs. CMPD also collects all the documents from CPCC, missions and others on lessons learned relevant to the report. Once ready, the report is submitted to PSC for review and acceptance. No document to date describes the division of labour between CMPD and CPCC or their specific tasks regarding lessons learned processes (for an overview of the reporting lines for civilian missions, see Annex I: Visualisation).

Also, from 2007/2008 onward, check lists have been used by CMPD in the planning phases of a new mission to ensure that the planners take into consideration the key principles, as well as dos and don'ts. These lists, however, are currently not used for mission reviews. Moreover, CMPD is involved in the ongoing development of CiLMA. However, CMPD is lacking the human resources needed to

enter all the existing lessons into the database. At the moment, CMPD has only one officer who is fully dedicated to lessons learned. All other officers involved are double-hatted.

CMPD is, furthermore, involved in the training of new and current missions staff, representing an opportunity for the implementation of lessons identified in previous missions. CMPD is responsible for identifying the type of training needed for each mission and gaps to be addressed through training of missions' personnel. However, the curriculum of the training courses and the training of mission staff itself is the responsibility of Member States. In practice this can lead to inconsistent quality of secondees from different Member States. As mentioned earlier, certain measures have recently been taken to improve the quality and uniformity of training, notably the ENTRi programme. However, classified lessons learned and best practices documents cannot be shared with the institutes running the courses. The ability to build the curricula on existing experience from CSDP missions would represent an area with strong potential for both reinforcing and improving current lessons learned practices (interview with an ENTRi partner institute training & research fellow, 2 March 2012).

4. CONCLUSIONS

Learning lessons to improve performance was a goal since the inception of CSDP interventions. EU civilian missions evolved before the concept for systematic lessons learned processes was fully in place. The sharp increase in the number and scope of CSDP missions resulted in the awareness that more formal and methodical evaluation and learning mechanisms were needed. Both the military and the civilian side have developed more standardised and coherent mechanisms in the past few years. The EUMS, benefitting from standard military practice, more resources and fewer active operations, has been able to develop a more sophisticated process of learning lessons. On the civilian side, CPCC concentrates on operational aspects of missions, strategic reviews, and supporting missions' lessons learning process such as the six-monthly lessons reports⁽¹¹⁾. Alternatively, CMPD focuses on the strategic and political level, for example identifying lessons that contribute to the development of concepts and policy. This situation creates some gaps and produces a less streamlined process than that of the military. Despite the efforts undertaken to learn lessons in a more methodical and systematic way, several aspects can still benefit from improvement.

Several challenges can be identified that could hamper the capacity for institutional learning within CSDP. First, while lessons are identified and learned in various (thematic) areas, the political and strategic level that involves decision-making processes, concept development, and the writing of mission mandates is still under-represented in explicit lesson learned documentation. The human resources dedicated to learning lessons at this level, for example within the CMPD, but also PSC and CIVCOM, are not proportional to the daunting demands of the task at hand. Second, despite attempts to homogenise the methodologies and tools used, the various actors conducting lessons learned processes apply different methods, definitions and standards. Third, access to relevant documents remains limited to the few actors involved in CSDP and this constrains the sharing of information and also transparency. Fourth, there seems to be a perception that lessons learned exercises are exclusively underlining the negative outcomes of missions and operations, which appears to lead to Member States and other involved actors resisting the process.

¹¹ CPCC, however, is not in charge of missions' lessons learned processes, as it is for evaluation and quality control. It simply undergirds the lesson learned process, which is the responsibility of the mission staff.

Overall, it can be concluded that improvement has been made, but that lessons learned practices and tools have not yet been normalised and entrenched in the functioning of missions and operations. Horizontal learning across missions remains a challenge as a result of both institutional culture and a lack of resources. Lessons documents tend to be filtered and diluted as they move 'up' from the missions through the EEAS structures in Brussels depending on their sensitivity. Moreover, formal and informal mechanisms exist next to each other. In some cases, such as for the political/strategic sphere, they have proven to complement each other.

COMPONENT II: REVIEW OF CSDP MISSIONS AND OPERATIONS

This section of the study addresses 21 past and present CSDP missions and operations to draw generic lessons learned as a basis for identifying common elements of the lessons identified and lessons learned. Among the 21 interventions are 14 civilian missions and 7 military operations. The civilian case studies include, among others, seven police missions, two Security Sector Reform (SSR) missions, two border missions, two monitoring missions and two Rule of Law missions. By analysing the lesson learning processes of each mission/operation and the content of the lessons, this component seeks to identify common themes and facilitate some cross comparison. An overview of the types of lessons emerging from the review of each case study is provided in Annex II: Lessons Overview Matrix.

The case studies follow a common analytical framework. Each case study gives a short description of the mission/operation, after which an overview of the lessons learned process for that specific mission/operation is presented under the heading 'Formal process of identifying lessons'. In addition to an overview of official EU lessons learned practices followed by the mission/operation, this section addresses the nature of the process (ranging from ad hoc to a systematic and pre-planned process) as well. After that, the content of a few prevalent themes of the lessons identified are listed under the heading 'Identified lessons that have been documented'. Every case study ends with an overview of the lessons that have been learned (implemented into practice) under the heading 'Lessons learned?', from either the experience from the missions/operations or from previous CSDP missions/operations.

The case studies are analysed by a survey from the existing literature, including open official sources of the EU, publications from research institutes and other academic literature⁽¹²⁾. Additionally, several interviews with EU officials and staff from missions have been carried out.

¹² The authors did not have access to classified EU documents.

1. EUROPEAN UNION POLICE MISSION IN BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA (EUPM BIH)

The European Police Mission (EUPM) in Bosnia and Herzegovina (BiH) was established as the first ESDP mission on 1 January 2003 (Council Joint Action 2002/210/CFSP), following up on the UN's International Police Task Force. After the initial period of three years, the EU decided to extend the mission with a modified mandate and size, following an invitation by the BiH authorities. The mandate of EUPM was extended again until 31 December 2011 and later on until 30 June 2012. As part of a broad effort of the EU and other actors to address rule of law, EUPM primarily supports law enforcement agencies in BiH. It devotes efforts in the fight against organised crime and corruption.

1.1 Formal process of identifying lessons

Bearing in mind that, as the first ESDP mission, EUPM might establish procedures and models for future ESDP missions, the EU has issued several papers concerning lessons identified during the EUPM. The first of these papers focused on the planning of EUPM, and was addressed by the Secretariat and the Commission in a Joint Paper in April 2003 (Council's Secretariat Document 11206/03, 2003). A second review took place after the first 100 days of the mission and was carried out by the Council's Secretariat, in cooperation with the EUPM Headquarters (HQ) in July 2003 (Council's Secretariat Document 11760/03, 2003). Almost a year later, in June 2004, the Police Unit of the Council Secretariat, in cooperation with EUPM HQ and endorsed by the EUSR's office, issued a third review regarding the first year of operation of the EUPM in BiH (Council's Secretariat Document 8247/04, 2004). The next lesson learning review was released by the Secretariat in November 2006 and considered the co-ordination and coherence between the military operation in BiH (EUFOR Althea), the civilian mission in BiH (EUPM) and the EU Special Representative (EUSR) (Council's Secretariat Document 15376/06, 2006). The latest reference to lesson learning for EUPM was made in the annual EU report of 2009 on the identification and implementation of lessons and best practices in civilian CSDP missions. It is suggested that there is an urgent need for a horizontal review on the role of CSDP missions in supporting the fight against organised crime. However, as the 2010 report on the identification and implementation of lessons and best practices remarks, such a review has not been carried out to date.

It appears that the lesson learning process during the EUPM mission was not entirely *ad hoc*. The first three papers on the subject refer to an ongoing review and lesson learning process of the EU Police Mission. The timing of the lesson reviews seems to be based on the different phases of the mission: after the 'planning phase', the 'opening phase' (after 100 days) and after the first year of EUPM. In the reviews, it becomes clear that the Political and Security Committee, the Council's Secretariat, the Council and the Committee for Civilian Aspects of Crisis Management (CIVCOM) can be seen as the driving forces behind the lesson learning process. They all stress the importance of regular monitoring and reviewing of the EUPM. For example, CIVCOM initiated to make an Action Plan for the PSC to follow-up on the review of the first year of EUPM (CIVCOM Document 15809/2/04, 2004). Another recurring aspect is that the PSC tasked CIVCOM to examine and provide advice after each review.

1.2 Identified lessons that have been documented

Considering both official and academic literature on EUPM the following main topics can be identified when it comes to the lessons of the EUPM:

1.2.1 The planning phase of EUPM

Although EUPM had a relatively long planning period (from autumn 2001 until December 2002), it faced several difficulties. In their Joint Paper on the planning phase of EUPM, the Secretariat and the Commission state that this phase was an important learning experience for the EU, because many of its lessons are relevant for other civilian or military EU crisis management missions (Council's Secretariat Document 11206/03, 2003: 2). They reflected on several aspects of the planning process, including fact finding missions, the EUPM planning team, procurement and financial arrangements. One of the lessons from the planning of EUPM was the planning team recruitment ought to be more flexible to attract appropriate civilian and police expertise. Another lesson was that the Fact Finding Mission (FFM) lacked clear guidelines for structuring the work of the FFM team. Therefore, FFM teams should leave Brussels with a clearly defined division of tasks and. A third lesson concerned the need to increase the capacity in Brussels, in particular the recruitment of procurement experts, standby staff for planning teams and better co-ordination with the Commission (Jansen, 2006 :18).

1.2.2 The mandate of EUPM and the co-ordination of EU actors in BiH

The initial broad and vague mandate of EUPM resulted in the lesson that the division of tasks has to be precise in the mandates if there are more than one EU actors operating in one country (Orsini, 2006: 2). A lack of such a distinction of roles became problematic after the December 2004 launch of the military operation in BiH, EUFOR Althea, as there was an overlap between EUPM and EUFOR's anti-organised crime operations (for further elaboration see EUFOR Althea, 2.5 of this Component). The mandates were adjusted in the second half of 2005, focusing EUPM on police restructuring and the fight against organised crime. Furthermore, it appears that the EU was unable to learn from other international organisations such as the UN and OSCE. For instance, although the *Brahimi Report* (2001) identifies the need for integrated rule of law teams, the initial mandate of EUPM did not take this lesson of the UN into account (Juncos, 2007: 78). After the extension of the first mandate of EUPM, the mission included some rule of law experts who would support the mandate of the EUPM.

1.2.3 The execution of the mandate of EUPM

During the execution of the mandate the EU Police Mission encountered several problems. For example, it became clear that the policing reforms of EUPM were hampered by the patchy interface between Bosnian police agencies and the court system (Merlingen, 2009: 167). To improve this, EUPM set up a Criminal Justice Interface Unit within the mission to enable it to improve relations between prosecutors and the police. Furthermore, EUPM needed police officers with specialised skills and management experience. However, the reality was that most officers sent to EUPM lacked the skills and experience to 'effectively mentor, monitor and inspect' Bosnia's police management. Frequently the personnel lacked sufficient English, the official language of the mission (Donlon, 2010: 28). The EU failed to learn from the UN's experience on this account as well, as the UN requires officers to take an English language test upon arrival (Juncos, 2007: 78; Orsini, 2006: 1).

1.3 Lessons learned?

As the first and longest EU crisis management mission, EUPM has shown a steep learning curve. Some of the challenges that are mentioned above have been successfully tackled. The adjustment of the mandate after the first mandate of EUPM and the adjustment to a regional approach after 2005 are examples of this. The experiences and lessons from EUPM have also been used, although not always successfully, during the (preparation of) the EUPOL Proxima mission in FYROM that was

launched in December 2003 (Council's Secretariat 6592/06, 2006: Annex IV, p. 3). Lessons can also be recognised in the current practices of EULEX Kosovo (see EULEX case study).

The emphasis that Council, the Secretariat, the PSC and CIVCOM placed on identifying lessons and learning from them, especially during the first year of EUPM, has undoubtedly increased the ability to learn from experiences during EUPM. However, it should also be noted that the EU was unable to learn from other international organisations during the first phase of EUPM, as it did not incorporate lessons from the *Brahimi Report* (2001) that stressed the need for highly qualified personnel, integrated rule of law teams and efficient procurement systems.

2. EUFOR CONCORDIA IN THE FORMER YUGOSLAV REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA (FYROM)

At the request of the FYROM government, Operation Concordia took over from NATO's *Allied Harmony* Operation on 18 March 2003 (Council Joint Action 2003/92/CFSP). Operation Concordia was to contribute to a stable, secure environment and to allow the implementation of the August 2011 *Ohrid Framework Agreement*. Twenty-six countries, including all EU member states except Ireland and Denmark, contributed to approximately 350 lightly armed military personnel for the operation. Concordia was the European Union's first operation that made use of NATO assets and capabilities under the 'Berlin Plus' agreements. The operation terminated on 15 December 2003 and was followed by the first European police mission, EUPOL Proxima.

2.1 Formal process of identifying lessons

Only a few weeks before the end of operation Concordia on 15 December 2003, the Political and Security Committee (PSC) officially initiated the lessons learned process for the operation. This resulted in several documents: (1) a report of the Council's Secretariat on political, political-military and institutional lessons identified on 13 February 2004 (Council's Secretariat Document 6333/04, 2004); and (2) a report of the PSC on the way ahead for the lessons learned from Concordia on 18 May 2004 (PSC Document 7381/04, 2004). To continue the lessons learned process, the results of the two reports were discussed in two meetings of the PSC on 5 February and 30 March 2004, to which, among others, the EU Special Representative for FYROM, the EU Concordia Operation Commander and two Concordia Force Commanders were invited. The lessons were also used during the first joint crisis management exercise, conducted with NATO in November 2003 (RELEX Document 14500/03, 2003).

The identification of lessons concerning the financial mechanisms used during Operation Concordia was of crucial influence in the adaption of the ATHENA framework. The process to identify these lessons started already during the operation, as the report on the financial lessons learned was issued on 15 September 2003 (Foreign Relations Counsellors, 11154/1/03, 2003).

2.2 Identified lessons that have been documented

Considering official documents and academic literature on Operation Concordia the following three main topics can be identified when it comes to the lessons of Operation Concordia:

2.2.1 Cooperation with NATO within the Berlin Plus arrangements

Operation Concordia was mounted rapidly while the Berlin Plus arrangements, which gives the EU access to NATO assets in the planning of operations, were being negotiated. Although the smooth transition from NATO's Operation *Allied Harmony* to Operation Concordia has demonstrated the effectiveness of the Berlin Plus arrangements, the transition from NATO to the EU was not completely without problems. For example, intelligence sharing between the EU and NATO had not been agreed upon before the launch of the operation and this presented a significant co-ordination challenge (Gross, 2009: 177). With respect to co-ordination, the chain of command structures that were established based on the Berlin Plus agreement, and closely modelled on NATO structures, were not ideal to promote the co-ordination of civilian and military instruments (Gross, 2009: 178). Differences between NATO and the EU also prevented the establishment of a direct contact between Concordia and the NATO peace keeping force in Kosovo (KFOR), with the EU Force Commander having to go through Allied Forces Southern Europe (AFSOUTH) in Naples in order to have contact with NATO,

rather than developing field-level contacts, which would have facilitated the running of the operation.

2.2.2 Co-ordination of EU efforts in FYROM

A second issue that resulted in lessons identified during Operation Concordia was the co-ordination of EU efforts in FYROM. As a result of internal co-ordination challenges, the respective positions of Concordia and that of the Council in Brussels, but also that of the EUSR, *vis-à-vis* the FYROM authorities in the field were not always fully coordinated (Gross, 2009: 178). Weekly co-ordination meetings with all EU actors were held in the office of the EUSR in order to align positions and activities, and generally good interpersonal relations between the EUSR, the Delegation of the Commission and Concordia facilitated informal contacts and co-ordination (ibid.: 176). However, different operating mandates, bureaucratic procedures and political imperatives impeded a closer structural co-ordination of military, political and economic instruments. Another lesson identified concerning internal co-ordination of the EU is that the strict delineation between Concordia and the various EU instruments already in place (i.e. diplomatic staff of the EUSR office) meant that Concordia did not make use of the expertise during the planning phase of the operation (ibid.: 178). There was also no serious review early on in the process of the possible impact of the operation on existing EU engagement in FYROM.

2.2.3 Financial mechanism of Concordia

The main lessons that followed from Operation Concordia's concern the financial mechanisms that were used during the operation. Four shortcomings were identified by the EU (Foreign Relations Counsellors, 11154/1/03, 2003: Annex p. 6). The unavailability of EU funds in the preparatory and deployment phases of an operation was the main shortfall identified during Concordia. The operation showed that the deployment phase of an operation usually represents a significant proportion of its overall cost (ibid.). A second problem was that the financial mechanism tended to involve participating third countries late in the decision-making process, complicating timely coverage of operation costs. For example, Canada withdrew from Concordia as a result of the late notification. The negotiations with third states were very time consuming and difficult to finalize in time, especially since the operations was of short duration. The need to improve the efficiency of the process has been identified in the documents assessing operation Concordia. Furthermore, the financial rules applicable to the operation were notably complex and the estimates of the common costs of the operation were produced only late in the decision-making process. The issue of financing took a big step forward on 22 September 2003, when the Council decided that the EU needed a mechanism for managing the common costs of military operations of any scale, complexity or urgency. As of 1 March 2004, the ATHENA mechanism worked to administer the financing of the common costs of European Union operations having military or defense implications. This permanent financing mechanism made it possible to make the financial arrangements for Operation ALTHEA in Bosnia-Herzegovina.

2.3 Lessons learned?

As a relatively short and small operation, Concordia did not manage to effectively learn from all its lessons identified during the nine months it was operational. It did, however, reveal broader and enduring challenges for future CSDP operations, for example, the attainment of a working EU-NATO relationship and the implementation of a comprehensive approach to crisis management (Grevi, 2009). As such, Concordia does not stand out when it comes to internal mission learning. However, Concordia did serve as an important catalyst for the improvement of CSDP operations, especially

when it comes to the financial mechanism ATHENA. A second example of how a challenge during Operation Concordia influenced future CSDP efforts is the establishment of a small EU cell at SHAPE and a NATO liaison at the EUMS in 2004, which was meant to improve the preparation of EU operations having recourse to NATO assets and capabilities under the Berlin Plus arrangements and to enhance transparency between the EU and NATO (Council Document 10547/04, 2004). In retrospect, Concordia served as an indication that the EU was ready to assume further security functions in the Balkans. As such, Concordia represents a prequel for Operation EUFOR Althea, the operation in Bosnia and Herzegovina launched in December 2004.

3. OPERATION ARTEMIS IN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO

Operation Artemis deployed to the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) was the EU's first ESDP operation outside of the European continent and its first autonomous military operation. The Operation was launched on 12 June 2003 in response to an appeal by the UN Secretary-General for the rapid deployment of an Interim Emergency Multinational Force (IEMF) in support of the UN Mission in the DRC (MONUC). In accordance with UN Security Council Resolution 1484 (2003), the mandate of Operation Artemis was (1) to contribute to the stabilisation of the security conditions and the improvement of the humanitarian situation in Bunia; (2) to ensure the protection of the airport and of the internally displaced persons in the camps in Bunia; and (3) to contribute to the safety of the civilian population, UN personnel and the humanitarian presence in the town if the situation so required (Council Joint Action 2003/423/CFSP). Operation Artemis ended on 12 September 2003 when full responsibility was handed back to MONUC.

3.1 Process of identifying lessons

Operation Artemis was followed by a structured and high-profile lessons learned process with a special focus on the EU's rapid reaction capacities. In its Conclusions on Operation Artemis (29 September 2003), the Council stressed 'the importance of learning from this Operation, together with all parties concerned, in particular the United Nations' (Council Document, 12294/03, 2003). Furthermore, it tasked the PSC to report on the lessons to be learned from Artemis 'at an early opportunity' (ibid.). On 17 February 2004, the PSC forwarded a Report on the way ahead following operation Artemis lessons learned (Council Document, 6324/1/04, 2004) to COREPER proposing a set of actions to be endorsed by the Council¹³. In its conclusions on ESDP (17 May 2004), the Council noted that lessons had been drawn from Operation Artemis and underlined the importance of a rapid decision-making and planning process for the Union's rapid reaction capacity (Council Document, 9231/1/04, 2004)¹⁴. Following a request by the Council, the Secretary-General/ High Representative (SG/HR) presented a Report on accelerated decision making and planning process for EU Rapid Response Operations on 15 March 2005 (Council Document, 7317/05, 2005).

Another lessons learned document worth mentioning is the UN Peacekeeping Best Practices Unit study on the lessons of the IEMF, issued in October 2004. The study draws lessons from the deployment of Operation Artemis for the UN and presents 11 recommendations for similar scenarios in the future.

3.2 Identified lessons that have been documented

There are several themes running through official and external evaluations of Operation Artemis. These can be grouped into the following six categories:

3.2.1 Rapid reaction capacity

Operation Artemis was decided, planned and deployed rapidly. On 5 June 2003, the Council adopted the Joint Action (Council Joint Action 2003/423/CFSP); on 12 June 2003 it decided to launch the Operation; and within three weeks all the troops had been deployed (Faria, 2004: 47). External and

¹³ While the item note (Council Document 6324/1/04) documenting the passing of the report from the PSC to COREPER was declassified, the content of the report was not.

¹⁴ The content of these lessons was not disclosed.

official evaluations concurred that lessons regarding the rapid planning and deployment of an operation should be drawn from Operation Artemis.

3.2.2 Framework Nation Concept

With France as a framework nation, Operation Artemis put the Framework Nation Concept¹⁵ to a first practical test. There is general agreement that Operation Artemis validated the framework nation concept in militarily terms (Ulriksen, Gourlay and Mace, 2004: 521). However, some questioned the political validity of the concept due to the correlation between the important French contribution and France's historical role and potential interests in the region (ibid.). Ulriksen, Gourlay and Mace (ibid.) concluded that the lead nation concept should be balanced by broader member state participation while keeping in mind the 'need for military efficiency in a military force' (ibid.).

3.2.3 Scope and duration of the Operation

Many external evaluations criticised the limited scale and scope of Operation Artemis. The period of deployment was three months and the area of operations was limited to Bunia. According to the UN lessons learned study, the limited geographical scope of the Operation simply displaced violence beyond the environs of Bunia, 'where atrocities continued' (UN, 2004: 14). Regarding the duration of the Operation, the UN concluded that Operation Artemis 'was only a very short-term expression of international support' (ibid.: 17). The implicit lesson would be to stretch both the operational area and the length of future operations in order to ensure an effective and durable impact of an EU operation.

3.2.4 Operational assets

Operation Artemis highlighted some of the EU's capability gaps. There was a lack of strategic transport, a need for secure means for long-distance communications, information technology, intelligence sharing, and a need to improve the interoperability of European armed forces (Ulriksen, Gourlay and Mace, 2004: 515). There was no strategic reserve, while the PSC had agreed this was important (ibid.).

3.2.5 Comprehensive approach and civil-military coordination

External evaluations offer a mixed account regarding the assessment of the comprehensive approach and civil-military cooperation. According to Faria (2004: 44) and Homan (2007: 154), the cooperation between Artemis and the humanitarian community worked 'remarkably well'. The success of the cooperation was traced back to 'intelligent planning and capable human resources' (Faria, 2004: 45) including a civil-military liaison officer that was on the ground together with the first French troops. A report from the NGOs Saferworld and International Alert (2004), however, deplored that there was no link between short-term crisis management and longer-term peacebuilding. The report argued that a senior civilian should have been placed alongside the Operations Commander in order to help link Operation Artemis to the broader civilian activities (Saferworld and International Alert, 2004: 8).

¹⁵ The EU defines a framework nation as 'a Member State or a group of Member States that has volunteered to, and that the Council has agreed, should have specific responsibilities in an operation over which the EU exercises political control' (quoted in: WEU 2008). The framework nation is expected to provide the Operation Commander and to make a significant contribution to strategic and operational planning as well as to the operation's assets and capabilities (ibid.).

3.2.6 EU-UN cooperation and handover

According to the UN lessons learned study, EU-UN cooperation in the planning phase and pre-deployment liaison with MONUC were sub-optimal (UN, 2004: 14), but cooperation on the ground worked much better. However, one of the major shortcomings of the deployment of Operation Artemis was its handover to the UN (ibid.: 17). None of the participants of Operation Artemis were willing to re-hat with MONUC, putting the credibility of the UN mission at risk (ibid.). For future scenarios of this type, the UN recommends that 'there should be a clear understanding that if IEMF participants refuse to be re-hatted, at least some if not all of the IEMF's enabling assets will be left behind in order to ensure that the mission does not lose credibility' (ibid.: 15).

3.3 Lessons learned?

Operation Artemis served as a reference model for the development of the EU's Battlegroup Concept. However, the Battlegroups have not been deployed so far and discussions on their deployment are often marked by divergent views of the Member States. Furthermore, there is no Battlegroup on stand-by for the first semester of 2012 leading to the question whether there is the political will to put this lesson learned into practice.

The EU has learned some of the lessons from Operation Artemis related to operational assets. According to Homan (2007: 4) action was taken to ensure better and more secure communications for future operations. Nevertheless, some shortfalls identified in the course of Operation Artemis, like the lack of strategic airlift or the need to improve interoperability, remain on the EU's agenda.

Finally, Operation Artemis catalysed the institutionalisation of EU-UN cooperation in crisis management. In their Joint Declaration on EU-UN Cooperation in Crisis Management (24 September 2003), the organisations established a joint consultative mechanism to increase cooperation in four areas: planning, training, communication, and best practices. Although the handover from an EU to a UN mission remains challenging (see section on EUFOR Tchad/RCA), Operation EUFOR Tchad/RCA shows that the EU more readily re-hats troops and assets than was the case for Operation Artemis.

Operation Artemis was a 'first' in many respects and thus represents an important milestone in the EU's lessons learned process. The Operation triggered the development of the EU's military rapid reaction instruments. However, as the above overview shows, some lessons identified in the very early years of ESDP are still on the EU's agenda.

4. EUROPEAN UNION POLICE MISSION (EUPOL) PROXIMA AND THE EUROPEAN UNION POLICE ADVISORY TEAM (EUPAT) FYROM

The European Union Police Mission (EUPOL) Proxima was launched on 15 December 2003 as the EU's second civilian crisis management mission (Council Joint Action 2003/681/CFSP). Following on from the military EU Operation Concordia, EUPOL Proxima was initially mandated for a year. The EU used a so-called 'dual track' approach to reform the police in Macedonia. This approach entailed that the European Commission assisted the long-term structural changes in the Ministry of Interior (Mol) and the police in support of the country's institutional development, whereas EUPOL Proxima tackled more short-term needs in support of the Ohrid Framework Agreement (OFA). To do this, EUPOL Proxima's objective was to monitor, mentor and advise senior and mid-level management police officers to implement the Macedonian National Police Strategy and the Integrated Border Management Strategy, both adopted by the Macedonian government. In November 2004, the mandate of the mission was extended until 14 December 2005 with a downsized staff and a mandate covering three, as opposed to the previous five programs (i.e. organised crime, public peace and order and border police) (Council Joint Action 2004/789/CFSP).

To bridge the six-month gap between the end of Proxima and the commencement of the Commission field-level project, the Council decided to launch an EU Police Advisory Team (EUPAT) from 15 December 2005 until 14 June 2006. EUPAT was similar in its goals, mission and organisation (Council Joint Action 2005/826/CFSP).

4.1 Formal process of identifying lessons

As was the case for the first EU Police mission in Bosnia (EUPM BiH), there has also been a lessons learned review of the planning phase of EUPOL Proxima (Council Document, 2004). However, it is not possible to verify when and by whom this report has been carried out, because it is classified. Furthermore two reviews have been carried out during the mission, one mid-term review in July 2004 (Council's Secretariat Document 11496/04, 2004) and a final review in February 2006 (Council's Secretariat Document 6592/06, 2006). The mid-term report reviewed the functioning of the mission at all levels with regard to the question whether or not the mission was optimally positioned to attain its goals by the end of the year (Council's Secretariat Document 11496/04, 2004: 28). The final report includes a lesson learned report from the 'Administration & Support Department' (Council's Secretariat Document 6592/06, 2006: Annex IV), which addresses human resources, medical care, finances, logistics, and communications & information technology. A fourth official document that addresses lessons from Proxima is the Joint Paper on Lessons Learned on the transition between the EU Police Advisory (EUPAT) team in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and a European Community policing project that the Committee for Civilian Aspects of Crisis Management (CIVCOM) on 18 December 2006 (CIVCOM Document 16938/06, 2006). It appears that the EUPOL Proxima mission lesson learning process was not entirely *ad hoc*, as lessons have been collected and analysed since the planning phase. Although there are two reviews that solely address the lessons learned of Proxima and EUPAT, it appears that the lesson learning process of these missions was combined with the two reviews of the mission. Judging from the official sources, the Head of Mission, the PSC, the Secretariat, the Council and can be seen as the driving forces behind the lesson learning process.

4.2 Identified lessons that have been documented

Considering official documents and academic literature on EUPOL Proxima the following two main topics can be identified when it comes to the lessons of EUPOL Proxima:

4.2.1 The planning phase of EUPOL Proxima

The final report of EUPOL Proxima is very clear about its planning phase, stating that the conditions of the set up were worse than during the planning phase of EUPM BiH in two aspects: there was a lack of specific officers on administration, finance, communication, IT, and transport and there was a very tight timeframe (Council's Secretariat Document 6592/06, 2006: 6). Furthermore, the ad-hoc and inflexible force generation among the Member States resulted in delays and shortfalls, and led to a turnover rate meaning that precious relations built with the local police had to be re-built from scratch (ibid.: Annex IV). As a result of this, the planning phase of the mission, which lasted for two months, did not provide a solid basis for a smooth kick-off of the mission. According to the final report, the conditions of this second planning (after the mandate was expanded) were no better than the initial one, especially in terms of time constraints (ibid.: 9). As a result, continuous trouble-shooting, instead of proper planning produced expectedly poor consequences (ibid.: 9). The report therefore concludes that the lessons learned report on the planning phase of EUPM (Council's Secretariat Document 11206/03) was not fully implemented in the case of Proxima (Council's Secretariat Document 6592/06: Annex IV p. 3). The report makes several recommendations, among others to select an experienced and well-trained staff, centralise training, create a centralised Mission Support Cell for procurement and standardise administrative procedures (ibid.: Annex IV).

4.2.2 The co-ordination between ESDP missions and other EU instruments

A second issue that resulted in lessons identified during EUPOL Proxima is the co-ordination of EU efforts in FYROM. Despite an elaborate system for political co-ordination among the EU institutions during weekly informal meetings, led by the EUSR, EU actors faced problems working out how to best complement each other's efforts in FYROM and how to coordinate successfully. For example, the European Agency for Reconstruction withheld information from Proxima, waiting for the Council police mission to leave the country before launching its programmes (Loannides, 2009: 194). In addition, the relations between Proxima and the Delegation of the European Commission were problematic as well. The inability to achieve successful inter-institutional co-ordination identifies the lesson that the combination of crisis management and institution building should be part of a single overarching EU concept. To achieve this, a clear division of responsibilities and proper mechanisms to oversee a transition from a CSDP mission to EC instruments are necessary (ibid.: 197).

4.3 Lessons learned?

Despite the problems that the mission encountered, especially during the planning phase, EUPOL Proxima and EUPAT FYROM have shown that they were able to learn from earlier CSDP missions and their own experience. An example of the latter is that during the mission the work processes and the mission structure were adjusted because they were not optimally suited to the mission's tasks and activities (Council's Secretariat Document 11496/04, 2004: 28). As a result, five basic principles were drawn up to revise the mission structure: (1) the creation of five mission programmes, (2) an enhanced chain of command, (3) a better defined way to periodically review the mission, (4) the creation of single contact points for the programmes and (5) a more clear distinction between the terms 'programmes', 'projects' and 'activities'.

A clear example of the ability to learn from previous CSDP missions is that a joint European Commission-Council fact-finding mission was conducted before the deployment of EUPOL Proxima to assess the state of the Macedonian police structures and understand the needs of the country (Loannides, 2009: 196). It was the first time a joint Commission-Council Secretariat fact-finding mission was carried out. This would become usual practice for future civilian missions, for example

during the planning phase of the EU SSR Mission in Guinea-Bissau (see EUSSR Guinea-Bissau case study). EUPOL Proxima also incorporated officers from the EU Police Mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina during its planning phase and sought advice of the OSCO and bilateral actors. However, the short planning period did not allow the development of a well defined mission statement.

Lastly, benchmarking mechanisms were developed during EUPOL Proxima. In order to fulfil the programme's objectives, result-based activities tied to a specific timeframe were developed and were monitored on a weekly basis. The new element of EUPAT was the creation of a 'consultation mechanism', designed to improve Proxima's benchmarking system'. In this system, EUPAT submitted a progress report to the national authorities every month (Loannides, 2009: 193).

5. EUFOR ALTHEA BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

Operation EUFOR Althea was launched on 2 December 2004 (Council Joint Action 2004/570/CFSP), following the NATO SFOR operation, and is the largest military operation that the EU has embarked upon to date. As part of the EU's comprehensive approach in Bosnia and Herzegovina (BiH), Operation Althea provides a military presence to contribute to a safe and secure environment, prevent conditions for a resumption of violence and manage any residual aspects of the General Framework Agreement for Peace in BiH (also known as Dayton/Paris Agreement). Additionally, EUFOR is tasked to support the Armed Forces of BiH in the areas of capacity-building and training. UN Security Council Resolution 2019 extended the mandate of EUFOR Althea until November 2012.

5.1 Formal process of identifying lessons

The EU institutions that were involved during Operation EUFOR Althea in Bosnia and Herzegovina (e.g. the Council General Secretariat, including the EUMS) have issued several papers concerning lessons identified within the operation throughout the years (a list is provided in the bibliography). The formal EU process to identify lessons from Operation EUFOR in Bosnia and Herzegovina shows similarities with the process conducted during the EU Police Mission (EUPM) in BiH. Like that of the EUPM BiH, it focuses on the planning phase of the operation as well as the co-ordination and coherence between the military operation in BiH (EUFOR Althea), the civilian mission (EUPM) and the EU Special Representative (EUSR). The EUMS has also taken the initiative to identify lessons concerning the military aspects of the executive phase of the operation. Lessons are also part of operation's six-monthly reports.

In the publically available official documents, there is no specific reference to a pre-planned, formal lessons learned process during Operation EUFOR Althea. It would appear that the lessons identified documents that focused on the co-ordination problems between EUFOR Althea and the EU Police Mission in BiH (Council's Secretariat Document 15376/06, 2006; EU Military Committee Document 16034/06, 2006) are the result of an *ad hoc* lessons learned review, since this unforeseen problem needed immediate attention when it occurred. However, the lesson learning process of EUFOR Althea does not seem to be completely *ad-hoc*, as the EUMC published its papers periodically after certain phases of the operation (i.e. planning and execution phase).

Since 2007, an EU Military Lessons Learned Process (ELPRO) has been developed, which has been supported by a management tool and lessons learned database known as ELMA (EUMS Lessons Management Application). Currently there are approximately 30 'Lessons Observations' for Operation EUFOR Althea in the ELMA database (EU official, February 2012). There is a vast array of information provided in the database, including the 'Lessons Observations', the context of the lessons and the updates of the analysis and development phases. It seems that as a result of this continuous lesson learning process there is less need for separate periodic reports.

5.2 Identified lessons that have been documented

Considering official documents and academic literature on Operation EUFOR Althea the following three main topics can be identified when it comes to the lessons of the operation:

5.2.1 The planning phase of EUFOR Althea

Although, in general, the transition from NATO SFOR to EUFOR Althea is considered to be a considerably less contentious and criticised process than the transition of UN IPTF to EUPM (Donlon, 2010: 36), there were still lessons to be learned for future EU operations. One lesson identified

suggests that more in-depth training for personnel without relevant EU experience must be given for personnel destined for the EU Cell at SHAPE (EU Military Staff Document 8429/05, 2005)¹⁶. Another lesson identified is that the operational relationship between the Special Representative and the EU peacekeeping force should be taken into account during the planning phase of future EU operations. This was not clear during the start of the EUFOR operation (Keohane, 2009: 219). To address these matters, the EUMC issued a classified lessons identified report on the planning phase of Operation ALTHEA (EU Military Committee Document 8912/05, 2005) in May 2005.

5.2.2 The co-ordination and coherence of EU efforts in BiH

The second theme concerns the co-ordination and coherence of EU efforts in BiH. One clear lesson identified is that any potential overlap in the mandates of different (civilian and military) efforts of the EU in one country should be clarified as soon as possible. As mentioned before, the initial relationship between EUFOR Althea and the EUSR was unclear (Keohane, 2009: 219). Furthermore, the activities of EUFOR to support the fight against organized crime created tensions with the EU Police Mission (EUPM), deployed in Bosnia since early 2003, because EUPM was also mandated to support the fight against organised crime (ibid.: 217). Several measures were taken to resolve these co-ordination and coherence problems. First of all, EUFOR scaled down its involvement in the fight against organised crime (ibid.: 218). To clarify the different roles, the PSC also adjusted the mandates of the two operations in 2006, making EUPM the lead operation for anti-crime measures with the Bosnian authorities (ibid.: 219). Furthermore, the coordinating role of the EUSR was upgraded, giving him more say over the coherence of the two operations (Council's Secretariat Document 15376/06: 4, 2004).

Reflecting on these matters, the Secretariat released a paper in November 2006 concerning lessons for the co-ordination and coherence between the EUSR, EUFOR Althea and the EUPM in BiH between December 2004 and August 2006 (Council's Secretariat Document 15376/06, 2006). The paper identifies four key recommendations to further improve EU co-ordination and coherence in BiH. 1) The Secretariat should set up high-level training for key staff prior to deployment (including designated EUSRs and Heads of EU missions). 2) Precise guidance (using *Crisis Management Concepts*) and coordinating instructions should be provided to each actor. 3) The EUSR should have a strong coordinating role. And 4) There should be consultation between military and civilian actors.

5.2.3 The military execution of EUFOR Althea

A third theme of lessons identified is the military execution of Operation EUFOR Althea. In October 2007, the EUMC issued lessons identified document, addressing the historical lessons identified from the execution of operation Althea (EU Military Committee Document 14181/07, 2007). This document summarises the key military strategic lessons identified from the execution phase of the operation, drawing together the observations of the Member States and the EU Operation Commander (December 2004 – April 2007). One of the lessons is that every effort should be made to ensure that lessons from operations are adequately fed into training activities. In the report, the EUMC proposes to use the EUMS lessons management application (ELMA) to ensure the follow up of lessons learned.

¹⁶ The EU Cell at SHAPE (EUCS), which is part of the EUMS, is important for the EU-NATO interface. Operation Althea is commanded by the Operational Commander (OpCdr) with the EU Operational Headquarters (OHQ) at SHAPE.

5.3 Lessons learned?

As EUFOR Althea was already established in December 2004, the lessons learned process is a continuing one. On some accounts, lessons have been learned, on others, old dilemmas and problems have either re-emerged or not been sufficiently dealt with. Examples of the latter are the need for better co-ordination of EU instruments, including the call for trained personnel and more efficient procurement procedures. These aspects have been recognised by both the Council as continuous problems (Emersen & Gross, 2007: 15). Amongst the lessons identified of Operation Althea, most progress has been made on the co-ordination and coherence of the different EU missions/actors in BiH. Although it took around 18 months, a workable solution was found for the initial confusion between the mandate of EUFOR and EUPM in Bosnia. One practical example of a measure that was used to pursue co-ordination between the several EU missions in BiH is the organisation of monthly meetings with the operational EU actors (EUFOR, EUPM, EUMM, the Commission and presidency). Further lessons have also been learned on the Berlin Plus agreement, which was first used during the EUFOR Concordia operation in FYROM. According to EUFOR Althea Commander Gen. Leakey (December 2004 -December 2005) lessons have been learned about cost-sharing agreements, intelligence-sharing and having a clear delineation of tasks whenever there are NATO and EU military operations in the same theatre (NATO, 2007).

6. EU MISSION TO PROVIDE ASSISTANCE FOR SECURITY SECTOR REFORM, RD CONGO (EUSEC RD CONGO) & EU POLICE MISSION, RD CONGO (EUPOL RD CONGO)

EUSEC RD Congo was launched on 2 May 2005 (Council Joint Action 2005/355/CFSP), and was quickly deployed in June of that same year. It is unique as a civilian mission comprised almost entirely of military staff. The EU Police mission in the Democratic Republic of Congo (EUPOL RD Congo) was subsequently launched in 2007 (Council Joint Action 2007/405/CFSP). This EUPOL mission followed directly from the more narrowly mandated EUPOL Kinshasa mission, which supported the Integrated Police Unit during the 2006 election period (Vircoulon, 2009b: 222). Different originating circumstances, timelines, and separate budgets for the Police and Military, circumscribed possibilities for launching a single joined-up mission (Clement, 2009:249). Currently they co-exist in the RD Congo, both with a Mentoring Monitoring and Advising (MMA) mandate. EUSEC focuses exclusively on the defence sector, and EUPOL on the Congolese National Police (PNC) and its interaction with the judicial sector. Collective staffs add up to about 100 persons, a majority based in Kinshasa.

EUPOL fulfils its mandate by supporting, mentoring, monitoring and advising Congolese authorities as well as providing training activities, and contributing to the fight against impunity in the field of human rights and sexual violence (Council Decision 2011/537/CFSP). EUSEC's current mandate (Council Decision 2010/565/CFSP) states that the mission will provide practical SSR support, particularly in implementing short and medium term activities based on the Reform Plan for the Armed Forces of the Democratic Republic of Congo (FARDC). Its support has also come in the form of specific projects, such as the Chain of Payment project (to reduce graft of military salaries) as well as conducting a census and implementing a biometrical identification system for the FARDC. Both missions have added project cells to their mandates, an infrequent feature of missions. Despite their attachment to a specific sector, both missions explicitly refer to their support of the Congolese in undertaking Security Sector Reform (SSR).

6.1 Process of identifying lessons

Both EUSEC and EUPOL RD Congo submit six-monthly reports, which are to include a lessons component. However, no full-time staff or designated officer was made responsible for systematically collecting lessons in either mission (interview EEAS staff, 7 February 2012). Lessons identified and "ways forward" were seen to be within the purview of the Heads of Mission, who are responsible for submitting the periodic reports. Each mission has participated in the CMPD's thematic lessons learned exercise on mainstreaming human rights and gender (Council Document, 17138/1/10, 2010), and are currently taking part in a similar thematic lessons process on SSR.

Beyond official EU documents and reporting procedures, external reviewers, academics, and think tanks have issued several reports and periodic updates on these two missions. Given the challenging context of the RD Congo and the wider interest in SSR, several workshops and conferences have been organised to discuss the ongoing missions, often with relevant EEAS staff. These meetings often result in reports.

6.2 Identified lessons that have been documented

A review of the literature above flagged several lessons from the two missions. A few of the most frequently mentioned are categorised into five themes, developed below.

6.2.1 Addressing Political Challenges

Arguably, the most prevalent topic analysed by external experts (but also discussed within the EU), is the need for SSR support to be engaged in, or at a minimum responsive to, the local political context. SSR is inevitably and irrevocably a politically-charged undertaking (Clement, 2009b; EPLO, 2011; Vircoulon, 2008: 228; OECD, 2007: 28). However, both EUPOL and EUSEC are characterised as performing largely technical activities, which has proven insufficient given the root causes of some challenges (ZIF, 2007; EPLO, 2011: 4; Clement, 2009: 250; Van Damme, 2008: 12). Post-conflict settings require political savvy, and this has been judged as a weak point for CSDP in RD Congo (Clement, 2009: 244; Vircoulon, 2009b: 228). Progress in technical projects are often seen as the result of successful, however latent, political engagement with Congolese counterparts (More and Price, 2011: 35). EUSEC's Chain of Payment project, while of a technical nature, required political pressure (Bloching, 2011: 3; Davis, 2009: 19). Yet, there is wide consensus on the impotency of both EUPOL RD Congo and EUSEC in operating effectively on more political issues inherent to SSR¹⁷). The need to supplement technical assistance with political engagement is an identified lesson (Council Document, 11038/08, 2008).

Political engagement regarding SSR support in the RD Congo is most often associated with the effective and legitimate civilian oversight of state security forces. In the RD Congo, public accountability of the army and police is a rather novel idea (Davis, 2009: 20). The institutions created to ensure democratic oversight (e.g. the National Parliament, the Army/Police Inspector General, State Auditors, etc.) are chronically underfunded, understood to be a political machination rather than a financial constraint (Clement, 2009b: 98; Oxfam, 2010: 7). In the 2008 *Lessons learned in EUPOL Kinshasa* (EUPOL RD Congo's predecessor), a CSDP mission is recognised as a 'political instrument', which can guide and support local reform and better coordinate the use of state and donor funds (Council Document, 11038/08: 16). It is not apparent this observation was noted by either EUPOL RD Congo or EUSEC.

In general, given the instability of the RD Congo, security of the political elite and territorial integrity is seen to be prioritized over the population's security (Van Damme, 2008: 12). Attention must be paid to how SSR can be integrated with statebuilding and democratic agendas, and work in the interest of populations (Vircoulon, 2008: 228; EPLO, 2011; Oxfam, 2010). The situation in RD Congo emphasises the lesson that Member States must understand the political circumstances in which CSDP missions operate, as well as the political nature of SSR, to frame their expectations appropriately (EPLO, 2011: 7).

6.2.2 Local Ownership

Closely related to addressing the political context is ensuring that local counterparts participate in and are committed to the progress pursued by external actors, what in donor parlance is referred to as "local ownership". In a response the annual Council report to the Assembly of the Western European Union (WEU) regarding EU engagement in the RD Congo, it is recognised that 'the Union provides capabilities and expertise but cannot replace those who are directly concerned [African and national authorities]' (Assembly WEU, 2006: #134). External experts corroborate, 'Success of efforts to reform the security sector depends to a large degree on Congolese authorities taking responsibility for the process' (ZIF, 2007: 6). Set in contrast to this ideal, Congolese resistance to reform, often labelled as the "lack of political will", has been identified as a primary challenge to progress on many

¹⁷ Many note that this was not always the case; before the elections of 2006, the EU, and CSDP missions included were more politically influential (Council Document, 11038/08: 7; Kuovo and Davis, 2009: 464; Van Damme, 2008: 10).

levels and in many sectors (Oxfam, 2010; Keane, 2008: 218; Davis, 2009; Van Damme, 2008; Vircuolon, 2009).

Local resistance to reform is often related to the power of an individual being linked to an institution, which builds inertia against changing the status quo (EPLO, 2011: 2; Davis, 2009: 19; Oxfam, 2010). In that respect, lessons on local ownership are somewhat intertwined with those concerning awareness of (and engagement in) the local political context. A lesson from EUPOL Kinshasa bears as much relevance now as in 2008: 'explicit commitments should be sought from the host government on all of the issues deemed crucial for the success of the mission' (Council Document, 11038/08: 8).

6.2.3 Coordination among multiple SSR actors

Given the numerous donors supporting SSR in the RD Congo¹⁸, coordination is essential to ensuring that comprehensive SSR support is also coherent. EUPOL in particular, with assistance from the Commission, has taken up the lesson identified by EUPOL Kinshasa, and supported the creation of coordination structures for the police (Council Document, 11038/08: 5; More and Price, 2011). However, external reports have evaluated the impact of these and similar meeting as deficient, particularly with regard to structures for defence (Bloching, 2011: 3; EPLO, 2011: 2; More and Price, 2011: 24; Boshoff et.al., 2010; Ekengard, 2009; Vircuolon, 2009b). EU reports also acknowledge that the disappointing impact of these coordinating groups (Council Document, 10937/11, 2011).

There is general consensus that the failure to establish more effective coordination mechanisms is partially the result of Congolese authorities' unwillingness to drive forward this element of reform (EPLO, 2011: 7; Council Document, 10927/11, 2011; More and Price, 2011). The *Recommendations of the PMG on the six-monthly report by EUSEC RD Congo* (Council Document, 10937/11, 2011) openly regrets the lack of a steering committee for the defence sector, and explicitly acknowledges the Congolese authorities' role in its absence. In the same document, the PMG counsels the PSC to recommend that 'a political message should be sent out, at a high level, to the Congolese authorities, particularly on the need to mobilise the steering committee for defence reform' (ibid.) Here, the lesson echoes that of the preceding section: effective security reform requires full demonstrated commitment of the host country authorities. From an early stage, it should be clear that initiating and maintaining donor coordination is a key task of SSR, requiring the commitment of the host country (ISIS, 2010b: 17).

The unsatisfactory level of coordination between EU actors could also be seen as an area to learn from. In the RD Congo, the European Commission is also very active in police and justice reform, as are a few Member States – most prominently Belgium, France and the UK –, which work bilaterally (Davis, 2009: 29; Bloching, 2011b: 6). A classified joint Council-Commission document from November 2006, titled *Comprehensive EU Approach to SSR in the DRC (7138/1/06)* reportedly stresses the centrality of coordination and outlines mechanisms for EU actors in the RD Congo to harmonize their activities. However, reports since 2006 testify to the low impact of these good intentions (More and Price, 2011: 25; Vircuolon, 2009; Clement 2009/2009b; Keane, 2008). The need for well orchestrated and strategic coordination among EU actors in a host country is relevant for nearly all CSDP operations, and is particularly acute in RD Congo.

As a last point on coordination, much discussion has focussed on the existence of two separate CSDP missions in a single country, each dedicated to separate components within the field of SSR (Van

¹⁸ *inter alia*: UN mission MONUC/MONSUCO, US bilateral action, PriceWaterhouseCoopers, UK's Department for International Development, China bilateral action, Angola and South Africa bilateral action, as well as bilaterally acting EU Member States.

Damme, 2008: 11; More and Price, 2011). This appears to go against of the basic principles of supporting SSR, which seeks to address the security system as an integrated whole (Council Document, 12566/4/05, 2005; European Commission, 2006; OECD, 2007). Many experts – particularly those working inside the missions – do not see merging the two missions as a realistic or helpful solution (interview with EEAS staff, 7 February 2012; More and Price, 2011). A preferable option would be to concentrate efforts on inter-CSDP information sharing, strategic coordination, and resource sharing (ISIS, 2010c: 20). For example, personnel for public communication could be shared (Council Document, 11038/08: 6,7). Moreover, it was acknowledged that the missions do not share lessons learned with each other, missing a clear opportunity to capitalize on best practices or avoid similar pitfalls (Bloching, 2011: 3-4; Clement, 2009b: 105; More and Price, 2011: 25). The fact that each mission has separate reporting lines also hampers cross-communication. EUSEC, as an unusual military-staffed civilian mission, does not report to CPCC, as EUPOL does. Rather, it reports directly to the PSC, with the CMPD in charge of its strategic review. And while CIVCOM reviews the reports of EUPOL, the reports of EUSEC are often passed between the PSC and the Politico-Military Group (EUSEC's chain of reporting will be reviewed in 2012). Thus, launching separate but related CSDP missions in a single country is not advisable but, in the case of RD Congo, perhaps not retractable. The lesson is to focus more keenly on resource and information sharing, where possible, to enhance efficiency and to avoid redundancy.

6.2.4 Quick (Visible) Impact vs. Long Term Reform

MMA, while essential to sustainable reform, is difficult to measure, or demonstrate progress. Thus it is not uncommon for pressure to be put on mission staff to demonstrate progress, or “quick wins”. However, there is reason to question the sustainability or relative impact of “quick wins” (Davis, 2009:16; Van Damme, 2008: 9). Thus, a balance must be struck between making visible reforms on short-term timelines, and contributing to the grander endeavour of long-term reform (ZIF, 2007: 6).

In some cases, short-term and “visible” projects are valuable. For example, through technical and concrete projects, EUSEC has been able to build and strengthen relations with Congolese authorities as well as attract (and coordinate) the participation of other donors and Member States (Council Document, 10087/09, 2009; Clement, 2009; More and Price, 2011). An important lesson here, however, is to give careful consideration to the sustainability of projects. Recognised by EUPOL Kinshasa, ‘the state needs to have the means to continue to fund the institutions the EU supported’ (Council Document, 11038/08: 16). Similarly, the WEU 2006 reply to the annual Council report states, ‘Pay is a recurring theme in connection with the management of security and defence issues in the DRC, and the current solutions are not satisfactory for the medium and long term’ (2006: #73).

The short-term mandates and single year budgets of the missions clearly evidences the EU's short-term outlook (Van Damme, 2008: 13). This can be linked to the political judgements of the Member States reluctant to prolong engagement, despite the long-term nature of missions' activities (EPLO, 2011: 8). Lessons from EUPOL Kinshasa advocate for giving missions ‘a realistic timeframe from the outset, in particular where the mission supports a longer-term strategy for SSR’ (Council Document 11038/08: 6).

6.2.5 Staffing

Staffing issues are common to several CSDP missions, giving a familiar ring to some of the lessons learned. Yet, some staffing challenges are unique to the RD Congo. Recruitment for EUPOL and EUSEC is particularly challenging, requiring Franco-phone candidates, preferably with regional or local experience and the specialization for the position (EPLO, 2011: 10; More and Price, 2011: 38;

Vircoulon, 2009b: 229). Moreover, incentives offered to join the missions may not compensate for the demands and hardships secondees are required to face (interview EEAS staff, 7 February 2012). The limited resources of EUSEC and EUPOL prompted the sharing of the Human Rights and Gender Officer. However, this apparently limited the impact of the position and should be reconsidered (Council Document, 10937/11, 2011; Council Document, 17138/1/10, 2010). Given the needs of the missions, recruitment could be broadened to Commission staff, such as administrators, who may provide valuable assets to the CSDP missions (More and Price, 2011: 28). The option of temporary staff has been used by EUSEC on at least one occasion (Council Document, 10929/11, 2011). However, longer-term core staff provides important continuity in the mission. Lessons here could include the need to periodically review recruitment practices, which may be too limited for the missions' needs.

6.3 Lessons learned?

Increasing incidents of cooperation in activities among international actors supporting SSR in RD Congo, such as EUPOL's support of MONUSCO and EUSEC trainings, is an encouraging sign (ISIS, 2010c: 21). Similar indications of enhanced cooperation between EU actors have also been reported (Bloching, 2011c: 6). The addition of a project cell to the EUPOL mandate aimed to encourage Member States to work closely with the mission, tasked to coordinate and facilitate Member State police support projects (Council Joint Action 2011/573/CFSP). Similarly, EUSEC also had its mandate adjusted to allow recourse to Member State funding to implement relevant projects. This was also seen as a way to accommodate for the somewhat ill-fit procurement and financial procedures of the CFSP budget, an issue also identified in EUPOL Kinshasa (Council Document 11038/08: 13; More and Price, 2011).

In terms of staffing, there has been noted improvement in Member States seconding Francophone candidates (interview EEAS staff, 7 February 2012). The option of recruiting temporary staff for a specific activity has also been explored, demonstrating a willingness to trial more flexible staffing and recruitment practices (Council Document, 10929/11, 2011). With regard to encouraging long-term approaches, both missions contribute valuably to the formulations of Congolese long-term reform strategies. EUSEC's most recent mandate runs two full years, rather than the typical twelve months (Council Decision 2010/565/CFSP). Yet, this still falls short of the long-term reform outlooks.

What is remarkable is the recurrence of several lessons that had been identified explicitly by EUPOL Kinshasa (Council Document, 11038/08, 2008). For example, the need for EU actors to coordinate on addressing the political implications of SSR is mentioned as crucial (ibid: 5). The need for establishing a realistic time frame from the outset, particularly in addressing long-term SSR, is also mentioned in the lessons gathered in 2008 (ibid.: 6). The idea to pool staff positions, and specifically communications staff to increase EU actor coherence, was put forward by EUPOL Kinshasa (ibid: 6, 7,9). This lesson can be said to have been taken up in another area, but with mixed results (Council Document, 17138/1/10: 25; Council Document, 10937/11, 2011; Bloching, 2011: 3). In general, the appearance of recurrent lessons indicates that lessons have not necessarily been learned, or at least not sufficiently addressed.

7. EUROPEAN UNION RULE OF LAW MISSION FOR IRAQ (EUJUST LEX-IRAQ)

Established on 1 June 2005 as a civilian crisis management mission, EUJUST LEX-Iraq is the EU's first integrated rule of law mission. In 2010, the mission was extended for the fourth time and currently runs until June 2012. The main objective of the mission is to 'strengthen the rule of law and to promote cultural respect for human rights in Iraq by providing professional development for high and mid-level Iraqi officials from the criminal justice system' (Council Decision 2010/330/CFSP).

7.1 Process of identifying lessons

Available official and semi-official documents referring to lessons learned include Council Joint Actions, Decisions and Conclusions, as well as briefings by the former Head of Mission (HoM) Stephen White in the IMPETUS journal published by the EU Military Staff and the CSDP newsletter. Moreover, there are frequent official reviews of the mission carried out on a monthly, weekly and six-monthly basis. Only for the latter it can be assured that reports contain lessons learned. According to the updated mission mandate from 2010, the Civilian Operation Commander is tasked to report to the Council through the High Representative (Council Decision 2010/330/CFSP). In 2011, the mission organized a workshop in Brussels to evaluate the EUJUST LEX-Iraq courses and activities. This brought the EUMS and the mission staff together in order to exchange lessons learned (Council document, 2011b). More detailed information on the workshop has not been made publicly available.

7.2 Identified lessons that have been documented

According to the former HoM Stephen White, 'one of the main reasons for the mission achievements has been the attention, which has been paid from the planning stage up until present, to identifying and addressing 'mission-critical' factors inhibiting or facilitating success' (2008: 97). Some of the established 'Critical Success Factors (CSF)' overlap with lessons identified by external evaluations and can be grouped into different themes.

7.2.1 Design of the mission mandate

The first lesson relating to the planning phase of EUJUST LEX-Iraq is the essentiality of having a 'clear vision of success' (White, 2008: 98). Previous to the establishment of the mission, an Iraq Expert Team (IET) was sent to assess the concrete needs of the Iraqi Criminal Justice System (CJS). This mission was sent in order to make recommendations and to set out clear objectives as well as propose a desired end-state (ibid.). Subsequently, it was identified as crucial to build up a strategic plan with unambiguous priorities and guiding principles (ibid.: 98-99). According to White, EUJUST LEX-Iraq 'has a clear and unambiguous mandate, a set of priorities, clearly stated objectives, a series of targets and plans to achieve them' which are also supported by the Iraqi government. Amongst others these factors have determined the mission's success (ibid.).

The concrete tasks of EUJUST LEX-Iraq were narrowly defined, which made it easier to implement the mandate. The mission thus succeeded in meeting its quantitative targets (Asseburg and Kempin, 2009: 134). Given the mission's narrow mandate, cooperation with the European Commission, the United States and European Member State bilateral programmes was crucial (Korski, 2009: 236). On the other hand, the sensitive issue of cooperating with the US in Iraq could initially be circumvented by conducting trainings mainly in Europe (Asseburg and Kempin, 2009: 132).

Another important factor was the availability of appropriate resources. According to White, the financial budget allocated to the mission proved to be adequate, while the main critical resources

were the quality and quantity of human resources (2008: 102). The adequacy of the mission budget might be explained by the fact that most of the training programmes given thus far have taken place in the EU Member States that also covered the participation costs (Troszczynska-van Genderen, 2010: 21).

7.2.2 Adequacy of the training curricula

The training has been very technical in focus and conducted almost entirely outside Iraq up until 2009. On this note, one European diplomat assessed EUJUST LEX-Iraq as having 'had demonstrably minimal impact on the effectiveness of these (police) institutions due to a lack of sound management, lack of follow-up, and the fact that Member States have prioritized 'gesture training' rather than sought to deliver what Iraq needs' (quoted in Korski and Gowan, 2009: 77). Asseburg and Kempin agreed that until 2009, 'the mission has not yet contributed in a measurable and meaningful way to strengthening the Iraqi justice system and security apparatus' (2009: 134). It is thus important for the EU to ensure the lasting impact of training activities and involve the Iraqi partners at all stages of action. On the basis of the training needs analysis and the evaluation of past training interventions, the mission should work closely with and involve key figures in the Iraqi CJS (White, 2008: 101-2). Finally, until 2009 the EU had failed to implement one of the key recommendations made by the IET: to develop a common and detailed curriculum to be applied consistently for all the training courses in each hosting member state.

7.2.3 Impact of the mission

Until 2010, there has been little evaluation of the impact of the programmes implemented by EUJUST LEX-Iraq due to security restrictions on travel to Iraq. In 2009, some programmes were allowed to take place on the ground, but limitations regarding the movement of personnel reduced the impact of the training courses (Burke, 2010a). The mission has not been able to test for the usefulness of the training offered or provide post-training mentoring. A systematic assessment of whether course participants share their knowledge with colleagues in Iraq had not been established (Korski, 2009: 237). In October 2008, a Danish-Dutch non-paper circulated stating that monitoring had been a problem and concluding that consequently 'more emphasis should be put on follow-up activities, including monitoring, course evaluation, and mentoring of former course participants' (quoted in *ibid.*: 239).

The fact that the EUJUST LEX could, until 2009, only deploy 4 staff inside Iraq made it difficult to undertake systematic assessments of training needs or evaluate the impact of its training programme. Furthermore, they were unable to engage in hands-on follow-up training (*ibid.* 238). Increased to 8 in 2010, the Baghdad-based EUJUST LEX staff members are also responsible for the practical arrangements related to obtaining visas and making travel arrangements for the training participants. According to Troszczynska-van Genderen, 'this largely logistical support role played by a small and capable team on the ground demonstrates a clear downside of the out-of-country location of the mission, resulting in staff's expertise being under-utilised in the current setting' (2010: 19). The EU should thus increase the staff based in Baghdad in order to be able to implement a clear division of work between logistics and training.

7.3 Lessons learned?

Some of the identified lessons have been addressed by the EU as signs of change in practice can be detected. As mentioned earlier, the mission increased the staff deployed inside Iraq from four in 2009 to eight in 2010. Regarding its training activities, the mission continuously amends and redesigns the courses offered and its curricula in response to the needs of the Iraqi CJS (EUMS, 2008). Thus, a

planning seminar takes place at each new phase of the mission's mandate (ibid.). The last of these seminars, held in June 2011 in Brussels, aimed to present an update on the Iraqi training needs for the period of July 2011 to June 2012. According to ISIS Europe, it 'derived from close consultation with EUJUST LEX-Iraq, local and international counterparts' (2011). Taking up the initial recommendation made by IET the mission, in close coordination with cooperating EU Member States, has put together a course syllabus encompassing 16 training modules for the judiciary, police and penitentiary service officials (Troszczynska-van Genderen, 2010: 20). Moreover, the mission has designed a series of 'Work Experience Secondments', where Iraqi senior criminal justice professionals work alongside European counterparts for short periods. According to the EUMS, this responds the Iraqi request for more practical learning experiences (2008).

The main lessons learned in the EUJUST LEX Iraq Mission refer to the development of a consistent training curriculum to be applied by the participating EU Member States as well as to the continuous redesign of the courses offered according to the Iraqi's needs.

8. EU SUPPORT TO AMIS II (SUDAN)

Since January 2004, the EU and its Member States have provided financial, personnel and political support to the efforts of the African Union (AU) in stabilising the situation Darfur/Sudan. Following a request by the President of the AU Commission, Alpha Oumar Konaré, on 29 April 2005, the Council endorsed Joint Action 2005/557/CFSP (18 July 2005) foreseeing a consolidated package of civilian and military measures to support the AU Mission in Sudan (AMIS II) starting from July 2005 (Council, 2005). The package provided the AU with urgently needed equipment and assets, planning and technical assistance, police training, media support, aerial observation capacity as well as strategic and tactical air transport for over 2000 troops. In addition, the EU appointed an EU Special Representative for Sudan and committed over € 300 million to AMIS II via the African Peace Facility (June 2004 - December 2007). The EU support to AMIS ended on 31 December 2007 when the AU mission AMIS II was handed over to the hybrid AU/UN peacekeeping operation in Darfur (UNAMID) in accordance with UN Security Council Resolution 1769 (2007).

8.1 Process of identifying lessons

The EU support to AMIS II triggered a lessons learned process regarding civilian-military supporting actions. The *Guidelines for Command and Control Structure for EU Civilian Operations in Crisis Management* (Council Document, 9919/07, 2007) stressed the need to develop a comprehensive EU concept for EU supporting actions. On 27 June 2008, after receiving advice from the CIVCOM, the PSC agreed the *lessons from the EU Civilian-Military Supporting Action to the African Union Mission in the Darfur Region of Sudan (AMIS)* (Council Document, 9092/2/08 REV2, 2008). The document included recommendations for establishing a blueprint for similar supporting actions.

Only a few external evaluations explicitly focus on the lessons learned from the EU support to AMIS II. The supporting action is presented in the light of the EU's contribution to conflict resolution in Darfur (Gya, 2010), as an example of EU-AU cooperation (ICG, 2005; Wadle, 2007; Derblom, Hagström Frisell and Schmidt, 2008; Pirozzi, 2009), or as a test case for EU-NATO cooperation (Monaco and Gourlay, 2005).

8.2 Identified lessons that have been documented

The themes in the lessons learned from the EU support to AMIS II can be grouped into two main categories:

8.2.1 EU-AU cooperation

While the EU has made a considerable contribution to AMIS II, external observers agreed that the financial and operational support did not suffice to ensure the mission's effectiveness (Franke, 2009: 259). The monthly financial requirements of AMIS II amounted to over € 30 million. Despite being under-staffed, the AU was, for instance, unable to pay wages to its soldiers on a regular basis (Wadle, 2007: 18). Operational EU-AU coordination was difficult due to the multitude of actors on the ground, the lack of coordination mechanisms, and the absence of a clear delineation of tasks and competences (ibid.: 20). Franke (2008: 262) recommends that the EU should increase its level of financial support to AU missions, loosen the restrictive conditions on the funding provided to AU operations, and put less emphasis on peacekeeping training, since African soldiers often have relevant experience due to their frequent participation in UN missions. One lesson that the EU has drawn from its support mission to AMIS II is that it is preferable to coordinate with, rather than to support, an AU operation (Derblom, Hagström Frisell and Schmidt 2008: 41). While the EU provided a

lot of financial support to AMIS II, it did not have much influence on decision-making (ibid.). In this regard, Wadle (2007: 18) recommends establishing joint control mechanisms while respecting African ownership. He also recommends an increased institutionalisation of EU-AU communication (ibid.: 20).

8.2.2 EU-UN-NATO cooperation

There was a lack of strategic coordination between the EU, NATO, and the UN (Franke, 2009: 258). In spite of multilateral initiatives for information exchange on security assistance and cooperation programmes, like the Africa Clearing House and the AU Partners Technical Support Group in Addis Ababa, EU-NATO-UN cooperation was marked by duplication and overlaps. This increased the transaction costs for the AU and further strained its already limited absorption capacity (ibid.). An example for this kind of duplication was the parallel provision of logistical support by the EU and NATO. Although NATO's Strategic Airlift coordination Centre and the EU's European Airlift Centre are both located in Eindhoven, they detached separate liaison teams to the AU, thereby increasing the demands on AU staff and facilities (ibid.). Franke (ibid.: 262) concludes that the EU should improve its coordination with the UN and NATO as well as among its Member States in order to avoid duplication in the future.

8.3 Lessons learned?

The EU support to AMIS II has triggered an encompassing lessons learned process on EU supporting actions. On 24 November 2008, the Council Secretariat issued (draft) *guidelines for planning and conducting EU Supporting Actions* (Council Document, 16274/08, 2008). These guidelines, based on the lessons learned from the EU support to AMIS II, provide generic principles for the planning and conduct of EU supporting actions applicable to both civilian and military instruments. One of these principles is to establish appropriate coordination arrangements 'between EU actors in Brussels and the international actor receiving EU support in order to help ensure adequate and timely communication and cooperation in theatre' (ibid.). Referring to these guidelines, but noting that future support to UN peacekeeping could be more complex than the one provided to AMIS II, the European External Action Service (EEAS) issued a document on *further possibilities for enhancing EU CSDP support to UN peacekeeping operations* (ARES (2011) 423594) on 12 April 2011. The document outlines different possibilities of EU support to UN peacekeeping operations, proposes a reinforcement of the EU-UN liaison structures, and calls for more synergies in the support to the AU. It also calls for a more intensive exchange of lessons learned including the possible use of a shared civilian-military lessons learned database.

The lessons learned process following the EU support to AMIS II provided the conceptual basis for the so-called 'modular approach', which would consist in providing certain components of an UN operation. While this approach has not seen any empirical examples so far, there has been a second example of EU support to the AU: the EU support to the AU Mission to Somalia (AMISOM) (April-December 2007). Calling the EU's assistance to AMISOM 'half-hearted', Franke (2009: 259) noted that one of the key lessons identified from the EU support to AMIS II, namely to provide the AU mission with sufficient resources, had not been learned (ibid.: 259).

9. ACEH MONITORING MISSION (AMM)

The Aceh Monitoring Mission (AMM) was a civilian crisis management mission which consisted of monitors from the European Union and five ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) contributing countries. The EU-led mission was established on 15 September 2005 to monitor the implementation of various aspects of the peace agreement set out in the Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) (Helsinki Agreement, 2005) signed by the Government of Indonesia (GoI) and the Free Aceh Movement (GAM) on 15 August 2005 in Helsinki (Council Joint Action 2005/643/CFSP). The AMM, with its headquarters in Banda Aceh, established a monitoring capability comprised of geographically distributed district offices throughout Aceh. The AMM was the first CSDP mission to be conducted in cooperation with another regional organisation under the policy of 'effective multilateralism' (Braud & Grive, 2005: 36). On 15 December 2006, the EU-led Aceh Monitoring Mission (AMM) completed its mandate.

9.1 Formal process of identifying lessons

In a meeting on 19 December 2006, the Political and Security Committee (PSC) tasked the Council's Secretariat to prepare lessons identified from the AMM experience (Council's Secretariat Document 5252/07, 2007: 2). It also tasked the Committee for Civilian Aspects of Crisis Management (CIVCOM), the Asia-Oceania Working Party (COASI) and the EU Military Staff (EUMS) to examine and provide advice on the thematic lessons learned papers (ibid.). To follow up on this task, the Secretariat issued a report on EU-ASEAN cooperation on 12 January 2007 (ibid.). The Secretariat further indicated that it would also issue one additional report on the lessons of the planning phase, human rights and gender issues, Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration (DDR), finances, and public information and press (ibid.). Not long after the initial report, a paper on the lessons identified and recommendations from the AMM was issued on 27 February 2007 (6596/1/07, 2007). The information for this report was provided by the AMM Headquarters (ibid.: 2). Reflecting on these reports, it seems that the lesson learning process of the AMM was rather *ad hoc*. There is no indication that lessons have been collected from the outset of the mission and the papers were issued after the mission had been completed. Furthermore, there was no separate report on the planning phase of the AMM, while this had been the case for previous missions. As far as one can judge from the available official sources, the PSC was the initiator of the process in the last month of the mission.

9.2 Identified lessons that have been documented

From EU documents and academic literature on the AMM four main themes can be identified with regard to the lessons identified of the mission:

9.2.1 The fast deployment of the AMM

The AMM is noteworthy for the very short timeframe between the decision to set up the mission and its actual deployment. The MoU that lies behind the peace agreement called for a civilian monitoring mission to be stationed in Aceh immediately after the agreement was signed on 15 August 2005. However, it was impossible to have a fully functioning mission in operational readiness by 15 August. Therefore the Council set 15 September as the mission's starting date and deployed a fifty-strong EU Initial Monitoring Presence (IMP) in the meantime (between 15 August and 15 September) to monitor the peace agreement. The most important lesson identified regarding this very quick response is that it collided with the protracted bureaucratic procedures for funding a mission (Heiduk, 2009: 103). To make the deployment possible, the AMM used an unconventional financing arrangement that was partly funded from the ESDP budget and partly through contributions from the

various Member States. However, this arrangement resulted in severe funding bottlenecks on the ground (Heiduk, 2009: 103). In some cases, IMP staff had to pay for their own plane tickets and funding delays left them without mobile phones, computers and offices (Schulze, 2007: 5). Although the adaption of this *ad-hoc* arrangement shows the flexibility of the AMM, it also highlights weaknesses in the planning structures that still hamper swift implementation of CSDP missions. Pieter Feith, the AMM Head of Mission, pointed to the need for a 'start-up fund' for CSDP missions and a general reduction in bureaucracy (Feith, 2006: 19). Reflecting on experiences from the planning phase of the AMM, it becomes clear that many of the shortcomings and lessons from the AMM, including adequate financing and planning support, have already been identified during the Civilian Capabilities Commitment Conference at the end of 2004 (Braud & Grevi, 2005: 34).

Another lesson from the mission was that the lack of information about the negotiations of the peace agreement made EU planning for the mission more difficult. The EU had no official role in the drafting of the MoU which in fact contained provisions impacting on the mandate of the future EU mission. This created problems when the EU had to define the mandate of its mission in its planning documents, especially with regard to the monitoring of human rights. The lesson to be drawn is that the EU should be 'as close as possible to the negotiations and negotiators, including concerned NGOs/CSOs, for any similar envisaged EU missions, at least in the part of the talks covering the role for the EU in the implementation of an agreement' (Council's Secretariat Document 10114/08, 2008: 6).

9.2.2 EU-ASEAN cooperation

A third lesson can be identified with regard to the cooperation with ASEAN. Although observers emphasise the advantages of the EU-ASEAN cooperation, above all in the shape of enhanced regional expertise and cultural competence, it also led to more complexities in personnel decisions and appointments, and communication difficulties due to the poor English of some of the Asian staff (Heiduk, 2009: 102).

9.2.3 The position of the AMM in relation to the conflicting parties

A fourth lesson addresses the position of the AMM in relation to the conflicting parties during the implementation of the peace agreement. There was no agreement within the mission as to whether and how to engage with the conflict parties in order to help explain the process or the significance of a critical piece of national legislation. One can argue that technical assistance would compromise mission impartiality when it was only requested by one party. The Monitoring Mission in Aceh therefore points to the need for more guidance for mission personnel on how to share expertise relevant to maintaining the parties' engagement and confidence in the implementation of a peace agreement (Gourlay, 2010: 15).

9.2.4 The human rights component of the AMM mandate

Although the AMM achieved progress on many aspects of its mandate, it was unable to fulfil the human rights component of the mandate (Schulze, 2009: 272). Neither the Human Rights Court nor the Truth and Reconciliation Commission had been established. This can be (partly) explained by the fact that the task to 'monitor the human rights situation' was not part of the monitors' training and there were no clearly defined strategies, methods or approaches on the ground (Heiduk, 2009: 108). Furthermore, the personnel structure and associated expertise of the AMM did not correspond to human rights tasks, as it consisted mostly of military or ex-military who had expertise for security tasks. The lesson that follows from this is that for more comprehensive implementation of the mission's goals of protecting human rights it is necessary to have a staff set-up that matches the mission goals.

9.2.5 Lessons learned?

Although the AMM was the first experience of the EU in monitoring a peace agreement, the mission proved to be able to learn from previous experiences of the EU. Experiences of the Iraq Expert Team (considered as the first 'Crisis Response Team deployed by the EU) were used during the deployment phase of the AMM. From these lessons, it became clear that the secondment of Council Secretariat personnel to key positions in the IMP and AMM increased continuity and allowed for intimate knowledge of the EU's procedures (Braud & Grevi, 2005: 22). The appointment of former Deputy Director General for ESDP and Operations in the Council Secretariat, Pieter Feith, as the Head of the IMP and HoM, and the appointment of a senior and experienced EU civilian official from the Secretariat's Civilian Crisis Management Directorate as the Head of the Technical Assessment Mission (TAM) are examples of this (ibid.) The positive experience on this account during AMM has shown that the Council Secretariat needs the flexibility and personnel to deploy civilian officials in crisis management, in conjunction with officials from the Member States and the Commission. Another positive experience of the AMM is that the Head of Mission also served as the EU's principal political representative. This suggests that, where EUSRs are not deployed alongside EU CSDP missions, it is important that the Head of Mission plays a proactive role in engaging the parties in the peace process at the highest level (Gourlay, 2010: 15).

With regard to the execution of its mandate, the meetings of the Commission of Security Arrangements (COSA), initially held weekly and later fortnightly, prove to be crucial for the cooperation between the AMM and the parties to the conflict (Heiduk, 2009: 102).

10. EU BORDER ASSISTANCE MISSIONS (EUBAM RAFAH)

Based on the 'Agreement on Movement and Access' (AMA) concluded by Israel and the Palestinian Authority (PA), which included principles for the Rafah crossing, the EU decided on 15 November 2005 to take over the proposed third-party role at the Rafah Crossing Point between the Gaza strip and Egypt. On 24 November 2005, it launched the EU Border Assistance Mission EUBAM Rafah (Council Joint Action 2005/889/CFSP). Initially established for one year, the mission was extended several times – most recently until 30 June 2012. Headquartered in Ashkelon, the mission is currently 10 EU and 8 local staff strong. The mission objective is 'to provide a third party presence at the Rafah Crossing Point in order to contribute to the opening of the crossing point and to build up confidence between the Government of Israel and the Palestinian Authority' (Council of the European Union, 2011; comments made by Mission staff members, February 2012). Due to the political and security conditions in Gaza the mission is on stand-by since 2007. In case of changed conditions on the ground, EUBAM Rafah has a redeployment plan to rapidly increase the strength of the mission. Until October 2011, a reactivation of the mission had not been officially requested (ISIS Europe, 2011)¹⁹. However, EUBAM Rafah continues to assist EUPOL COPPS with the training of the Palestinian Authority's staff in the field of border and crossing management (ibid.).

10.1 Formal process of identifying lessons

EUBAM Rafah has frequently been assessed in weekly, monthly and six-monthly mission reports. A mid-term review took place after the first half of the first mandate in 2006. In January 2008, a special assessment report was issued right after violent breaches of the Egyptian border had taken place and thousands of Palestinians streamed across into Egypt (Asseburg and Kempin, 2009: 96). Moreover, around the same time the PSC requested a EUBAM Rafah reassessment paper from the Council secretariat (Council Document 7964/08, 2008). Although the content of the reports are classified, it stands to reason that the assessments were triggered *ad hoc* by the outbreak of violence in Gaza. As stated by ISIS Europe in November 2010, the six-monthly report could have assessed the reactivation of the mission. Whether this was the case or which other lessons have been identified on EU level remains unavailable to the public since the mission reports are restricted Council documents.

The number of external evaluations is also limited to a few documents mostly assessing the first years of the mission dating from 2007 to 2009. This might be explained by the fact that the mission continues to be on hold since 2007. While the early years of the mission have been seen as rather successful (Nathanson and Stetter, 2008; Pirozzi, 2008), more recent evaluations tend to describe the operation as a failure (Asseburg and Kempin, 2009; Bulut, 2009b).

10.2 Identified lessons that have been documented

Since there are no official lessons learned documents on EUBAM Rafah publically available, one has to rely on the lessons identified in think tank evaluations and reports. However, it is possible to group the lessons into two different themes.

¹⁹ After the Operation Cast Lead, the EU increased the mission's strength to be prepared to take over the tasks immediately in case the parties should request EUBAM's presence at the Rafah Crossing Point (comments made by Mission (staff) members, February 2012).

10.2.1 Implementation of the mission mandate

Despite its small size, EUBAM was initially able to fulfill its mandate for a period of almost two years. As long as the mission had a stable partner in Gaza Strip, 'it could operate effectively and its success radiated even beyond its immediate area of operation' (Nathanson and Stetter, 2008: 100). In the beginning, the mission received help from all three sides: the PA was eager to control its own border, the Egyptians aimed at keeping stability in the area, and the Israelis realized that withdrawing from Gaza would lead to an independent Palestinian border (ibid.: 99). The lesson identified for this and other missions is that the success of the mission in politically contentious areas depends deeply on committed partners on all sides (ibid.: 100).

The success in rapidly implementing the mandate should be seen in relation to the adequacy of the mandate. On one hand, the mission was successful in swiftly deploying its staff; on the other hand, a longer interim period, wherein the specifics of the AMA and the details of the mission could have been further explored, might have strengthened the mission in its interaction with the other parties involved (Bulut, 2009: 306). Thus 'the agreement could have been more specific, formally comprised all concerned parties, and established more robust mechanisms for addressing non-compliance and other issues of implementation' (ibid.). Moreover the AMA never came fully into force with all its protocols. This led to, *inter alia*, a lack of clear guidelines for the mission staff on how to deal with suspicious objects or persons⁽²⁰⁾. EUBAM staff had thus to rely on *ad hoc* arrangements (Asseburg and Kempin, 2009: 94). According to Asseburg, the Rafah operation has several positive aspects – such as clear objectives and adequate funding and staff – and its approach 'in principle' well-suited to strengthening Palestinian capacities (ibid.: 89). The mission made a substantial contribution to the implementation of the AMA and to confidence-building between the parties. Irrespective of the fact that operations have been suspended for years, a termination of the mission would send the wrong political message (comments made by Mission staff members, February 2012).

10.2.2 Impact of the mission

In a complex environment involving several actors, the mission has to manoeuvre between the PA and Israel, between Israel and Egypt, and between Egypt and the Palestinians, all the while trying to establish and maintain credibility as an impartial, reliable and capable third party (Bulut, 2009: 305; EU official, February 2012). In the beginning, the mission managed to carry out its monitoring and advisory mandate. As the Rafah crossing point was operational on a daily basis for almost seven months, the mission was able to make a difference on the ground. However, operational effect and political impact should be differentiated. According to a British parliamentary report, the symbolic significance of the mission outweighed its operational impact (quoted in Bulut, 2009: 307). On the other hand, this symbolic value and the relatively high level of acceptance from EU Member States might explain its high visibility vis-à-vis its low financial and administrative costs (ibid.).

Regarding learning from the experiences in Rafah and relating to the complex and difficult political and security context, the EU should be wary in perceiving the mission as a major precedent. Moreover, much cautious consideration should be taken to make proposals for an extension to crossing points between the Gaza Strip and Israel, which constitute a very different environment (Bulut, 2009: 308).

10.3 Lessons learned?

Since the mission continues to be on stand-by since 2007, it is difficult to draw conclusions on whether any of the previously identified lessons have been learned or not. A reactivation of the mission will depend much on the political context on the ground. In 2011, a merger with EUPOL COPPS by the end of the EUBAM Rafah mandate on 31 December had been discussed (ISIS Europe, 2011). However, on 19 December 2011 the EUBAM Rafah Mission was technically extended until 30 June 2012 on the basis of the previous mandate.

²⁰According to comments made by Mission (staff) members, February 2012 there was no lack of guidance. The monitors were monitoring, advising and training PA officers according to international standards. In case of disagreement, monitors wrote a non-compliance report that was sent through the chain of command.

11. EUROPEAN BORDER ASSISTANCE MISSION (EUBAM) MOLDOVA-UKRAINE

At the request of Moldova and Ukraine, the EU Border Assistance Mission (EUBAM) was launched on 30 November 2005 (Council Joint Action 2005/776/CFSP). EUBAM is an advisory, technical mission mandated to enhance the border-management capacities of the border guard and customs authorities and other law enforcement and State agencies of Moldova and Ukraine. By offering comprehensive support from its headquarters in Odessa and six field offices on either side of the Moldova/Ukraine common border, EUBAM tries to support border and customs procedures and standards in Moldova and Ukraine that will ultimately mirror those prevalent in the European Union. Furthermore, EUBAM hopes to contribute to a peaceful resolution of the Transnistrian conflict. EUBAM is part of a larger EU effort in the region, which consists of an EU Special Representative (EUSR) and European Commission Delegations in Chisinau and Kyiv. The mandate of the Mission has already been extended three times (in 2007, 2009 and 2011), with the current mandate expiring on 30 November, 2015.

11.1 Formal process of identifying lessons

Although established by a Council Joint Action in November 2005, EUBAM is financed, managed and implemented by the Commission, while the EU Council provides political oversight (Huff, 2011: 20). Based on this distinctive division of roles and contributions of the EU institutions, EUBAM can be viewed as an institutionally 'hybrid' mission (Dura, 2009: 280). As a result, the lessons learned process of this mission is somewhat different than other CSDP mission. There are, for example, no official EU documents that specifically address lessons learned during the EUBAM Mission.

Under the Memorandum of Understanding that was signed between the Government of Moldova and Ukraine and the European Commission (EC) (European Commission and the Governments of the Republic of Moldova and of Ukraine, 2005) an Advisory Board was created to review the progress of the mission and plans for future work⁽²¹⁾. Although the Advisory Board agreed to issue a report on lessons learned during the mission's first two years at the Eighth Advisory Board Meeting (EUBAM, 2008: 5), this report was either kept for internal use or has not been issued. From the Advisory Board Meetings, it becomes clear that several lessons learned meetings were organised during the mission (Council's Secretariat Document 12448/07, 2007: 3).

As far as can be judged from the open sources, the lesson learning process during the EUBAM Mission can be described as *ad hoc*. There is no systematic analysis of lessons in the annual reports of the mission and lessons learned meetings only take place occasionally. Furthermore, it seems that the mission does not adhere to the Lessons Learned Guidelines of December 2008 as the mission is financed and managed by the Commission.

11.2 Identified lessons that have been documented

Considering official documents and academic literature on EUBAM Ukraine-Moldova the following three main topics can be identified when it comes to the lessons of the mission:

²¹ The Advisory Board is composed of the representatives of Foreign Ministries of Ukraine and Moldova, Moldovan and Ukrainian Customs and Border Guard services, the European Commission, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the EU Special Representative for Moldova, the EU Presidency, as well as the Organisation for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) and the International Organisation for Migration (IOM).

11.2.1 The financial mechanism during the first six months of the mission

When EUBAM started in November 2005 it was initially financed by the Rapid Reaction Mechanism characterised by the use of several short term contracts financed from different Technical Assistance to the Commonwealth of Independent States (TACIS) Regional Action Programmes. The mechanism was applied to respond in a rapid and flexible manner to the opportunity that arose in 2005 for advancing the resolution of the Transnistrian conflict. As a consequence, staff contracts or rental agreements had to be renewed every few months. The Commission had not foreseen such a major long-term project (nearly one million euro per month) when programming its activities in the region (Caldeira, 2009: 14).

11.2.2 The strategic underpinning of the EUBAM

Secondly, it has been argued that the mission struggles to be defined beyond the European Neighbourhood Policy (ENP) framework. This suggests that the level of inter-institutional cooperation that evolved on the ground was not underpinned by a concrete overarching strategic approach to ENP-CSDP co-ordination. A report by DG RELEX (Directorate General for External Relations), delivered to the European Parliament Foreign Affairs Committee in November 2008, conceded this point, suggesting that the EU 'should expand its policy of engagement beyond the scope of border management' (Huff, 2011: 21). If anything, this further highlights the inability of Member States to agree to use CSDP consistently in the Eastern neighbourhood, except as a reaction to events.

11.2.3 The legal advisory capacity of EUBAM

A third lesson that can be identified with regard to the impact of EUBAM on the systemic level of the recipient countries is that EUBAM lacks a permanent and comprehensive legal advisory capacity (Kurowska & Tallis, 2009: 62). EUBAM's assertions that 'we do institutions and others do laws' and that 'we try to enhance institutions' absorption capacity' are insufficient and may limit the systemic impact of the mission (*ibid.*).

11.3 Lessons learned?

One of the most valuable lessons learned from the EUBAM Mission is the need for fast and effective systems for information exchange. On 21 November 2006, separate agreements between the customs services and between border guards of Moldova and Ukraine were signed at the Fifth Trilateral Meeting on Border Issues, held in Brussels. These agreements were warmly welcomed by the Mission as having the potential to make a significant step forward in improved cross-border cooperation (EUBAM, 2007).

One aspect that facilitates the work of the EUBAM is that the Mission emphasizes that it is an 'advisory, technical body' with no executive powers (Kurowska & Tallis, 2009: 57). By doing so, it positions itself as a neutral advisor instead of a disciplining superior. It also makes EUBAM more palatable to Russia and nationalist elements within Ukraine, which may otherwise have balked at a fully fledged CSDP mission in its near abroad (*ibid.*). Furthermore, the Mission also successfully managed to communicate its key messages to the public as a result of an excellent public relations service (*ibid.*: 56). It does this by centring its messages on three clusters: 'dynamic and ambitious leadership', the role of EUBAM as a partner rather than a supervisor, and the aggrandisement of EUBAM's achievements. The Mission realised at an early stage that pure mentoring and advising without considerable material input on the EU's part was unlikely to yield sufficient local commitment. Therefore, the EC-funded project of BOMMOLUK (Improving Management on the Moldovan-Ukrainian State Border) was used to generate material input by arranging study tours to

EU Member States, developing training courses and realising the procurement of equipment (ibid.: 55). The implementation of this project is outsourced to EUBAM. This project shows that although EUBAM had to learn on the job by trial and error, it has managed to bring different, initially reluctant, actors together, at least at the level of formal commitment. Although many CSDP missions in the past suffered problems with regard to the co-ordination of EU efforts in one area, this was not the case during the EUBAM (Dura, 2009: 282). Through the excellent cooperation between the EUSR and the Head of Mission on the ground the EU foreign policy interests in the region (i.e. that of bringing security and stability on the EU's eastern border) have been advanced in a coordinated manner.

12. EU POLICE MISSION FOR THE PALESTINIAN TERRITORIES (EUPOL COPPS)

Established in January 2006 for a period of three years and most recently extended until 30 June 2012, the civilian mission aims at 'contributing to the establishment of sustainable and effective policing arrangements under Palestine ownership in accordance with best international standards, in cooperation with the Union's institution building programmes as well as other international efforts in the wider context of the Security Sector including Criminal Justice Reform' (Council Decision 2010/784/CFSP). Headquartered in Ramallah, the mission is currently 53 EU staff and 39 local staff strong with contributions from 17 EU Member States and Canada (Council of the European Union, 2012; comments made by Mission staff members, February 2012).

12.1 Process of identifying lessons

On the EU level EUPOL COPPS has been assessed in weekly, monthly and six-monthly reports since its establishment in 2006, whereas only the latter certainly contain lessons learned components. For the years 2006 and 2011 additional special reports can be found. Nevertheless only the renewed mandate from 2010 officially included a six-monthly review process in accordance with the criteria set out in the Concept of Operations and the Operation Plan. These evaluations are conducted in order to review the mission's size and scope taking into account the conditions on the ground (Council Decision 2010/784/CFSP). While the mission reports are all restricted Council documents, other official and semi-official documents can be publicly accessed. These include Council Joint Actions and Decisions, EU press releases as well as statements by the spokesperson for EUPOL COPPS. Moreover, there is a lack of recent external evaluations and most of the open source documents date from the years 2008 and 2009.

12.2 Identified lessons that have been documented

Among the available official documents and external evaluations, the identified lessons can be grouped into the following themes:

12.2.1 The mission mandate and its implementation

The approach taken by the EUPOL COPPS Mission is based on two factors. First, the diversity of European policing traditions and judicial systems from which the mission draws its personnel seems to have a positive effect on the mission's work. Second, a division of labour within the mission that invites bottom-up solutions in working with PCP counterparts at different levels has been functioning well (Bulut, 2009: 292). However, the mission faces the challenge of combining short-term impact and long-term effect and should therefore not only rely on transmitting resources, hardware and new technical skills (Bulut, 2009: 293). An early emphasis on providing equipment at the expense of capacity-building and reform has been criticized. Thus a quick impact and project-based focus has limited the policy impact of the operation, which also lacks a strategic planning level (Asseburg, 2010: 79).

Rigidity in selecting staff for the mission made a skill-based approach difficult. The skills and competences of contracted EUPOL COPPS staff did not prove to be appropriate in every aspect. The possibility of hiring specific civilian expertise from outside the participating police services should therefore be made possible for the mission (Kerckänen, Rantanen and Sundqvist, 2008: 31). It has also been argued that evaluating the extent to which EUPOL COPPS has successfully implemented its mandate is hampered. This relates to the fact that the Council Joint Action from 2005 did not define

benchmarks or set target dates against which achievements could be measured (Council Joint Action 2005/797/CFSP). Moreover the objectives have been kept relative general and vague (Asseburg and Kempin, 2009: 91).

12.2.2 Internal and external cooperation

Regarding the relations with other actors involved, such as single EU Member States and the UN, there are provisions in place at the practical level, in order to streamline efforts in the Palestinian reform processes (comments made by Mission (staff) members, February 2012). The same is true for the official declared strategy where an effective division of labour between the EU and the US has been agreed upon at a high-level conference in June 2008 (Berlin Conference, 2008). On this occasion the EU and the US declared a 'blue-green' division of their leadership roles. This means that the EU should take the lead in supporting civil security structures, while the US should lead in assisting national security forces. However, at the level of objectives, tactics and strategies, a number of different and – as Bulut argues – incompatible agendas are at work (2009: 296).

The relations between EUPOL COPPS and the European Union Representative Office (EUREP) in Jerusalem as well as the wider involvement of the Commission in the mission demonstrated in the past the interconnectedness of the operation and the Commission objectives (EU official, February 2012). A common understanding of their cooperation seemed to be missing (ibid.).

12.2.3 Support and impact

According to Bulut, the operation has raised the EU's profile in relation to some dimensions of the conflict (2009: 289). The mission has been able to make a contribution to rebuilding the Palestinian police and to improve the security in the West Bank. The mission has provided advice, training, equipment, infrastructure and assessment to civilian policing in the region (ibid.: 291). Despite the complex political framework, the Mission has supported a closer cooperation between Palestinian Civil Police and the Israel National Police in a number of areas (traffic, criminal investigation) through the organization of joint workshops in order to facilitate the solving of operational issues (comments made by Mission staff members, February 2012).

12.3 Lessons learned?

Some of the identified lessons seem to have been learned as there are signs of changes in practice, while others remain to be addressed. The establishment of a rule of law component in 2008 was based on previous experiences, whereby most of the CSDP missions supported police and the rule of law (Vericat, 2008). However, the EU should ensure that both components – police training and the development of civilian police law and guidelines – are integrated into a legal framework that still has to be created (Asseburg, 2010: 83). Moreover, the mission appears to have responded to the criticism of its focus on logistical support. As a result, EUPOL COPPS shifted its emphasis from merely equipping counterparts to increasing support to them on a more strategic level focusing on institutional and capacity building. The Mission has reinforced its focus on transfer of knowhow in a number of areas including good governance, oversight, accountability, anti-corruption, police-prosecution cooperation, gender mainstreaming among others (EU official, February 2012). It has given wider attention to 'transformational issues and a more ambitious approach to the policing-justice continuum' (Bulut, 2009: 293). Regarding the skill-based selection of staff, the Council decided in 2009 to amend the mission mandate making it possible for EUPOL COPPS to hire experts on a contractual basis should the required expertise not be provided by the Member States (Council Decision 2009/955/CFSP). Moreover EUPOL COPPS has developed jointly with the EU Representative Office a series of mechanisms to enhance the comprehensive efforts of the EU in the framework of

the security and justice sector, such as the technical assistance programme and a capital investment programme for the PCP. In 2011, EUPOL COPPS and the US Security Coordinator (USSC)⁽²²⁾ have put in place a series of joint meetings at operational and strategic levels, with the aim of identifying projects and activities to reinforce each other's efforts to build the Palestinian Security Forces. These joint efforts have led to positive results for the time being and are welcomed by the main beneficiaries: the Palestinian Civil Police and the National Security Forces (ibid.).

In conclusion, the main lessons learned in the EUPOL Mission include a shift towards focussing on institution and capacity building, more flexibility in hiring experts as well as efforts towards better coordination with the US.

²² For Israel and the Palestinian territories.

13. EUFOR RD CONGO

In December 2005, the UN invited the EU to consider the possibility of deploying a military force to assist the UN mission in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) (MONUC) in safeguarding the democratic elections in the DRC scheduled to take place in summer 2006. In June 2006, the Council decided to launch Operation EUFOR RD Congo to support MONUC during the election process (Council Decision 2006/412/CFSP). In accordance with UN Security Council Resolution 1671 (2006), the objectives of Operation EUFOR RD Congo were (1) to support MONUC in its stabilising role during the election process; (2) to contribute to the protection of civilians; (3) to contribute to airport protection in Kinshasa; (4) to ensure the protection of its own personnel and installations, and (5) to execute operations of limited character to evacuate civilians in danger. Operation EUFOR RD Congo was deployed on 30 July 2006 and withdrew on 30 November 2006.

13.1 Process of identifying lessons

EUFOR RD Congo was followed by an extensive official lesson learning process with a particular focus on strategic planning. On 23 February 2007, the EUMC issued an *Initial Assessment and Recommendations on the Military Lessons Identified from Op EUFOR RD Congo* (Council Document, 6701/07, 2007) to the PSC. Based on this as well as on 'other inputs', the PSC approved on 8 May 2007 an *Analysis of Lessons from Operation EUFOR RD Congo* (Council Document, 7633/1/07, 2007). In July 2007, the EUMC prepared an action plan on the lessons from EUFOR RD Congo for the work within its remit (Council Document, 11799/07, 2007). On 11 October 2007, the EUMS presented a document to the EUMC outlining priorities and timelines 'for advancing lessons from EUFOR RD Congo related to doctrine' (Council Document, 13777/1/07, 2007). This document identified three priority groups: planning, conduct of operations, and remaining (enabling) issues. Following a request by the Council at its meeting on 14-15 May 2007, the Secretary-General/ High Representative (SG/HR) presented a *Report on the EUMS ability to conduct planning at the strategic level for EU-led operations* in November 2007 (Council Document, 14834/07, 2007). Based on lessons identified from EUFOR RD Congo and corresponding analyses by the EUMS and EUMC, the report made concrete recommendations for restructuring the EUMS with the aim of enhancing its overall effectiveness (see below). The Council endorsed these recommendations at its meeting on 19-20 November 2007.

13.2 Identified lessons that have been documented

Considering both official lessons learned documents and external evaluations of EUFOR RD Congo, four main recurrent themes can be identified:

Preparation and planning of the Operation

Although the political consensus to launch Operation EUFOR RD Congo was reached quickly, the advance planning and decision-making process did not run smoothly (Tull, 2009: 48). Questions regarding the Operation's tasks, mandate, participation, and leadership caused considerable tensions between the Member States, the SG/HR, and ultimately also between the EU and the UN (ibid.: 48-50). These tensions led to delays in the military planning process while the lack of precise military data on the Operation resulted in a 'tortuous' force generation process (Ehrhart, 2007: 10).

13.2.1 Command of the Operation

Several external evaluations criticised the complexity of the EUFOR RD Congo's chain of command as well as the lack of flexibility of the Operations Commander. The German Operations Commander was accused of 'micromanagement' (Major, 2009: 316) leaving the Force Commander little room for

manoeuvre. Major (ibid.: 317) recommends to respect the principle of subsidiarity within the chain of command and to better define the competences of the Forces Commander while granting him more room for manoeuvre.

13.2.2 Time frame of the Operation

One of the recurrent criticisms of EUFOR RD Congo was its limited time frame, or rather the lack of flexibility regarding its end date. The end date of 30 November 2006 was set before knowing that the first round of elections would be postponed. As a consequence, the mandate did not cover the whole length of the electoral process. Since an outbreak of violence could have been expected following the second round of elections, external assessments of EUFOR RD Congo (ICG, 2006: 8; Kinzel, 2006: 4) recommended extending the mandate until the end of January 2007. However, Germany insisted on the November end date due to domestic pressure (Tull, 2007: 72).

13.2.3 EU-UN cooperation

EU-UN cooperation was described as challenging due to 'inadequate cooperation mechanisms, coordination problems and a lack of mutual understanding' (Major, 2009: 317). The allocation of responsibilities to different levels in the chains of command hampered communication and coordinated decision-making between EUFOR and MONUC. Other obstacles to the operational coordination between EUFOR and MONUC were the complex procedures for committing EUFOR in support of MONUC; the absence of a formal information sharing agreement; and different logistical practices (Major, 2009: 317-318). In the aftermath of Operation EUFOR RD Congo, the EU and the UN carried out a joint *After Action Review*⁽²³⁾ published on 16 November 2006⁽²⁴⁾. The review proposed four concrete measures to ensure more structured and systematic EU-UN cooperation: 1) to establish check lists of issues to be dealt with when both organisations are engaged in the same crisis; 2) to set up practical coordination arrangements; 3) to explore possibilities of having a framework arrangement on mutual logistical support or a model arrangement on logistical support; and 4) to increase the use of liaison officers in the context of operations. These measures were to be implemented in time for the next crisis situation where both organisations would be engaged (Council Document, 17317/08, 2008).

13.3 Lessons learned?

Based on lessons from EUFOR RD Congo, some action was taken to enhance the EU's strategic planning capacity. In November 2007, the Council endorsed four concrete measures proposed by the SG/HR: (1) to enhance the requirement for qualifications (language competence, planning skills and experience) for existing EUMS posts; (2) to increase the flexibility of the EUMS in managing early planning with existing EUMS resources; (3) to increase member state intelligence support to the EUMS; and (4) to increase the EUMS Personnel Establishment by five additional planning staff (Council Document, 14834/07, 2007).

Lessons appear to have been learned with regard to EU-UN cooperation in crisis management. In June 2007, the EU and the UN issued a joint statement on EU-UN cooperation in crisis management, in which they committed to 'further enhance mutual cooperation and coordination' (EU and UN, 2007). They agreed on a number of measures including regular senior-level political dialogue

²³ 'After action reviews' are a learning instrument developed by the US army. It is a structured review or de-brief process for analyzing what happened, why it happened, and how it can be done better. The EU and the UN carried out such reviews, *inter alia*, in the aftermath of operation Artemis, operation EUFOR RD Congo, and operation EUFOR Tchad/RCA.

²⁴ The document itself is classified and could not be accessed.

between the UN Secretariat and the EU Troika on broader crisis management issues; regular exchange of views between UN Secretariat officials and the PSC, continued meetings of the UN-EU Steering Committee including ad hoc meetings in crisis situations; the establishment of specific coordination and cooperation mechanisms for crisis situations where the EU and the UN are jointly engaged; and systematic UN-EU joint lessons learned exercises following joint engagements in crisis management (ibid.).

The implementation of these measures was followed up in six-monthly progress reports⁽²⁵⁾. These reports also included a specific section on the implementation of the measures proposed by the joint EU-UN *After Action Review* on EUFOR RD Congo. According to the reports, several check lists for issues to be dealt with when both organisations are engaged in the same crisis were elaborated (Council Document, 17317/08, 2008). Liaison officers were exchanged between the EUMS and the UN Department for Peacekeeping Operations as well as at Headquarters level as in the case of EUFOR Tchad/RCA (Council Document, 10550/1/08, 2008). Joint templates based on the experience of EUFOR RD Congo reportedly facilitated joint EU-UN planning in the case of EUFOR Tchad/RCA (Council Document, 10550/1/08, 2009). In fact, assessments of EU-UN cooperation in the case of EUFOR Tchad/RCA (see case study in this component) speak of a 'marked improvement in comparison to EUFOR RD Congo' (Helly, 2010: 3).

The lessons learned progress following EUFOR RD Congo was extensive and yielded some concrete results. In July 2007, the EUMC stressed that the 'sheer volume and scope of lessons arising from EUFOR RD Congo mitigate against them all being resolved in the near term' (Council Document, 11799/07, 2007). The fact that enhancing the effectiveness of the EU's strategic planning was high up on the agenda of the Foreign Affairs Council meeting of 1 December 2011 seems to prove this point.

²⁵ See Council Documents 10550/1/08; 17317/08; 11451/09; 17541/09.

14. EUROPEAN UNION POLICE MISSION (EUPOL) AFGHANISTAN

The European Union Police Mission (EUPOL) was established as a civilian mission in 2007 for a period of three years and extended in 2010 until 31 May 2013 (Council Joint Action 2007/369/CFSP; Council Decision 2010/279/CFSP). As a follow-on mission to the German Police Project Office (GPPO) that has been operating in Afghanistan since 2002, it aimed to expand the existing German efforts to build an Afghan police force dedicated to civil democratic standards. As of mid-October 2011, the mission strength accounted for 502 staff of which 321 were international and 197 national (Council document, 2011). The self-stated aim of the mission is ‘to contribute to the establishment of sustainable and effective civil policing arrangements’ and ‘to support the reform process towards a trusted police service working within the framework of the rule of law and respecting human rights’ (ibid.).

14.1 Process of identifying lessons

As stated by the Council, the mandate is subject to a six-monthly review ‘in order to adjust its size and scope as necessary’ (Council Joint Action 2007/369/CFSP; Council Decision 2010/279/CFSP). Moreover, the legal basis shall be reviewed at least three months before its expiry in order to assess whether to continue the mission or not (ibid.). Reviews are carried out on a frequent basis. A search in the Council register resulted in a range of official documents on EUPOL Afghanistan such as weekly mission reports, monthly assessment reports and six-monthly reports including lessons learned. According to the mission mandate the Civilian Operation Commander and the Head of Mission (HoM) report on a regular basis and, if required, to the PSC, responsible to the Council (ibid.). However, these official reports are restricted Council documents and could therefore not be accessed. Other official and semi-official EU documents include Council Joint Actions, Decisions and Conclusions as well as official EU press releases and the CSDP newsletter published by the EU ISS.

In the case of external documents and evaluations, a number of think tank reports and policy briefs were found. These reports and briefs either evaluate all CSDP missions and operations from 1999 to 2009, for example reports by the EUISS (2009) or the SWP (2009), or deal with the broader political context (e.g. Gross, 2009). Moreover, International Security Information Services (ISIS) Europe provides regular updates of all ongoing CSDP missions. The identified lessons in the EU ISS and the SWP reports try to draw general conclusions on EU crisis management. Particular policy briefs describe lessons that refer to the broader political context in Afghanistan and the EU’s whole approach towards rebuilding the country. Gross for example assesses EUPOL Afghanistan against the backdrop of the EU’s oft-stated efforts to promote general objectives, such as the rule of law and good governance (Gross, 2009: 7). However, none of these open source documents contain official lessons learned.

The method and the sources of information used most often are interviews with EU officials, national diplomats and mission personnel, as well as existing academic literature. Most of the think tank assessments of EUPOL Afghanistan were written in 2009 around the mid-term of the first mission mandate or on a regular basis as by ISIS Europe.

14.2 Identified lessons that have been documented

Available official and semi-official documents mainly state the mission’s successes regarding particular projects, which could be interpreted as signs for best practice (see below), and ensure the EU’s further commitment from a predominantly positive perspective. Apart from the positive

achievements, the external evaluations of EUPOL Afghanistan also present more critical views on the mission. Accordingly, the identified lessons can be grouped into the following themes:

14.2.1 Adequacy of the mission mandate

Since the operation has no executive mandate, it is limited to advising and assisting the ANP and thus dependent on the will and the receptiveness of the Afghan government (Gross, 2009: 34). The mandate was limited to changing the structural framework of Afghan policing, thereby disregarding the country's almost total lack of a functioning uniformed police (Asseburg and Kempin, 2009: 145). According to some external analysts, the EU's approach laid down in the mission mandate was not suited to the conditions on the ground in Afghanistan (Korski, 2009: 9). It has been considered as too small in terms of staffing and too weak in terms of financial resources (Asseburg and Kempin, 2009: 145). The Council should therefore adapt the mission mandate regarding its objectives and scope as well as increase personnel and funding (ibid.: 147).

14.2.2 Deployment

Due to a lack of political commitment among EU Member States on one side and logistical challenges in a complex environment on the ground on the other, EUPOL Afghanistan had a difficult start-up phase (ISIS Europe, 2009; Peral, 2009: 331). The reluctance of the Member States made the recruiting process for the mission too slow, and it was not able to meet its own deadlines (Peral, 2009: 332; Asseburg and Kempin, 2009: 142). Most Ministries of Defence refused to send highly qualified personnel (which are scarce and needed at home) for the training of young and inexperienced Afghan recruits (ISIS Europe 2009). EU bureaucracy further delayed the start of EUPOL's work (ibid.: 143)⁽²⁶⁾.

Understaffing and the lack of qualified personnel also created difficulties for the mission in its aim to expand activities across the whole Afghan territory (ISIS Europe, 2010; Asseburg and Kempin, 2009: 143). Therefore EU Member States should provide more experts in the area of institutional change and training also having knowledge of the cultural context in Afghanistan (Bloching, 2011: 7). While the military is organized in contingencies, which are capable and ready for deployment, civilian staff such as police officers and agents, judges or administrators have to be taken away from their workplace at home where they are needed. With low salaries and a high-risk context, the incentives to work in a civilian CSDP mission are not very high (Koenig, 2010). To improve swift deployment into CSDP missions, national rules for deployment of other qualified personnel, such as independent consultants and civil society representatives, should be adopted or created (Bloching, 2011: 5).

14.2.3 Leadership

Frequent changes in the position of the Head of Mission (Gross, 2009: 30) and 'weak leadership on the ground initially failed to provide clear direction to the efforts of various member states' (International Crisis Group, 2008: 10). EUPOL should be guided more effectively by political leadership from Brussels and inside the EU Delegation in Afghanistan. Supported by a 'solid SSR [security sector reform] and lesson unit in the EEAS' the 'High Representative should become the driving force for the EU's support to the police reform in Afghanistan, rather than individual Member States' (Bloching, 2011: 8).

²⁶ Under EU law the individual Member States cannot supply missions with equipment such as vehicles and computers, supplies and services have to be put out to tender with the order going to the lowest bidder regardless of when they are able to deliver.

Moreover, the links between several EU actors on the ground such as EUPOL and the European Union Special Representative (EUSR) office as well as with European Commission programmes were described as tenuous. All three institutions sit on the International Police Coordination Board (IPCB) without clarity on who is assuming the lead role in political guidance (International Crisis Group, 2008: 10). As stated in a joint report of the Royal United Services Institute for Defence and Security Studies (London) and the Foreign Policy Research Institute (Philadelphia), 'at an international level it would clearly be preferable for EUPOL to assume coordination and political leadership of the reform effort' (RUSI 2009: 89).

14.2.4 Corruption and gender sensitivity

The low salary paid to ANP staff – through the Law and Order Trust Fund for Afghanistan (LOFTA, of which 50% is financed by the European Commission) – aggravates the problem of local corruption⁽²⁷⁾. The aim of building trusted and efficient civilian Afghan police force will only be achieved if EUPOL, NATO Training Mission Afghanistan (NTM-A) and the Afghan Government jointly manage to reduce corruption by increasing level of literacy and the linkage between the police and the justice sector (Bloching, 2001: 8). Another remaining problem is the lack of female police advisors. In the Afghan context, female police recruits can generally only take part in trainings that are conducted by women. 'An increase in the number of women within the ANP is likely to improve the accessibility of services for women' (Bloching, 2011: 5). The EU should thus enhance engagement and consultation with local stakeholders in human rights and gender sensitivity (ibid.: 8).

14.2.5 Cooperation with other actors

There is a discrepancy between the EU's civilian model and other international actors' approaches, namely the more 'militarized' model of the United States (US) (Peral 2009: 333). Given the divergent visions of the actors involved of the main purpose of the ANP – robust vs. civilian policing – the EU and the national and international stakeholders involved should agree on a common strategy supporting Security Sector Reform in Afghanistan (Bloching, 2011: 8).

The absence of a comprehensive EU-NATO agreement on the provision of security for EUPOL staff through International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) and their inability to exchange classified information complicated the mission's work and hindered closer cooperation between the two institutions. As a result, EUPOL had to conclude individual agreements with Provincial Reconstruction Team (PRT) lead nations. Meanwhile, the PRTs have sometimes functioned as an informal link to share information on an ad hoc basis between NATO and EUPOL personnel, which otherwise has proven to be a difficult process. The capacity of the PRTs to host international personnel is especially limited and security agreements between EUPOL and individual PRTs provide EUPOL staff only a minimum of protection. 'The difficulty of ensuring adequate security for the mission staff not only slowed down but also limited EUPOL's geographic deployment' (Peral, 2009: 334). From an outside perspective the EU was thus advised to work out a comprehensive security agreement with NATO and ISAF (ISIS Europe, 2007).

Moreover, EUPOL has not been able to better mainstream bilateral efforts of EU Member States on Afghan police reform (Peral, 2009: 333). Integrating Member States' bilateral contributions to SSR in

²⁷ On the low salary paid through LOFAT police officers are often unable to feed a family. Insurgents can offer double or triple the amount offered by LOFAT and corrupt the institutional structures aiming to establish a reliable police force.

Afghanistan⁽²⁸⁾ into EUPOL would decrease the number of EU actors on the ground. This could simultaneously reduce EUPOL's shortages in personnel numbers and resources (Bloching, 2011: 7).

14.2.6 Best practices

As a possible sign of best practices being replicated, successful projects established by EUPOL have been extended and duplicated as stated in the ESDP newsletter (Council document, 2009a). The Kabul City Police and the Security Project was established at a request of an Afghan minister based on a district-by-district SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats) (Peral, 2009: 331). The assessment of this project proved it to be effective (Council document, 2009) leading to its extension to 12 urban centres outside Kabul (ISIS Europe, 2010). One of the most successful projects – the establishment of a Crime Stopper Hotline for denouncing police misbehaviour in Helmand (Council document, 2009) – was also extended to other regions (DBK, 2010). Another achievement was the completion of courses for 400 Afghan National Police (ANP) staff, which led to a similar follow-up programme (Council Conclusions, 2009; Peral, 2009).

14.3 Lessons learned?

As stated in the Council Conclusions, the Council took up some of the above-mentioned issues and amended the mission mandate. In 2008, the Council took the decision to double the number of the EUPOL operation personnel (Council Conclusions on Afghanistan, 2008). Though the mission was able to increase its personnel and to extend deployment to two additional provinces in Afghanistan in 2009 (ISIS Europe, 2009), the staffing situation remains the mission's biggest challenge (Bloching, 2011). As of 1 June 2011, the mission is still short of ¼ of its planned target of 400 staff (ISIS Europe, 2011). In 2010, the Council moreover stated, 'international civilian staff and local staff may also be recruited by EUPOL AFGHANISTAN [...] in duly justified cases, where no qualified applications from Member States are available' (Council Decision 2010/279/CFSP).

To address the shortcomings of the mission in terms of resources and budget, EU Member States provided financial incentives in order to fill the capacity gap as well as to raise allowances to attract personnel (ISIS Europe, 2011). The overall budget set to cover the expenditures related to EUPOL Afghanistan has been increased over the years, while the highest amount unto now was decided on in 2009 (Council Joint Action 2009/842/CFSP).

An improvement in the EU's internal coordination, especially concerning the working relations between EUPOL and the European Commission, was noted on the basis of more regular exchanges both in the form of monthly meetings between EUPOL, the Commission and the EUSR, as well as more informal exchanges. (Bloching, 2011: 6-7). In the revised mandate from 2010, an additional reference on the responsibility of the Head of Mission was included. The HoM shall therein 'coordinate with other EU actors on the ground and [...] receive local political guidance from the EUSR' (Council Decision 2010/279/CFSP).

According to Peral, the initially weak coordination within the IPCB and its low performance improved in 2009, following reforms introduced by EUPOL (2009: 332). Similarly, the Civilian Operation Commander declared in 2010 that coordination and cooperation between EUPOL, the US and NATO have 'greatly improved' (Council document, 2010). Yet neither source clarifies how the cooperation was changed.

²⁸ Apart from their substantial military contributions to ISAF, individual EU Member States have also engaged themselves in particular projects in the area of SSR as for example Germany in the case of the GPPO as well as the United Kingdom in the area of counter-narcotic efforts or Italy in the field of justice sector reform (Gross, 2009: 22).

The Civilian Operations Commander clarified in 2010 that EUPOL's primary purpose is to be a strategic reform mission and not to be a training mission (unlike NATO's mission) (Council document, 2010). Therefore the mission 'should not be assessed against the number of Afghan Police Officers it trains, but rather on its impact on more long-term structural reforms'. EUPOL's 'value lies with its high quality police and rule of law expertise' (ibid.). Given that the EU presents its achievements often in numbers of ANP staff trained (see 'Best Practices'; Council Conclusions, 2009), this lessons has arguably yet to be learned.

Regarding the coordination and cooperation of EUPOL with other stakeholders involved and the streamlining of training programmes, an agreement was signed in February 2011 by the Afghan Ministry of the Interior, EUPOL, NTM-A and the GPPO. This agreement laid out a standardized method of instruction for police training. Additionally, the three institutions agreed to share the facilities of the still to be built Kabul Staff College and Bamyán Training Centre. Here training will put an emphasis on women ANP officers (ISIS Europe, 2011). Further, with regard to actor coordination, a Council Decision from 2009 established a project cell within the mission with the aim to 'coordinate, facilitate and provide advice on projects implemented by Member States and third States' (Council Joint Action 2009/842/CFSP).

Concluding, the EU tried to tackle most of the identified lessons by adopting new provisions and amending the mission mandate. Whether the lesson of reaching full deployment and increasing qualified personnel will be learned depends on the Member States and their national rules and incentives for deployment. Finally, cooperation between EU, the US and NATO has improved particularly in the area of training. However, the complex security situation in Afghanistan remains one of the biggest challenges for EUPOL. A comprehensive security agreement between the stakeholders could not be agreed as yet.

Several of the lessons that have been identified in the case of EUPOL Afghanistan could have been learned from its predecessor – the GPPO. The previous police reform efforts led by Germany also had too few resources and insufficient numbers of staff. And like EUPOL, the GPPO's approach also differed quite widely from the US approach, making coordination and cooperation between the two more difficult (Gross, 2009: 27). Facing the same conditions, EUPOL Afghanistan could have profited from an effective system of sharing these previous lessons between Germany, as an EU Member State, and the EU.

15. EUFOR TCHAD/RCA

EUFOR Tchad/Central African Republic (RCA) was the largest autonomous military operation ever deployed by the EU. The aim of the operation deployed in the East of Tchad and in the North East of the RCA was to support the UN in addressing the humanitarian consequences of the Darfur crisis (Council document, 2009b). In accordance with UN Security Council Resolution 1778 (2007), the specific objectives of EUFOR Tchad/RCA were (1) to contribute to protecting civilians in danger, particularly refugees and displaced persons; (2) to facilitate the delivery of humanitarian aid and the free movement of humanitarian personnel by helping to improve security in the area of operations; and (3) to contribute to protecting UN personnel, facilities installations and equipment and to ensuring the security and freedom of movement of its own staff, UN staff and associated personnel. The Operation reached initial operational capacity on 15 March 2008 and was handed over to the UN Mission in the Central African Republic and Chad (MINURCAT) on 15 March 2009.

15.1 Process of identifying lessons

As requested by UN Security Council Resolution 1778 (2007), the EU issued six-monthly reports to the UN (mid-term and final report). Rather than identifying lessons from EUFOR Tchad/RCA, these reports provide an overview of the security situation on the ground and take stock of EUFOR's activities and achievements. According to the *Single Progress Report on the Development of EU Military Capabilities for the First Semester of 2010*, capability-related lessons from EUFOR Tchad/RCA were processed and combined with lessons from previous operations (Council document, 2010: 20). Apart from that, no public reference to the EU's official EU lessons learned documents could be found.

Following the endorsement of the PSC of military advice (ESDP COSDP 855), an EUISS seminar on lessons from EUFOR Tchad/RCA was convened on 18 March 2010. The objective of the seminar was to provide and share lessons from EUFOR Tchad/RCA for the planning, conduct and execution of future CSDP missions as well as on 'comprehensive aspects of EU operations' (Helly, 2010: 1)⁽²⁹⁾. While using the EUISS as neutral facilitator of debate, the overall objective of the seminar was 'to complement ongoing 'lessons learned' efforts by other EU institutions and Member States' (ibid.). The participants of the seminar included representatives from EU institutions, the Member States, the UN, NGOs, think tanks, and academia. The seminar report was forwarded to the PSC delegations for information before being published on the EUISS website. It was the first time that the EUISS held such a comprehensive seminar on a CSDP mission. In the seminar report, the EUISS recommended that 'similar lessons learned seminars should be organised more systematically after each military and civilian crisis management operation' (ibid.: 12). The fact that the EUISS led a ten-month lessons-learned project on EUFOR Atalanta and EU counter-piracy policies, including an expert group meeting (March 2011) and a PSC-level seminar (June 2011), shows that this practice continued to evolve.

These official or semi-official documents on lessons learned are complemented by a series of external evaluations of EUFOR Tchad/RCA, carried out by independent research institutes/think tanks, academics and NGOs. While academic contributions do not seem to follow a specific timeline, think tank and NGO assessments cluster around certain dates, namely the start of the Operation (February/March 2008), its mid-term review (September 2008), and its end date (March 2009).

²⁹ The 'comprehensive aspects' include issues related to civil-military coordination and to the coherence between different EU policies or instruments (see Helly 2009: 9-12).

15.2 Identified lessons that have been documented

Although specificity, format and style of the aforementioned documents vary, there are some recurrent themes in the lessons identified from EUFOR Tchad/RCA. These can be grouped into the following eight categories:

15.2.1 Adequacy of the mandate

External evaluations of EUFOR Tchad/RCA repeatedly criticised the misfit between the Operation's mandate and the security situation on the ground. The International Crisis Group (ICG) (2009: 19) remarked that the mandate of EUFOR Tchad/RCA was based on an assessment of the situation in Eastern Chad in 2005-2006 when rebel groups were a major source of insecurity. By the time of EUFOR's deployment, the most important problem was the increase in banditry and criminality. However, EUFOR was neither mandated nor equipped to address these security problems. In September 2008, both the ICG (2008: 33) and OXFAM (2008: 2) recommended to adjust EUFOR's mandate to the new security situation in the course of its mid-term review. More specifically, they recommended that EUFOR should strengthen its deterrent function by increasing patrols in key IDP and refugee areas (ICG, 2008: iii; OXFAM 2008: 18).

15.2.2 Operational design

EUFOR Tchad/RCA was designed as an end-date rather than an end-state operation meaning that its exit strategy was related to a specific date rather than to a change in the security conditions on the ground. Furthermore, the Operation followed a strategy of humanitarian deterrence (Mattelaer, 2008: 34) in order to achieve a safe and secure environment. Mattelaer (ibid.: 31) pointed out that the impact of an operation with a humanitarian deterrence strategy and an end-date concept was likely to be of limited durability. The EUISS report concluded that, while an end-date concept is politically preferable, an end-state concept is militarily sound. It recommended further work on the end-state concept and the possibility to link it with a more sophisticated approach to the bridging model ⁽³⁰⁾ (Helly, 2010: 9).

15.2.3 Resourcing (budget, troops and capabilities)

The EU had difficulties in resourcing the Operation. Germany and the UK essentially saw EUFOR Tchad/RCA as a French project (Dijkstra, 2010: 396). While they did not block the decision to launch the Operation, they kept the common costs of the Operation to a minimum and refused to provide troops (ibid.). It then took six months and six force generation conferences for EUFOR to reach initial operational capacity. Finally, the bulk of the costs were carried by France, who also provided 53 percent of the troops. In the implementation phase, the Operation was faced with important capability shortages, most prominently a lack of transport helicopters. In order to compensate for this gap, the EU requested Russian support. However, the negotiations on the use of four Russian helicopters took nine months from the first meeting to their deployment in December 2008, three months before the end of EUFOR's mandate. Some argue that these resourcing problems in EUFOR Tchad/RCA underline the necessity for at least one bigger Member State to yield substantial financial and political support for EU military operations (Seibert, 2010: 54). Furthermore, the Operation showed that if the EU has to rely on external contributors, outreach should start early on in the planning process (Helly, 2010: 5).

³⁰ The bridging model is one of the scenarios for UN-EU cooperation in crisis management. It describes a situation where an EU-led operation intervenes first and paves the way for a handover to a UN operation (Tardy, 2005). The operations EUFOR Tchad/RCA and Artemis fall into this category.

15.2.4 Logistics

EUFOR Tchad/RCA represented an unprecedented logistical challenge, but there is a general consensus that this challenge was met (Helly, 2010: 5). Several lessons were identified from this experience. First, logistics should receive greater attention in the pre-planning phase in order to anticipate national limitations (e.g. air transport) at an early stage. Second, the Operation showed the advantages and limitations of having one logistical lead nation. The logistical lead nation, in this case France, acted as a crucial facilitator in the deployment, sustainment and hand-over of the mission. However, the applicability of the concept is limited since the logistical lead nation needs to have the political will, the financial resources and the competence to assume this role (Seibert, 2010: 54). The concept of the logistical lead nation should thus 'be deconstructed and redefined in terms of what that nation can and cannot provide' (Helly, 2010: 5). Third, there needs to be greater mutualisation and centralisation of logistics. Greater cooperation, coordination and mutual logistical support between contributing Member States would enhance the cost-effectiveness of operations. Finally, EUFOR Tchad/RCA revealed the advantages and disadvantages of outsourcing logistics. While outsourcing logistics to private contractors can reduce the number of troops necessary for certain tasks, it may increase costs and reduce flexibility and responsiveness in unforeseen circumstances (see Seibert, 2010: 55).

15.2.5 Intelligence

Intelligence gathering, cooperation and sharing were among the weaknesses identified by evaluations of EUFOR Tchad/RCA. The EU's intelligence structures 'did not allow the Operation to proceed based on a common, comprehensive and detailed understanding of the area from the outset' (Helly, 2010: 7). The EU experienced gaps in terms of imagery intelligence, human intelligence and signal intelligence (Seibert, 2010: 58-59). Monitoring of the situation on the ground should start at an early stage in order to inform the pre-planning process (Helly, 2010: 7). In order to get a more comprehensive picture from the outset, the EU should reach out to other relevant information sources including non-European intelligence agencies, NGOs, think tanks and academics during the pre-planning phase (ibid.). Furthermore, EUFOR Tchad/RCA revealed the need for increased information sharing among National Intelligence Cells (NICs) and with the Brussels-based intelligence structures. According to the EUISS seminar report, the EU should learn lessons from EUFOR Atalanta in this regard and implement a "plug and play" philosophy towards the use of Brussels intelligence-sharing structures (SITCEN, EUMS, SATCEN)' (ibid.: 7). In order to enhance the access to imagery intelligence, Seibert (2010: 61) advised to strengthen the SATCEN's overall capacity and to enable the Force Headquarters to request satellite imagery directly from the SATCEN without having to go through the Operations Headquarters, as was the case in EUFOR Tchad/RCA.

15.2.6 Comprehensive approach and civil-military coordination

Assessments of the comprehensive approach and civil-military coordination offer a mixed picture. The 'comprehensive planning' of the EUFOR Tchad/RCA was described as an 'internal milestone for the EU' (Dijkstra, 2010: 399). Because the Commission had been involved since beginning of the Council's planning process, it was able to provide funds and other significant accompanying measures for the Operation. However, as Seibert (ibid.: 62) pointed out, combining these different instruments on the ground proved to be more difficult. The cooperation between the Commission and EUFOR in the field was seemingly strained due to the extension of the bureaucratic divide between security and development policy in Brussels (ibid.). The EUISS report described Operation EUFOR Tchad/RCA as setting 'new benchmarks for civil-military cooperation' and recommended that

'templates of coordination agreements between EUFOR and humanitarian actors should be used in future operations' (Helly, 2010: 10). Meanwhile, Seibert (2010: 63) described the cooperation between EUFOR and NGOs in the field as 'difficult'. Although he acknowledged that the relationship between them had improved towards the end of the Operation, NGOs were 'often reluctant to work alongside EUFOR' (ibid.: 63).

15.2.7 Lack of a comprehensive strategy

While there is a consensus that EUFOR Tchad/RCA had a positive impact on the security situation in the region, many external observers deplored the absence of a 'coherent political strategy' (Seibert, 2008: 3) and of 'clear common foreign policy objectives' (Helly, 2010: 11). The mandate of EUFOR Tchad/RCA was deliberately detached from the overall political context (ibid.). The EUISS report underlined that 'a clear foreign policy concept needs to underpin future EU operations' (ibid.). The relevant EU actors (Member States, Special Representatives, Presidency envoys, political advisors to EUFOR, European Commission, PSC etc.) should coordinate to design political strategies and update them at the theatre level in order to provide future operations with foreign policy guidance (ibid.: 12).

15.2.8 EU-UN cooperation and hand-over

Another recurrent theme in the lessons identified from EUFOR Tchad/RCA is the effectiveness of EU-UN cooperation. There was substantial EU-UN coordination in the planning phase of the Operation including joint fact-finding missions. The operative cooperation between EUFOR and MINURCAT is said to have reached 'unprecedented levels' (Helly, 2010: 3). However, diverging priorities, different organisational cultures, discrepancies in deployment calendars, and misunderstandings with regard to logistical support stood in the way of effective EU-UN cooperation (ibid.). Furthermore, the transition from EUFOR to MINURCAT was generally described as a 'difficult process' (ibid.). At the time of handover, the UN was not ready to deploy and a substantial number of EUFOR troops had to be re-hatted in order to avoid security gaps. The EUISS report concluded that EU-UN coordination documents in different fields, like strategic planning, logistics, operational support, communications and civil-military coordination should be developed and used in future operations (ibid.). In addition, more frequent and systematic joint EU-UN planning exercises should be conducted to improve information-sharing (ibid.). Furthermore, the handover of a bridging operation should be planned from the outset. While the re-hatting of EU troops was seen as an efficient way to ensure a bridging operation, it requires longer-term troop commitments from the EU Member States (ibid.).

15.3 Lessons learned?

Some of the aforementioned lessons have been learned in the course of the Operation or after its completion. In order to reduce the discrepancy between the Operation's mandate and the security situation on the ground, the Operation gradually adapted its working methods. With women and children being the main victims of human rights violations the Operation put more emphasis on gender issues (Dijkstra, 2010: 401). Furthermore, EUFOR increased its presence in areas with elevated levels of crime (ibid.). EUFOR also adapted its practice following exchanges with the humanitarian community. In the beginning, EUFOR used the number of returns of IDPs as an indicator for the success and impact of the operation. This was opposed by the humanitarian community based on the suspicion that such an indicator would foster returns despite unfavourable conditions and thus put civilians in danger. As EUFOR gradually dropped this practice relations with the humanitarian community improved (Seibert, 2010: 107).

EUFOR Tchad/RCA has served as a catalyst for strengthening institutional arrangements, pooling of resources, and harmonisation of capabilities. One example was the establishment of the Crisis

Management Planning Directorate (CMPD) as a means for improving the EU's capacity of comprehensive planning (ibid.: 65). Furthermore, EUFOR Tchad/RCA gave new impetus to capability-related initiatives. Examples are the establishment of the Franco-British helicopter initiative and of one of the important recent pooling initiatives, the European Air Transport Command (ibid.). As mentioned previously, the *Single Progress Report on the Development of EU Military Capabilities for the First Semester of 2010* indicates that capability-related lessons identified from EUFOR Tchad/RCA were processed and combined with previous lessons, the result of which would feed into the updated version of the 2008 Capability Development Plan (CDP) ⁽³¹⁾. Some of the capability gaps identified in the course of EUFOR Tchad/RCA such as intelligence surveillance and reconnaissance; availability of helicopters; multinational logistic support; strategic and tactical airlift, and mobility assurance are among the top ten priority areas of the updated CDP (European Defence Agency (EDA), 2011). Meanwhile, lessons identified in the field of logistics have fed into the European Third Party Logistic Support (TPLS) Platform. Established by the EDA Steering Board two months after the completion of EUFOR Tchad/RCA, this electronic platform aims at fostering the exchange of best practices and lessons learned in order to develop a more cooperative approach to contracting in support of crisis management operations⁽³²⁾. The platform is open to registered economic operators (subject to certain eligibility criteria) and registered contracting authorities.

However, EUFOR Tchad/RCA also showed that some lessons identified in previous operations were not learned. In the lessons learned process following EUFOR RD Congo, the EU concluded that the end-date concept was highly inadvisable. Nevertheless, the concept was applied again in EUFOR Tchad/RCA. According to Mattelaer (2008: 30) the reason why the EU acted in contradiction with its own recommendations lies in the nature of the EU's current operations, which are geared towards maintaining a stable and secure environment until a political solution is found. Finally, EUFOR Tchad/RCA triggered renewed debates on the usability of the Battlegroups and the revision of the ATHENA mechanism, but these discussions did not yield any substantial results (Seibert, 2010: 65-55). To sum up, Operation EUFOR Tchad/RCA set a precedent for EU-UN cooperation and the implementation of the comprehensive approach, but also highlighted some of the well-known weaknesses of the CSDP.

³¹ The CDP provides the basis of the capability development process led by the EDA. It was developed jointly by the EDA's participating Member States, the Council Secretariat, and the EUMC, supported by the EUMS and was endorsed in its initial version by the EDA Steering Board in 2008. In October 2009 the Steering Board tasked EDA to update the CDP. The updated CDP was endorsed in March 2011.

³² The TPLS Platform provides a catalogue of services covering a broad range of logistic support and specialised industries. Furthermore, it features a compilation of model clauses for contractual arrangements, technical specifications, best practices for Contracting Authorities, etc.

16. EUROPEAN UNION SECURITY SECTOR REFORM (EU SSR) GUINEA-BISSAU

On request of the Bissau-Guinean authorities, the EU mission in support of Security Sector Reform (EU SSR) in Guinea-Bissau was launched in June 2008 (Council Joint Action 2008/112/CFSP). This mission was a non-executive, technical mission that was mandated to advise and to assist the local authorities in the implementation of the National Security Sector Reform Strategy (NSS) comprising plans for restructuring the army and the police, and to support the adoption of SSR legal frameworks. It was the first (civilian/military) integrated Security Sector Reform mission of the EU that operated across several areas of the security sector. EU SSR Guinea-Bissau is one of the smallest ESDP operations with only 21 advisors and a limited budget of less than €6 million. EU support to SSR has also included Commission-funded interventions, particularly through the European Development Fund and the Instrument for Stability. The lack of cooperation on the side of Guinea-Bissau's political leaders in re-establishing the constitutional order after a mutiny by individuals from the Guinea-Bissau military pushed the EU to decide that the EU SSR mission would not be continued beyond the end of its mandate at the end of September 2010 (Bloching, 2010: 1).

16.1 Formal process of identifying lessons

The EU SSR mission was already deployed for about six months when the Council adopted the Guidelines for identification and implementation of lessons and best practices in civilian ESDP missions on 10 November 2008 (Council's Secretariat Document 15987/08, 2008). Still, the lesson learning process of the EU SSR mission has been mostly congruent with the Guidelines. In May 2009, the General Secretariat issued a report on the lessons identified and recommendations on the strategic and operational planning phase of the SSR operation in Guinea-Bissau (Council's Secretariat Document 10164/09, 2009). This report was prepared on the basis of written contributions by the Commission, Member States, EU SSR Guinea-Bissau and the General Secretariat that were involved in the planning phase (DG E/PU, CivMil Cell, CPCC, EUMS, SIAC). Furthermore, interviews with key actors in Brussels and in Guinea-Bissau also contributed to the report's findings. The report mentions that the lessons from EU SSR Guinea-Bissau are of relevance mainly to (1) future integrated missions, (2) to the EU SSR Concept and (3) to the planning of relatively small missions. According to the report, the lessons and recommendations will be integrated and monitored in ongoing processes and tools (e.g. guidelines on lessons and best practices) to ensure follow-up on the report.

Furthermore, in accordance with the Lessons Learned Guidelines, a questionnaire was developed by the Secretariat and distributed within the EU SSR Guinea-Bissau to provide information for the lessons learned reports (CIVCOM, 2009: 18). The guidelines also require that the six-monthly reports of every civilian CSDP mission report on the lessons identified/learned in the mission (Council's Secretariat Document 15987/08, 2008: 3). However, it is not possible to verify whether this happened in the progress reports of the EU SSR mission in Guinea-Bissau, because they are classified. Further to the closure of EUSSR Guinea-Bissau, a lessons learned report on horizontal aspects of CSDP missions in the area of SSR was requested by Political and Security Committee (PSC) in the annual Lessons Learned Report of 2010 (CIVCOM and RELEX Document 17386/10, 2010: 30). This report has not been issued to date.

16.2 Identified lessons that have been documented

Considering official documents and academic literature on EU SSR Guinea-Bissau the following three main topics can be identified when it comes to the lessons of the mission:

16.2.1 The planning phase of EU SSR Guinea-Bissau

The planning phase of EU SSR Guinea-Bissau faced several problems. One problem was that there was a staffing shortage for almost a fifth of the key positions within the mission, such as administration, security officers, reporting officers and justice advisors (Helly, 2009: 375; Council's Secretariat Document 10164/09, 2009: 10). As a result, not all positions of the mission were filled, some tasks had to be merged in order to be carried out, and the gender-mainstreaming staffing objectives could not be met.

16.2.2 The coherence of the activities of the Commission and the Council in Guinea-Bissau

Although there was good cooperation between the Council and Commission at the early stages of planning of the SSR mission in Guinea-Bissau, there was no link made between the planned CSDP activities and longer-term programming of Commission instruments from the outset. Ensuring an early connection between the European Development Fund (EDF), the Instrument for Stability (IfS) and the SSR mission planning processes could have strengthened the plan for EU support to SSR in Guinea-Bissau (CSDN, 2011: 8). This should have included linking EDF directly with the exit strategy for the mission, and integrating benchmarks into the mission plan to help manage the phase out process, and transfer of the bulk of programming to EDF (ibid.).

16.2.3 The SSR policy of the EU in Guinea-Bissau

Several lessons were also identified with regard to SSR strategy and policy in Guinea-Bissau. For SSR to bring about reform, the EU needs to engage politically as well as technically, and technical aspects of SSR need to be firmly grounded in the political context. In Guinea-Bissau, the relevant laws needed for reform have been passed. However, in a country where organised drug crime has infiltrated every layer of government and the security sector, implementation of these laws is a challenge (ibid.: 5). As noted in the introduction, it proved difficult to judge the real commitment of the local authorities to SSR, not only because many sectors and players were involved but also because of the turbulent political situation (Council's Secretariat Document 10164/09, 2009: 9). Although the Operational Plan (OPLAN) identified measures of progress for the mission to focus on, an agreement on these measures with the host country during the planning phase could have helped to provide an indication of the local commitment to SSR. To be able to assess the commitment of the host country, country expertise could also be included from the outset in fact finding missions (ibid.: 11).

Another lesson with regard to the policy of the EU SSR Guinea-Bissau is that co-ordination of SSR projects by the national government ('local ownership') is key to success. Therefore, it is vital that SSR advisors develop close working relationships with their local counterparts. Lessons with regard to the political engagement of the host country and local ownership had been identified in previous missions (see EUSEC RD Congo and EUPOL Kinshasa cases). In Guinea-Bissau, the government was not adequately engaged in formulating the national strategy or in the planning stage of the CSDP mission (CSDN, 2011: 7). Furthermore, a more thorough political analysis of the power networks at play and how security is actually delivered could greatly improve the relevance and impact of SSR projects. In Guinea-Bissau, the emphasis of SSR projects has been on legislative reform, but the main challenge remains in implementation given the infiltration of organised drug-related crime within the institutions (Helly, 2009: 376; CSDN, 2011: 7).

16.3 Lessons learned?

Lessons learned from among others EUPOL Proxima showed the relevance of joint Council-Commission fact finding missions. To ensure complementarity between EU SSR and activities of the

Commission Delegation under the European Development Fund (EDF), this lesson was taken into account during the planning phase of SSR Guinea-Bissau by deploying two joint fact finding missions prior to the official launch of the mission in May and October 2007 (Bloching, 2010: 3).

At present, there are different types of training courses at the EU-level. To begin with, Member States' personnel appointed to key positions, such as Head of Mission (HoM), Deputy HoM or Chief of Staff, but also ever more lower-rank staff, receive pre-deployment training in Brussels. As such, in the case of EU SSR Guinea-Bissau, the CPCC trained the core mission staff (around 10) on SSR before the official launch of the mission.

The execution of SSR in Guinea-Bissau showed that early efforts to demobilise parts of the army and to send home former combatants failed, because, after some time, many of these individuals returned to the armed forces or militias due to lack of income (Council's Secretariat Document 10164/09, 2009: 15). EU SSR got more traction once the local military hierarchy understood that the reform process would be accompanied with the help of the Commission by a pension fund (ibid.).

17. EU RULE OF LAW MISSION IN KOSOVO (EULEX)

4 February 2008 saw the Council Joint Action to launch the EU's largest mission under the Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP) (Council Joint Action 2008/124/CFSP). However, 2 years before the first EULEX staff was deployed, an EU Planning Team (EUP) took up office in Pristina in 2006 with a coordinating office in Brussels (Council Joint Action 2006/304/CFSP)⁽³³⁾. The EU Rule of Law Mission in Kosovo (EULEX) that was subsequently deployed reached initial operational capability in December 2008, and has since had its mandate extended to June 2012 (Council Decision 2010/619/CFSP). As envisioned in Article 12 of the Ahtisaari Plan⁽³⁴⁾ the mission is mandated to assist the Kosovo institutions, judicial authorities and law enforcement agencies in their progress towards sustainability and accountability. The mission aims to ensure these institutions are free from political interference and adhere to internationally recognised standards and European best practices (Council Joint Action 2008/124/CFSP).

EU actors involved in Kosovo also demonstrate a keen focus on addressing organized and corruption (for example see, Head of Mission briefs European Parliament, 15 March 2011). The EULEX staff work primarily through a Monitoring Mentoring and Advising (MMA) approach to building the technical capacity of Kosovar professionals in Police, Justice and Customs Sectors. It also has an executive mandate, reserving the ability to make arrests and adjudicate court cases with regards to ensuring the proper investigation and trial of serious crimes.

17.1 Process of identifying lessons

A EUP Kosovo Monthly Assessment Report for June 2006 (Council Document, 11315/06, 2006) indicates that reports were made by the EUP. However, no other similar reports are listed in the Council document register. Sources within the EEAS confirmed that the EUP Operational Plan (OPLAN) includes an entire annex on Lessons Learned, demonstrating the strong emphasis placed on learning from this experience. In June 2009, representatives from Directorate General IX (Civilian Crisis Management) visited EUP staff in Pristina as part of its efforts to build a lessons learned process (ISIS, 2009). This led to the December 2009 restricted report on lessons and recommendations from the planning of EULEX (Council Document, 17478/09, 2009).

As with all civilian missions, the CPCC requires a Six-Monthly Report from EULEX, a component of which is dedicated to identifying lessons from the mission. The restricted documents have been regularly submitted since 15 January 2009 (Council Document, 5168/09, 2009) up until 5 January 2012 (Council Document, 18828/11, 2011). No formal template is given to direct the collection of lessons, however most lessons identified in the reports are said to be those relevant to CIVCOM or on procedural capabilities (interview EULEX staff, 13 February 2012). As part of EULEX's "Programmatic Approach", designed by the EUP, Annual Programme Reports (2009-2011) measure yearly progress per sector and provide insights into areas where shortcomings need to be addressed in the coming months.

Furthermore, weekly and monthly updates, as well as end-of-tour reports from the Head of Mission (HoM) are submitted to the CPCC in Brussels. While lessons do not constitute an explicit section of these reports, lessons can be and are occasionally identified herein, acknowledging that the learning process does not always fit precisely into a prescribed reporting schedule. What is more, EULEX has the unique benefit of hosting a Best Practices Officer, designated specifically to identifying Best

³³ The establishment of a planning team with its own Council Joint Action and operating budget is unique within CSDP.

³⁴ The "Ahtisaari Plan" is the common name used for the *Comprehensive Proposal for Kosovo's Status Settlement*

Practices and evaluating new activities. This function goes some way in fulfilling the role prescribed by the 2008 *Guidelines for identification and implementation of lessons and best practices in civilian ESDP missions* (Council Document, 15987/08, 2008). However, it was reported that more support is needed for this position to realise its potential.

Beyond official or associated EU documentation of lessons, numerous papers by external experts, journalists, academics (both in and outside of Kosovo) have published reports on the mission. External reports tend to focus on shortcomings or critical missteps of the mission, or political dynamics at play, whereas official reports mostly highlight achievements and progress.

17.2 Identified lessons that have been documented

Within the official EU documents and reports published by external observers, the identification of several lessons could be generally categorized into five themes.

17.2.1 Ability to react to a dynamic political situation

The international stalemate on Kosovo's status and the eventual unilateral declaration of independence of Kosovo on 17 February 2008 led to a tenuous political situation, which hampered the ability of the EU to fully implement its plans (Grevi, 2009: 357; Tamminen, 2010: 66). One consequence was the confusing dilemma that arose from the "double-hatted" European Union Special Representative (EUSR). As was envisioned in the Ahtisaari Plan, the EUSR, Dutch diplomat Pieter Feith, also fulfilled the role of International Civilian Representative (ICR), supervisor to the implementation of the *Comprehensive Proposal for the Kosovo Status Settlement*. Given the failure to secure a UNSCR for this Plan, Feith found himself straddling two unaligned positions on Kosovo's status: publically neutral on Kosovo statehood as EUSR under UNSCR 1244, and unequivocally pro-status as ICR. This situation could be seen as a lesson to avoid compromising the EU's political clarity in the future.

Following the failure to secure an UNSCR, ambiguity over how to proceed with the planned handover from UNMIK to EULEX caused a delayed and cumbersome deployment (International Crisis Group, 2008: 33-37; Tamminen, 2010: 66). The EU committed to following through with an unprecedentedly large, robust and complex mission in what was now a political minefield³⁵. This lack of a "plan B" was seen to be the consequence of either the EU's inability to anticipate the eventuality, or political resistance to deviate from the assumption that the UNSC approval would pass. A member of the EUPT, who contributed to its Lessons Learned Report, stated that this issue was addressed in a section of the report dealing with the political situation (interview with EEAS staff, 7 February 2012). The extent to which the EU's plans were undermined by rapid political changes encourages both more preparedness and better responsiveness of the EU, to adjust appropriately within politically volatile situations.

17.2.2 Coordination among EU actors

The number of EU actors present in Kosovo necessitates attention for consistency and coordination between. Besides the EULEX mission, the European Commission Liaison Office (ECLO) as well as the EUSR and several EU Member States, are all active in supporting the rule of law in Kosovo. ECLO, for example, has Instrument for Pre-Accession (IPA) projects on training Border and Boundary Police,

³⁵ It should be noted that the Council Joint Action launching EULEX was agreed upon 13 days prior to the unilateral declaration of independence. The EU itself remains today divided on the issue of Kosovo's status, with 5 non-recognizing Member States.

improving legal education and implementing EU standards at the Ministry of Justice (European Commission, 2008). In the official *EULEX Kosovo Information and Communications Strategy* (Council Document, 6692/08, 2008), the EUSR is designated with the primary coordinating role on the ground in relation to political messages and public statements, which is corroborated in EULEX's mandate (Council Joint Action 2008/124/CFSP). Coordination boards and committees exist with a view toward keeping EU actors on the same page. Yet these measures have not always proven sufficient in practice (European Commission, 2008: 20).

Coordination and communication is reported to be largely informal (Derks and Price, 2010: 19). While unofficial contact can be practical, high staff turnover rate risks disrupting coordination that is primarily based on personal contacts. There is a call to enhance overall consistency of EU activities in Kosovo (Head of Mission briefs the European Parliament, 15 March 2011).

17.2.3 Resourcing and Administrative Issues

The resourcing of EULEX, in terms of staffing and equipment, was seen as an area in need of improvement. The procurement of equipment must go through an open tendering procedure, which can delay the delivery of necessary equipment. Restrictive policies placed on the budget are seen as incompatible with the tasks of EULEX. For example, in establishing a Special Task Force to probe organ trade allegations, EULEX requested a separate budget for investigators to keep their travel destinations confidential. This aspect of witness protection required extensive discussion before the Task Force could be launched (interview EEAS staff, 7 February 2012).

Human resource challenges also present several issues to be learned from. It was no surprise that the size of EULEX required unprecedented staffing commitments. However, the profiles for EULEX staff overlap somewhat with those of EUPOL Afghanistan and EUMM Georgia, putting further strain on Member State's pools of qualified and eligible secondees (Grevi, 2009: 362).

This pool is not particularly deep to begin with, given the practical constraints of seconding civilian staff. Judges, for instance, are responsible for caseloads in their home countries, and these are not easily left behind (Derks and Price, 2010: 30). Disparities in Member States' national secondment policies also contribute to inconsistencies in staff salaries, length of deployment as well as levels of training and qualification (ibid.). Related is the matter of the quick turnover of most seconded staff. Considering the overwhelming caseloads, the extensive time needed to review complex cases (often delayed by non-cooperation of witnesses or defendants), or the time required to build trust and rapport with local MMA counterparts, a typical one-year deployment is considered far too short (ibid; Bajrami, 2011).

17.2.4 Executive Mandate and addressing serious crimes

EULEX has been very public about its aims and ambitions in tackling corruption and organized crime. Endemic corruption and organised crime are seen by many as the primary obstacle to establishing the rule of law (Montanaro, 2009: 10; European Commission, 2011: 13). The pair of crosscutting themes requires the integration and cooperation of all three components of the EULEX Mission (EULEX Programme Office, 2011: 12; EULEX Programme Office, 2010: 17). Yet, non-communication among Kosovo agencies has obstructed effective collaboration (EULEX Programme Office, 2011: 16, 53; EULEX Programme Office, 2009: 36). A lesson here is to focus acutely on the interconnections between rule of law agencies. The EUPT showed commendable forward thinking in developing and integrated mission (Council Press Release, 2006). Yet, further exploration into the practical obstacles deterring inter-agency coordination is necessary.

Witness protection and relocation has also been underscored as a serious concern for several years (the OSCE has carried out reports on the issue for over ten years). As EULEX asserts its competency for investigating serious crimes within Kosovo, it has come under increasing criticism for its ability to protect witnesses (Marzouk, 2011; Council Document, 14050/11, 2011). CIVCOM, in its *Advice on the approach to Witness Protection by EULEX* has explicitly addressed the link between the ability of EULEX to fulfil its mandate on organised crime and the need to ensure witness protection (Council Document, 8324/09, 2009). This points to a greater need to accurately anticipate and deliver on capacities needed to execute mandates.

17.2.5 MMA in practice

There has been a near constant discussion on the way that EULEX balances its executive mandate with its MMA activities (Derks and Price, 2010; Tamminen, 2010; Grevi, 2009). MMA is understood as more important to the long-term goal of building capacity within Kosovo's rule of law institutions, the real key to sustainability. EULEX, along with EUPM BiH are seen to have the most elaborate and MMA component in CSDP missions. However, MMA is hampered by a few "growing pains". More clarity on *which* "European best practices" are to be mentored and advised upon, as well as more specific training in how to carry out an MMA mandate have been recommended to promote consistency (Tamminen, 2010: 69; Derks and Price, 2010). MMA requires a good understanding of the roles of each counterpart. While some secondees find the passive role of observing and providing advice awkward, it is absolutely core to the EU objective of assisting Kosovo in building capacities (Tamminen, 2010: 69)

17.3 Lessons learned?

The issue of the EUSR/ICR's conflicting stances on Kosovo's status has been addressed. The newly appointed EUSR, Samuel Žbogar, is now double-hatted as the Head of the Commission Delegation (Council Decision, 2012/39/CFSP; Council Document, 5694/12, 2012). This is also expected to enhance coordination among EU actors more generally, as has apparently worked in Bosnia and Herzegovina. On this note, EU coordination in practice is said to have improved markedly since the first years of the mission. ECLO and EULEX can be seen productively collaborating on several projects that were seen by many as potential areas of overlap and duplication (EULEX Programme Office, 2010). For example, with regards to Border Management, ECLO is able to purchase and provide the equipment necessary to complement the mentoring and training actions of EULEX for Kosovo Border and Boundary Police. The catalogue of actions that EULEX produces as part of its programmatic approach require the identification of other actors working on similar or the same issue, which at least helps to prevent overlap, and in some cases leads to collaboration.

With regards to financial regulation and procurement, some small steps have been taken. In February 2011, the Foreign Affairs Counsellors Working Party (RELEX) acknowledged that EULEX's procurement unit devised negotiated procedure to transparently identify companies to be invited to tender for EULEX procurement demands (Council Document, 6206/11, 2011). However, RELEX points out that 'open tender procedures should remain the rule and use of the negotiated procedure should remain as limited as possible' (ibid.). The issue of rapid procurement is decried in nearly all CSDP civilian missions. Some solutions are being offered, such as the Provisional Warehouse for quick procurement of basic equipment that was developed for EUPM BiH. In general however, administration is seen as an area where many lessons are identified, but few addressed.

EULEX has been enhancing its ability to address organised crime in corruption, with most progress demonstrated in the quick set up of the Specialized Task Force to investigate allegations made in the

Marty Report (Council Document, 1270/10, 2010). With full support of the Member States, a revision to the OPLAN can be approved by the PSC within a matter of weeks. In this regard, the EU can be seen to be more nimble in such action than the UN. In late November 2011, the mission also reallocated €600.000 to improve witness protection and strengthen the Specialized Task Force dedicated to the Marty investigations (Marzouk, 2011). Despite emphatic demand from Member States that witness protection be enhanced, this will also require Member States to host relocated witnesses (ISIS, 2011).

Regarding the strengthening of guidance on MMA, annual guidelines are written on MMA for EULEX Judges (2008-2010). Furthermore, ongoing MMA training programmes are developed by the EULEX Best Practices and Training Office, and periodically reviewed. Lastly, the CMPD is looking into conducting a thematic lessons learned study on MMA, as one of CSDP's main tools.

Many identify the deployment of the EUPT as a Best Practice that should be replicated in future missions (Palm, 2010: 10; Derks and Price, 2010). Specifically, it is mentioned the EUPT benefited from its local presence in Pristina, its full support of a Council Joint Action and budget, as well as the comparatively lengthy time it was given to work. It is commended with having adequately drawn lines of competency between the various EU actors (Derks and Price, 2010: 17; see case study on EUPM BiH). In future missions, a planning team could be used to explore the links between law enforcement and adjudication sectors, for enhanced coordination.

18. EUROPEAN UNION MONITORING MISSION GEORGIA (EUMM)

The EU Monitoring Mission in Georgia was deployed on 1 October 2008 (Council Joint Action 2008/736/CFSP). The objective of the non-executive EUMM is to contribute to the stabilisation of the situation on the ground following the August 2008 conflict. It does so by monitoring compliance of all sides with the EU brokered Six-Point Agreement of 12 August 2008, signed by both Georgia and Russia and the Agreement on Implementing Measures of 8 September 2008. Four tasks are outlined in the mandate of the EUMM: Stabilisation, normalisation, confidence building and reporting to the EU in order to inform European policy-making. The mission was originally mandated for twelve months and has been extended three times. The current mandate is effective until 14 September 2012.

18.1 Formal process of identifying lessons

A month after the deployment of the EUMM, on 10 November 2008, the Council adopted the Guidelines for identification and implementation of lessons and best practices in civilian ESDP missions (Council's Secretariat Document 15987/08, 2008). The guidelines state that any new mission, from the EUMM Georgia mission on, has to consider from the outset and within the planning documents the arrangements to identify lessons and capture best practices as set out in the Operation Plan (*ibid.*: 5). It also states that contributors to the lessons learned process will receive a questionnaire to guide their contribution. This also happened during the Monitoring Mission in Georgia (CIVCOM Document 16927/09, 2009: 18). The Annual lessons learned report of 2009 mentions that the software tools that were mentioned in the Guidelines to help store and manage observations and lessons were not in place in the EUMM up to December 2009 (*ibid.*). Reflecting on the lesson learning process during the EUMM Georgia, one can conclude that the process has been mostly congruent with the lessons learned Guidelines for Civilian Missions from its outset. There has, for example been a lessons learned report on the planning phase of the EUMM in the first semester of 2009 (Council's Secretariat Document 8141/09, 2009). According to the annual report on lessons learned in 2009, the report focused on the strategic and operational planning and especially on rapid deployment and the monitoring of mandates (CIVCOM Document 16927/09, 2009: 11). However, as this document is restricted, the content of the lessons remains unknown. Furthermore, reporting lessons learned and best practices takes place in the six-monthly reports of the EUMM (EUMM 9176/10, 2010).

18.2 Identified lessons that have been documented

The following four main topics can be identified when it comes to the lessons of EUMM Georgia:

18.2.1 The planning phase of the EUMM

Although the speed and scale of EUMM's deployment have been widely praised as evidence of the CSDP's positive development, particularly given the extraordinarily delicate political context in which it operates, there were still a number of technical and logistical problems (Fischer, 2009: 386). For example, the deployment of multiple exploration teams with different tasks by different EU institutions proves difficult to coordinate. Secondly, as a result of the urgent situation during the deployment phase, the recruitment of the mission staff did not follow the usual selection procedures. Member States were requested to contribute contingents of monitors already endowed with technical equipment, which led to a nationally biased composition of many teams, which required reorganisation later on (*ibid.*: 387). Furthermore, complex procurement procedures complicated the establishment and equipment of both the Headquarters in Tbilisi and the field offices (Fischer, 2009:

387). As a result, technical and other equipment, such as cell phones, computers and desks, was lacking.

18.2.2 The co-ordination and coherence of EU efforts in Georgia

Another challenge for the EUMM is that Georgia has become a very crowded arena for the EU. Besides the European Commission, which is involved in the area through the framework of the European Neighbourhood Policy (ENP), a EUSR for the Crisis in Georgia and a EUSR for the South Caucasus (until February 2011) have also been very active in Georgia. While the mandates of these EU actors are different, there is also a great deal of overlap between the various EU's instruments in the area (Fischer, 2009: 389). For example, the EUMM, the Commission and the EUSR's were involved in parallel confidence-building operations (Huff, 2011: 23). The lesson identified is that it requires a great effort by the EU actors to develop a common strategy for a specific country and to coordinate their efforts.

18.2.3 The co-ordination with other international actors in Georgia

A third issue that has proven to be a challenge for the EUMM is the overlap of activities of the EUMM with the other international players in Georgia. When the EUMM was deployed, the UN and the OSCE were already active in Georgia for about fifteen years. The interaction of these two missions with the EUMM was complicated, because the missions were being ascribed different political affinities in relation to the parties to the conflict (ibid.: 388). While the EU mission is perceived as being close to the Georgian side, the UN Observer Mission in Georgia (UNOMIG) was seen as relatively close to the Abkhaz side. Regardless of repeated public statements by all sides that the three missions did not overlap but complemented each other, tensions could not be avoided altogether.

18.2.4 The reference to the mission area in the EUMM mandate

A fourth issue of the EUMM concerns the territory that it is to monitor. While the mandates of the Monitoring Mission state that the mission is active in 'in Georgia' or 'throughout Georgia', it does not explicitly mention Abkhazia or South Ossetia. Although the EU mandate applies to the entire internationally recognised national territory of Georgia, in practice neither the two de facto states nor Russia has granted the EU access to South Ossetia and Abkhazia (Halbach, 2009: 116). The EU finds itself in a dilemma here, as Abkhazia and South Ossetia deny the EUMM normal cooperation as long as the mission insists on access to their territories. On the other hand, the policy of non-recognition is crucial in the EUMM's relations with the Georgian government.

18.3 Lessons learned?

Despite the technical and logistical problems during the deployment of the EUMM, the mission serves as a model for future planning of rapid deployment and monitoring mandates (CIVCOM 16927/09, 2009: 18). Member States demonstrated great willingness to contribute to the EUMM during the deployment phase, which made quick implementation possible (Fischer, 2009: 383). One example of improved practice is that a team of military planners from the EU Military Staff (EUMS) supported the planning of the EUMM (Permanent Representatives Committee 16685/08, 2008: 22). Another aspect that demonstrates lesson learning is that the Operation Plan of the EUMM Georgia is elaborate with regard to integrating human rights and gender issues, and may serve as an example for planning similar operations or missions in the future (CIVCOM Document 17138/1/10, 2010: 14).

19. EUROPEAN UNION NAVAL FORCE SOMALIA (EUNAVFOR) – ATALANTA

On 10 November 2008, the European Union Naval Force Somalia (EUNAVFOR) was officially launched by the Council to deter and combat piracy off the coast of Somalia and in the Gulf of Aden (Council Joint Action 2008/851/CFSP). EUNAVFOR, better known as Operation Atalanta, differs from other previous EU crisis management or peacekeeping missions in its naval character. The Council Joint Action set to main objectives: (1) to protect in priority the vessels of the World Food Programme delivering food aid to displaced persons in Somalia, and (2) to protect vulnerable vessels in the area and ensure 'deterrence, prevention and repression' of piracy and armed robbery at sea. The military operation was initially scheduled for a period of twelve months (until 13 December 2009) and was extended by the Council until December 2014 (Council Decision 2010/766/CFSP).

19.1 Formal process of identifying lessons

The lesson learning process of Operation Atalanta can be described as more random than the process during Operation EUFOR Althea or Operation EUTM Somalia. There is, for example, no Annex in the Operation Plan that addresses lessons learned and there is no standard practice of issuing six-monthly reviews on the mission that might contain lessons (Interview with EU official, January 2012). Lessons learned did form a large part of the mid-term review of Operation Atalanta of June 2009 (House of Lords, 2010: 12). Lessons from Operation Atalanta are analysed by the EUMS and the EU Military Committee Working Group/Headline Goal Task Force (EUMCWG/HTF) in order to contribute to the measurement of progress. The EU Military Staff (EUMS) also closely cooperates with the European Defence Agency (EDA) for the analysis of lessons learned (Political and Security Committee Document 8443/10, 2010: 17). The EUMS has regular contact with the lessons group at the Atalanta Operational Headquarters (OHQ) and the operation has shown to positively respond to calls for 'Lesson Observations' from the EUMS (EU official, February 2012). The lessons of Operation Atalanta have been collected in the European Lessons Management Application (ELMA) (Political and Security Committee Document 8443/10: 17). Currently there are close to 200 'Lessons Observations' for Operation Atalanta in the ELMA database (*ibid.*). There is a vast array of information provided in the database, including the 'Lessons Observations', the context of the lessons and the updates of the analysis and development phases. It seems that as a result of this continuous lesson learning process there is less need for separate periodic reports.

19.2 Identified lessons that have been documented

Considering official documents and academic literature on Operation Atalanta the following five main topics can be identified when it comes to the lessons of the operation:

The planning phase of Operation Atalanta

The planning phase of Operation Atalanta resulted in several lessons. First of all, the planning was done by a relatively small but efficient team, contradicting the thesis that large planning structures are better (Helly, 2011: 9). Secondly, it would have been preferable to benefit from the presence of planners at the level of the Operational Headquarters (OHQ) from the beginning of the mission. Another lesson identified was the need to involve CPCC and the Commission more closely in a more comprehensive civilian-military planning process to encompass the military as well as law enforcement dimensions of the operation when writing the Crisis Management Concept (CMC) (*ibid.*: 9).

19.2.1 The cooperation with international actors

Alongside Operation EUNAVFOR in the Gulf of Aden, there are numerous other actors (e.g. NATO and the US) working to secure trade routes and fight piracy. By early summer 2009, there were nearly forty warships in the region (Weber, 2009: 75). In formal terms, the mandate of Operation Atalanta provides for no cooperation with other interventions, still less for co-ordination. However, the mandate is flexible in permitting Atalanta vessels to temporarily come under the command of EU NAVFOR or NATO. As a result, some EU Member States have ships both in the Atalanta group and in national contingents (Helly, 2009: 399). An evaluation of Atalanta of March 2009 notes that co-ordination between the Commander and headquarters and between the different ships in the region takes too long (Weber, 2009: 79). As a result, too much time passes between the sighting of a pirate boat and a coordinated response. This identifies the lesson that centrally coordinating the efforts of the various operations (i.e. Atalanta, NATO, Combined Task Force-151 and the national contingents) is a prime concern.

19.2.2 The detention and prosecution of arrested pirates

The detention and prosecution of the suspected pirates is another area where lessons can be learned. The Joint Action for EU NAVFOR provides for three possibilities to transfer pirates (i.e. to the state of the ship that catches the pirates, to a third state participating in Atalanta or to another third state whose legal system meets international human rights standards). However, no binding arrangement was set during the planning phase of the Operation (Weber, 2009: 78). There are currently no EU-wide criminal procedures on piracy and any action against suspected pirates takes place in a national criminal procedure framework (Helly, 2011: 6). As a result, ad hoc arrangements had to be made for dealing with captured pirates, which has not proven to be easy. For example, an EU agreement with Djibouti has not allowed for suspects' detention and trial in that country, because of humanitarian and jurisdictional concerns (Nicolli, 2009: 2). To ensure that arrested suspects of piracy (or any other crime) can be detained and prosecuted in future CSDP operations, clearly stated arrangements should be made in the planning phase of the mission.

19.2.3 Fighting the consequences rather than the causes of conflict

As acknowledged by Atalanta's Operation Commanders, the EU NAVFOR can only contain one aspect of the consequences of the unresolved conflict in Somalia (i.e. piracy) and therefore cannot stop piracy in the long term (Weber, 2009: 76). EUNAVFOR sets out neither to stabilise the situation on land in Somalia nor to address the root causes of piracy in the Gulf of Aden. Without tackling the development dimension of the piracy problem, Atalanta can only reach an 'end date' but not an 'end state' (ibid.: 70). Taking the various challenges and lessons into account, this might be the most important, and simultaneously the hardest lesson to learn for future CSDP operations.

19.2.4 The use of private companies to secure vessels

Finally, one of the innovations of Atalanta lies in the cooperation between the military and the private sector (e.g. through the setting up of the Maritime Security Centre-Horn of Africa). One of the lessons identified is that there is a need for the EU to be more efficient in convincing the participating countries (EU and non-EU) to issue unilateral declarations allowing Vessel Protection Detachments (VPDs) aboard their vessels (Helly, 2011: 8).

19.3 Lessons learned?

Operation EUNAVFOR Atalanta has shown that the use of intelligence, for example to cue pirate warships to where actual pirate activity is taking place is absolutely pivotal. Having an 'intelligence-led' operation with a significantly enhanced degree of surveillance capacity is one of the most significant lessons of Operation Atalanta (House of Lords, 2010: 12).

20. EUROPEAN UNION TRAINING MISSION SOMALIA (EUTM)

On 7 April 2010, the EU launched a Military Training Mission in Somalia (EUTM Somalia) in order to contribute to strengthening the Transitional Federal Government (TFG) and the institutions of Somalia (Council Decision 2010/197/CFSP). The Operation is the first military training operation of the EU and takes place within the framework of EU's comprehensive engagement in Somalia. The main element of the mission is the training of Somali security forces in Uganda. EUTM trained 2,000 Somali recruits during the first mandate with the aim of strengthening the Somali security forces. The mandate of EUTM Somalia has been extended from August 2011 to December 2012 (Council Decision 2011/483/CFSP). The new mandate will focus on developing Command and Control, as well as specialised and self-training capacities of the Somali National Security Forces.

20.1 Formal process of identifying lessons

Lessons were addressed in the mid-mandate review of the Operation by the Operation Commander in the end of 2010 (Interview with EU official, January 2012). This report provided input for the Strategic Review of the High Representative to the Horn of Africa (Interview with EU official, January 2012). Furthermore, experiences during the Training Mission have provided several lessons for the report on lessons and best practices of mainstreaming human rights and gender into CSDP military operations and civilian missions, which was issued by the Committee for Civilian Aspects of Crisis Management (CIVCOM) in November 2010 (CIVCOM Document 17138/1/10, 2010). Currently there are approximately 30 'Lessons Observations' for EUTM Somalia in the European Lessons Management Application (ELMA) (interview with EU official, February 2012). The ELMA database was also used to review lessons from previous EU operations for the planning phase of Operation EUTM Somalia (Interview with EU official, January 2012). There is a vast array of information provided in the database, including the 'Lessons Observations', the context of the lessons and the updates of the analysis and development phases (*ibid.*). It seems that as a result of this continuous lesson learning process there is less need for separate periodic reports.

20.2 Identified lessons that have been documented

Because it is a relatively new operation, it is difficult to give a comprehensive overview of lessons that have been identified, let alone learned, during the EUTM. However, the following two main themes can be identified with regard to lessons from the EUTM:

20.2.1 The focus on training of the EUTM

The EUTM is only involved in the training of the Somali recruits. As a result, the operation depends on other actors when it comes to, for example, the recruitment or the reintegration of the recruits in the Somali security environment (Oksamytna, 2011: 9). Currently, the selection of recruits is done by the TFG, supported by the US. While the TFG had to be involved in the selection process to increase local ownership, greater representativeness among recruits could have been achieved by consulting at least a civil society organization or an actor with an in-depth understanding of Somali realities (Oksamytna, 2011: 9). With the revised mandate, EUTM is more involved in the medical selection of recruits (Interview with EU official, February 2012).

20.2.2 The political context of the EUTM

The political context in Somalia is crucially factor in the success or failure of the EUTM Operation (Oksamytna, 2011: 7). Since the TFG is ineffective and weak and the Somali security sector is in such a despicable condition, it is hard to tell where recruits end up after their training (Oksamytna, 2011: 7).

To avoid the risk that recruits end up in the wrong places, AMISOM is mentoring and monitoring the recruits after their training. Although the TFG command structures seems to be able to take over operational control better nowadays and the results of the first two intakes from EUTM look promising (Interview with EU official, February 2012), the political context is an important aspect to take into account during future (civilian or military) SSR activities. A certain degree of internal peace and stability, a willing local government and the ability to implement reforms in the interests of their populations are aspects that are relevant to take into account (Oksamytna, 2011: 10).

20.3 Lessons learned?

The practice of Operation EUTM Somalia shows that it has been able to incorporate lessons from previous CSDP operations/missions, especially those focused on SSR activities. While many EU missions have been criticised for being underfunded and understaffed due to the lack of commitment on the part of Member States, EUTM was launched on schedule, and the size of the mission is approximately 125 EU personnel (compared with only eight European staff seconded to EU SSR Guinea-Bissau and approximately 50 working for EUSEC RD Congo). The willingness of Member States to second staff for the mission might be associated with the fact that, unlike most other military missions, EUTM does not have an executive mandate, but is 'just training in a positive, permissive, favourable environment' (ibid.: 8). This has helped EUTM to fulfill its narrowly defined mandate to provide high-quality, specialised training to Somali security forces (ibid.).

When the training of the EUTM commenced, recruits complained about language problems, inadequate nutrition, and the insensitivity and rough practices of the Ugandan trainers. The dissatisfaction grew and almost led disorder among the recruits. In order to design a culturally sensitive training programme, EUTM hired a handful of Kenyan ethnic Somali former servicemen as translators and is using senior Somali liaison officers as mentors for the trainees ICG, 2011: 16. In addition, EUTM increased co-ordination meetings with the Uganda People's Defence Force (UPDF) resulting in more understanding between EUTM and UPDF (Interview with EU official, February 2012). Future SSR efforts of the EU should therefore take local idiosyncrasies into account (ibid.).

Lessons have also been learned with regard to the execution of the training itself. In order to achieve maximum impact it has proved useful to concentrate on activities with multiplier effects, such as training of local trainers instead of/in addition to local officials (CIVCOM Document 17138/1/10, 2010: 20). The training of Somali trainers is a key element of the revised mandate (Interview with EU official, February 2012).

Furthermore, the EUTM is effectively cooperating with international partners, for example with AMISON, which is an important role in reintegrating EUTM-trained soldiers into the Somali Defence Forces (Oksamytna, 2011: 5). Cooperation also exists with the US, who is participating in the selection of the trainees and providing airlift and individual equipment. Regular meetings with these actors have been found useful in order to coordinate action and positions. As EUTM Somalia and other examples show, it is important to clearly define the roles of different organisations and seek to identify the specific value added of the EU (CIVCOM Document 17138/1/10, 2010: 22).

Lastly, the EUTM's curriculum includes modules on human rights, humanitarian law, gender issues, and protection of civilians in conflicts, particularly women and children. In addition, EUTM operates a quota scheme for female recruits: out of 35 trainees selected to attend the junior officers' training based on their performance during the basic training, at least one should be a woman (Oksamytna, 2011: 5). The inclusion of human rights and gender as a standard curriculum was one of the lessons from EUPOL RD Congo (CIVCOM Document 17138/1/10, 2010: 20). The EUTM shows that early inclusion of human rights and gender expertise in the planning team for an operation or mission has

proved essential in order to ensure that those aspects are adequately covered during planning and then once an operation or mission is deployed (for example, up-stream planning allowed the inclusion of human rights and gender training in the syllabus used by EUTM Somalia) (CIVCOM Document 17138/1/10, 2010: 14).

COMPONENT III: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1. CONCLUSIONS

'The Council also recognises the need to continuously improve the performance of CSDP missions and operations, including through evaluation of outcomes, benchmarking, impact assessment, identifying and implementing lessons learned and developing best practices for effective and efficient CSDP action,' (Council of the European Union, 2011: 17991/11)

The complexity of the EU engagement in CSDP missions and operations requires the capacity to continuously assess the effectiveness of the EU activities against the resources available. Moreover the EU is still a fairly young actor in crisis management. At the same time, the EU has been present in a variety of theatres and in very different contexts, seeking to accomplish a breadth of different goals. Hence, much can be learnt from its experience. This is especially so in the field of civilian intervention where the EU has been involved in very complex settings and, as a consequence, has developed comprehensive and innovative approaches to crisis management. EUBAM Rafah, for example, must work with several local actors (i.e. the PA and Israel, Egypt and Israel, and between Egypt and the Palestinians), while trying to establish and maintain credibility as an impartial, reliable and capable third party. For these very reasons, learning processes are particularly important for ensuring continuous improvement and flexibility in sight of the ever changing contexts and theatres of intervention. On these issues the EU is in line with the greater international trend that attempts to standardise and improve knowledge management systems. International actors such as the UN, OSCE and OECD, are moving in the same direction and the first attempt of standardisation of lessons learned looked at the experiences of these actors as a starting point to build its own systems.

The political sensitivity of lessons learned should not discourage from enhancing the mechanisms in place and improving the capacity to implement lessons. On the contrary, more focus should be given to the need to 'improve the product' in a fast changing international background. This is particularly relevant for the EU to remain a competitive actor in crisis management. Moreover, attention is paid more and more to the 'value for money' of CSDP missions and operations and lessons learned play an important role in measuring success and improving performance. Member States (through their representatives in CIVCOM and EUMC) are increasingly asking for lessons learned cycles to be carried out and they are ever more aware of the added value of evaluation processes for CSDP (interviews with EEAS staff; 20 January 2012, 24 January 2012).

The previous chapter has explored how lessons learned processes have been carried out with regard to specific missions and operations. Specifically, it focused on the results of the formalised procedures of learning, the outcomes of mission reviews by external experts, and what types of lessons have been identified in each case study. Both in the discussion of the wider background concerning CSDP lessons learned and in the findings from the case studies, a number of challenges to learning have emerged. These areas represent points where the system could and should be improved in order to maximise the impact of learning mechanisms and increase CSDP efficiency and impact. This chapter will first discuss these challenges and areas of improvement, drawing from what emerged in Chapter 1 and 2. Against this background, it will proceed to suggest ways forward for a more productive and effective system of learning lessons. The chapter will provide pragmatic suggestions and options on how to achieve a more systematic and organic process of learning from experience. The chapter will close with specific recommendations on lessons learned and also recommendations targeted to inform the European Parliament about its role in overseeing and supporting the development of CSDP missions and operations.

1.1 Challenges to learning

The analysis suggests that there are several political issues that limit the capacity for institutional learning with regard to CSDP missions and operations. A fundamental problem that has emerged consistently during the interviews is the perception that lessons learned processes are a blame and shame exercise. This theme seems to cut across all EEAS bodies, however it is especially acute for Member States, which often see lessons identified in reports as potentially damaging to their reputation. A more systematic inclusion of best practices could help to alleviate this negative perception. Also the discourse could be shifted from 'assessment of what has gone wrong' to an effort for 'improving the product'. This, interviewees suggested, would help reduce Member States' squeamishness for lessons learned processes.

This attitude of Member States is especially reflected in the process of approving and finalising lessons learned documents. The procedure of having all documents pass through the respective committees (EUMC and PMG for military operations and CIVCOM and PSC for civilian missions) to be agreed upon unanimously by all Member States represented in the committees result in a 'polishing' exercise on the language and content of the documents in question. As it was explained in an interview, Member States' representatives sitting in the committees are pulled into two different directions. On one side, they are aware of the challenges and difficulties that missions and operations encounter, and of the need for change and constant improvement. On the other side, they represent their respective national positions, which can undermine conceding shortcomings or committing to a meaningful process of improving in the interest of defending national reputations (interview with EU official, 2 February 2012). As many interviewees stated, this will require a 'mindset' shift that can only be expected at a gradual pace. To respond to these challenges, EEAS officials adopt informal mechanisms of sharing sensitive lessons and originating change at a political strategic level. In this sense, informal and personal mechanisms for learning supplement the formal ones. However, it is unclear how and to what extent these informal systems contribute to change, as there is no way to track, measure, or substantiate their record with regard to improving practices and policies.

Related to the issue of sensitivity is the problem of access to the lessons learned documents. At the moment, the majority of lessons learned reports are classified and only few of them are partially declassified and available to the public. An additional obstacle to learning lessons stands in the fact that the restriction in the accessibility of the documents applies also to most EU bodies. The creation of ELMA and CiLMA will help transparency and sharing of lessons between EUMS, CPCC and CMPD. However, only these three bodies and the respective Council committees will have access to the databases. This decision not to disclose documents concerning the evaluation and effectiveness of missions and operations circumscribes the capacity of the actors involved, including Member States, to improve practices and policies. At the same time, disclosure of these documents could have the negative effect of further 'sterilising' potentially valuable information from them (interview with EU official, 24 January 2012). However, bodies outside the EEAS could also benefit from having access to lessons learned documents, and could valuably contribute to the lessons learning process. The European Parliament oversight role would surely be enhanced by having access to the evaluation of CSDP missions and operations. Under the current Council-European Parliament agreement only five members of Parliament may request specific documents (European Parliament and Council, 2002). In view of the renegotiation of the agreement, a more targeted system could be found for granting access.

Due to this reluctance to include sensitive issues in official documents, the political level of CSDP missions and operations is still scarcely captured by official lessons learning processes. This gap limits the EEAS's capacity to improve the decision-making process with regard to launching a mission or

operation, or writing an Operational Plan and mandate (interview with EU official, 24 January 2012). It is unclear in how many cases a mission mandate has been subject to lessons learned processes and revised as a consequence. On the military side, the fact that Member States can put forward lessons observations can politicise the process from its inception (interview with EEAS official, 24 January 2012). Assessing the political and strategic level of CSDP missions and operations would create the space for a more rigorous discussion on the rationale underpinning CSDP intervention and on the adequacy of the tools adopted in missions and operations to achieve the desired objectives.

Several challenges to learning also emerged concerning the organisation and conducting of lessons learned processes. To date, both EUMS and CMPD still have to find a successful way to target their audiences for the dissemination of the lessons learned documents (interviews with EU staff, 24 January 2012). In addition to this, some relevant audiences are completely ignored by the formal processes. FPI, for example, does not receive and is not involved in lessons learned processes. Only in two instances were draft papers shared with FPI, with the aim to include their input on the lessons learned (interview with EU official, 8 February 2012). Considering that financing mechanism issues are often flagged in civilian missions, a more formal incorporation of the FPI unit in lessons learned processes could be highly beneficial. It was also suggested that more coordination between FPI, CPCC and the financial structures within missions would improve the capacity to manage funds and resources effectively (interview with EU official, 9 February 2012). FPI also runs its own evaluation of the soundness of the financial management of missions. The results of which should be shared with CPCC, but currently are used only within the Commission. A more productive dissemination strategy would also involve the systematic sharing of lessons across missions, especially lessons of a technical operational nature. The sharing of lessons and best practices between missions could also promote the cross-fertilisation on successful solutions (see case study on EUSEC and EUPOL RD Congo).

Lessons learned have not yet become routine nor are they entrenched in the working culture of CSDP. Despite the attempt by the dedicated officers to raise the profile of lessons learned, the importance of including them in the day-to-day working routine remains more an aspirational statement than a solid practice. At mission level, for example, the staff receives little feedback from actors in Brussels on the objectives of lessons learned reports. Nor have they a clear vision on how their contribution to lessons learned processes within the wider picture of CSDP. This limits the motivation of mission staff to contribute to efforts to collect lessons learned (interview with mission staff, 13 March 2012; interview with external senior policy advisor, 15 March 2012).

CMPD and CPCC seem to have found an informal agreement on their respective lessons learned focuses. Where CMPD tends to concentrate on horizontal thematic lessons, CPCC follows a more vertical approach that looks at specific missions. In fact, CPCC carries out the 6-month mission reports without cooperation or consultation with CMPD. The reports are sent directly to CIVCOM without CMPD ever having seen them. Neither CPCC nor CMPD are the full 'owners' of the learning process and this results in a lacuna of clear responsibility for the implementation of the lessons. This creates confusion also for mission staff who would benefit from a more clear leadership on the matter (interview with mission staff, 13 March 2012). The establishment of CiLMA presents the opportunity to improve the communication between CMPD and CPCC. The practice of filtering the lessons as they move between the mission and CPCC, and again between CPCC and CMPD can create barriers to vertical learning. An interviewee stressed how missions tend to pass up to CPCC mainly those lessons where Brussels would have an influence. As a consequence, more context specific operational lessons are often kept at mission level and do not contribute to the CiLMA database. Despite attempts to improve the communication, much can still be done to bridge the various strategic, planning and

operational levels. Efforts should be made to increase understanding of the respective roles and address the challenges faced by each level of engagement.

The limited resources designated to lessons learned also hamper the success of the process. Within CPCC, all the officials dedicated to lessons learned are double- if not triple-hatted. In CMPD, only one staff member is solely dedicated to lessons learned. Within EUMS, the situation is slightly better as two full-time officers are involved in the processes of learning lessons. With the creation with the new civilian database CiLMA, CMPD could devote more than just one officer to entering all the existing documents in the system. In the case of EUMS, resources could be allocated to training the lessons learned point-of-contact officer in each of the various functional areas. This could improve not only the quality of the lessons observations, but also strengthen the analysis of the lessons to get at root causes.

The 2008 Guidelines on the identification and implementation of lessons and best practices called for the appointment of Best Practice officers in each mission. However, to date, only EULEX Kosovo has been able to appoint dedicated officers whose sole task is to work on lessons and best practices⁽³⁶⁾. The lack of similar positions in other missions negates the potential for inter-mission communication and the horizontal comparison, verification and exchange of lessons and best practices between missions.

Civilian and military alignment on how to conduct lessons learned still has to be achieved. The different methodologies result in different outcomes. Civilian and military lessons learned processes will expectedly always run somewhat parallel to each other. However there is space to improve alignment of the two processes. The creation of a forum where EUMS and CPCC staff can dialogue and exchange views on missions and operations are a positive step in this direction. Also the 2011 Joint Annual Report on lessons learned represents further improvement. Since the EUMS structure and concept for lessons learned is more developed and more sophisticated than the civilian one, the military concept could be used as a template on which to build a civilian version, tailored to the unique needs of civilian missions.

1.2 Areas of improvement and the way forward

A first area to address is the alignment of lessons learned systems with the EEAS. To improve the approach to knowledge management, the methodologies, resources and concepts for lessons learned should be aligned not only between civilian and military side of CSDP but throughout EEAS. A clear division of labour between CPCC and CMPD would also provide a stronger foundation for a coherent system. Especially valuable is the formalisation of analysing the root causes of lessons identified as well as the formalisation of finding potential solutions as a separated step in the learning cycle. The Lessons Learned Cell within EUMS has devoted great effort into developing these steps of the process. Formalising these two processes, by designating and defining specific tasks to carry out as part of the lessons learned cycle would support the successful implementation of lessons for civilian missions. EUMS has also developed a system to track the movement of a lesson through the cycle, in this way any obstruction to the learning process can be flagged, as can the successful implementation of the lessons in policy and practice. However, crucial for the effective running of such complex processes is clarity about who is responsible for which part of the cycle, and how these roles connect to each other. Hence, establishing official roles for CMPD and CPCC would be a

³⁶ Officers within this unit and its Head have been developing a comprehensive framework that envisions a more robust profile and function of the Best Practices and Training Office and its staff, with regards to collecting, analysing and sharing lessons.

necessary first step in this direction. Aligning the civilian and military processes would also support the EU's commitment to comprehensive approaches. Having isolated approaches to lessons learned would hamper the capacity of implementing improvement and change. Common terminology and concepts could be spread through joint training sessions of personnel dedicated to lessons learned throughout the military and civilian structures as well as through joint exercises and reporting.

Having a strong comprehensive concept, however, does not alone guarantee a successful learning cycle. Resources are also needed for the tasks of collecting, analysing and implementing lessons to be carried out. More human resources, a few very strategically placed staff members, are clearly needed if lessons learned is to be a meaningful process. CPCC needs human resources to dedicate to the lessons learned full time. EUMS already has a core team of two officers dedicated solely to lessons learned processes, with a supervising officer to oversee progress. In this case, additional resources would facilitate lessons learned training for officers within the functional areas to strengthen the network capacity for conducting evaluations and lessons learned cycles. Such an investment could even be fulfilled by a specialised expert who is periodically and temporarily placed within the bodies. CMDP also suffers from the lack of full-time dedicated human capital, with only one dedicated officer. More importantly, it would be beneficial to strengthen a network of best practice and lessons learned officers within various missions. One consideration may be to dedicate a full-time officer to best practices and lessons in each mission, as established in the 2008 Guidelines. Highly experienced officers could be appointed for such positions, and ideally given access to the Head of Mission so that problem areas reported to the HoM by different section heads could be delegated directly to the Best Practices officer. Creating a network of Best Practices officers could also fuel horizontal lessons sharing among missions.

In the same vein, Best Practices officers could be periodically gathered for thematic conferences to collect thematic lessons learned on common topics, such as gender mainstreaming, MMA or SSR. Best Practice officers from the mission level, but also the 'Brussels level' can become a community of experts to drive change and improvement of the policies and practices of CSDP. Especially at mission level, Best Practice officers can be problem-solving figures, taking on the task of finding solutions to the obstacles and issues encountered in the various divisions. Learning would shift from being a reactive mechanisms to being a proactive exercise that addresses issues and shortfalls as they arise or are foreseen, rather than a reactive procedure, looking back at 'what went wrong'. Such practices could contribute to increasing the desired impact of CSDP, which would be equally welcomed by Member States and by the actors involved in CSDP. The more common inclusion of best practices alongside lessons identified would help to 'sell the process' and ensure greater buy-in of the actors involved.

A network of Best Practice and lessons learned officers among the various structures of EEAS would also facilitate vertical communication between the various bodies and between Brussels and missions. Measures have been introduced to promote communication but practical filters are still in place between the various levels, for example the brevity of the lessons section within six-month reports, or censorship of lessons deemed sensitive. These practices increasingly limit the significance of the information reaching the relevant actors as it rises up through the ranks. Currently, operational lessons from the mission tend to stay within the mission. Moreover mission staff needs to be more actively made aware of the objectives of lessons learned processes in which they participate. By increasingly including mission staff (including Best Practice officers) in strategic review discussions, the links between strategic planners and those responsible for implementation would be strengthened. Facilitating the vertical sharing of lessons could increase the chances of having Operational Plans and mandates redacted on the basis of operational capacities and feasibility. This,

in turn, could increase the ability of the missions to implement the mandates and achieve the desired impact on the ground.

Considering the crucial role that financing mechanisms play in the conduct of civilian missions, more effective ways to collaborate and share information among the relevant actors would be welcomed. In order to enhance coordination between FPI, CPCC and the financial structures within the missions, direct channels of communications should be created. As it stands, lessons learned documents and evaluations are not shared among these three actors. The sharing of lessons and joint evaluations could also help overcome compartmentalism and encourage a focus on finding solutions to the issues identified at the mission level. Direct involvement of FPI in the training of administrative and procurement staff members could improve the understanding within missions of financial regulations and promote the identifications of issues and possible solutions at an early stage of the mission.

With regard to the access of official Council lessons learned documents, more transparency among the relevant actors could be fostered. This could encourage a broader effort to find alternative effective practices and policies. The European Parliament would be able to play its oversight role in a more meaningful way, were it informed of the lessons emerging from the planning and conduct of missions. The EP could be a vehicle to encourage actors and the Member States to give due consideration to recurrent lessons and address those that fall within their purview. However in order to do so, the EP must be better informed about mission realities. Currently only six members of the EP have the opportunity to request access to official Council documents⁽³⁷⁾. A more targeted system could be found that allows for a meaningful access from the EP to the documents without the risk of future reports being washed of valuable – yet sensitive – lessons identified. Establishing mechanisms to ensuring adequate access to such documents would support the EP in its oversight capacity.

Related to the restriction of the documents is the issue of the reluctance to include in official lessons documents those lessons that capture the political decision making processes. Seminars, such as the one organised by EUISS on Tchad, and exercises such as those organised by the EUMS, are crucial opportunities for identifying and discussing lessons at a strategic and political level. These less formal formats allow for a more open and candid evaluation of the practices and policies guiding the political-strategic actors during the planning phase. As explained previously, CPCC does not always have a significant number of officers available to participate in joint exercises. However seminars and exercises should be promoted as ways of learning and improving performance in a politically neutral environment. In the case of Atalanta, the ten-month lessons learned project carried out by EUISS led to an expert group meeting and a PSC level seminar. EUISS proved to be an effective neutral facilitator for the discussion and sharing of lessons identified among various actors involved in the missions but also involved, in the case of Tchad, external experts and stakeholders.

To ensure the implementation of lessons into new policies and practices, dissemination strategies require more attention. Target audiences still need to be identified both on the military and the civilian side. The military side is a step ahead of the civilian counterparts. Having already in place a categorisation of the areas to which lessons learned belong helps in directing searches within the database for lessons pertaining to specific sectors. A more proactive approach would be to identify the respective recipient(s) of the lessons for each category and send these individuals the lessons pro-actively. Email alerts could be established that inform the relevant officers about new lessons

³⁷ They are the President of the European Parliament, the Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Affairs, Human Rights, Common Security and Defence Policy, plus other 4 members designated by the Conference of Presidents. It is not clear how the four additional members of Parliament are chosen. This arrangement is up for renegotiation in 2012.

being identified and learned in a particular geographic or thematic area. The email alert system could also allow for the subscription to thematic lessons so that each officer receives what is relevant to his/her position specifically.

During the interviews, it was recurrently stressed how lessons learned processes need a higher profile within the EEAS and the EU in general. The Annual Report could be used as a vehicle to catalyse attention and as a reference point for political mobilisation and advocacy. After all, the Annual reports themselves stress the importance of integrated strategies and sufficient political will to mobilise the necessary personnel and resources for successful CSDP. In addition, the buy-in of high profile personalities within EEAS and greater EU community would encourage the allocation of more resources as well as more attention paid to the lessons identified through the CSDP experience. In the UN, the so called *Bramihi Report* gained visibility due to the high profile of the chairman of the commission putting the report forward. In a similar way, the final review of the AMM Aceh mission spurred a wave of discussions in Brussels on how to enhance the capacities of civilian CSDP missions because of the well respected reputation of the Head of Mission, Pieter Feith. The EP was also identified as a potential promoter of the added value of lessons learned processes. The EP has significant leverage with Member States, who have it within their capacity to address several recurring lessons and issues, and this position can be used to support lessons learned system as an important mechanism to improve both how money is spent and the effectiveness of the CSDP policies.

2. RECOMMENDATIONS

2.1 General recommendations on improving knowledge management

- The EUMS, and CMPD could identify the target audience of the lessons learned documents to improve the strategy of disseminating lessons learned. A proactive approach would be to send relevant lessons reports to specific officers who can apply them directly in their work.
- Including best practices in lessons learned reports could help to alleviate the negative perception that lessons learned processes are a blaming and shaming exercise.
- Aligning lessons learned concepts used by the various bodies within EEAS and adopting common definitions could enhance civilian and military coordination, and serve a more comprehensive approach to lessons learned. Similarly, joint training on learning methodologies and tools for EUMS, CPCC and CMPD Best Practice and Lessons officers could further promote a common approach.
- Formalising the analysis of the root causes underpinning lessons identified as well as proposing solutions to the issues could help ensure the implementation of the lessons in procedures and policies.
- Given its particular relevance to the lessons on financial procedures, FPI could be more formally integrated into the lessons learned process of CPCC, similar to the way ATHENA is involved in the lessons learned cycle of EUMS.
- Clarifying the division of labour between CPCC and CMPD with regard to lessons learned could help to establish a more structured, comprehensible and cooperative system for lessons learned.
- Exercises that involve all levels of actors from Brussels to the missions, such as the one planned for 2012, could increase the shared understanding of actors' respective roles and encourage more accountability. Also joint training of personnel from CPCC, CMPD and missions could promote harmonisation and deeper understanding of the dynamics at play at each working level.
- In order to improve the framework for learning lessons at the political strategic level, consideration should be given to systematising and developing informal tools for sharing and learning, such as EUISS seminars, workshops and exercises. This could also involve the actors responsible for the political-strategic aspect of CSDP, providing a new (possibly less political) forum for discussion.
- Mission staff, such as the Political Adviser to the missions or the Best Practice officer, could be included in strategic evaluations, discussions and analysis of CSDP performance at the Brussels level.
- Designating a Lessons Learned and Best Practice officer per mission (as suggested in the 2008 Guidelines) could lead to building a network of Best Practices officers. More specialised training could also be provided to all officers involved in lessons learned processes both at mission and Brussels level.
- Allowing ENTRi training institutes to use lessons learned and best practice documents in the development of courses curricula may be a very cost-effective lesson implementation method.

- Teams responsible for lessons learned reports could include both EU staff and independent experts. This could facilitate a more transparent and impartial approach to lessons learned studies.
- The gap between the mission level and lessons learned actors in Brussels should be addressed. Further research is needed on this aspect in order to identify ways to improve this relationship.

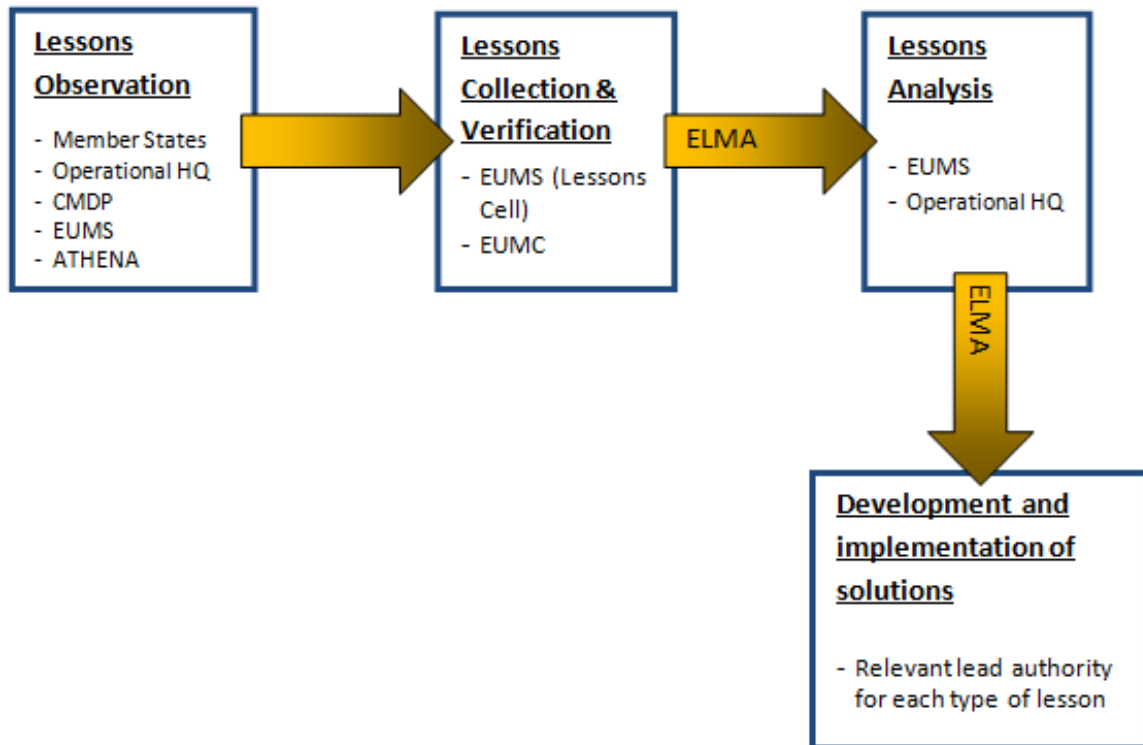
2.2 Recommendations to the European Parliament

- The EP is in a position to raise the profile of the added value of lessons learned exercises. Advocating for the appointment of an influential personality within EEAS to champion progress in collecting, analysing and implementing lessons, is one way the EP could exercise their influence.
- The EP could advocate for the appointment of dedicated Best Practice and Lessons officers in each mission (or possibly shared among missions within a single country). This could be followed up by overseeing the creation of a network of Best Practice officers, including those within CPCC, CMPD and EUMS to form a community of experts, to enhance horizontal as well as vertical learning. The EP could promote the idea among Member States (who must second qualified individuals) and convene conferences of Best Practices and Lessons officers, to support the activity as well as benefit from it.
- Financial mechanisms and budget management can be an entry point for dialogue between EP and EEAS on lessons learned and best practices, as the EP has a Treaty-based budgetary oversight role. As part of its civilian mission budgetary oversight capacity, the EP could ensure that proportionate and adequate portions of the CFSP budget is dedicated to evaluation and lessons learned mechanisms.
- According to their Treaty-based budgetary oversight role, the EP could support the function of Best Practice Officers in enhancing the cost-effectiveness of missions. Supporting Best Practice officers in their pursuit of more effective and efficient practices can have positive financial implications that the EP could endorse.
- The EP could encourage debate concerning the accessibility of the Council's official documents on lessons learned, particularly with regards to the access of EU bodies involved in CSDP, however placed outside of the EEAS structures. Partial disclosure of relevant sections could be an acceptable compromise, as could de-classifying lessons of completed missions, especially their planning processes.
- The EP could take the lead in reviewing whether the ENTRi system is effective and fulfilling its potential. It could also advocate for ENTRi becoming a lessons dissemination and implementation tool.
- Inter-parliamentary networks could be mobilised to improve relevant national training and recruitment structures and encourage Member States to follow up with the resources they have committed to CSDP.
- The EP could underwrite lessons learned reviews conducted by external actors, such as impartial research institutes, academic institutes, and NGOs. This could allow for more transparency and augment the available body of literature on CSDP lessons learned.
- The EP could also organise de-briefing sessions for seconded personnel returning from the missions on a bi-annual bases, and organised per region or theme. This would allow for

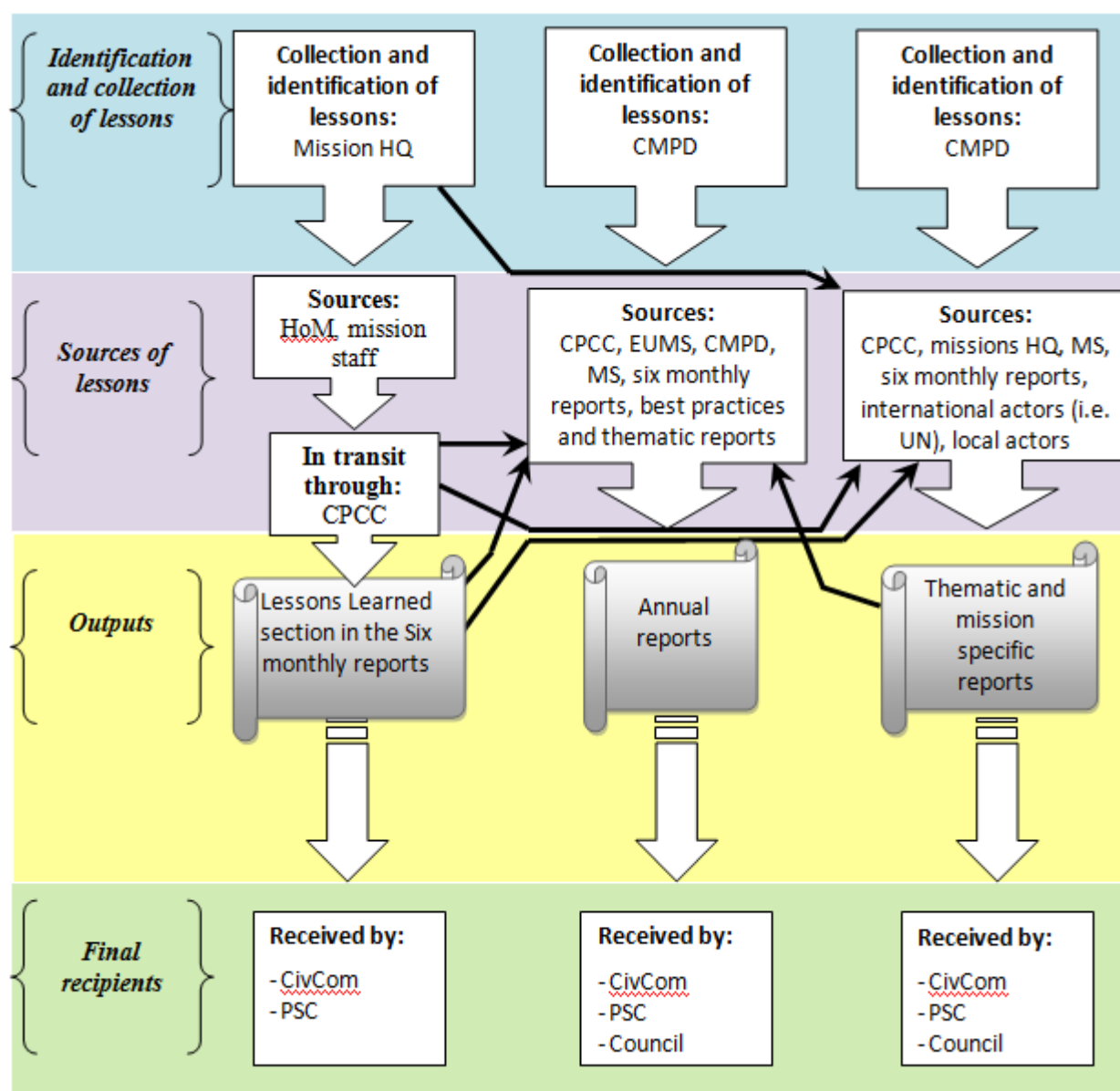
homogenous de-briefing methods and for informing the EP and staff in Brussels of ground-level mission experience.

Annex I: VISUALISATIONS OF MILITARY AND CIVILIAN LESSONS LEARNED PROCESSES

Military Lessons Learned Processes



Civilian Lessons Learned Processes

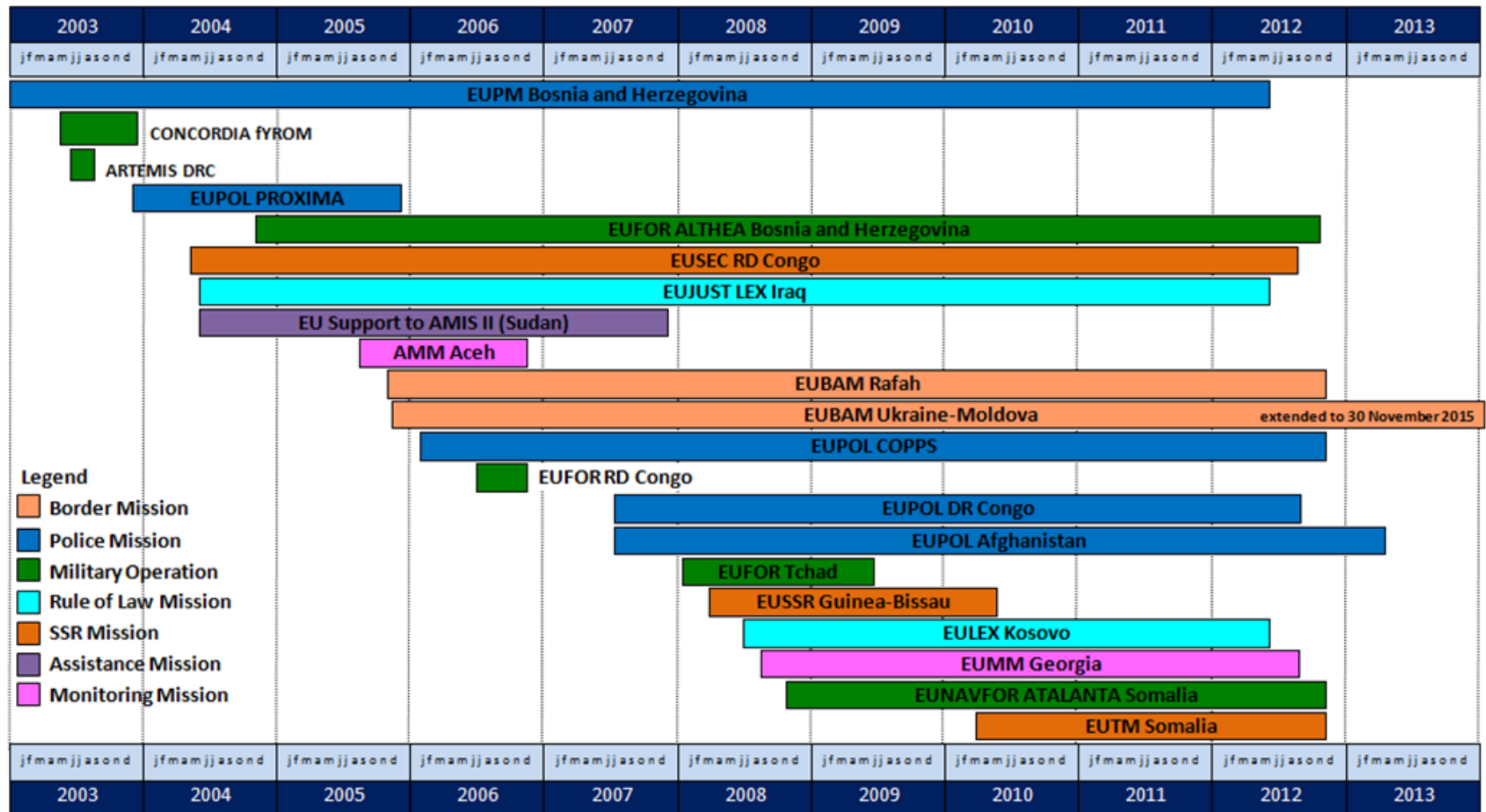


Annex II: LESSONS OVERVIEW MATRIX

	Operational, procedural and conceptual lessons						Strategic and political lessons			
	EU Coherence & Coordination	International Cooperation	Implementation of mandate	Recruitment, Training & Staffing	Procurement	Budget and Finances	Mandate Feasibility	Comprehensive Approach	Impact Assessment	Local (political) context
EUPM BiH	X		X	X	X		X			
EUFOR CONCORDIA	X	X				X				
ARTEMIS RD Congo		X			X		X	X		
EUPAT -EUPOL PROXIMA	X			X	X				X	X
EUFOR ALTHEA BiH	X	X	X	X	X		X			
EUSEC – EUPOL RD Congo	X	X		X	X		X			X
EUJUST – LEX Iraq			X				X		X	X
AMIS II Sudan		X					X			
AMM Aceh		X		X	X	X	X			X
EUBAM Rafah			X						X	
EUBAM Moldova-Ukraine	X				X	X	X			
EUPOL COPPS	X	X		X			X		X	X
EUFOR RD Congo		X					X			

	Operational, procedural and conceptual lessons						Strategic and political lessons			
	EU Coherence & Coordination	International Cooperation	Implementation of mandate	Recruitment, Training & Staffing	Procurement	Budget and Finances	Mandate Feasibility	Comprehensive Approach	Impact Assessment	Local (political) context
EUPOL Afghanistan	X	X		X			X			X
EUFOR Tchad	X				X		X	X		X
EU SSR Guinea-Bissau	X			X						X
EULEX Kosovo	X		X	X	X		X			X
EUMM Georgia	X	X		X	X		X			
EUNAVOR-ATALANTA		X	X				X	X		
EUTM Somalia		X		X			X	X		X

Annex III: CSDP Case studies timeline

Source: CSDP Map on www.csdpmap.eu/mission-chart

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