United Nations in the Congo: Success or Failure?

By
Mark Edwards

Submitted for 08-09 Deans’ and Chancellor’s Undergraduate Award
Sponsor: Dr. David H. Anthony
Submitted: April 3, 2009
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<td>ABAKO</td>
<td>Alliance des Bakongo</td>
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<td>AFDL</td>
<td>Alliance des Forces Démocratiques pour la Libération du Congo-Zaïre</td>
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<td>AIA</td>
<td>Association Internationale Africaine</td>
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<td>ANC</td>
<td>Armée Nationale Congolaise</td>
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<td>BBC</td>
<td>British Broadcasting Corporation</td>
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<td>BCK</td>
<td>Chemin de fer du Bas-Congo au Katanga</td>
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<td>CEHC</td>
<td>Committee for the Studies of Upper Congo</td>
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<td>CIA</td>
<td>Central Intelligence Agency</td>
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<td>CONACO</td>
<td>Congolese National Convention Party</td>
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<td>CNS</td>
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<td>DRC</td>
<td>Democratic Republic of the Congo</td>
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<td>FDLR</td>
<td>Forces Démocratiques de la Libération du Rwanda</td>
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<td>FNI</td>
<td>Le Front des Nationalistes et Intégrationnistes</td>
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<td>FP</td>
<td>Force Publique</td>
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<td>IRC</td>
<td>International Red Cross</td>
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<td>JMC</td>
<td>Joint Military Commission</td>
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<td>LRA</td>
<td>Lord’s Resistance Army</td>
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<td>MLC</td>
<td>Mouvement de Libération Congolais</td>
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<td>MNC-K</td>
<td>Mouvement National Congolais-Kalonji</td>
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<td>MNC-L</td>
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<tr>
<td>MONUC</td>
<td>Mission des Nations Unies en République Démocratique du Congo</td>
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<td>MPR</td>
<td>Mouvement Populaire de la Révolution</td>
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<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organization</td>
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<td>OAU</td>
<td>Organization of African Unity</td>
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<td>RCD</td>
<td>Rassemblement Congolair pour la Démocratie</td>
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<td>RPF</td>
<td>Rwandese Patriotic Front</td>
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<tr>
<td>UDPIS</td>
<td>Union pour la Démocratie et le Progrès Social</td>
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<td>UMHK</td>
<td>Union Minière du Haut-Katanga</td>
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<td>UNEF</td>
<td>United Nations Emergency Force</td>
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<td>UNHCR</td>
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<td>UPDF</td>
<td>Ugandan People’s Defense Force</td>
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<td>USOR</td>
<td>Union Sacrée de l’Opposition Radicale</td>
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<td>USSR</td>
<td>Union of Soviet Socialist Republics</td>
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EVOLUTION OF FLAGS OF DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO

Flag of 1960:

Flag of 1963:

Flag of Zaire (1971):

Flag of 1997:

Flag of 2006:
MAP OF THE DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO

The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.

Map provided by:
UNITED NATIONS IN THE DR CONGO: SUCCESS OR FAILURE?

The United Nations has been very active in Africa during the past fifty years, especially in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC). The DRC has suffered through many conflicts since the ‘discovery’ of the area by European Explorers in the 19th century. These conflicts have included wars for independence, military coups, civil wars, territorial conflicts with surrounding nations and territories, conflicts from lack of or disputed leadership, and wars from other nations that involuntarily involved other nations, which included the DRC.

The first settlement of what is currently the DRC came under Belgian King Leopold II and remained under Belgian control as a result of the Berlin Conference of 1884/5. Even though borders were not set at the Berlin Conference, it did give Leopold the rights to the territory. The Brussels Conference in 1910 was the conference that set the borders in Africa. Until 1910, borders were very loosely recognized. It was not originally the DRC, but rather the country name evolved from Congo to Zaire to DRC, which played a significant role in politics and relations domestically and internationally. Under Mobutu, the country was remained in 1971 to Zaire. In 1997, the name was changed to the DRC and has remained as such.

The country was heavily impacted by outside influences such as the United Nations. For instance, when the United Nations was created in San Francisco in 1945, it took an interest in Africa. In the late 1950s and early 1960s, the United Nations took a special interest in the Congo by setting up a peacekeeping mission for the new country. In 1964, the peacekeeping troops were forced to leave due to lack of funding and the unwillingness of the Security Council to renew the mandate of the Opération des Nations

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Unies du Congo (ONUC), the peacekeeping operation in charge in the Congo. In the 1990s, the United Nations would once again become involved in the DRC through another peacekeeping mission called the Mission des Nations Unies en République Démocratique du Congo (MONUC), which is still present in the DRC today. On 22 December 2008, the Security Council expanded the MONUC mandate through 31 December 2009 and allowed for up to 19,815 military personal in the region.\textsuperscript{2} The first peacekeeping mission resulted in the mysterious and still unsolved death of Secretary-General Dag Hammarskjöld on 18 September 1961, which was detrimental to the United Nations and a signal that the peacekeeping force was failing. Time has shown that first peacekeeping force failed in its mission to bring peace to the Congo because it left in power a dictatorship government, which became known for its human rights atrocities. Even though the second mission has yet to be concluded, the continuing violence in the region demonstrates a failure in the mission of the MONUC. Even though the MONUC has not become ‘history’ by the classical sense of being something of the past, it is a modern event that came out of historical events. The MONUC has already become a modern historical event because of how it has changed the lives of civilians and the role it has played in the DRC government.

There are two sections to this paper: one pertains to the roles of the United Nations peacekeeping forces, while the other pertains to the evolution of the government of the DRC. It progresses from a classical history of past events to a modern and political history regarding the MONUC. To explain this complex issue, I will address the following sub-topics: A history of the DRC; a background of United Nations peacekeeping operations; the peacekeeping mission of 1960-1964; a brief history of the

period of Zaire; and the current mission. I will analyze the roles of both the United Nations and the evolving government of the DRC, to determine that the peacekeeping missions, albeit well intended, ended or will end in failure for reasons that include intense rebel and government conflicts, Cold War politics, and the lack of a strong centralized government.

The Congo from European Discovery to Independence

The first contact and so-called ‘discovery’ by Europeans of what is now the DRC was in 1482 with the arrival of Portuguese explorer Diego Cão. Europeans called it a ‘discovery’ even though Africa had been populated for centuries. At the mouth of the Congo River, Cão mistakenly called the area Zare instead of Nzadi,\(^3\) which is where ‘Zaire’ originated. The first explorer that arrived with the intention of claiming the basin for a European nation was Henry Morton Stanley, a British-born American journalist, who crossed the continent from Zanzibar (present-day Tanzania) to the mouth of the Congo River from 1874 to 1877. Great Britain did not have an interest in the area, so Stanley was hired by King Leopold II of Belgium to assist him in colonizing the Congo.\(^4\) As a result of the Berlin Conference of 1884-85, the Congo became a Belgian territory under the direct control of King Leopold II, and he ruthlessly used his power to make the Congo profitable.

Under Leopold, slave raids were encouraged and the people of the Congo were forced by European law and control to provide labor, rubber, and ivory to Belgian occupiers. During the period from the Berlin Conference until 1924, the population fluctuated greatly. The estimated population at the beginning of occupation was between

\(^3\) Nzongola-Ntalaja, *The Congo: From Leopold to Kabila*, 265.
20 and 30 million. Exact numbers are unknown because the Europeans did not keep census records when they first arrived. In 1911, the population had decreased to 8.5 million and only climbed to only 10 million by 1924.\textsuperscript{5} The causes of death included murder, starvation, exhaustion, and disease. This rapid fluctuation drew attention from historians such as William Henry Sheppard from the United States and Hezekiah Andrew Shanu from Nigeria, who began to create a Congo reform movement against Belgian occupiers. During the Belgian occupation, the Congo became a territory dominated by company politics. In 1906, three companies were established to control the Congo: \textit{Chemin de fer du Bas-Congo au Katanga} (BCK); the \textit{Société Internationale Forestière et Minière du Congo} (Forminière); and \textit{Union Minière du Haut-Katanga} (UMHK).\textsuperscript{6} These corporations would control the Congo during the periods of Leopold, colonialism, and on through the 1960s. The Congo was now a slave society whose sole purpose was to provide goods for Belgium.

The World Wars began a change for the actions taking place in the Congo. When the Belgian government took over after Leopold, the damage was done in the Congo. Because of World War I, Belgium did nothing to change the current situation. During the inter-war years, the Congo produced raw materials as a colony. During World War II, the people of the Congo decided that enough was enough. In 1941, the mineworkers of Katanga went on strike. The most serious uprising was the insurrection of February-May 1944, because it directly challenged Belgian colonial rule and because it involved all social classes.\textsuperscript{7} Reasons for this uprising revolved around a unified set of social classes demanding work reform and the end to hunger, starvation, and torture. In 1945, the

\textsuperscript{5} \textit{Ibid.}, 22.
\textsuperscript{7} Nzongola-Ntalaja, \textit{The Congo: From Leopold to Kabila}, 53.
dockworkers in Matadi also held a strike. The message was becoming clear: the people of the Congo wanted to end the suppression they were facing from Belgium. This message influenced politics until independence was achieved.

In 1956, the first movement for independence began to take shape and the struggle began. The *Alliance des Bakongo* (ABAKO) leader Joseph Kasa-Vubu made a public statement using the words ‘indépendence immédiate’ (immediate independence), which defined the theme of independence throughout the Congo.\(^8\) In 1958, the *Mouvement National Congolais* (MNC) was created under Patrice Lumumba, which demonstrated the creation of the first political parties in the Congo. In response to the organizations, creation of political parties, and rebellions of the people of the Congo, the Belgian government made moves to pull out of the region, beginning with the Brussels Round Table Conference.

The Round Table Conference convened in January 1960. The conference involved delegates from the Congo and Belgium. The final verdict of the conference came from Jean Bolikango on January 27. He declared, “I have the honor of announcing to you the conclusion reached...The date of independence will be June 30, 1960.”\(^9\) Elections were held from 11 to 25 May 1960, and the MNC under Lumumba won 74 out of the 137 seats in the House of Representatives. Lumumba was elected as Prime Minister and Kasa-vubu was elected as the head of state.\(^10\) The government was formed on June 24 and was ready for the takeover of the Congo, but problems arose almost immediately after independence.

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\(^8\) *Ibid*, 82.


\(^10\) Nkrumah, 18.
Background of United Nations Peacekeeping Operations

The United Nations was created in San Francisco in 1945 immediately after the conclusion of World War II. This organization was a re-imagination of the League of Nations, which was the first world body in 1914. In contrast to the League of Nations, the United Nations was designed to have the authority to be involved in local and regional politics. Unlike the League, the United Nations was also recognized by the United States and involved other countries than Europe. After two lengthy World Wars, the main focus was to maintain international peace and security. In 1956, a United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF) was created to assist in the Suez Canal crisis. The Second and Final Report on the UNEF by the Secretary-General stated:

The force, if established, would be limited in its operations to the extent that consent of the parties concerned is required under generally recognised international law.\textsuperscript{11}

The important thing about UNEF creation was that no resolution passed by any body of the United Nations linked the UNEF to the United Nations Charter, therefore jeopardizing the legality of the UNEF to international law. The statement of the Secretary-General makes it clear that the terms of UNEF are generalized, not linked to a documented international law, and open to interpretation by individual Member States and organs of the United Nations. This became a problem when the Opération des Nations Unies du Congo (ONUC) was formed because there was no set international law to govern the force.

Problems in the Congo after Independence

On 5 July 1960, only five days after independence, the Congolese army revolted against the Belgians who were still in the country. The Congolese troops at Camp Hardy in Thysville and Camp Leopold II in the capital revolted against the Belgian commanders of the Force publique. 12 The Round Table Conference allowed the Belgian officers to remain in the Congo until Congolese troops were trained to replace them. Lieutenant-General E. James insisted that the army was above politics and could make their own rules, which was the spark that set off the revolts. This caused a huge rush for Europeans to get out of the Congo. Lumumba was urged by Belgian officials to allow Belgian troops to enter the country by way of the Treaty of Friendship, which dealt with conditions for independence. Lumumba refused, saying his government could handle the problem. 13 After all Europeans had been evacuated, the Belgian government decided to intervene with or without permission and took control of Matadi and Leopoldville Airport. Belgian once again took a position as an occupying force, but this time in an independent country, which violated Article 2, Section 7 of the United Nations Charter, which states:

Nothing contained in the present Charter shall authorize the United Nations to intervene in matters which are essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of any state or shall require the Members to submit such matters to settlement under the present Charter; but this principle shall not prejudice the application of enforcement measures under Chapter VII. 14

The Belgian forces had decimated the country in the past under Leopold II. The riots caused Belgium to get all civilians to leave the Congo, but then the country decided to

13 Ibid., 14.
militarily take over parts of the country. On top of the attacks by Belgium, Moise Tshombe announced on 11 July that the province of Katanga was seceding from the Congo.

The Katanga mines were rich with copper, cobalt, gold, and the most important element since World War II: uranium, which was why this was important and had a ripple affect in Europe and Africa. In fact, by 1962, the province of Katanga produced over half of the wealth of Congo. Tshombe was now in control of both that growth and its revenue. Economically, Tshombe was now in control of UMHK and all profit was now funding the provincial government in Elisabethville. Tshombe sent the following communiqué to the Ghana Ministry of Foreign Affairs on 15 July 1960, explaining the secession:

The people of Katanga consider that the United Nations Charter solemnly proclaims the right of all people to self-determination. They do not think they can support the decision taken by Mr. Lumumba to break off diplomatic relations with Belgium. Through their elected representatives they solemnly appeal to all the countries of the free world to recognise without delay the independence of their territory.

Tshombe wanted to keep relations with Belgium and used this article to say the people of Katanga found it was in their right to secede based on their determination to become independent. He also realized the wealth he had now acquired and knew Congo would be a very poor country without Katanga.

Because of Belgian aggression and the secession of Katanga, the Congo turned to the United Nations for assistance. In a communiqué to the United Nations on 12 July, Kasa-Vubu and Lumumba sent the following message:

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15 Gordon, 32-33.
16 Nkrumah, 21-22.
The government of the Republic of the Congo requests urgent dispatch by the United Nations of military assistance. This request is justified by the dispatch to the Congo of metropolitan Belgian troops in violation of the Treaty of Friendship signed 29 June 1960. Under the terms of that treaty, Belgian troops may only intervene on the express request of the Congolese Government. No such request was ever made...and we therefore regard the unsolicited Belgian action as an act of aggression.

We accuse the Belgian Government of having carefully prepared the secession of Katanga with a view to maintaining a hold of our country. The majority of the Katanga population is opposed to secession. We strongly stress the extremely urgent need for the dispatch of United Nations troops to the Congo.\textsuperscript{17}

The Congolese government requested the immediate help of United Nations Peacekeepers to battle the Belgian armies and to get Katanga to re-join the country. They also focused blame on the Katangan secession to Belgium calling them the aggressor. Based on the secession and the illegal intervention of Belgian troops in the Congo, the United Nations agreed to assist the Congo.

The Security Council wasted no time in authorizing a peacekeeping mission. On 14 July 1960, the Security Council adopted Resolution S/4387, calling for Belgian troops to leave the area and authorizing the Secretary-General to deploy a military force to the Congo.\textsuperscript{18} There is a difference between military and peacekeeping designations. Military groups are allowed to use full force to attack or defend, whereas peacekeepers cannot use military force at all. The Korean War (1950-3) is an example of a United Nations military force. For peacekeepers, depending on the Security Council mandate, they are unable to use force to defend themselves. It all depends on the mandate given by the Security Council. In this case, a military operation was replaced by a peacekeeping operation. A United Nations peacekeeping force (which became the ONUC) went to

\textsuperscript{17} Ibid., 19.
Congo to try to force the Belgians to leave and to bring Katanga back to the Congo. Belgium did not follow the Resolution and the saber rattling increased between Kasa-Vubu and Tshombe.

Even after the Security Council demanded that the Belgian troops be withdrawn, they arrived in the Congo to support Tshombe. The Belgian Prime Minister stated, "The United Nations should not intervene in the Congo’s internal affairs' in regard to the Katanga problem." The aggressor told the international community to stay away from this ‘internal’ problem, yet Belgium can enter. The international community became involved because the ‘internal’ problem started when Belgian troops remained in Congo after independence in clear violation of the treaties between Congo and Belgium. The issues of the region started to get other nations involved, including Ghana. Kwame Nkrumah from Ghana passed on their position in a telegram to Tshombe on 8 August 1960:

We believe that Katanga is an integral part of the Congo of which we and other members of the United Nations have recognised the independence. The government of Ghana cannot recognise the establishment of a so-called state of Katanga within the Republic of Congo.\footnote{Nkrumah, 23.}

The only other African states that approved of the idea of an independent Katanga were Rhodesia and South Africa. Looking at the communiqués and telegrams between Ghana, Tshombe, Kasa-vubu, and the United Nations, it is clear that there were two main problems where the United Nations was involved: the secession of Katanga and the occupation of Belgian troops.

\footnote{Ibid., 25.}
Involvement of the Soviet Union (USSR) & Patrice Lumumba

The period of the 1960s included some of the tensest moments of the Cold War, including the Cuban Missile Crisis. The USSR decided to get involved in the conflict in the Congo by supporting the Congolese government. On 20 July 1960, the Congo government issued this message to the United Nations: “[We] appeal immediately to the Soviet Union or any other country of the Asian-American Bloc to send troops to the Congo.”21 In a statement to the United Nations of 21 August 1960, Prime Minister Lumumba said, “It is disinterested help that Russia wants to give us...If the Soviet Union or the United States wants to impose its political position on us by aiding us, we will reject the aid.”22 The Prime Minister allowed the USSR to provide aid to his country, but was unwilling to become a pawn in the Cold War; however, this was not a position accepted by the rest of the international community, especially the United States. An assassination authorization by United States President Eisenhower had already been issued on 18 August 1960.23 There is no doubt that Lumumba’s authorization of aid from the USSR resulted from anti-western feelings towards Belgium and Europe for continuous occupation. This resulted in the United States having hard feelings towards Lumumba for picking a side in the Cold War. Patrice Lumumba was a marked man, but accepting aid from the USSR was not his only downfall.

Patrice Lumumba had problems with the UNEF because it was an international force rather than solely an African force. There was a feud between him and Secretary-General Hammarskjöld because Lumumba believed his power would be taken away due to the presence of Swedish and Irish troops, the lack of contact between him and

22 Ibid., 12.
Hammarskjöld, and because Hammarskjöld was acting in his own interests.\textsuperscript{24} Lumumba’s final assertion was that the government of the Congo had lost faith in the United Nations and the Secretary-General. This opinion was not shared by any other government official and was not the official position of the country, which not only led to problems between Hammarskjöld and Lumumba, but also between Lumumba and Kasa-Vubu.

Kasa-Vubu stood by the decision that the UNEF was required and necessary to bring Katanga back into the Congo. When Lumumba realized he had lost support from the government and that the United Nations would not take Katanga by force, he attempted to do so himself. Lumumba decided to use Soviet weapons and the Armée Nationale Congolaise (ANC) troops still loyal to him, but he failed to take back Katanga.\textsuperscript{25} The ANC was a new name, given by Lumumba, for the Congolese armed forces. He appointed Victor Lundula as commander and Joseph Mobutu as commander in chief of the armed forces.\textsuperscript{26} These actions were against the wishes of President Kasa-Vubu. Kasa-Vubu could not have any form of resistance from any government official regarding his agenda, so on 5 September 1960; Patrice Lumumba was dismissed as prime minister of the Congo by Kasa-Vubu, for the reason that Lumumba had plunged the country into civil war.\textsuperscript{27} Joseph Ileo was to be named as Prime Minister. The Congolese Senate and the United Nations met the dismissal with different opinions.

\textsuperscript{24} Gordon, 45.
\textsuperscript{26} Nzongola-Ntalaja, The Congo: From Leopold to Kabila, 98.
\textsuperscript{27} Nkrumah, 35.
The Congolese Senate voted 41 to 2 with 6 abstentions against the removal of Lumumba on 8 September 1960.\textsuperscript{28} Lumumba had popular and political opinion on his side. Using this information and the support of the Senate, Lumumba decided that he was now the Chief of State, but Kasa-Vubu publicly rejected the votes of the Senate. The Security Council heard the following declaration from Hammarskjöld:

I do not want to analyze the complicated Constitution and the complicated constitutional situation, but let me register the fact that, according to the Constitution, the President has the right to revoke the mandate of the Prime Minister.\textsuperscript{29}

Lumumba did not have the support of any higher (international or governmental) power than the citizens of the Congo. The only full support he had was from the USSR, which claimed that Lumumba was illegally removed from power. With the assassination authorization by the United States, Lumumba was clearly in trouble.

In December, Colonel Joseph Mobutu arrested Lumumba. This caused a rift in the international community about the legality of his capture. In January 1961, Lumumba and Parliament members Joseph Okito and Maurice Mpolo were flown to Elisabethville under the orders of Kasa-Vubu.\textsuperscript{30} The evidence provided by the Belgian pilots who flew the three to Elisabethville showed the following:

The three prisoners had been roped together and were beaten continuously throughout the flight. At Elisabethville airport, eyewitnesses reported prisoners showed obvious signs of ill treatment and they were further manhandled by troops and police.\textsuperscript{31}

There was no doubt that the intentions of Mobutu, Kasa-vubu and some of the Belgian forces were to torture and kill Lumumba. Secretary-General Hammarskjöld called for the

\textsuperscript{29} Ibid., 15.
\textsuperscript{30} Gordon, 95.
\textsuperscript{31} Nkrumah, 119.
release of Lumumba, but the request fell on deaf ears. Based on the deep differences that
the two had, this was mainly a political show. On 11 February 1961, Godefroid
Munongo, Tshombe’s Minister of the Interior, announced that Lumumba had escaped
from their confinement and was killed three days later by ‘inhabitants of an unnamed
village.’

It was not until 11 May 1961 when a Commission of Investigation was
established to investigate the death of Lumumba. The Commission concluded that:

[Lumumba and his companions] were killed in a villa near Elisabethville
on 17 January 1961 in the presence of high officials, namely Tshombe,
Munongo and Kibwe and that ‘the escape story was staged.’

The death of Lumumba was obviously staged by a group of high officials including
Mobutu, who was the original arresting official. His death began a large-scale all-out war
and put United Nations Peacekeepers in a difficult position because they were now in the
middle of an even more violent civil war.

Opération des Nations Unies du Congo (ONUC)

The ONUC was established as a result of Security Council Resolution S/4378,
calling for peacekeepers in the Congo in July 1960. The force was made up of civilian
and military personal who were under the control of the Secretary-General. One
operative of S/4378 states:

Decides to authorize the Secretary-General to take the necessary steps, in
consultation with the Government of the republic of the Congo, to provide
the Government with such military assistance, as may be necessary, until,
through efforts of the Congolese Government with the technical assistance
of the United Nations, the national security forces may be able, in the
opinion of the Government, to meet fully their tasks.

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32 Gordon, 95-96.
33 Nkrumah, 127.
34 Rosalyn Higgins, United Nations Peacekeeping (1946-1967) Documents and Commentary; Vol. III:
Nations, Volume II,” 79.
The operative left the mandate of the ONUC open to the Secretary-General, meaning that Hammarskjöld had full control of the security force. The first countries to commit military troops were Guinea, Morocco, and Tunisia. The total number of the ONUC force was around 20,000 military and civilian personal, but what was their job description?

At the beginning of their deployment, the ONUC was led by General Carl von Horn, who had been in the Congo since just before independence on 25 June 1960. His orders were straight from the Secretary-General: buy time for the Congolese government to sort out political affairs; act as neutrals to keep the United States and Soviet Union out of the area; moderate political conflicts (i.e. Katanga); and act as an ally of the government against the Belgian occupiers. The first two months of deployment seemed to be successful regarding the issue of Belgians in the county. With the exception of Katanga, the Belgians had left the rest of the Congo by the end of August. Belgium saw the turmoil and realized that their people were in danger if they remained in the country since popular opinion was against them. When Lumumba was removed from the post of Prime Minister in September, a new set of problems began for the ONUC.

After Lumumba was dismissed, Colonel Joseph Mobutu, who was in control of the ANC, attempted a coup d’état. Mobutu only had control over the ANC, so there was not a change in governmental leadership and Kasa-Vubu remained the president. This movement led to the ANC having greater control in some areas of the country. The ONUC expanded its mandate to protect individual politicians, and Lumumba was one of

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36 Siekmann, 26.
37 Higgins, 61.
38 Durch, 315-320.
39 Ibid., 342.
them. As a result, peacekeepers around Lumumba were a target by ANC forces.\textsuperscript{40} After Lumumba was killed, the violence against ONUC grew and the mission began to slowly crumble.

Since there was no official word of Lumumba’s death until mid-February 1961, the violence did not begin until the official word was released. Remember that it was not until May that the real cause of death for Lumumba was discovered. By the end of January 1961, Burma, Guinea, Mali, Morocco, and Yugoslavia had withdrawn their forces.\textsuperscript{41} Ghana remained in the region, but withdrew about one-third of their troops. The troop withdrawals were in response to the Lumumba’s death. After his death was announced, riots began in Stanleyville under Antoine Gizenga and began to spread. Gizenga served as prime minister in 1960, and then started his own government in Stanleyville. He was captured, imprisoned, and released two and a half years later.\textsuperscript{42} As far as Kasa-vubu, United Nations relations were concerned, this was a period of unrest and diplomatic dealings between the two became very sour. The ANC was attacking United Nations troops and the area of Matadi. On 21 February 1961, a new mandate was issued to the remaining troops in the Congo with the hope of turning the tide.

Security Council Resolution S/4741 addressed the new problems resulting from the death of Lumumba and expanded the mandate of the ONUC. The resolution states a few important points:

\textsuperscript{40} Ibid., 321.
\textsuperscript{42} Nkrumah, 181-83, 223.
*Urges* that the United Nations take immediately all appropriate measures to prevent the occurrence of the civil war in Congo, including arrangements for cease-fires, the halting of all military operations, the prevention of clashes, and the use of force, if necessary, in the last resort.⁴³

The new resolution authorized the use of military force by the ONUC. The mandate did not allow the mission to move into other areas of the country. The main mission mandate was to prevent a civil war. It was a much-needed change of direction since the ONUC force was numbered at less than 10,000. By the time this Resolution was entered, Gizenga was creating problems from the Stanleyville Riots and militarily moving into the Kivu, Equateur, and Kasai provinces attempting to create his own government. The thinly spread troops remained on task, despite attacks against them. On 5 March 1961, 120 Sudanese troops came under attack in Matadi by Congolese troops outnumbering them six to one. Sudan withdrew their remaining troops after the attack.⁴⁴ Joseph Mobutu warned of war should Matadi attempt to be taken over again. On 25 April 1961, there was a massacre of Ghanaians and Swedes at Port Francqui.⁴⁵ The situation in the Congo was not getting better and trouble was also brewing in Katanga.

The show of force in Katanga was the turn of the tide for the ONUC. Tshombe tried to take advantage of the thinly spread ONUC forces, and subdued Baluda and moved north to Manono.⁴⁶ The ANC troops entered Manono on 30 March 1961. The United Nations entered Kamina with its reinforcements, then entered northern Katanga and was attacked, but had the authority and ability to return fire. In order for peacekeepers to return first, the mandate must clearly state that. Since this stage of the

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⁴⁵ Gordon, 106.
ONUC was a military operation, their mandate allowed them to use force. The ONUC took control of Albertville and Manono, and Tshombe realized that the ONUC posed a threat to his continued occupation of Katanga. The ONUC mission then moved further into Katanga hoping to end the secession.

Tshombe did not end his campaign with the defeats in 1961. Until December 1962, skirmish wars were fought between the ONUC and Tshombe rebel groups; all while the ONUC presence in Katanga was being increased. By December 1962, 13,500 ONUC troops were deployed in Katanga.\(^{47}\) The ONUC was attacked on 24 December 1962 in Elisabethville and retaliated by destroying the Katangan air force. In doing so, Katanga was under ONUC control. This was not the original intention (which was to restore freedom in the province), but soon after this set of battles, Tshombe announced an end to secession.

After Katanga ended the secession, the ONUC began a troop pullout from the region. At the end of June 1964, the ONUC was declared closed. In Security Council Resolution S/6129, the United Nations declared the matter closed by stating:

Convinced that the Organization of African Unity should be able, in the context of Article 52 of the Charter of the United Nations, to help find a peaceful solution to all the problems and disputes affecting peace and security in the continent of Africa,

Requests all states to refrain or desist from intervening in the domestic affairs of the Congo.\(^{48}\)

The Security Council officially moved the problem to the Organization of African Unity (OAU). As far as the United Nations was concerned, the matter was closed, but the internal problems still remained.

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\(^{47}\) Durch, 344.

Dag Hammarskjöld

The ONUC mission did not end without heavy casualties. Peacekeepers from all over the world lost their lives. Patrice Lumumba and his companions were killed and Secretary-General Dag Hammarskjöld was also killed in this conflict, which was detrimental to the United Nations. Hammarskjöld was elected as the second Secretary-General of the United Nations in 1953 and served until his death on 18 September 1961. Hammarskjöld arrived in Leopoldville on 13 September to discuss policy and an aid program with the Central Government.\(^49\) On 17 September, a telegram was supposed to be delivered to Tshombe from Hammarskjöld. Tshombe chartered a plane to Ndola and Hammarskjöld also left Leopoldville for Ndola. Radio contact ceased and the wreckage of the plan was found the following day 9.5 miles west of Ndola.\(^50\) The United Nations opened an investigation to find the cause of the crash. The Commission concluded the following points: the Secretary-General realized the flight would be at night without an escort; sabotage was a possible cause based on the lack of security surrounding the aircraft before take-off; a ground or air attack could not be excluded as a cause; and material and mechanical failure could not be excluded due to fire upon the crash.\(^51\) In summary: the cause of the crash was unknown. Based upon the report released, the United Nations was unable to arrive at any definite conclusion, only theories, as to why the plane crashed. The fact remains that Hammarskjöld was killed trying to pursue a peaceful solution to the problem in the Congo and put himself in harm’s way to do so.

\(^{50}\) Ibid., 7-9.
\(^{51}\) Ibid., 64-67.
Legality of the ONUC

As previously mentioned, there was no relation between the UNEF and the Charter of the United Nations. The only mention of force in the Charter falls under Article 51 that allows for defensive use of force if one Member attacks another.\textsuperscript{52} This clause allows for retaliation by one state if they are attacked. It is used in peacekeeping as a justification to allow such a mission. The Charter prohibits, but does not claim to prevent, aggression between states.\textsuperscript{53} As a result, the Charter does not allow violence against another nation except in defense.

In the 1960s, a portion of the legality of the ONUC came from Cold War politics. This was not unique to Congo, but Cold War played a role in almost every decision of peacekeeping and military missions carried out by the United Nations. Hammarskjöld made a statement that the United Nations should not be involved in conflicts between power blocs (or superpowers) that revolve around policies of the United States in the west and the USSR in the east. If the United Nations became involved in conflicts that stemmed from the Cold War, it would be futile and dangerous for all parties involved.\textsuperscript{54} After looking at the Congo from the point of view of a power struggle, the conflict began with the Congo and Belgium. The USSR was not initially involved, but did become involved before February 1961 when the ONUC mandate increased their presence, so the United Nations violated the ideology to not become involved between the superpowers.

The creation of the ONUC was based on the laws of the Security Council, which was organized by way of Article 99. Article 99 allows the Secretary-General to call a

\textsuperscript{52} Charter of the United Nations.


\textsuperscript{54} \textit{Ibid.}, 125.
meeting of the Security Council if there is a threat to international peace and security, \(^{55}\) which described the Congo. The Security Council also invoked Article 25, which calls for all nations to adhere to all decisions of the Security Council. Typically, this article is always recognized, but the Security Council needed to send a clear and distinct message for Belgium to cease hostilities. These two Articles justified the reasons for the creation of the ONUC. In the Resolutions passed by the Security Council, there was no specific mention in any resolution to create a UNEF or to allow the Secretary-General to establish such a force. \(^{56}\) Technically, the United Nations did not authorize the ONUC, but the Secretary-General created it and it could be suggested that the ONUC was made to fit his agenda. Based on the freedom the Security Council gave to the Secretary-General, the ONUC was legally made a United Nations subsidiary organ \(^{57}\), but it was still under the full control of the Secretary-General. The creation of the ONUC was a result of the goal of the Secretary-General to bring peace to the Congo. He was authorized to take the steps that were necessary to maintain peace and security. As a result, because of open-ended wording in the July 1960 resolutions, the ONUC was a legal and legitimate organization created by the Secretary-General in response to the demands of the Security Council.

\textit{Was the ONUC Mission Successful?}

In order to analyze this question, a few things need to be considered, one of which was the political battle. The timeframe and involvement of the two superpowers caused political hardships for the Congolese in the middle. The United States blamed the USSR

\(^{55}\) Charter of the United Nations.


\(^{57}\) \textit{Ibid.}, 11.
for originally starting the conflict.\footnote{Mezerik, ed., "Congo and the United Nations, Volume II," 27.} Enough evidence has been presented that attacks were started because Belgian troops remained in the area and abused their ‘ability to stay’ clause. In clashes with the Congolese, they continued to pose a problem. Clearly, the USSR was not involved in how the conflict began. They did not become involved until Katanga seceded. Once this happened, it was a blame game by Ambassadors Stevenson of the United States and Zorin of the USSR. Once the political lines were drawn, they controlled the ONUC movements and created even more of a bureaucracy that had to be overcome. The Soviet Union was against the ONUC while the United States supported them.\footnote{Durch, 345.} Politics blinded the work of the United Nations because neither side would back down from their opinions.

The other aspect that prevented the ONUC from doing its work was the lack of a specific mandate. The peacekeepers were put into a situation where multiple governments existed and they had to fend for themselves. It was not until 1961 that a specified mandate was included in their mission. There was also another aspect to the mandate that had a negative affect. This was the first peacekeeping mission of its kind into Africa. There had been no precedents established prior to this mission, so Hammarskjöld and the ONUC were improvising.

Even though the ONUC was successful in their mission to bring Katanga back to the Congo, the lack of preparation, leadership, mandate, and a political war of words rendered the ONUC mission a failure. The main purpose was achieved, but the logistics and aftermath created more negatives; therefore, rendering it a failure. The death of Prime Minister Lumumba was authorized by the United States because of the influence
of the USSR, and the United Nations did nothing to prevent or stop his death. There were no repercussions for Mobutu or any of the officials that assisted in his death. Also, there was never a designated leadership chain because it changed constantly during the war. Another aspect of failure was the death of Hammarskjöld. Any time a leader dies, the action is usually rendered a failure. The death of Hammarskjöld set morale of peacekeepers to a dreadfully low level. He went to try to assist in the peace process, but there are too many inconclusive parts of the investigation into the crash and an updated, conclusive report into the reasons for the crash has not been released. The primary reason why the ONUC could be rendered a failure is because of what happened after 1964 when the ONUC left the Congo.

*What happened next? The Congo: 1964-1994*

At the request of President Kasa-Vubu, Tshombe returned to the Congo in June 1964. When he returned, rebel fighting was continuing. The purpose of bringing him back was to create a government of unity and public safety.\(^{60}\) Unfortunately, Tshombe’s political party, the Congolese National Convention Party (CONACO) had gained political power and Kasa-Vubu saw it as a threat. In October 1965, Tshombe was dismissed from government, having been in the country for a little more than a year. After this, the Kimba government was formed and Mobutu took advantage of the situation.

The Cold War politics continued in the Congo even after the OUNC pulled out. On 24 November 1965, Joseph Mobutu conducted a military coup, backed by the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) and the United States. The CIA helped Mobutu gain power

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because they wanted a strong ally in the fight against the USSR. The resulting government was absorbed in the politics of the Cold War. The military coup, rebel fighting, and the influence of the superpowers were signs that the ONUC did not succeed in their mission to bring and maintain peace in a troubled country. Superpower and bloc politics were not the fault of the ONUC, but when Hammarskjöld declared a favorable side, it started a chain reaction. That reaction led to Mobutu taking control.

Mobutu opened up a dictatorship in the Congo and was Congo’s head of state until 17 May 1997. With support from the United States, France, Belgium, and apartheid South Africa, Mobutu used money and politics to build and control his country. He banned party politics and established the Mouvement Populaire de la Revolution (MPR) in 1966. Using his politics, he gained total control over the Congo. He also instilled a strong sense of fear in the Congo. Some of the notable events of his rule include: the 1966 public hanging of Jérome Anany, Emmanuel Bamba, Evariste Kimba and Alexandre Mahamba, four prominent leaders accused of forming an opposition; the 1969 massacre of university students in Kinshasa; and the 1990 massacre of Lubumbashi University students. Using public fear, Mobutu kept control of the country. Mobutu also changed the name of the country in 1971 from the Congo to the Republic of Zaire. Mobutu had full control of Zaire until the 1980s when opposition began to organize.

The first opposition party that organized was called the Union pour la Démocratie et le Progrès Social (UDPS). The foundations of the party came from thirteen former

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61 Ibid., 262.
members of Parliament as a symbol of opposition to Mobutu.\textsuperscript{64} The political party was deemed illegal and dismissed by Mobutu, but not before becoming popular with the Congolese citizens. In 1988, UDPS leader Etienne Tshisekedi Wa Mulumba organized a pro-democracy demonstration to be held on 17 January, the anniversary of Lumumba’s death.\textsuperscript{65} As a result, the UDPS became the ideal political party that could oppose the power of Mobutu. In February 1990, the UDPS organized demonstrations in Kinshasa to commemorate the assassination of Lumumba. This demonstration sparked others, including a university march in April, which forced Mobutu to open discussions on a multi-party system of government.

On 24 April 1990, Mobutu announced that the one-party system was over. He allowed a multi-party system in the country. Even through he promised a new constitution by April 1991, there were still groups who questioned and saw these changes as inadequate. In May 1990, university students from Lubumbashi University staged anti-governmental demonstrations that resulted in the massacre of 150 students, which was ordered by Mobutu.\textsuperscript{66} These demonstrations and government response highlighted an emerging theme that would last through the 1990s to the present, which is the government’s willingness to ignore basic human rights. At the university, “Throats were slit with bayonets, female students were raped and dormitories were emptied of all valuables.”\textsuperscript{67} It is obvious that Mobutu was trying to use the sense of fear he had been known for to re-gain full control of the country. Another example of Mobutu’s sense of

\textsuperscript{65} Nzongola-Ntalaja, The Congo: From Leopold to Kabila, 185 & Mthembu-Salter, 2.
\textsuperscript{66} Mthembu-Salter, 3.
power and control came when Amnesty International released a human rights and refugee status report in September 1993. It stated that over 5,000 people had been killed and 100,000 displaced in Shaba and North Kivu as a result of Mobutu trying to hold onto power.\(^{68}\) The massacres forced Mobutu into the international spotlight. The United States terminated all military and economic aid to Zaire as a result. The act at the university led to more demonstrations against the government and Mobutu, which would lead up to the Sovereign National Conference.

The Sovereign National conference opened on 7 August 1991, but led to clashes with poorly paid security forces, which caused a national crisis. In order to maintain peace while bowing to international pressure, Mobutu was forced to install Tshisekedi in the government. Mobutu dismissed Tshisekedi almost immediately and appointed Nguza to prime minister. Nguza promptly closed the Sovereign National Conference in January 1992.\(^{69}\) As a result, the *Union Sacrée de l’Opposition Radicale* (USOR) and Christian churches organized demonstrations that became violent. The Conference then reconvened on 6 April 1992. The conference led to the election of Tshisekedi as Prime Minister and the appointment of a government opposed to Mobutu.\(^{70}\) In December, the National Conference dissolved itself and became the High Council of the Republic (HRC), which gave Mobutu the governmental leadership turmoil he wanted. Mobutu staged a military coup in December 1962, but unlike the first two, this failed because public demonstration and forceful opposition to the order to suspend the HRC was incredible. The HRC received support from the United States, France, and Belgium in

\(^{70}\) Mthembu-Salter, 4.
fighting against Mobutu, which served as a sign that his reign was nearing the end, but Mobutu would not leave office without a fight.

On 28 January 1993, Mobutu’s troops killed the French ambassador to Zaire. Due to that and other violence, French and Belgian paratroopers stormed the country to get their nationals out. As a result of French intervention, whose mission was to restore order with a chip on their shoulder because of the ambassador’s death, order was restored.\footnote{Nzongola-Ntalaja, \textit{The Congo: From Leopold to Kabila}, 201.} Until 1996, Mobutu played politics to try to gain the control he used to have. Mobutu died on 7 September 1997. The \textit{Alliance des Forces Démocratiques pour la Libération du Congo-Zaïre} (AFDL), which had risen from the Great Lakes Crisis (to be discussed later), entered Kinshasa the next day. Laurent-Désiré Kabila of the AFDL declared himself president and changed the name of the country to the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC).\footnote{\textit{Ibid.}, 225-227 & 276.} In April 1994, the Rwandan genocide began, spread into the DRC, and caused the second mission of the United Nations into the DRC that has lasted until present-day.

\textit{Great Lakes Conflict}

In order to understand how the DRC/Great Lakes Conflict began in the late 1990s, there must be a brief understanding of what factors led to the conflict. The term Great Lakes refers to the lakes in the region that include: Victoria, Albert, Edward, Kivu, Tanganyika, Mweru, and Malawi. It also includes the following countries: Congo-Kinshasa (formally Zaire), Uganda, Kenya, Rwanda, Burundi, Tanzania, Zambia, Malawi, and Mozambique.\footnote{\textit{Ibid.}, 215.} The main conflict that put things in motion was the Rwandan genocide that began in April 1994. The genocide began when a plane carrying...
President Haybarimana of Rwanda and President Ntaryamira of Burundi was shot down leaving Kigali under mysterious circumstances. Hutu extremists, who blamed the crash on the Tutsis, organized mass murders in an attempt to ethnically cleanse all Tutsis and moderate Hutus from Rwanda. The killings were carried out by the *Interahamwe*, who murdered between 800,000 and one million people. The Hutu population began to flee into Zaire as the Rwandan Patriotic Front (RPF), organized by Paul Kagame, moved in on the capital. The Hutu extremists, protected by the French, settled in refugee camps in Kivu, which were set up by the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR), and conducted cross-border raids against remaining Tutsis. It was not until 1996 when Congo really became a center for the conflict.

In October 1996, the Rwandan leadership embarked on a campaign to destroy the remaining Interahamwe that were taking refuge in Zaire. The now-president of Rwanda, Paul Kagame, trained Tutsis in Zaire from South Kivu (the *Banyamulenge*) and North Kivu and organized attacks against refugee camps. The vice-governor of the South Kivu province banned the presence of the Banyamulenge on 7 October 1996, but they responded by taking over Bukavu on 30 October 1996. Laurent Kabila also rose out of this skirmish in Bukavu. The AFDL was created during the same timeframe as the Banyamulenge and Rwandan soldiers invaded. Laurent Kabila, who was chosen by Kagame to be the face of the liberations’ struggle, led the AFDL. Even though the AFDL rose from the Rwandan conflict, they were not directly related to or happy with

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the Rwandans. The AFDL and the Banyamulenge took over Bukavu, and then continued west until they arrived in Kinshasa.

The AFDL arrived in Kinshasa on 17 May 1997. The day before, Mobutu had left the country and would not return. He died in September. Kabila encountered little resistance and became the president of the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC). Kabila created a government based primarily on AFDL support, but also included UDPS members. Kabila allowed himself ultimate control over the treasury and executive power. Kabila then had to deal with the Rwandan troops still inside the DRC.

On 28 July 1998, Kabila officially expelled all Rwandan forces still in the DRC. There had been resentment towards Rwandan forces in the DRC since 1997 when Kabila took control mainly because of the incursions into the DRC. A Rwandan-backed rebellion began in Kivu shortly after, resulting in Goma, Bukavu and Uvira being taken over by the Rassemblement Congolair pour la Démocratie (RCD). The Rwandan government initially denied involvement or knowledge of the RCD, but the war was then in full swing. It was not until November 1998 that Kagame admitted that the RCD was backed by the Rwandan government. The battle groups consisted of the DRC, supported by Zimbabwe, Namibia and eventually Angola, while the RCD was supported by Rwanda and Uganda. The Great Lakes War had officially begun.

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78 Mthembu-Salter, 6.
79 Ibid., 8.
80 Ibid., 7.
United Nations Involvement

The United Nations did not become aware of the situation until 31 August 1998, when the Security Council made a simple call for peace. Peace conferences in Victoria Falls failed in September 1998. The first peace agreement that had hope for implementation was the Lusaka Accords, signed by presidents of the DRC, Zimbabwe, Angola, Rwanda, and Uganda on 10 July 1999. The only problem was that none of the rebel groups were included in the original formation of the Accords. By August, the RCD members had signed the Accords, which included the main rebel force, but not the smaller groups that were causing trouble. The problems with some rebel groups are their lack of defined leadership. For instance, the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) in Uganda has an established leadership. Smaller rebel groups may not have a leadership. Also, rebel groups typically are looking out for themselves and unless a treaty meets their specifications, they will not emerge to sign or recognize it. In an area such as Africa, there are thousands of rebel groups at work, so getting all of them to agree on something is close to impossible. With the peace accords in place, the United Nations moved into the area.

The United Nations had removed the majority of the troops from the area once the Rwandan genocide began and the United States had embraced the policy of isolationism when it came to Africa. Between the failed mission in Somalia and the failure to act in Rwanda, the United States had a negative track record during the Clinton administration.

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82 Mthembu-Salter, 8.
On 6 August 1999, the Security Council became involved. They acknowledged the Lusaka Accords and the following operative:

Authorizes the deployment of up to 90 United Nations military liaison personnel, together with the necessary civilian, political, humanitarian and administrative staff…with the following mandate:

- To establish contacts and maintain liaison with the [Joint Military Commission] and all parties to the agreement;
- To assist the JMC and the parties in developing modalities for the Implementatio of the Agreement;
- To provide technical assistance; and
- To provide information to the Security Council regarding the situation on the ground, and to assist in refining a concept of operations for a possible further role of the United Nations.84

The Mission des Nations Unies en République Démocratique du Congo (MONUC) began their work. The MONUC started slowly and it was not until February 2000 that the mandate was expanded. Per Security Council Resolution 1291, 5,537 military personnel were included in the MONUC and the mandate was expanded to include military operations where appropriate.85 At the same time, Laurent Kabila, was assassinated on 16 January 2001, and his son Joseph was installed as president. Laurent Kabila was a supporter of Mobutuism and kept some of the features of political power and control. He lost all political capital he gained when he took control of the country and was killed by Rachidi Kasereka, a personal bodyguard.86 The MONUC mandate was expanded in the face of armed conflict on 28 July 2003. In North and South Kivu, an arms embargo was also entered into force. By 1 October 2004, the ceiling of military personal was increased

to 16,700 troops, as approved by Security Council Resolution 1565. The MONUC came into the DRC and performed many different military operations.

The MONUC was an active peacekeeping force and was militarily involved in some areas of the DRC. The MONUC provided protection to individuals at risk of attack by the rebel group Mouvement de Libération Congolais (MLC) in May 2002. Because of the low numbers of MONUC forces and the enormous land mass (2.3 million square miles) it took the deaths of 50 civilians for the MONUC to protect the area. Another military operation came in May 2003, when armed conflict and human rights violations were reported in Bunia, which led to 400 civilian deaths. In July 2005, the MONUC was numbered at over 16,000 military personnel and were spread all over the country. In South Kivu, the Forces Démocratiques pour la Libération du Rwanda (FDRL) attacked the local civilian population, causing the MONUC to pursue and subdue the FDRL. The MONUC also was used to ensure a peaceful voting process for the elections of April 2007. The voting was generally peaceful and the small clashes between local party groups were put down. As a result of the election, Joseph Kabila was named president. Unlike his father Laurent, Joseph was willing to communicate with neighboring nations to end the war. Joseph’s willingness to work with MONUC was a much-needed help in the peace process. The role of the MONUC currently is to maintain peace and assist in the peaceful ending of rebel and small conflicts around the country. In 2008, the country maintains an eerie peace. Clashes still exist on the borders, but the main war is now a

87 Ibid.
89 Ibid., 2.
90 Mthembo-Salter, 10.
mental one to deal with the humanitarian crisis that took over the DRC even before the MONUC was created and dates back to Mobutu.

*Humanitarian Crisis in the DRC*

The point of concern for the majority of the international community following the genocide in Rwanda was the protection of human rights. After seeing photo and video evidence of women and children hacked to death, the international community took notice of the issue in the Great Lakes region. The DRC had been having problems with following humanitarian laws under Mobutu. Mobutu ordered massacres, displayed public hangings, and allowed his soldiers to loot and plunder civilians just so he could instill fear in the people. In North Kivu in 1993, hundreds of civilians were killed over land and economic control.\(^{91}\) Even after the MONUC and other organizations began to arrive, there were still widespread human rights catastrophes.

One episode of these violations involved the Ituri in Eastern Congo from 1999-2004. During the six-year conflict that plagued the rest of the Congo, 60,000 civilians were killed as a result of Rwandan and Ugandan occupation.\(^{92}\) In a statement to the United States House International Relations Committee on 7 April 2003, *Refugees International* advocate Anne Edgerton, who has been on eight humanitarian missions in the Great Lakes region, made the statement that, “The stark reality is that more people have died in the Congo last week due to violence, malnutrition, and disease than have died in the war in Iraq to date.”\(^{93}\) The number of casualties in Iraq was 92 for March


2003, and the average killed per day in April 2003 was 2.67\textsuperscript{94}, which means at the time this speech was given, the casualty count in Iraq was around 108 casualties. This means over one hundred people in the Congo were dying per week because of lack nutrition and medicine in 2003. Humanitarian abuses expanded beyond the preventable deaths of innocent civilians and included the plight of women.

Individual stories showed that individual human rights violations were prevalent throughout the DR Congo. Rape was common among the soldiers and rebels, and women were victims of these acts. Estelle, a 12-year old girl, tells her story:

Q: Would you tell me what happened?
Estelle: I went to the fields to gather some manioc leaves. I saw a man dressed in camouflage, the uniform that soldiers wear. That man chased after us. [Me and two other girls] ran away, but I fell and he raped me.
Q: What did the doctor do?
E: The doctor said that since this man raped me, I was no longer normal like the other girls.
Q: When did all of this happen?
E: In mid-February 2004.\textsuperscript{95}

The testimony provides a few key points of information, one of which was that Estelle identified her attacker as a soldier. The other point is that this took place in February 2004; years after the United Nations began their work in the territory. The horrifying thing was the treatment from the doctor and the fact that this girl was 12 when she was raped. Rapes of citizens from rebel groups continued into 2005 and are still a continuing problem. The other humanitarian concern is that of child soldiers.

\textsuperscript{94} 2.67 troops per day (avg.) x 6 days equals 16.02, added with the casualty count from March, the total count as of this speech was approximately 108. This information taken from: iCasulties, \textit{Iraq Coalition Casualty Count} (5 May 2008) Online; available from http://icasualties.org/oif/ [accessed 5 May 2008].

Child soldiers have been used throughout the DR Congo from the government and rebel groups. The United Nations Security Council, the Convention on the Rights of the Child and other international treaties have banned the use of child soldiers, but the government recruited children from twelve on to fight against rebel groups. Refugees International learned about child training camps created by RCD even after they pledged to stop using child soldiers.\textsuperscript{96} The group confirmed that the Congolese government and most of the rebel groups were using child soldiers. Between this, the rape of innocent women and girls, and the mass killings of people, it is evident that human rights were being violated throughout the DRC and they were not being addressed at the level they should have been.

\textit{Legality of the MONUC}

In order to determine if the mission of the MONUC was and is being successful, the legality of the MONUC must be verified. The MONUC was established with a direct mandate by Security Council Resolution 1258. Unlike ONUC, whose mandate was at the discretion of the Secretary-General, the MONUC was created, monitored, and controlled by the Security Council. Resolution 1258, operative 8, also included a timeframe of three months, which could be expanded as required by suggestion of the Secretary-General.\textsuperscript{97} Remember that the ONUC was the first mission of its kind. The MONUC evolved with other peacekeeping operations by the United Nations, leading to a more comprehensive description and mandate as decided by a body of fifteen states, not the Secretary-General. Based on the mandate and approval of the Security Council for each troop level increase, the MONUC was a legally mandated peacekeeping organization of the United Nations.

\textsuperscript{96} Edgerton.
\textsuperscript{97} United Nations Security Council, Resolution 1258.
The mandate for the MONUC was expanded until 31 December 2009. The Security Council allowed for the continued deployment of 19,815 military personnel, 760 military observers, 391 police and 1,050 personnel for formed police units. Unlike the ONUC, who did not deal directly with civilians, the MONUC has also been authorized to deal with civilians in the Kivu provinces, where the bulk of the violence is centered.  

*MONUC: Success or Failure?*

A few aspects need to be analyzed to determine if the MONUC is becoming a failed mission, one of which is the status of human rights abuses. The MONUC was primarily organized as a military and peacekeeping operation. There was no mention in Resolution 1258 about the protection and promotion of human rights and it was not until late 2008 that civilians were granted protection by the mandate. Before 2008, one of the only programs they launched dealing with human rights was in 2001, called the Quick Impact Projects programme, whose focus was on education, environment, agriculture, public infrastructure, and support for vulnerable groups. This group did very little in the DRC and did almost nothing to promote human rights, because people were dying in the millions during their time in the country. This was not the fault of the MONUC, but of the Security Council since no additional forces were authorized with the specific mission to assist in the prevention of human rights violations. As of 2002, the United States had not taken any incentive to urge the international community to bring the perpetrators of the Rwandan and Ugandan military invasions into Kivu. The United States policy continues to back the Rwandan government, leading to a battle over politics.

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99 Swing, etc., 1.
that has no doubt limited the international community and the MONUC regarding their mission objectives. As was one of the reasons for failure of the ONUC, politics also plays a negative role in the response to the Great Lakes Conflict.

In terms of the response of the United Nations, the Security Council did give a strict mandate and mission to the MONUC. There are still a few problems with the MONUC. First of all, the mission was originally deployed to monitor the Lusaka Ceasefire Agreement only. The mission was under-funded and poorly trained. In May 2001, the United Nations forces stood by as police and civilians were killed in Kisangani.\(^{101}\) Because of the mandate and lack of training, the mission could not do anything about the situation. After the MONUC was deployed in 1998, the number of killings and human rights abuses did not decrease, but rather increased greatly. The mission can be summed up as such:

Many of the millions of people dead since 1998 have died since the MONUC was deployed. The United Nations is responsible for some of these deaths. These include people killed by MONUC troops (relatively few); people killed in the presence of MONUC troops (many more), and more generally, many of those who died due to perpetuation of war. In a series of widely publicized reports, the International Rescue Committee has estimated several million ‘extra’ deaths due to the war, starvation, disease, etc.\(^{102}\)

As previously mentioned, the primary work of the MONUC was to maintain peace and security and was not a human rights-driven expedition. Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) had to pick up the tab to help people, and getting assistance to some areas was difficult, dangerous, and sometimes impossible. The main reasons were the size of the county, constant attacks by rebel groups and government soldiers and the unwillingness of the international community to recognize the human rights horrors being

\(^{101}\) *Ibid.*, 610-611.
\(^{102}\) Turner, 158.
committed. This all ties into western isolation and fear of continued failure in Africa. The rape stories told to Amnesty International showed what was really going on inside the country, and the unfortunate thing was that very little international attention was paid to the victims. The limited number of MONUC troops demonstrates that the world powers did not want to assist the DRC in their time of conflict.

Another negative aspect of the MONUC presence includes acts being taken by the troops in the present-day world. The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) has released reports demonstrating that there is corruption occurring in the MONUC ranks. The investigative reporting group Panorama uncovered Pakistani peacekeepers selling gold to rebel forces and providing groups like the Le Front des Nationalistes et Intégrationnistes (FNI) with weapons. Indian peacekeepers were found trading ammunition for ivory, buying drugs, and having direct dealings with militia members responsible for the Rwandan genocide.¹⁰³

Between the continued human rights violations all over the country and the lack of international pressure to bring the perpetrators to justice, I would argue that the MONUC is failing in its mission. The death toll has reached 5.4 million, most dying from being stuck in the middle of violent conflicts, disease, and/or malnutrition. The mandate of the MONUC clearly does not address anything having to do with human rights promotion and protection. The MONUC did rescue countless people from violent situations, but failed to take any other action.¹⁰⁴ One of the options they had available to them was moving people to refugee camps in Malawi or another country. The MONUC are even contributing to human rights violations by raping women and girls. In 2005,

¹⁰⁴ Turner, 160.
hundreds of rape allegations were made against MONUC troops and United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR). As a result, UNHCR Commissioner Ruud Lubbers was forced to resign. The investigation determined peacekeeping soldiers were raping women and girls, setting up prostitution and pedophile rings, and consorting with prostitutes.\footnote{Ibid., 161.}

The fact that United Nations workers and officials were acting in this way is deplorable and a sign that the MOUC is a failed organization. Taking into account the 5.4 million people killed since the MONUC went into the DRC, continuous rape by rebels, soldiers, and United Nations peacekeepers and soldiers, trade and dealings between rebels and peacekeepers, the lack of attention paid by the international community to human rights atrocities, the fact that MONUC troops watched people die and did nothing, and the politics that weakened the MONUC, it is clear that the MONUC has been a failed organization that plunged the DRC into chaos in 1998, and has continued to add to the chaos all the way to 1 January 2009.

Conclusion

I firmly believe that the United Nations had the best intentions in mind when it authorized the missions of the ONUC and the MONUC in the nation of the Congo or DRC. Both peacekeeping missions were designed with the objective to achieve peace in mind, but between politics, corruption, sex scandals, weak and corrupt leadership, and lack of or weak mandates, they became failed missions. Neither organization was given the ability to take any measures necessary to protect the people, but had to wait for approval from the Secretary-General or the Security Council, and by the time approval was received, the issue was over and people were dead. One of the largest weaknesses of
the ONUC came from USSR and United States political wars. One of the largest weaknesses to the MONUC was the lack of humanitarian aid. Both organizations had positive moments, but in the end they both resulted in more people being killed than being saved. They both ended as failed forces for the other reason that the country was never politically stable, which might have been possible if politics had not gotten in the way. The ONUC and MONUC were examples of how the best intentions of peace and security can go horrifyingly wrong if they are not planned or carried out correctly.
APPENDIX A: IMPORTANT CHARACTERS

King Leopold II (9 April 1835-17 December 1909)
   Took control of the Congo in the name of Belgium. He extracted wealth and raw
   materials from the Congo while treating the people as slaves. Leopold massacred
   millions in the Congo to get ivory and rubber.

Dag Hammarskjöld (29 July 1905-18 September 1961):
   Served as second Secretary-General of the United Nations and was elected in
   1953. He created the ONUC and oversaw the mission and operations. Hammarskjöld
   was killed during the Congo conflict in 1961.

   Was the first president of the Congo. He came to power as a result of fighting for
   independence from Belgium. His leadership skills came from ABAKO. Lumumba and
   Kasa-Vubu dismissed each other from the government in 1960. His government fell in
   1965 to Mobutu.

Patrice Lumumba (2 July 1925-17 January 1961)
   Elected as Prime Minister of the Congo after helping to achieve independence
   from Belgium. When Belgium interfered in the region, he had problems with Kasa-
   Vubu. He aligned himself with the USSR. Lumumba was assassinated by government
   officials for not sharing the opinion of Kasa-Vubu and for siding with the USSR.

Joseph Mobutu (14 October 1930-7 September 1997)
   Came to power in 1965 by way of a military coup. He took advantage of the
   weak government to assert his power. He directly assisted in the assassination of
   Lumumba. Mobutu changed the name of the country to Zaire and fell from power due to
   opposition parties.

Laurent Kabila (27 November 1939-16 January 2001)
   He was responsible for overthrowing Mobutu to end the dictatorship in Zaire in
   1997. His college concentration was political philosophy and he studied in France and
   Tanzania. He became president in 1997 and quickly lost support. His bodyguard
   assassinated Kabila in 2001 and his son took over as president.

Paul Kagame (23 October 1957- )
   Kagame was the leader of the RPF and assisted in ending the Rwandan genocide
   in 1994. Became president of Rwanda after taking control of the capital. Kagame was
democratically elected president in 2003. Kagame assisted in the invasion of the DRC
   and contributed to the Great Lakes Crisis.

Joseph Kabila (4 June 1971- )
   Son of Laurent Kabila, he became president of the DRC after his father was
   assassinated in 2001. He was born in South Kivu and finished school in Tanzania. In
   2006, Kabila was elected president of the DRC following the general election.
APPENDIX B: DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO CHRONOLOGY

1482  First recorded encounter between Kongo and Europe when Portuguese traveler Diego Cão arrives at the mouth of the Congo River.

1876  Leopold II of Belgium convenes Brussels International Geographical Conference and establishes the AIA.

1877  King Leopold II sets up CEHC to study colonization of the Congo Basin.

1884  April: United States is first to recognize Kin Leopold's claims in the Congo.

1885  1 August: King Leopold II official accession as king-sovereign of the Congo.

1901  Edmund Dene Morel from Britain decides to investigate journalism about gross violations of human rights in the Congo.

1906  18 October: Establishment of UMHK, the giant mining company producing Belgian and British capital.

1907  After 23 years of rule, the reign of King Leopold II ends. Congo Free States becomes the Belgian Congo.

1925  Belgium annexes the mandated territory to the Congo to create a single administrative entity known as Congo belge et Ruanda-Urundi.

1941  4-9 December: UMHK mineworkers' general strike begins in Likasi and ends with over one hundred strikers massacred in Lubumbashi.

1946  Joseph Kasa-Vubu, a Kongo intellectual and middle-class servant gives a lecture in Kinshasa called 'the right of the first occupant'.

1958  October: Patrice Lumumba, Joseph Ileo, Cyrille Adoula and Joseph Ngaluda create the MNC.

1959  13 January: The Belgian king announces willingness to consider independence for Congo.

October: Adoula, Ileo and Ngaluda cause a split in MNC resulting in the following wings: MNC-Lumumba and MNC-Kalonji.

11-12 October: The Luba-Baluba war erupts in Kasai.

29-30 October: Lumumba is arrested and taken to the underground prison at Likasi.


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106 This chronology is taken from the following sources:
Nzongola-Ntalaja, The Congo: From Leopold to Kabila, 265-278.
Higgins, 461-462.
Turner, 199-208.
Swing, etc.
30 June: At the national independence ceremony, Prime Minister Lumumba delivers a speech about the meaning of independence in response to the one by King Baudouin.

1 July: Lumumba requests admission to the UN.

5-9 July: FP soldiers lead a mutiny. Lumumba attempts to control crisis with promotions and restructuring of the force into a national army, the ANC.

10 July: Belgian military intervention deepens the crisis.

11 July: With Belgian support, Moise Tshombe declares the secession of the Katanga province from the Congo.

12 July: President Kasa-Vubu & PM Lumumba appeals to the United Nations to assist the country in restoring territorial integrity and controlling external aggression.


15 July: First UN troops arrive in Congo from Tunisia and Ghana.

18 July: Full UN force of 3,500 troops has arrived in Congo (ONUC).

2 August: Secretary-General announces UN military will enter Katanga on 6 August 1960.


18 August: US President Eisenhower authorizes assassination of Lumumba. Fourteen Canadian UN peacekeepers arrested at Leopoldville Airport.

August-September: ANC troops ordered to end secession of South Kasai resulting in massacres at Mbuji-Mayi and Kasengulu.

5 September: Using Mbuji-Mayi massacre and calling it genocide, UN Secretary-General Dag Hammarskjöld. President Kasa-Vubu dismisses Lumumba as PM.


8 November: Eleven Irish UN soldiers ambushed, nine killed or missing. Total fatalities stands at 30.

14 November: Belgian Foreign Minister Pierre Wigny calls UN operation a failure.

21 November: Secretary-General announces finances are critical and there is a possibility to remove UN troops from Congo unless funding is allocated.

1-2 December: Lumumba is captured at Lodi, denied UN protection, and flown back to Kinshasa.

8 December: Resolution sponsored to allow IRC to examine Congolese prisoners.

12 December: Guinea, Morocco and Malaya withdraw troops from UN force.
1961
3-4 January: Several African states call for release of Lumumba and the re-instatement of Parliament. Also threaten to withdraw troops if demands not met.

17 January: Lumumba severely beaten on flight to Katanga and shot by an execution squad made up of Belgian military and police officers.

8 February: Adlai Stevenson presents a check for $19,645,211 for UN peacekeeping operations in the Congo.


5 March: United States sends four warships to Congo waters. UN Troops withdraw from Matadi after ambush.

6 March: Sudanese government says it will withdraw their troops.

9 March: UN troops withdraw from streets of Leopoldville.

14 March: USSR calls UN actions in Congo illegal and will not give financial support.

28 March: France declares they will not pay for UN actions in Congo. Twenty Latin American nations they cannot pay their percent of the costs.

10 April: UN forces number at 16,689.

27 July: Congolese Parliament holds first formal session in ten months.

18 September: Secretary-General Dag Hammarskjöld killed in plane crash.

November 10: Thirteen Italian troops with ONUC murdered by troops of Stanleyville.


21 December: Tshombe signs declaration ending secession.

1962
18 December: President Kennedy dispatches US military to Congo.

30 December: ONUC gains control of Elisabethville. Katanga air force destroyed.

1963
January: After a month of fighting, UN troops defeat Tshombe’s soldiers to end Katanga succession.

29 September: Kasa-Vubu dismisses parliament to weaken Lumumbist forces.

1964
30 June: UN troops leave the Congo as peacekeeping mandate expires.

July: Tshombe returns from exile in Spain and becomes PM of Congo.

September: Establishment of People’s Republic of Congo in Kisangani with Christopher Gbenye as president.

1965
24 November: Mobutu stages second coup and becomes Congo’s ruler.

1967
May: Mobutu establishes own political party, the MPR.

1969
4 June: Massacre of university students at Kinshasa after peaceful demonstration.

1971
27 October: Mobutu officially changes name of Congo to Zaire
1977 March: First Shaba War is ended by Moroccan troops and French support
1978 May: French and Belgian paratroopers end second Shaba War.
1990 24 April: Mobutu announces end of one-party regime.
       11-12 May: Massacre of university students at Lubumbashi.
1992 19 January: Mobutu suspends work of CNS
       6 April: CNS resumes work
       14-15 August: CNS elects Tshisekedi as PM.
       1 December: Mobutu carries out third political coup removing Tshisekedi’s ministers and demands a government acceptable to the head of state
       6 December: CNS closes permanently.
1994 April-July: Genocide in Rwanda; one million Hutu refugees flee into Congo including members of Interahamwe.
1997 April: Angolan troops move into Congo.
       17 May: The AFDL takes over Kinshasa (with Uganda and Rwanda assistance) ad Kabila changes name of nation to Congo and proclaims himself as president.
       August: UN team investigates of Hutu refugees but leave in March 1998 with work not finished.
1998 2 August: War erupts again; Rwandan and Ugandan troops cross into Congo; rebellions are staged inside the Congo.
       6 August-1 September: Rwandans seize Kitona and move towards Kinshasa. They are beaten back by Angola and Zimbabwe who save the Kabila regime.
1999 18 April: Sirte ceasefire signed, not recognized by RCD and Rwanda.
       26 May: Chad pulls out of DRC.
       7-17 August: Fighting between RPF & UPDF troops in Kisangani kills two hundred innocent civilians and destroys infrastructure.
2000 February: UN authorizes 5,500-member force to monitor ceasefire.
       5-22 May: Second wave of fighting begins between RPF & UPDF in Kisangani.
       5-11 June: Third wave of fighting between RPF & UPDF.
       9-14 June: Violent demonstrations take place in front of MONUC headquarters in Kinshasa to protest UN inaction during wars between RPF & UPDF.
       16 June: UN Security Council passes Resolution 1304 that designates Rwanda and Uganda as aggressors in the Congo and demands withdrawal of all troops.
2001 16 January: President Laurent Kabila is assassinated.
       17 January: Joseph Kabila takes over as the new president.
       May: International Rescue Committee says 2.5 million people have been killed since 1998.
2002 April: Kabila sworn in as head of state.

May: Human Rights Watch urge UN to deploy a rapid reaction force to defend civilians because the MONUC has been unable to protect them.

June: UN Security Council adopts a resolution increasing MONUC presence from 8,700 10,800 troops and expands mandate another year.

2004 August: Rwanda, Uganda, and DRC agree to disarm groups in their territories within a year.

November: A declaration of commitment to the end of the Great Lakes Crisis is signed in Dar es Salaam by eleven heads of state. Kabila sends 10,000 troops to the east to prevent a Rwandan attack.

December: MONUC repels armed men from Rwanda when they tried to enter Bukavu.

2005 July: MONUC pursues FDLR who had been attacking the civilian population.

2006 January: Eight MONUC troops killed by suspected Ugandan rebels.

August: Violent clashes between two political party members regarding elections.

2007 30 June: MONUC is comprised of 12,619 troops, 729 military observers and 1,036 police officers.

2008 22 December: UN Resolution 1856 passed to allow more work with civilians and an increased police force. MONUC is now composed of 19,815 troops, 760 military observers, 391 police personnel, and 1,500 personnel for formed police units.
APPENDIX C: MAP OF PEACEKEEPING OPERATIONS (ONUC)

MAP 1


*Map of peacekeeping forces distributed through the Congo in 1960
BIBLIOGRAPHY


