Major-power Uses of Force and International Law (MUFIL), 1945–2003

CODEBOOK

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INTRODUCTION

The Major-power Uses of Force and International Law (MUFIL) dataset is intended to provide a rigorous, generalizable measure of the arguments offered by the post-World War II major powers to account for their arguably illegal uses of military force and of responses thereto by other major powers. The dataset provides detailed data on major-power uses of armed force and international law since the UN Charter came into effect on 24 October 1945 through the end of October 2003.

The dataset contains 196 observations of major-power uses of armed force and their accompanying arguments (or non-arguments) and 714 observations of responses thereto by other major powers.


UNITS OF OBSERVATION

The MUFIL dataset includes incidents (Willard 1988) in which one or more of the five, post-World War II major powers (i.e. the five Permanent Members of the UN Security Council) decided to use armed force within or against other states between October 1945 and October 2003. The definition of incidents involving the use of armed force used herein is adopted from Tillema and Van Wingen’s (1982: 223–4, 246) definition of military actions.

Decisions to use armed force are defined to include the following incidents.

- Firstly, they include decisions to deploy military units within the land borders or territorial waters of another state for conducting combat operations therein. Combat operations include counter-insurgency action, combat patrol, or offensive maneuver.
- Secondly, decisions to use armed force include decisions to attack targets under the control of or within the land borders or territorial waters of another state, provided that such decisions were authorized at a level higher than that of the local military commanders.
- Thirdly, they include decisions to blockade the ports and/or coasts of another state.
- Fourthly, they include decisions to provide weapons and/or training to armed bands, groups, irregulars, or mercenaries while they are engaged in any of the activities listed above.

This definition excludes the following incidents as units of observation.

- Firstly, it excludes decisions to participate in UN peacekeeping operations or observer missions under UN command (such as UNPROFOR in the former Yugoslavia or UNEF in the Sinai). Participation in such missions, however, should not be confused with
participation in UN-authorized or UN-approved enforcement actions under the command of individual states (such as the US-led intervention in Korea in 1950, the British intervention in Cyprus in 1963, or the French intervention in Rwanda in 1994), which meet the criteria listed above and thus are included as units of observation.

- Secondly, it excludes decisions regarding civil and colonial policing or administration (such as French decisions regarding Algeria in the 1950s, British decisions regarding Northern Ireland in the 1970s, or Russian decisions regarding Chechnya in the 1990s) or similar actions in zones of legal occupation (such as Soviet decisions regarding East Berlin in 1953).

- Thirdly, it excludes decisions to participate in noncombat operations within the land borders or territorial waters of another state, including overflights (such as American U-2 flights over the Soviet Union in the 1950s) and military training exercises (such as yearly US military exercises in Korea).

- Fourthly, it excludes unauthorized or accidental uses of armed force (such as the Soviet downing of a Korean passenger jet in September 1983 or the US downing of an Iranian passenger jet in July 1988) or uses of armed force that result from the application of established rules of engagement rather than planning among key decision-makers (such as the initial skirmishes between the Soviet Union and China along the Ussuri River in March 1969 or US attacks on Libyan aircraft over the Gulf of Sidra in March 1986). Such decisions, however, should not be confused with subsequent decisions made by key policy-makers (such as the decision by the Soviet Union to retaliate against China or the decision by the United States to retaliate against Libya).

- Finally, it excludes decisions made by the People’s Republic of China prior to October 1971, during which time China’s legal status was disputed, and the Republic of China (i.e. Taiwan) occupied China’s seat on the UN Security Council.

Incidents in which two or more major powers acted jointly (such as the United Kingdom and France in Egypt in 1956, and the United States, the United Kingdom, and France in Yugoslavia in 1999) are coded as unique cases for each major power involved. In most cases, however, rather than acting jointly, one or more major powers assisted in actions initiated by another major power (such as the United States assisting France in Chad in 1986 and the United Kingdom assisting the United States in Afghanistan in 2001). These incidents are coded as cases only for the major powers that initiated the action; the actions of the other major powers are coded as responses to that action.

Ongoing incidents in which the mode of action remained the same (such as the intermittent US air strikes against Laos that began in September 1959) are coded as a single case. However, ongoing incidents in which the mode of action changed are coded as multiple cases. For example, US involvement in Korea is coded as three cases. The first case involves the decision to intervene in South Korea on 25 June 1950 to evacuate American citizens. The second case involves the decision to intervene in South Korea on 27 June 1950 in support of the South Korean government. The third case involves the decision to intervene in North Korea on 7 October 1950 to unify the Korean peninsula.
VARIABLES AND CODING RULES

The following rules were used to code observations of each variable:

CLAIM_TYPE

Observations of the variable CLAIM_TYPE are coded to represent the types of claims contained within the arguments offered by the major powers. These arguments may contain legal claims, nonlegal claims, or both. Observations of CLAIM_TYPE are coded as follows, in order of increasing legality of claims.

\[ \text{CLAIM}_\text{TYPE}(i) = 0 \]
If the arguments offered by a major power to account for its uses of armed force in an incident, \( i \), contain only nonlegal claims, then \( \text{CLAIM}_\text{TYPE}(i) = 0 \). Nonlegal claims are claims that reference bases for assessing state conduct other than international law or that address the proper locus from which to derive rules to govern state interaction. These include claims of morality, justice, fairness, efficiency, and so forth.

\[ \text{CLAIM}_\text{TYPE}(i) = 1 \]
If a major power offers no arguments to account for its actions in an incident, \( i \), then \( \text{CLAIM}_\text{TYPE}(i) = 1 \). These include incidents in which a major power announces that an action has occurred or will occur but offers no arguments to account for it.

\[ \text{CLAIM}_\text{TYPE}(i) = 2 \]
If the arguments offered by a major power to account for its uses of armed force in an incident, \( i \), contain both legal and nonlegal claims, then \( \text{CLAIM}_\text{TYPE}(i) = 2 \). Legal claims are claims that derive from a legal framework and reflect areas of dispute regarding legal rules. They include claims regarding the inclusivity of legal rules, claims regarding priority among legal rules, claims regarding the proper interpretation of legal rules, claims regarding the application of legal rules to facts, and claims regarding the determination of relevant facts.

\[ \text{CLAIM}_\text{TYPE}(i) = 3 \]
If the arguments offered by a major power to account for its uses of armed force in an incident, \( i \), contain only legal claims, then \( \text{CLAIM}_\text{TYPE}(i) = 3 \). As noted above, legal claims are claims that derive from a legal framework and reflect areas of dispute regarding legal rules. They include claims regarding the inclusivity of legal rules, claims regarding priority among legal rules, claims regarding the proper interpretation of legal rules, claims regarding the application of legal rules to facts, and claims regarding the determination of relevant facts.

COLD_WAR

Observations of the variable COLD_WAR are coded to represent whether or not an incident occurred during the Cold War. For coding purposes, it is assumed that the Cold War began immediately following World War II and that it ended in 1990. Observations of COLD_WAR are coded dichotomously as follows.
\textbf{COLD\_WAR}(i) = 0
If an incident \(i\) occurred in 1990 or later, then \textbf{COLD\_WAR}(i) = 0. In other words, 0 indicates the absence of the Cold War.

\textbf{COLD\_WAR}(i) = 1
If an incident \(i\) occurred in 1989 or earlier, then \textbf{COLD\_WAR}(i) = 1. In other words, 1 indicates the presence of the Cold War.

\textbf{COORD}
Observations of the variable \textbf{COORD} are coded to represent the extent of coordination among the major powers, as indicated by the primary disagreements their legal arguments address. As noted above, legal arguments may contain claims that address five different types of disagreements: (1) disagreements over the inclusivity of legal rules, (2) disagreements over the priority of legal rules, (3) disagreements over the interpretation of legal rules, (4) disagreements over the application of legal rules to facts, and (5) disagreements over the determination of facts.

Simple legal arguments may contain claims that address only one type of disagreement. However, legal arguments that are more complex or conveyed via multiple channels may address several disagreements. The primary disagreement addressed by such arguments is the disagreement that is most frequently addressed, the most consistently addressed, or the most emphasized. Often, but not always, the counter-arguments offered by other states determine the primary disagreement that a major power’s arguments address.

To the extent that the major powers are converging towards a shared understanding of law, the primary disagreements that their legal arguments address are more likely to be over the determination of facts than the application of legal rules to facts, or the inclusivity, priority, or interpretation of legal rules, because such disagreements are more fundamental (Boyle 1985: 108–9). Accordingly, observations of \textbf{COORD} are coded as follows, in order of increasing coordination.

\textbf{COORD}(i) = 0
If a major power offers only nonlegal arguments to account for its uses of armed force in an incident, \(i\), then \textbf{COORD}(i) = 0. Legal argument contain claims explicitly derived from the legal framework in which they are offered. Legal arguments regarding the use of armed force contain claims derived from the UN Charter. Nonlegal arguments contain claims that derive from alternative references, such as principles of morality, justice, fairness, efficiency, and so forth.

If the primary disagreement addressed by a major power’s legal arguments in an incident, \(i\), is over the inclusivity of legal rules, then \textbf{COORD}(i) = 0. Legal arguments containing claims regarding the inclusivity of legal rules address disagreements over whether or not a particular rule is appropriately included among those rules agreed to be pertinent to a situation. In the context of the Charter, claims of inclusivity address disagreements over whether or not “self-defense” includes actions taken to protect citizens abroad against an imminent or ongoing “armed attack,” whether or not actions directed against “the territorial integrity or political independence of any State” include actions taken as
reprisals, actions taken to recover lawful territory, and retaliatory actions taken as vindication of legal rights.

If the primary disagreement addressed by a major power’s legal arguments in an incident, \(i\), is over the priority of legal rules, then \(\text{COORD}(i) = 0\). Legal arguments containing claims regarding priority among legal rules address disagreements over whether or not certain rules have priority over other rules pertinent to a situation. In the context of the Charter, claims of priority address disagreements over whether or not decolonization, humanitarian concerns, self-determination, or other ends “consistent with the Purposes of the United Nations” have priority over the Charter’s prohibition of force.

If the primary disagreement addressed by a major power’s legal arguments in an incident, \(i\), is over the interpretation of legal rules, then \(\text{COORD}(i) = 0\). Legal arguments containing claims regarding the proper interpretation of legal rules address disagreements over the extent to which a particular understanding of law accords with law’s underlying purpose. In the context of the Charter, claims of interpretation address disagreements over whether or not indirect aggression is tantamount to “armed attack,” whether or not an “armed attack” to which a state has clearly committed itself can be said to have “occurred,” and whether or not an existing Security Council Resolution implicitly authorizes the use of armed force.

\(\text{COORD}(i) = 1\)

If the primary disagreement addressed by a major power’s legal arguments in an incident, \(i\), is over the application of legal rules to facts, then \(\text{COORD}(i) = 1\). Legal arguments containing claims regarding the application of legal rules to facts address disagreements over whether or not agreed rules apply to a particular set of facts. In the context of the Charter, claims of application address disagreements over whether or not a Security Council resolution was adopted in accordance with the Charter, whether or not uses of armed force were taken in accordance with an existing treaty, and whether or not the party inviting or consenting to the use of armed force within its territory is the legitimate government of that territory.

\(\text{COORD}(i) = 2\)

If a major power does not offer arguments to account for its uses of armed force in an incident, \(i\), then \(\text{COORD}(i) = 2\). Such incidents are coded as a relatively high level of coordination because they generally involve actions taken covertly (such as interventions in civil wars), which most states would argue are illegal, or other types of actions (such as simple rescues of foreign nationals), which most states would argue are legal. The absence of argument implies a relatively high level of coordination.

\(\text{COORD}(i) = 3\)

If the primary disagreement addressed by a major power’s legal arguments in an incident, \(i\), is over the determination of facts, then \(\text{COORD}(i) = 3\). Legal arguments containing claims regarding the determination of facts address disagreements over whether or not certain events transpired, or the particular manner or sequence in which they transpired. In the context of the Charter, claims of fact address disagreements over whether or not there exists an agreement between states, whether or not a state used armed force against
another state or within its boundaries, whether or not a state used armed force prior to the
time at which it claimed a legitimate right to do so, whether or not its actions were taken
in response to an existing threat or use of armed force by another state, and whether or
not its armed forces are pursuing the objectives claimed.

COVERT

Observations of the variable COVERT are coded to represent whether a major power used armed
force covertly. Covert uses of armed force are uses of armed force for which a major power
attempts to conceal its participation or responsibility from other states, irrespective of whether
that attempt is successful or not. Observations of COVERT are coded dichotomously as follows.

\[
\text{COVERT}(i) = 0 \\
\text{If a major power did not use armed force covertly in an incident, } i, \text{ COVERT}(i) = 0.
\]

\[
\text{COVERT}(i) = 1 \\
\text{If a major power used armed force covertly in an incident, } i, \text{ then COVERT}(i) = 1.
\]

DIFF_REGIME

Observations of the variable DIFF_REGIME are coded to represent the difference in regime types
between the major power offering an argument for its uses of armed force and the major power
responding to that use of armed force. Using observations of the variable REGIME, coded to
represent a major power’s regime type, observations of DIFF_REGIME are coded as

\[
\text{DIFF_REGIME}(i, m) = \text{Abs[REGIME}(i) – \text{REGIME}(m)],
\]

where REGIME(i) is the observation of the variable REGIME for the major power using armed force in an incident, \(i\), and REGIME(m) is the observation of the variable REGIME for a major power, \(m\), responding to that use of armed force.

DISSENT

Observations of the variable DISSENT are coded to represent the level of dissent within the
Security Council regarding a major power’s use of armed force. Observations of DISSENT are
coded as follows, in order of increasing dissent.

\[
\text{DISSENT}(i) = 0 \\
\text{If the Security Council adopts a resolution that explicitly authorizes a major power’s}
\text{actions in an incident, } i, \text{ then DISSENT}(i) = 0. \text{ A major power receives explicit}
\text{authorization for its actions if the Security Council approves a resolution that specifically}
\text{names a major power and authorizes its actions or if the Security Council approves a}
\text{resolution that authorizes member states to act in a specific way or to use “all necessary}
\text{means” to achieve a specific objective.}
\]

\[
\text{DISSENT}(i) = 1 \\
\text{If the Security Council passes a resolution that implicitly authorizes a major power’s}
\text{actions in an incident, } i, \text{ or if a resolution that explicitly authorizes its actions fails}
\text{because of a sole or near-sole veto, then DISSENT}(i) = 1. \text{ A resolution that implicitly}
\text{authorizes the actions taken by a major power is one that authorizes actions of the sort}
\text{taken by that major power without specifically naming it or noting a specific objective.}
\]
**DISSENT**(i) = 2
If the Security Council takes no action regarding a major power’s actions in an incident, i, then **DISSENT**(i) = 2. The Security Council takes no action on a matter if it either fails to consider the matter or else approves a resolution that neither authorizes a major power’s actions (either explicitly or implicitly) nor condemns them.

**DISSENT**(i) = 3
If a Security Council Resolution condemning the actions of a major power in an incident, i, lacks the necessary votes to pass, irrespective of the major power’s veto, then **DISSENT**(i) = 3.

**DISSENT**(i) = 4
If the Security Council approves a resolution condemning the actions of a major power in an incident, i, then **DISSENT**(i) = 4. In such instances, a major power abstains from voting rather than casting its veto.

**DISSENT**(i) = 5
If a major power uses its veto to defeat a Security Council Resolution condemning its actions in an incident, i, and other major powers also use their veto or abstain from voting, then **DISSENT**(i) = 5.

**DISSENT**(i) = 6
If a major power uses its veto to defeat a Security Council Resolution condemning its actions in an incident, i, and one or more non-permanent members of the Security Council concurs, then **DISSENT**(i) = 6.

**DISSENT**(i) = 7
If a major power uses its veto to defeat a Security Council Resolution condemning its actions in an incident, i, and no other members of the Security Council concur, then **DISSENT**(i) = 7.

**NATO**
Observations of the variable **NATO** are coded to represent whether a major power responding to a use of armed force in an incident, i, is a member of NATO along with the major power that used armed force in that incident. Observations of **NATO** are coded dichotomously as follows.

**NATO**(i) = 0
If a major power responding to a use of armed force by another major power in an incident, i, and/or the major power using armed force in that incident are not members of NATO, then **NATO**(i) = 0.

**NATO**(i) = 1
If a major power responding to a use of armed force by another major power in an incident, i, and the major power using armed force in that incident are both members of NATO, then **NATO**(i) = 1.
**PRIORITY**

Observations of the variable PRIORITY are coded to represent whether or not a major power gives priority to the legal claims contained within the arguments it offers. Observations of PRIORITY are coded dichotomously as follows.

**PRIORITY(i) = 0**

If the arguments offered by a major power to account for its uses of armed force in an incident, \( i \), contain nonlegal claims only, then PRIORITY\((i) = 0 \).

If a major power initially offers no arguments to account for its uses of armed force in an incident, \( i \), but then does so once its actions are discovered, then PRIORITY\((i) = 0 \).

If the arguments offered by a major power to account for its uses of armed force in an incident, \( i \), consistently include nonlegal claims and fail to distinguish them from legal claims by one of the means listed below, then PRIORITY\((i) = 0 \).

**PRIORITY(i) = 1**

If the arguments offered by a major power to account for its uses of armed force in an incident, \( i \), contain legal claims only, then PRIORITY\((i) = 1 \).

If the arguments offered by a major power to account for its uses of armed force in an incident, \( i \), consistently enumerate legal claims ahead of nonlegal claims, then PRIORITY\((i) = 1 \).

If the arguments offered by a major power to account for its uses of armed force in an incident, \( i \), include language that makes the nonlegal claims clearly subordinate to the legal claims, then PRIORITY\((i) = 1 \).

If the arguments offered by a major power to account for its uses of armed force in an incident, \( i \), seldom include nonlegal claims, then PRIORITY\((i) = 1 \).

**REGIME**

Observations of the variable REGIME are coded to represent a major power’s regime type and its domestic political culture. Because the liberal model defines a major power as liberal if it is democratically-governed and has a domestic political culture premised upon the rule of law, observations of REGIME are coded according to the average of the scores given to each major power for political rights and civil liberties by Freedom House (2006) for a particular year.

Observations of REGIME are coded as REGIME\((i) = 7 – FH(i) \), where FH\((i) \) denotes the average of the scores for political rights and civil liberties given to a major power by Freedom House (2006) during the year in which an incident, \( i \), occurred. These scores range from 1 (most liberal) to 7 (least liberal). Freedom House scores are available for July 1972 through November 2004.

Scores for the United States, the United Kingdom, and France during the period October 1945 through June 1972 are assumed to be the same as those for July 1972. This assumption is sensible, insofar as the scores for these major powers vary only slightly during the period from
July 1972 though June 2002. The scores for the Soviet Union following the death of Stalin until July 1972 are assumed to be 6s. This assumption is sensible, insofar as the scores for the Soviet Union during the 1970s are 6s for both political rights and civil liberties. Scores for the Soviet Union during the reign of Stalin are assumed as 7s. This assumption is sensible, also, insofar as the scores given to China from July 1972 through June 1977 and from July 1989 through June 1998 also are 7s.

**REGION**

Observations of the variable REGION are coded to represent whether a major power has preponderant interest in the region in which it has used armed force. Observations of REGION are coded dichotomously as follows.

\[
\text{REGION}(i) = 0
\]

If a major power uses armed force in an incident, \(i\), in a region in which it does not have preponderant interest, then REGION\((i) = 0\). For the United States, the region of preponderant interest includes the states of Central America and the Caribbean, as well as former overseas territories, such as the Philippines. For the Soviet Union, the region of preponderant interest includes the member-states of the Warsaw Pact. For Russia, the region of preponderant interest includes the member-states of the Commonwealth of Independent States. For the United Kingdom, the region of preponderant interest includes all former overseas island territories and African colonies, with the exception of “settler colonies,” such as Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. For France, the region of preponderant interest includes all former overseas island territories and African colonies. For China, the region of preponderant interest includes the states of the Korean peninsula and the states of Southeast Asia.

\[
\text{REGION}(i) = 1
\]

If a major power uses armed force in an incident, \(i\), in a region in which it has preponderant interest, then REGION\((i) = 1\). As noted above, for the United States, the region of preponderant interest includes the states of Central America and the Caribbean, as well as former overseas territories, such as the Philippines. For the Soviet Union, the region of preponderant interest includes the member-states of the Warsaw Pact. For Russia, the region of preponderant interest includes the member-states of the Commonwealth of Independent States. For the United Kingdom, the region of preponderant interest includes all former overseas island territories and African colonies, with the exception of “settler colonies,” such as Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. For France, the region of preponderant interest includes all former overseas island territories and African colonies. For China, the region of preponderant interest includes the states of the Korean peninsula and the states of Southeast Asia.

**RESPONSE**

Observations of the variable RESPONSE are coded to represent each major power’s response to uses of armed force by another major power. A major power may respond with acceptance, acquiescence, indirect resistance, direct resistance by economic means, or direct resistance by
political-military means, or it may offer no response. Observations of RESPONSE are coded as follows, in order of increasing resistance.

**RESPONSE**(i, m) = 0

If a major power, m, responds to another major power’s use of armed force in an incident, i, with acceptance, then RESPONSE(i, m) = 0. A major power may respond to another major power’s use of armed force with acceptance by making public statements and diplomatic exchanges supporting that major power, by offering arguments of its own to account for the actions taken, by casting votes in multilateral institutions that are favorable to the major power that engaged in those actions, or by joining in those actions by providing assistance or logistical support.

**RESPONSE**(i, m) = 1

If a major power, m, offers no response to another major power’s use of armed force in an incident, i, then RESPONSE(i, m) = 1.

**RESPONSE**(i, m) = 2

If a major power, m, responds to another major power’s use of armed force in an incident, i, with acquiescence, then RESPONSE(i, m) = 2. A major power may respond to another major power’s use of armed force with acquiescence by offering counter-arguments to condemn the actions taken but not accompanying those counter-arguments with diplomatic, economic, or political-military means of resistance.

**RESPONSE**(i, m) = 3

If a major power, m, responds to another major power’s use of armed force in an incident, i, with indirect resistance, then RESPONSE(i, m) = 3. A major power may respond to another major power’s use of armed force with indirect resistance by withdrawing its diplomatic representatives from that major power, expelling that major power’s diplomatic representatives, canceling scheduled visits or talks, suspending or terminating treaties unrelated to the actions taken by the major power, or attempting to isolate it diplomatically by withdrawing support for it in multilateral institutions. Such actions include offering resolutions or casting votes within those multilateral institutions that are unfavorable to that major power.

**RESPONSE**(i, m) = 4

If a major power, m, responds to another major power’s use of armed force in an incident, i, with direct resistance by economic means, then RESPONSE(i, m) = 4. A major power may respond to another major power’s use of armed force with direct resistance by economic means through tariffs, trade restrictions, financial restrictions, and embargoes.

**RESPONSE**(i, m) = 5

If a major power, m, responds to another major power’s use of armed force in an incident, i, with direct resistance by political-military means, then RESPONSE(i, m) = 5. A major power may respond to another major power’s use of armed force with direct resistance by political-military means through suspending or terminating treaties related to the actions that major power has taken, providing assistance to its adversaries, engaging in covert acts of reprisal against it, or joining a balancing coalition against it.
TIME_ON

Observations of the variable TIME_ON are coded to represent the amount of time that a major power has held a seat as a permanent member of the Security Council. Observations of TIME_ON are coded as TIME_ON(i) = m(i) / 12, where m(i) represents the number of months that a major power has held a seat as a permanent member of the Security Council at the time of an incident, i. The United States, the United Kingdom, France, and the Soviet Union/Russia have held seats as permanent members of the Security Council since October 1945. China has held a seat as a permanent member of the Security Council since October 1971.
CASE OVERVIEW

The following is a brief overview of the 196 cases included in this dataset.

1. **Soviet Union – Iran (March 1946)**
   Under the terms of the Tripartite Treaty of 1942, the Soviet Union was required to withdraw its military forces from Iran within six months of the end of World War II. However, Soviet military forces remained past the stipulated deadline and declared an autonomous republic in northern Iran.

2. **United Kingdom – Albania (November 1946)**
   On 12 November 1946, British military forces entered Albanian territorial waters to clear mines after an Albanian shore battery fired on British cruisers and two other British warships struck mines in the Corfu Channel.

3. **Soviet Union – Hungary (February 1947)**
   In February 1947, Soviet military forces secretly provided aid to Hungarian rebels, resulting in a Communist takeover of Hungary.

4. **United States – China (March 1949)**
   In March 1949, US military forces intervened in China to protect the US embassy and to aid in the evacuation of US citizens as Communist forces advanced towards Nanking.

5. **United Kingdom – China (April 1949)**
   In April 1949, British military forces intervened in China to evacuate British and Commonwealth citizens as Communist forces advanced towards Nanking.

6. **United States – Albania (May 1950)**
   In May 1950, the United States and the United Kingdom secretly provided assistance to Albanian rebels as part of a covert plan to overthrow the Albanian government.

7. **United Kingdom – Albania (May 1950)**
   In May 1950, the United States and the United Kingdom secretly provided assistance to Albanian rebels (see above).

8. **United States – South Korea (June 1950)**
   On 25 June 1950, US military forces intervened in South Korea to evacuate US citizens following an invasion from North Korea.

9. **United States – South Korea (June 1950)**
   On 27 June 1950, US military forces intervened in South Korea to assist South Korean forces following an invasion from North Korea.

10. **United States – North Korea (October 1950)**
    On 7 October 1950, US military forces intervened in North Korea to assist South Korean forces that had crossed into North Korea.
11. United Kingdom – Egypt (October 1951)
In October 1951, British military forces took control of the Suez Canal, following Egypt's renunciation of a 1936 basing agreement. After Egyptian forces attacked water filtration plants supplying the Canal Zone, British forces demolished Egyptian houses in order to clear access to a water supply. Following attacks on British military vehicles and personnel, British forces attacked an Egyptian police barracks.

12. United States – Guatemala (October 1953)
In October 1953, the United States secretly began providing assistance to Guatemalan rebels as part of a covert plan to overthrow the government of Jacobo Arbenz.

13. United States – China (January 1955)
In January 1955, US military forces intervened in China to evacuate US citizens from the Tachen Islands, following bombardment of the islands by Chinese military forces.

14. France – Tunisia (May 1956)
In May 1956, French military forces intervened in Tunisia to quell a separatist rebellion.

15. Soviet Union – Poland (October 1956)
On 19 October 1956, Soviet military forces intervened in Poland to quell an uprising in Poznan prompted by poor economic conditions.

16. Soviet Union – Hungary (October 1956)
On 24 October 1956, Soviet military forces intervened in Hungary to quell an uprising by Hungarian students demanding the withdrawal of Soviet military forces.

17. Soviet Union – Hungary (November 1956)
On 2 November 1956, Soviet military forces intervened in Hungary to overthrow the government of Imre Nagy, following Hungary’s attempt to withdraw from the Warsaw Pact.

18. United States – Egypt (October 1956)
In October 1956, US military forces intervened in Egypt to evacuate US citizens from Alexandria, following an Israeli invasion of Egypt.

19. United Kingdom – Egypt (November 1956)
On 1 November 1956, British and French military forces intervened in Egypt in response to Egypt’s nationalization of the Suez Canal Company.

20. France – Egypt (November 1956)
On 1 November 1956, British and French military forces intervened in Egypt in response to Egypt’s nationalization of the Suez Canal Company (see above).

21. France – Morocco (December 1956)
In December 1956, French military forces intervened in Morocco to quell a rebellion.
22. United Kingdom – Yemen (March 1957)
In March 1957, British military forces intervened in Yemen in response to a series of border incidents between Yemen and the southern Arabian protectorates.

23. United Kingdom – Muscat and Oman (July 1957)
In July 1957, British military forces intervened in Muscat and Oman to restore order following a rebellion against Sultan Said bin Taimur.

24. United States – Indonesia (November 1957)
In November 1957, the United States secretly began providing assistance to Indonesian rebels as part of a covert attempt to overthrow the government of Ahmed Sukarno.

25. France – Tunisia (February 1958)
On 8 February 1958, French military forces intervened in Tunisia in response to attacks on French aircraft flying near the Tunisian border.

26. United Kingdom – Yemen (May 1958)
In May 1958, British military forces intervened in Yemen following attacks by Yemeni-backed rebels in Aden.

27. Lebanon (July 1958)
On 15 July 1958, US military forces intervened in Lebanon in support of President Camille Chamoun as fighting broke out between armed groups in Lebanon.

28. United Kingdom – Jordan (July 1958)
On 17 July 1958, British military forces intervened in Jordan in support of King Hussein, following a coup against fellow Hashemite ruler King Faisal II of Iraq.

29. United States – Laos (September 1959)
In September 1959, the United States secretly sent arms and personnel to assist the government of Laos against Pathet Lao rebels.

30. France – Cameroon (January 1960)
In January 1960, French military forces intervened in Cameroon to assist the government against Cameroonian People’s Party (UPC) rebels.

31. United States – Cuba (March 1960)
In March 1960, the United States secretly began providing assistance to Cuban rebels as part of a covert attempt to overthrow the government of Fidel Castro.

32. United States – Congo (July 1960)
In July 1960, US military forces intervened in Congo to assist in the evacuation of civilians during a rebellion in Katanga.
33. France – Senegal (August 1960)
In August 1960, French military forces secretly intervened in Senegal in support of President M. Leopold Senghor, following the breakdown of the Mali Federation and a possible coup attempt against Senghor.

34. United States – Dominican Republic (April 1961)
In April 1961, the United States secretly began assisting rebels in the Dominican Republic as part of a plan to overthrow the government of Rafael Leonidas Trujillo.

35. United Kingdom – Kuwait (July 1961)
On 3 July 1961, British military forces intervened in Kuwait to protect against a possible Iraqi invasion.

36. France – Tunisia (July 1961)
On 19 July 1961, French military forces intervened in Tunisia to lift a siege on the French naval base at Bizerte.

37. France – Cameroon (October 1961)
In October 1961, French military forces intervened in Cameroon to assist the government against Cameroonian People's Party (UPC) rebels.

38. United States – South Vietnam (November 1961)
In November 1961, US military forces intervened in South Vietnam to assist the government against Viet Cong rebels.

39. France – Mauritania (March 1962)
In March 1962, French military forces intervened in Mauritania following a rebel attack on French military officers.

40. United States – Thailand (May 1962)

41. France – Congo-Brazzaville (September 1962)
In September 1962, French military forces intervened in Congo-Brazzaville to suppress riots that broke out following a soccer match.

42. France – Gabon (September 1962)
In September 1962, French military forces intervened in Gabon to suppress riots that broke out following a soccer match (see above).

43. United States – Cuba (October 1962)
In October 1962, US naval forces imposed a naval quarantine to prevent the shipment of Soviet nuclear missile components to Cuba.
44. **Soviet Union – Yemen (November 1962)**
On 26 November 1962, the Soviet Union secretly airlifted Egyptian military forces into Yemen to assist in a military coup against the government of Muhammad al Badr.

45. **France – Congo-Brazzaville (August 1963)**
In August 1963, French military forces intervened in Congo-Brazzaville to quell riots.

46. **United Kingdom – Malaysia (December 1963)**
In December 1963, British military forces intervened in Malaysia to assist the government against North Kalimantan National Army rebels.

47. **United Kingdom – Cyprus (December 1963)**
In December 1963, British military forces intervened in Cyprus to impose a cease-fire during a civil war.

48. **France – Niger (December 1963)**
In December 1963, French military forces intervened in Niger to quell a military mutiny prompted by complaints over low pay and the appointment of an unpopular military commander.

49. **United Kingdom – Zanzibar (January 1964)**
On 17 January 1964, British military forces intervened in Zanzibar to evacuate British citizens following the overthrow of the Sultan.

50. **United Kingdom – Tanganyika (January 1964)**
On 25 January 1964, British military forces intervened in Tanganyika to quell a military mutiny prompted by complaints over low pay, poor working conditions, and the low number of African officers in the senior ranks.

51. **United Kingdom – Uganda (January 1964)**
On 25 January 1964, British military forces intervened in Uganda to quell a military mutiny prompted by complaints over low pay and poor working conditions.

52. **United Kingdom – Kenya (January 1964)**
On 25 January 1964, British military forces intervened in Kenya to quell a military mutiny prompted by complaints over low pay and reports of similar mutinies in Tanganyika and Uganda (see above).

53. **France – Gabon (February 1964)**
On 18 February 1964, French military forces intervened in Gabon to restore order following the overthrow of Leon M'ba.

54. **United Kingdom – Yemen (March 1964)**
On 28 March 1964, British military forces intervened in Yemen in retaliation for attacks against the southern Arabian protectorates.
55. **United States – North Vietnam (August 1964)**  
On 4 August 1964, US military forces intervened in North Vietnam in retaliation for alleged attacks against US naval vessels in the Gulf of Tonkin.

56. **United States – Congo (November 1964)**  
On 24 November 1964, US military forces intervened in Congo to rescue US citizens and foreign nationals being held hostage by rebels in Stanleyville.

57. **United States – North Vietnam (February 1965)**  
On 6 February 1965, US military forces began bombing North Vietnam in an attempt to coerce the North Vietnamese government to end its support for Viet Cong rebels.

58. **United States – Dominican Republic (April 1965)**  
On 28 April 1965, US military forces intervened in the Dominican Republic to restore order following a military coup.

59. **United Kingdom – Southern Rhodesia (March 1966)**  
On 4 March 1966, British military forces established a naval blockade around Mozambique to prevent petroleum from reaching Southern Rhodesia following its Unilateral Declaration of Independence.

60. **United States – Congo (July 1967)**  
In July 1967, US military forces intervened in Congo to assist the government in quelling a revolt in Katanga.

61. **United Kingdom – Mauritius (January 1968)**  
In January 1968, British military forces intervened in Mauritius to quell riots prompted by economic problems.

62. **Soviet Union–Czechoslovakia (August 1968)**  
On 20 August 1968, Soviet military forces invaded Czechoslovakia to overthrow Communist party leader Alexander Dubcek.

63. **France – Chad (August 1968)**  
In August 1968, French military forces intervened in Chad to quell a rebellion.

64. **France – Nigeria (August 1968)**  
In August 1968, France secretly began providing assistance to rebels in the Biafra province of Nigeria.

65. **United States – Cambodia (March 1969)**  
In March 1969, US military forces secretly began bombing Cambodia to quell a communist insurgency.

66. **Soviet Union – China (March 1969)**  
On 15 March 1969, Soviet military forces attacked Chinese troops along the Ussuri River in response to a border incident with China.
67. **France – Chad (April 1969)**
   In April 1969, French military forces intervened in Chad to assist the government in quelling a rebellion.

68. **Soviet Union – Sudan (January 1970)**
   In January 1970, Soviet military forces secretly intervened in Sudan to assist the government against Anya Nya rebels.

69. **United States – Cambodia (April 1970)**
   In April 1970, US military forces intervened in Cambodia to destroy a Viet Cong command base.

70. **United Kingdom – Oman (July 1970)**
   In July 1970, British military forces secretly intervened in Oman to restore order following a coup.

71. **France – Niger (August 1973)**
   In August 1973, French military forces intervened in Niger to prevent a possible military coup against President Hamani Diori.

72. **Soviet Union – Israel (October 1973)**
   In October 1973, Soviet military forces secretly provided logistical support to Arab states fighting against Israel and flew combat missions on their behalf. In addition, Soviet vessels transported a Moroccan expeditionary force to the Syrian front, and after the war, Soviet officers commanded Syrian artillery units along the Syrian front.

73. **China – South Vietnam (January 1974)**
   On 16 January 1974, Chinese naval forces engaged South Vietnamese forces operating near the Paracel Islands, seizing a South Vietnamese garrison and occupying the westernmost islands.

74. **United States – Iraq (May 1974)**
   In May 1974, the United States secretly began providing assistance to Kurdish rebels in Iraq.

75. **United Kingdom – Cyprus (July 1974)**
   On 15 July 1974, British military forces intervened in Cyprus to rescue Archbishop Makarios, following his overthrow by Greek officers in the Cypriot National Guard.

76. **United Kingdom – Cyprus (August 1974)**
   On 14 August 1974, British military forces intervened in Cyprus to rescue British citizens following a Turkish offensive in Cyprus (see above).

77. **United States – Cambodia (April 1975)**
   On 12 April 1975, US military forces intervened in Cambodia to assist in the evacuation of US citizens and foreign nationals from Phnom Penh.

78. **United States – South Vietnam (April 1975)**
79. **United States – Cambodia (May 1975)**
On 13 May 1975, US military forces intervened in Cambodia in an attempt to rescue the crew of the merchant ship *Mayaguez*, which had been seized by Cambodian naval forces.

80. **France – Comoros (August 1975)**
In August 1975, France secretly assisted in the overthrow of Comoros President Ahmed Abdullah.

81. **Soviet Union – Angola (November 1975)**
In November 1975, the Soviet Union began providing weapons and training to MPLA rebels in Angola. In January 1976, Soviet transport planes airlifted Cuban troops into Angola.

82. **United States – Lebanon (June 1976)**

83. **France – Benin (January 1977)**
On 16 January 1977, France secretly assisted in the attempted overthrow of Mathreiu Kerakon in Benin.

84. **France – Zaire (April 1977)**
On 10 April 1977, French military forces provided logistical support to Moroccan forces deployed in Zaire to quell a rebellion.

85. **France – Mauritania (May 1977)**
On 13 May 1977, French military forces provided logistical support to Moroccan forces deployed in Mauritania to quell a rebellion. Following an attack on railway installations in Mauritania, France began bombing rebel positions.

86. **Soviet Union – Ethiopia (November 1977)**
In November 1977, Soviet military forces secretly intervened in Ethiopia to assist the government in quelling rebellions in Ogadan and Eritrea.

87. **France – Chad (April 1978)**
On 16 April 1978, French military forces secretly intervened in Chad to assist the government in quelling a rebellion.

88. **Soviet Union – Afghanistan (April 1978)**
In April 1978, Soviet military forces secretly provided logistical support to rebels in Afghanistan.

89. **France – Comoros (May 1978)**
In May 1978, France secretly assisted in the overthrow of Comoros President Ali Solih, replacing him with Ahmed Abdullah (who had been overthrown in 1975).
90.  France – Zaire (May 1978)
On 19 May 1978, French military forces intervened in Zaire to rescue French citizens and foreign nationals following a rebellion in the Shaba province.

91.  China – Vietnam (February 1979)

92.  Soviet Union – North Yemen (February 1979)
In February 1979, Soviet military forces secretly began providing assistance to National Democratic Front rebels in North Yemen.

93.  France – Chad (June 1979)
In June 1979, French military forces intervened in Chad to repel an invasion from Libya.

94.  France – Central African Empire (September 1979)
On 20 September 1979, French military forces intervened in the Central African Empire to assist in the overthrow of Emperor Bokassa.

95.  Soviet Union–Afghanistan (December 1979)
On 27 December 1979, Soviet military forces intervened in Afghanistan following the overthrow of Nur Muhammad Taraki.

96.  France – Tunisia (January 1980)
On 28 January 1980, French military forces intervened in Tunisia to assist in quelling a rebellion.

97.  United States – Iran (April 1980)
On 24 April 1980, US military forces intervened in Iran in an attempt to rescue hostages that had been seized at the US embassy in Tehran and US consulates in Tabriz and Shiraz.

98.  United Kingdom – Gambia (July 1981)
In July 1981, British military forces secretly intervened in Gambia to rescue British hostages and to assist military forces from Senegal in restoring President Jawara following a coup.

In August 1981, the United States secretly began providing assistance to Nicaraguan rebels. In October 1983, the CIA organized attacks against petroleum storage facilities in Nicaragua, and in January 1984 the CIA organized an operation to mine Nicaraguan harbors.

100.  France – Seychelles (November 1981)
In November 1981, French military forces intervened in the Seychelles following a coup attempt against President Albert René.

101.  Soviet Union – Poland (December 1981)
On 13 December 1981, Soviet military forces secretly intervened in Poland, establishing a military council headed by General Wojciech Jaruzelski.
102. United Kingdom – Argentina (April 1982)
On 12 April 1982, British military forces deployed to the Falkland Islands in response to an Argentinean invasion of the islands.

103. United States – Lebanon (September 1982)
On 19 September 1982, US and French military forces deployed to Lebanon following a massacre of refugees by the Lebanese Phalangist Party.

104. France – Lebanon (September 1982)
On 19 September 1982, US and French military forces deployed to Lebanon as part of a multinational force (see above).

105. United States – Syria (December 1982)

106. France – Chad (August 1983)
On 13 August 1983, French military forces intervened in Chad to assist the government in quelling a Libyan-sponsored rebellion.

107. United States – Grenada (October 1983)
On 25 October 1983, US military forces intervened in Grenada following the overthrow of Prime Minister Maurice Bishop.

108. France – New Zealand (July 1985)
On 10 July 1985, French military forces intervened in New Zealand, sinking the GREENPEACE ship Rainbow Warrior in Auckland harbor in order to prevent the ship from disrupting French nuclear tests in the South Pacific.

109. United States – Egypt (October 1985)
On 10 October 1985, US military forces intercepted an Egyptian airliner carrying the hijackers of the Italian cruise ship Achille Lauro, following the murder of Leon Klinghoffer, a US citizen.

110. France – Chad (January 1986)
In January 1986, French military forces intervened in Chad to repel an invasion from Libya.

111. United States – Libya (March 1986)
On 25 March 1986, US military forces destroyed a Libyan missile base and sank two Libyan ships in retaliation for attacks on US aircraft flying over the Gulf of Sidra.

112. United States – Libya (April 1986)
On 14 April 1986, US military forces attacked Libya in retaliation for the terrorist bombing of a German disco in which US military personnel had been killed.

113. France – Togo (September 1986)
On 25 September 1986, French military forces intervened in Togo following a coup against President Gnanssingbe Eyadema.
114. **France – Congo-Brazzaville (September 1987)**
On 6 September 1987, French military forces intervened in Congo-Brazzaville to assist the government in capturing rebel leader Pierre Anga.

115. **United States – Iran (October 1987)**
On 19 October 1987, US military forces destroyed two Iranian oil platforms and three Iranian warships in retaliation for Iranian mines laid in the Persian Gulf.

On 16 March 1988, US military forces intervened in Honduras to repel an invasion from Nicaragua.

117. **United States – Philippines (December 1989)**
In December 1989, US military forces intervened in the Philippines to assist the government of Corazon Aquino in repelling a coup attempt.

118. **United States – Panama (December 1989)**
On 20 December 1989, US military forces intervened in Panama to capture General Manuel Noriega following the murder of a US marine in Panama.

119. **France – Gabon (May 1990)**
In May 1990, French military forces intervened in Gabon to rescue French hostages and to quell riots following the death of opposition leader Joseph Rendjambe.

120. **United States – Liberia (August 1990)**

121. **United States – Saudi Arabia (August 1990)**
On 8 August 1990, US military forces intervened in Saudi Arabia to prevent a possible invasion from Iraq.

122. **United Kingdom – Bahrain (August 1990)**
On 8 August 1990, British military forces intervened in Bahrain in response to the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait.

123. **United Kingdom – Iraq (August 1990)**
On 10 August 1990, British military forces imposed a naval blockade on Iraq, following Iraq’s invasion of Kuwait.

124. **United States – Iraq (August 1990)**
On 12 August 1990, US military forces imposed a naval blockade on Iraq, following Iraq’s invasion of Kuwait.

125. **France – Comoros (August 1990)**
In August 1990, French military forces intervened in the Comoros to quell the attempted overthrow of Said Mohammed Djohar.
126.  France – Rwanda (October 1990)
In October 1990, French military forces intervened in Rwanda in response to an invasion by Rwanda Patriotic Front rebels from Uganda.

127.  France – Chad (November 1990)
On 28 November 1990, French military forces intervened in Chad to protect French citizens in N'Djamena as rebels led by Idriss Déby advanced toward the capital.

In January 1991, US military forces intervened in Somalia to evacuate US citizens and foreign nationals following the overthrow of the government of Siad Barre.

129.  United States – Iraq (January 1991)

130.  United Kingdom – Iraq (January 1991)
On 16 January 1991, US and British military forces intervened in Iraq following Iraq’s invasion of Kuwait (see above).

On 16 April 1991, the US, British, and French military forces intervened in Iraq to create a “safe haven” for Kurdish refugees following rebellion against the Iraqi government.

On 16 April 1991, the US, British, and French military forces intervened in Iraq to create a “safe haven” for Kurdish refugees (see above).

133.  France – Iraq (April 1991)
On 16 April 1991, the US, British, and French military forces intervened in Iraq to create a “safe haven” for Kurdish refugees (see above).

134.  France – Djibouti (May 1991)
In May 1991, French military forces intervened in Djibouti to assist the government in disarming and deporting Ethiopian rebels.

135.  France – Zaire (September 1991)
In September 1991, French military forces intervened in Zaire to restore order following a military mutiny.

136.  France – Central African Republic (September 1991)
In September 1991, French military forces intervened in the Central African Republic to rescue French citizens and foreign nationals following unrest there.

137.  United States – Haiti (October 1991)
In October 1991, US military forces intervened in Haiti to evacuate US citizens and foreign nationals following a coup against Jean-Bertrand Aristide.
138. France – Chad (December 1991)
In December 1991, French military forces intervened in Chad to assist the government against rebels invading from Senegal in support of former president Hissène Habré.

139. Russia – Moldova (May 1992)
In May 1992, Russian military forces intervened in Moldova to assist rebels in Transnistria.

140. United States – Sierra Leone (May 1992)
In May 1992, US military forces intervened in Sierra Leone to evacuate US citizens and foreign nationals following a military coup.

141. Russia – Tajikistan (June 1992)
In June 1992, Russian military forces intervened in Tajikistan to assist the government in quelling a separatist rebellion.

142. Russia – Armenia (June 1992)
In June 1992, Russian military forces intervened in Armenia to assist in military actions against Azerbaijan.

143. United States – Iraq (August 1992)
On 26 August 1992, US, British, and French military forces began surveillance operations in southern Iraq to ensure compliance with resolution 688 following Iraqi attacks against the Shia population in southern Iraq.

144. United Kingdom – Iraq (August 1992)
On 26 August 1992, US, British, and French military forces began surveillance operations in southern Iraq (see above).

145. France – Iraq (August 1992)
On 26 August 1992, US, British, and French military forces began surveillance operations in southern Iraq (see above).

146. United States – Liberia (October 1992)
In October 1992, US military forces intervened in Liberia to evacuate US citizens and foreign nationals from Monrovia following unrest there.

147. United States – Somalia (December 1992)
On 8 December 1992, US military forces intervened in Somalia to restore order and to safeguard the delivery of humanitarian aid.

148. France – Zaire (January 1993)
On 29 January 1993, French military forces intervened in Zaire to evacuate French citizens and foreign nationals following an attack on the French Embassy and the murder of the French ambassador during military rioting prompted by complaints over military pay.
149. United States – Iraq (January 1993)
On 17 January 1993, US military forces attacked a nuclear fabrication facility in Iraq in response to Iraq's refusal to cooperate with UNSCOM weapons inspectors.

150. France – Rwanda (February 1993)
On 9 February 1993, French military forces intervened in Rwanda following the resumption of fighting between government forces and FPR rebels.

151. United States – Bosnia-Herzegovina (April 1993)
On 12 April 1993, NATO forces began engaging Yugoslavian aircraft found to be violating a UN-imposed ban on military flights over Bosnia-Herzegovina.

152. United Kingdom – Bosnia-Herzegovina (April 1993)
On 12 April 1993, NATO forces began engaging Yugoslavian aircraft found to be violating a UN-imposed ban on military flights over Bosnia-Herzegovina. (see above).

153. France – Bosnia-Herzegovina (April 1993)
On 12 April 1993, NATO forces began engaging Yugoslavian aircraft found to be violating a UN-imposed ban on military flights over Bosnia-Herzegovina. (see above).

154. Russia – Georgia (June 1993)
In June 1993, Russian military forces intervened in Georgia to quell a rebellion in Abkhazia and South Ossetia.

155. United States – Iraq (June 1993)
On 26 June 1993, US military forces attacked the headquarters of the Iraqi Intelligence Service following an attempt to assassinate former President George H. W. Bush.

156. United States – Somalia (July 1993)
In July 1993, US military forces remaining in Somalia deployed as a “Quick Reaction Force” in support of UNOSOM II.

157. United States – Haiti (October 1993)
On 16 October 1993, US military forces imposed a naval blockade on Haiti following the overthrow of Jean-Bertrand Aristide.

158. United States – Bosnia-Herzegovina (March 1994)
On 13 March 1994, NATO forces attacked Serbian positions in Bosnia-Herzegovina after UNPROFOR forces had been prevented from entering the town of Maglaj in northern Bosnia. On 30 August, NATO forces resumed air strikes when Serbian forces continued to threaten Sarajevo. In May 1995, NATO forces bombed an arms depot in Bosnia-Herzegovina, following the placement of Serbian artillery around Sarajevo.

159. United Kingdom – Bosnia-Herzegovina (March 1994)
On 13 March 1994, NATO forces attacked Serbian positions in Bosnia-Herzegovina, and again in August 1994 and in May 1995 (see above).
160. **France – Bosnia-Herzegovina (March 1994)**
On 13 March 1994, NATO forces attacked Serbian positions in Bosnia-Herzegovina, and again in August 1994 and in May 1995 (see above).

161. **France – Cameroon (March 1994)**
In March 1994, French military forces intervened in Cameroon following a border dispute with Nigeria.

162. **France – Rwanda (April 1994)**
In April 1994, French military forces intervened in Rwanda to evacuate French citizens and foreign nationals after fighting broke out between Hutus and Tutsis following the death of Rwandan President Juvénal Habyarimana.

163. **France – Rwanda (June 1994)**
On 23 June 1994, French military forces intervened in Rwanda to protect civilians and disarm Hutu militias.

164. **United States – Haiti (September 1994)**
On 19 September 1994, US military forces intervened in Haiti to restore President Jean-Bertrand Aristide to power.

165. **United States – Bosnia-Herzegovina (December 1995)**
On 15 December 1995, NATO forces intervened in Bosnia-Herzegovina to enforce a ceasefire agreement.

166. **United Kingdom – Bosnia-Herzegovina (December 1995)**
On 15 December 1995, NATO forces intervened in Bosnia-Herzegovina to enforce a ceasefire agreement (see above).

167. **France – Bosnia-Herzegovina (December 1995)**
On 15 December 1995, NATO forces intervened in Bosnia-Herzegovina to enforce a ceasefire agreement (see above).

On 9 April 1996, US military forces intervened in Liberia to evacuate US citizens and foreign nationals following the resumption of civil war.

In May 1996, French military forces intervened in the Central African Republic to evacuate French citizens and foreign nationals following a military mutiny.

170. **United States – Iraq (September 1996)**
On 3 September 1996, US military forces attacked Iraqi surface-to-air missile sites in southern Iraq, extending the southern “no-fly” zone following Iraqi actions against the Kurdish population of Irbil in northern Iraq.
171. United States – Albania (March 1997)
On 14 March 1997, US military forces intervened in Albania to evacuate US citizens and foreign nationals from Tirana following unrest resulting from the collapse of a pyramid scheme.

172. United States – Sierra Leone (May 1997)
On 30 May 1997, US military forces intervened in Sierra Leone to evacuate US citizens and foreign nationals from Freetown following the overthrow of President Ahmed Tejan Kabbah.

173. France – Congo-Brazzaville (June 1997)
On 3 June 1997, French military forces intervened in Congo to evacuate French citizens and foreign nationals from Brazzaville following unrest there.

In June 1998, US military forces intervened in Eritrea to evacuate US citizens and foreign nationals from Asmara following the outbreak of war with Ethiopia.

175. United States – Afghanistan (August 1998)

176. United States – Sudan (August 1998)

177. United States – Iraq (December 1998)

178. United Kingdom – Iraq (December 1998)
On 16 December 1998, US and British military forces began bombing Iraq in response to Iraq's refusal to cooperate with UNSCOM inspectors (see above).

179. United States – Yugoslavia (March 1999)
On 24 March 1999, NATO forces began bombing Yugoslavia in response to President Slobodan Milosevic’s refusal to accept the Rambouillet Agreement.

180. United Kingdom – Yugoslavia (March 1999)
On 24 March 1999, NATO forces began bombing Yugoslavia in response to Milosevic’s refusal to accept the Rambouillet Agreement (see above).

181. France – Yugoslavia (March 1999)
On 24 March 1999, NATO forces began bombing Yugoslavia in response to Milosevic’s refusal to accept the Rambouillet Agreement (see above).

182. United States – Yugoslavia (June 1999)
On 9 June 1999, NATO forces intervened in Yugoslavia following Yugoslavia’s acceptance of a joint EU-Russian peace proposal.
183. **United Kingdom – Yugoslavia (June 1999)**
On 9 June 1999, NATO forces intervened in Yugoslavia following Yugoslavia’s acceptance of a joint EU-Russian peace proposal (see above).

184. **France – Yugoslavia (June 1999)**
On 9 June 1999, NATO forces intervened in Yugoslavia following Yugoslavia’s acceptance of a joint EU-Russian peace proposal (see above).

185. **United Kingdom – Sierra Leone (May 2000)**
On 7 May 2000, British military forces intervened in Sierra Leone to evacuate British citizens and foreign nationals from Freetown following the collapse of the Lome Peace Agreement.

186. **United Kingdom – Sierra Leone (September 2000)**
On 10 September 2000, British military forces intervened in Sierra Leone to destroy a rebel militia that had been holding British troops hostage.

187. **United States – Iraq (February 2001)**
On 16 February 2001, US and British military forces bombed air defense targets in Iraq.

188. **United Kingdom – Iraq (February 2001)**
On 16 February 2001, United States and British military forces bombed air defense targets in Iraq (see above).

189. **United States – Afghanistan (October 2001)**
On 7 October 2001, US military forces intervened in Afghanistan to assist the Northern Alliance in overthrowing the Taliban regime that had been harboring Osama bin Laden.

190. **United Kingdom – Afghanistan (December 2001)**
On 22 December 2001, British military forces intervened in Afghanistan following the overthrow of the Taliban government.

191. **France – Ivory Coast (September 2002)**
On 24 September 2002, French military forces intervened in Ivory Coast to evacuate French citizens and foreign nationals from Bouake following coup attempt against President Laurent Gbagbo.

On 3 November 2002, a secret US military drone fired a missile at a car carrying Qaed Salim Sinan al-Harethi and five other al Qaeda members suspected in the bombing of a US warship.

193. **United States – Philippines (February 2003)**
In February 2003, US military forces intervened in the Philippines to assist the government against Abu Sayyaf guerrillas.

194. **United States – Iraq (March 2003)**
On 19 March 2003, US and British military forces intervened in Iraq in response to its refusal to cooperate with UNMOVIC weapons inspectors.
195. **United Kingdom – Iraq (March 2003)**
On 19 March 2003, US and British military forces intervened in Iraq in response to its refusal to cooperate fully with UNMOVIC weapons inspectors (see above).

196. **United States – Liberia (August 2003)**
On 14 August 2003, US military forces intervened in Liberia to secure the port of Freetown for humanitarian aid and serve as a rapid-reaction force in support of an international peacekeeping force.
WORKS CITED


