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SPECIAL DATA FEATURE

Armed Conflict, 1989-2002*

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A total of 226 armed conflicts have been recorded for the years 1946–2002. Of these, 116 were active in the period 1989–2002, including 31 in 2002. There were five wars in 2002. Both numbers were the lowest for this period. Seven interstate-armed conflicts were recorded 1989–2002, of which one was still active in 2002. In 2002, a larger proportion of complex major armed conflicts were resolved, compared with new and minor armed conflicts. Although the data on armed conflict presented here suggest that there is a decline in the use of armed force, there is an increased feeling of fear and insecurity in many parts of the world because of terrorism incidents.

The Year 2002

A total of 226 armed conflicts have been recorded for the period 1946–2002. During the period 1989–2002, there were 116 armed conflicts in 79 locations around the world (Table I). In 2002, there were 31 conflicts active in 24 places, both figures being lower than in 2001 (Gleditsch et al., 2002). The number of wars decreased significantly from 11 to 5 in

2002. This was due to the fact that the wars in Afghanistan, the Democratic Republic of Congo, and Sri Lanka ended, and that the wars in Algeria, Angola, Russia, Rwanda, and the one involving the USA dropped down below the 1,000 battle-death threshold. There were five wars in 2002: Burundi, Colombia, India (Kashmir), Nepal, and Sudan.

One new armed conflict broke out in 2002. In Ivory Coast, three rebel groups

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made: Algeria has been coded as an internal minor armed conflict in 1991; Angola (Cabinda) as an internal minor armed conflict in 1991 and 1998; Ethiopia (Oromiya) as an internal minor armed conflict in 1989-91; Congo-Brazzaville as an internal minor armed conflict in 1993-94; and Somalia as an internal minor armed conflict in 2001. Angola (Cabinda) is no longer listed for 1992, and Congo-Brazzaville has been changed from war to intermediate armed conflict in 1999. In the case of Congo-Brazzaville, Chad has been added as supporting the government in 1998-99, and in the case of Angola (vs. UNITA), Namibia has been added as supporting the government in 1999. It should also be noted that deletions and additions have been made to the listing of opposition organizations in Algeria, Angola (Cabinda) and Congo-Brazzaville. Tables, appendices, and datasets have been changed accordingly.

Table I. Armed Conflicts and Conflict Locations, 1989–2002

Level of conflict	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	1989– 2002 ^b	1946– 2002
Minor	16^a	17ª	21^a	22^a	16^a	17ª	12	17	13	11^{a}	10	10	10^a	10	53	104
Intermediate	14	14	13	12	17	19	17	13	14	13	14^{a}	12	14	16	12	11^c
War	18	19	20	20	14	7	6	6	7	14	13^{a}	12	11	5	51	111
All conflicts	48^a	50a	54ª	54^{a}	47^a	43^a	35	36	34	38^a	37	34	35a	31	116	226
All locations	37	39	39a	41	34^a	33^a	30	29	27	32	28	28	29^{a}	24^d	79	148

^a Revised figure; see note 1 for an explanation. For data back to 1946, see http://www.prio.no/cwp/ArmedConflict/.

Table II. Interstate and Intrastate Armed Conflict, 1989–2002

Type of conflict	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	1989– 2002
Intrastate	43	45	52	51	42	42	33	33	30	31	29	28	29	26	91
Internationalized intrastate ^b	2	2	1	2	5	1	1	1	3	5	6	4	5	4	18
Interstate	3	3	1	1	0	0	1	2	1	2	2	2	1	1	7
All conflicts	48^a	50 ^a	54ª	54^a	47^a	43^a	35	36	34	38^a	37	34	35^a	31	116

^a Revised figure; see note 1 for an explanation.

^b At the highest level recorded.

^c As all conflicts are recorded at their highest level, there are more intermediate conflicts during the period 1989–2002 than during the longer period 1946–2002. Some of these conflicts had more than 1,000 battle-deaths in one or more years prior to 1989 and are therefore classified as wars for the long period.

d Of the three new conflicts occurring in 2002, one conflict already had a location in 2001 (i.e. Angola). This explains why the reduction in the number of conflict locations 2001–2002 is larger (i.e. five) than the number of armed conflicts (i.e. four).

^b The category 'Internationalized intrastate' has been renamed and recoded (prior to 2002, it was called 'Intrastate with foreign intervention' and included fewer conflicts), in order to be consistent with the terminology used in the database at http://www.prio.no/cwp/ArmedConflict/. In an internationalized intrastate armed conflict, the government, the opposition or both sides receive support from other governments.

began an armed campaign against the government headed by Laurent Gbagbo. The three rebel groups, MPCI (Mouvement patriotique de la Côte d'Ivoire: Patriotic Movement of Ivory Coast), MJP (Mouvement pour la justice et la paix: Movement for Justice and Peace), and the MPIGO (Mouvement populaire ivorian du Grand Ouest: Ivorian Movement for the Greater West), all aimed at the overthrow of the government.

Two armed conflicts recommenced in 2002. In Angola's Cabinda enclave, FLEC–FAC (Frente da Libertação do Enclave de Cabinda–Forças Armadas de Cabinda: Front for the Liberation of the Enclave of Cabinda–Armed Forces of Cabinda) recommenced their fight for self-rule; this conflict was last included in 1998. In Congo-Brazzaville, fighting between the government and the Ntsiloulous resumed for the first time since 1999.

Seven conflicts listed in 2001 were no longer active. In Afghanistan, some 24 years of constant war was brought to an end in late 2001 as the UIFSA (United Islamic Front for the Salvation of Afghanistan), aided by the US-led multinational coalition, overthrew the Taliban government. Sporadic violence occurred throughout the year, mainly between local rivals on the provincial level as well as in the form of attacks on official targets. None of this, however, met the criteria for inclusion. In the Democratic Republic of Congo, fighting between the government and the opposition was ended. During the year, Rwanda and Uganda withdrew their troops from the DRC. However, violence between other armed groups, notably various RCD (Rassemblement congolaises pour la démocratie: Congolese Democratic Rally) factions and the Mai Mai militia, escalated in several provinces of the DRC. None of this fighting involved the DRC government and is by definition therefore not included here. In Guinea, no internal armed conflict was recorded in 2002.

despite continued instability on the border between Liberia and Guinea, where the RFDG (Rassemblement des forces démocratiques de Guinée: Rally of Democratic Forces of Guinea) had been active in previous years. Because of insufficient reporting, the conflict was placed on the unclear list for 2002. In Iran, the conflict between the Mujahideen-e-Khalq and the Iranian government seemed to have been largely dormant in 2002. There were reports of fighting but, since this could not be verified, the conflict is included among the unclear cases in 2002. In Macedonia, the conflict with the ethnic Albanian UCK (Ushtria Clirimtare Kombëtare: National Liberation Army) ended in the Ohrid peace agreement on 13 August 2001. The agreement included political concessions to the Albanian population along with NATO supervised disarmament of the UCK. In Senegal, the conflict between the government and the MFDC (Mouvement des forces démocratiques de Casamance: Movement of the Democratic Forces of the Casamance) fell below the threshold of inclusion. The MFDC seems to have been more involved in looting and robbing than in direct battles with the government. It is still included, however, in the list of unclear cases in 2002. In Sri Lanka, a formalized bilateral ceasefire agreement was signed in February 2002 between the government and the LTTE. Since then, there has been no direct fighting other than minor incidents, which remain below the threshold of 25 battle-related deaths.

As in previous years, most of the conflicts in 2002 were internal (Table II). Foreign interventions were recorded in Angola (by Namibia), in Central African Republic (by Libya), in Congo-Brazzaville (by Angola), and in the conflict involving the USA (by the Multinational Coalition). As in 2001, only one interstate conflict was active in 2002: the one between India and Pakistan over Kashmir. Figure 1 shows the development of the different types of conflict since 1946.

Figure I. Number of Armed Conflicts by Type, 1946-2002

In this figure, a conflict is coded by type for each year. Thus, a conflict can move from one type to another over time. In the aggregate figures for conflict for the entire period, such conflicts are coded at the 'highest' (i.e. most internationalized) level.

In 2002, several peace agreements were signed: in Burundi, on 3 December 2002, an agreement was reached with the CNDD-FDD (Conseil national pour la défense de la démocratie-Forces pour la défense de la démocratie: National Council for the Defense of Democracy-Forces for the Defense of Democracy). The agreement meant that CNDD-FDD in principle joined the Arusha agreement of 2000. However, the other main opposition organization, Palipehutu-FNL (Parti pour la libération du peuple Hutu-Force Nationale de Liberation: Party for the Liberation of the Hutu People-Forces for National Liberation) refused to negotiate with the government. In the Democratic Republic of Congo, the 'Overall and Inclusive Agreement on the Transition in the Democratic Republic of Congo' formally ended the war

in the DRC in December 2002. Nevertheless, the agreement did not entirely prevent further killing in the region, as noted above. In Angola, the death of Jonas Savimbi, leader of UNITA (União Nacional para a Independência Total de Angola: National Union for the Total Independence of Angola) triggered a quick resolution of the armed conflict that had been active since 1975. Negotiations between the warring parties culminated in the signing of the 'Memorandum Understanding' of Luanda on 4 April. The agreement provided for the implementation of a ceasefire and the parties' compliance with the outstanding clauses of the Lusaka peace agreement from 1994.

A regional distribution of armed conflicts in 1989–2002 is given on the data website at http://www.prio.no/cwp/ArmedConflict/.

Definitions

An armed conflict is defined by the Uppsala Conflict Data Project as a contested incompatibility that concerns government or territory or both where the use of armed force between two parties results in at least 25 battle-related deaths. Of these two parties, at least one is the government of a state. A more detailed definition is given in Appendix 2 of Wallensteen & Sollenberg (2001) and on the Armed Conflict webpage (http://www.prio.no/cwp/ArmedConflict/).

A complete listing of the armed conflicts in 2002 is found in Appendix 1. As usual, they are divided into three categories:

- *minor armed conflict*, where the number of battle-related deaths during the course of the conflict is at least 25 but below 1,000. In 2002, there were 10 such conflicts, the same number as in 2001;
- *intermediate armed conflict*, with more than 1,000 battle-related deaths recorded during the course of the conflict, but fewer than 1,000 in any given year. In 2002, there were 16 such conflicts, compared with 14 in 2001; and
- war, with more than 1,000 battle-related deaths in any given year. In 2002, there were 5 such conflicts, down from 11 in 2001.

The last two categories are referred to together as major armed conflict.

Appendix 2 lists unclear cases. For these events, there is insufficient information on the incompatibility, the parties or the level of fighting, although the available information suggests that the criteria of armed conflict may have been met.

Terrorism and Armed Conflict

The data on armed conflict presented here suggests that there is a decline in the use of armed force for political purposes. Still, there

is an increased feeling of insecurity in many parts of the world. Terrorism can here be understood as actions that inject fears and sentiments of humiliation and demand counter-actions. Terrorism is not a new phenomenon. The Uppsala Conflict Data Project covers many of the most horrendous acts and intimidation campaigns in the period 1946-2002 with its normal definition of armed conflict. However, the concept of terrorism has become wider and now denotes a more imprecise form of violence. Traditionally connected to political action, the term 'terrorism' has recently been used to cover distinct different actions, such as criminal activities and gangsterism.

Terrorism today is often directed against civilians and symbolic societal targets, as opposed to government targets. Terrorist acts in this wider sense, often carried out by actors disguised in civilian clothing, have often been connected with an escalation in armed conflict. The 11 September 2001 attacks and many other such suicide missions are illustrations of the damage that can be done by such actions (see also US State Department, 2002). Although trend statistics suggest that the number of actions of international terrorism is lower than in previous years, the current concern about terrorism warrants a discussion on the links to armed conflict as reported here.

First, terror is part of armed conflict, as any armed conflict includes a form of terrorization of the population and of the opponent that is built into the use of weapons and forms part of the strategy. However, this is not the same as terrorism. For instance, in a large number of the armed conflicts the warring parties are not explicitly targeting civilians. Rather, armed conflict is directed at 'legitimate' military targets and not primarily aimed at the civilian population. Much of guerrilla warfare theory points to the importance of mobilizing a population for rebel purposes, not terrorizing it. This is at least what would be expected

from a civilian-led or democratic government facing an armed rebellion.

Second, terrorism can serve as a supplementary measure in a 'traditional' armed conflict. In some conflicts, terrorism is used to bring particular causes to attention or as a way to deny rumors of defeat and weakness. Sometimes, terrorism is not used by the main warring actor, but by auxiliaries (e.g. paramilitary groups), affiliated groups, or groups such as Hamas and Islamic Jihad in Palestine. Sometimes, terrorist action has served to enhance political influence of such groups, but more often it seems to serve as reminders of an uncompromising attitude.

Third, for some groups terrorism is more important than armed action in a more traditional sense. In such cases, the party may not be able to sustain regular armed action and therefore resorts to hit-and-run tactics against targets of least resistance, that is, civilians. Hostage-taking could be part of the way a group finances itself, as is the case with Abu Sayyaf in the Philippines. Other examples are the LRA (Lord's Resistance Army) in Uganda, GSPC (Groupe Salafite pour la prédication et le combat: Salafist Group for Preaching and Combat) in Algeria, and RUF (Revolutionary United Front) of Sierra Leone (although RUF was not active in 2002). The use of terrorism most likely only enhances the isolation of these groups from other actors involved in a parallel struggle and from the population at large.

Fourth, there are groups which only resort to terrorism and have no or little record of armed conflict. For example, al-Qaeda has global aims against US political influence worldwide. Beyond attacking Americans and supporters of the USA, its purposes are often unclear. The group seems to make no distinction between civilians and military targets. Al-Qaeda maintained troops and armed supporters for defending its bases in Afghanistan under the Taliban regime, but these forces were not those used in terrorist

actions against the United States. Terrorist groups have to be quite small, highly committed, well educated and comfortably financed. The purpose of the action, furthermore, might not be the classical one of defeating an adversary and replacing its control of a country. In this case, it is more comprehensive: the elimination of the opponent, radically changing its policies and society or eliminating its international supporters. This type of group often has wideranging and multiple purposes, thus making the overall vision unclear. Consequently, such a group has difficulties in militarily mobilizing large parts of the population and can hardly wage sustained guerrilla warfare. A few individuals carry out the actions, with the use of surprise, sizeable damage, and accompanying media coverage as major objectives. At the same time, the groups may rally emotional and moral support.

In the conflict data list, there are several examples of armed actors that can be placed in the first, second, and third category. Many examples of terrorism fit more convincingly into the first three categories. (Of course, these categories are not clear-cut.) For instance, Hezbollah used suicide attacks against US and French forces in Lebanon in 1984. The purpose was to achieve the withdrawal of these states, not to take control over them. It was part of the power struggle in Lebanon and thus supplemented an armed struggle. The same can be said of the LTTE (Tamil Tigers) terror attacks on individual leaders in Sri Lanka and India. Yet another example is the killing of US servicemen in Somalia in 1993. Very few of our observations can be placed in the fourth category. Al-Qaeda represents an exceptional phenomenon, although it is not historically unique. The ambition of global change by violent and terrorist means is not new. The Bolshevik theory was that a revolution in Russia would spark similar uprisings in Western Europe. The Comintern functioned until 1943 as a Soviet vehicle for

revolutionary change. In the 1960s, Che Guevera pursued a strategy of global or regional change, beginning with an uprising in Bolivia. This rebellion was eliminated in a few months. Lin Biao, a Chinese leader during the Cultural Revolution, had similar ambitions of world revolution, and China supported a number of Communist parties, particularly in East Asia, with little success. These scattered historical examples also suggest that achieving lasting success through violent global change is rare.

Terrorism of the first two types is likely to be linked to political purposes that can be negotiated, and a settlement would then also have a good chance of ending terrorism. This can be seen in the conflict data: in 2002, there were ceasefire agreements or talks in a number of the conflicts cited. The third form, however, may be a question of more comprehensive actions. The purposes are less politically obvious, more diffuse and perhaps largely a matter of economic opportunity, or even greed (Collier et al., 2003). These groups are less easily integrated into a peace process, unless their ambitions can be thwarted by clear action. The peaceful handling of the fourth group is even more difficult. Groups like al-Qaeda cannot easily be turned into political actors through talks and agreements. In this category, the political roots of recruitment will probably have to be addressed. Frustration among educated people over lack of democracy and absence of progress in settling significant regional issues are key ingredients.

Sources

For the annual update of armed conflicts, the Uppsala Conflict Data Project uses a variety of sources. The main source for 2002 was the *Factiva* news database, which consists of nearly 8,000 sources from 118 countries. *Factiva* is found at http://www.factiva.com.

Among other sources, the following were particularly useful in 2002: Africa Confidential (London), Africa Research Bulletin (Oxford), Angola Peace Monitor (London), Economist Intelligence Unit Country Reports (London), Far Eastern Economic Review (Hong Kong), Horn of Africa Bulletin (Uppsala), International Crisis (Brussels, various reports), Jane's Intelligence Review (Coulsdon, Surrey), Journal of Palestine Studies, Palestinian Central Bureau of Statistics (http://www.pcbs.org), Israeli Center for Human Rights in the Occupied Territories (http://www.btselem.org), Keesing's Record of World Events (Cambridge), Latin American Weekly Report (London), The Middle East International (London), The Military Balance (International Institute of Strategic Studies, London), Sri Lanka Monitor (London), South Asia Terrorism Portal (New Delhi, http://www.satp.org).

A large number of additional sources have been used previously. The reader can consult the annual updates on armed conflict published in *Journal of Peace Research* since 1993.

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Appendix 1. Armed Conflicts Active in 2002

(This list includes the conflict history of all conflicts active in 2002. For a complete history of all armed conflicts since 1946, see http://www.prio.no/cwp/Armed Conflict/. Opposition organizations active in 2002 are marked in bold.)

Location	Incompatibility	Opposition organization	Year	Intensity level
Europe				
Russia	Territory (Chechnya)	Republic of Chechnya (Ichkeria)	1994 1995–96 1999–2001 2002	Minor War War Intermediate
Middle East			2002	meemee
Israel	Territory (Palestine)	Palestinian insurgents	1949–54 1955–64	Minor Intermediate ¹
		PLO (Munazzamat Tahrir Filastin: Palestine Liberation Organization) groups, Non-PLO groups ²	1965–02	Intermediate
Turkey	Territory (Kurdistan)	PKK (Partiya Karkeren Kurdistan: Kurdistan Worker's Party) 3	1984–86 1987–91 1992–97 1998–02	Minor Intermediate War Intermediate
Asia			1770-02	intermediate
Burma/Myanmar ⁴	Territory (Shan)	SSA (Shan State Army), SSIA (Shan State Independence Army)	1960–63 1964–70	Minor War
		SSNPLO (Shan State Nationalities People's Liberation Organization), SSRA (Shan State Revolutionary Army), MTA (Mong Tai Army), PSLO (Palung State Liberation Organization)	1976–88	Intermediate
		MTA (Mong Tai Army)	1994 1995	War Intermediate

¹ It is unclear when the conflict changed from minor to intermediate.

² E.g. al-Aqsa Martyrs Brigade, Hamas, Islamic Jihad, PFLP-GC (Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine-General Command) and Hezbollah.

³ In 2002, the PKK changed name to Kadek (Kurdistan Freedom and Democracy Congress).

⁴ Due to the complex situation that has existed in Burma since independence, it is hard to find reliable casualty figures that can be related to specific groups. Thus, the data on Burma 1948–88 are estimates. From 1989 onwards, the data are more exact.

Location	Incompatibility	Opposition organization	Year	Intensity level
		SSA (Shan State Army), SURA (Shan United Revolutionary Army), SSNA (Shan State National Army)	1997–99 2001–02	Intermediate Intermediate
	Territory (Karen)	KNU (Karen National Union), KNDO (Karen National Defence Organization)	1948–49 1950–91 1992 1993–95 1997–02	War Intermediate ⁵ War Intermediate Intermediate
India ⁶	Government	Naxalites/CPI-M (Communist Party of India – Marxist) ⁷ Naxalites/PWG (People's War Group), MCC (Maoist Communist Centre)	1967–72 1989–94 1996–02	Minor Minor Minor
	Territory (Tripura)	TNV (Tripura National Liberation Front) ATTF (All Tripura Tribal Force) ATTF (All Tripura Tribal Force), NLFT (National Liberation Front of Tripura)	1978–88 1993 1995–02	Minor Minor Minor
	Territory (Kashmir)	Kashmir insurgents ⁸	1989 1990–93 1994–98 1999–02	Minor War Intermediate War
	Territory (Assam)	ABSU (All Bodo Students Union), BPAC (Bodo People's Action Committee), ULFA (United Liberation Front of Assam) BDSF (Bodo Security Force), ULFA (United Liberation Front of Assam), ULFA faction, BLTF (Bodo Liberation Tigers Force), NDFB (National Democratic Front for Bodoland)	1989–90 1991 1992–02	Minor War Intermediate

⁵ Possibly war in 1991.

⁶ Due to the complex situation that has existed in India since independence, it is hard to find reliable casualty figures that can be related to specific groups. Thus, the data on India 1948–88 are estimations. From 1989 onwards, the data are more exact.

⁷ The CPI-M (Communist Party of India – Marxist) split in 1969 into CPI-ML (Communist Party of India – Marxist-Leninist) and MCC (Maoist Communist Centre). The CPI-ML has since then split into numerous factions, one of the most important being People's War Group (PWG).

⁸ A large number of groups have been active. Sixty groups were reported active in 1990, 140 in 1991, and 180 in 1992. Some of the larger groups have been JKLF (Jammu & Kashmir Liberation Front), the Hizb-ul-Mujahideen and, in recent years, also the Harkat-ul-Mujahideen, Lashkar-e-Toiba, and Jesh-e-Mohammad.

Location	Incompatibility	Opposition organization	Year	Intensity level
India – Pakistan	Territory (Kashmir)		1947–48	War
	,		1964	Intermediate
			1965	War
			1971	War
			1984	Intermediate
			1987	Intermediate
			1989–90	Intermediate
			1992	Intermediate
			1996–98	Intermediate
			1999	War
			2000-02	Intermediate
Indonesia	Territory (Aceh)	GAM (Gerakan Aceh Merdeka: Free Aceh Movement)	1989 1990 1991 1999–02	Minor War Intermediate Intermediate
Nepal	Government	CPN-M (Communist Party of Nepal-Maoist)/UPF (United People's Front)	1997–00 2000 2002	Minor Intermediate ⁹ War
Philippines	Government	NPA (New People's Army), RAM-SFP (Reform Movement of the Armed Forces – Soldiers of the Filipino People), ¹⁰ Military faction	1972–80 1981 1982–86 1987–88 1989–92 1993–94 1999–02	Minor Intermediate War Intermediate War Intermediate Intermediate

⁹ Possibly war in 2001. ¹⁰ In 1991, renamed RAM (Revolutionary Alliances of the Masses).

Location	Incompatibility	Opposition organization	Year	Intensity level
	Territory (Mindanao)	MNLF (Moro National Liberation Front)	1970–71 1972–77 1978 1979–80 1981 1982–88	Minor Intermediate War Intermediate War Intermediate
46:		MILF (Moro Islamic Liberation Front), Abu Sayyaf, MNLF (Moro National Liberation Front) faction	1994–99 2000 2001-02	Intermediate War Intermediate
Africa				
Algeria	Government	Takfir wa'l Hijra (Exile and Redemption), MIA (Mouvement islamique armée: Armed Islamic Movement), FIS (al-Jabhat al-Inqadh al-Islami; Front islamique du salut: Islamic Salvation Front), GIA (Groupe islamique armé: Armed Islamic group), GSPC (al-Jama'ah al-Salafiyah lil-Da'wah wa'l-Qital; Groupe Salafite pour la prédication et le combat: Salafist Group for Preaching and Combat)	1991–92 1993–01 2002	Minor War Intermediate
Angola ¹¹	Government ¹²	UNITA (União Nacional para a Independência Total de Angola: National Union for the Total Independence of Angola), South Africa, FNLA (Frente Nacional da Libertação de Angola: National Front for the Liberation of Angola), MPLA faction, ¹³ Zaire	1975–94 1995 1998–01 2002	War Intermediate ¹⁴ War Intermediate
	Territory (Cabinda)	FLEC-R (Frente da Libertação do Enclave de Cabinda–Renovada: Front for the Liberation of the Enclave of Cabinda-Renewed), FLEC–FAC (Frente da Libertação do Enclave de Cabinda–Forças Armadas de Cabinda: Front for the Liberation of the Enclave of Cabinda–Armed Forces of Cabinda)	1991 1994 1996–98 2002	Minor Minor Minor Minor

¹¹ Supported by troops from Cuba until 1989. Supported by troops from Namibia in 1999–2002.
12 From 1990, only activity involving the government of Angola and UNITA.
13 MPLA faction only active in 1977.
14 Possibly war in 1995.

Location	Incompatibility	Opposition organization	Year	Intensity level
Burundi	Government	Ubumwé, Palipehutu (Parti pour la libération du peuple Hutu: Party for the Liberation of the Hutu People), CNDD (Conseil national pour la défense de la démocratie: National Council for the Defense of Democracy), Frolina (Front pour la libération nationale: National Liberation Front), CNDD-FDD (Conseil national pour la défense de la démocratie-Forces pour la défense de la démocratie: National Council for the Defense of Democracy–Forces for the Defense of Democracy), ¹⁵ Palipehutu–FNL (Parti pour la libération du peuple Hutu–Force Nationale de Liberation: Party for the Liberation of the Hutu People–Forces for National Liberation) ¹⁶	1990–92 1995–96 1997 1998 1999 2000–02	Minor Minor ¹⁷ Intermediate ¹⁸ War Intermediate ¹⁹ War
Central African Republic ²⁰	Government	Military faction Forces of François Bozize	2001 2002	Minor Minor
Chad	Government	FARF (Forces armées pour la République fédérale: Armed Forces of the Federal Republic), MDJT (Mouvement pour la démocratie et la justice au Tchad: Movement for Democracy and Justice in Chad)	1997–02	Minor ²¹
Congo Brazzaville ²²	Government	Ninjas, Cobras, Angola, ²³ Cocoyes, Ntsiloulous	1993–94 1997–98 1999 2002	Minor War Intermediate Intermediate
Ethiopia	Territory (Ogaden)	ONLF (Ogaden National Liberation Front)	1996 1998–02	Minor Minor ²⁴

¹⁵ In 2001, CNDD-FDD split into the CNDD-FDD/Ndayikengurukiye faction and the CNDD-FDD/Nkurunziza faction.

¹⁶ In 2002, Palipehutu–FNL split into the Palipehutu-FNL/Rwasa faction and the Palipehutu–FNL/Mugabarabona faction. ¹⁷ Possibly intermediate in 1995–96.

¹⁸ Possibly war in 1997.

¹⁹ Possibly war in 1999.

²⁰ Supported by troops from Libya in 2001–02.

²¹ Possibly intermediate by 2001.

²² Supported by troops from Angola and Chad in 1998–99. Supported by troops from Angola in 2002.

²³ Angola only active in 1997.

²⁴ Possibly intermediate by 2001.

Location	Incompatibility	Opposition organization	Year	Intensity level
	Territory (Oromiya)	OLF (Oromo Liberation Front)	1989–91 1999–02	Minor Minor ²⁵
Ivory Coast	Government	MPCI (Mouvement patriotique de la Côte d'Ivoire: Patriotic Movement of Ivory Coast), MJP (Mouvement pour la justice et la paix: Movement for Justice and Peace), MPIGO (Mouvement populaire ivorian du Grand Ouest: Ivorian Movement for the Greater West)	2002	Minor
Liberia	Government	LURD (Liberians United for Reconciliation and Democracy)	2000-02	Minor ²⁶
Rwanda	Government	Opposition alliance ²⁷	1998 1999–00 2001 2002	War Intermediate War Intermediate
Somalia ²⁸	Government	Military faction SSDF (Somali Salvation Democratic Front), SNM (Somali National Movement), SPM (Somali Patriotic Movement), USC (United Somali Congress) [led by Madhi], USC (United Somali Congress) faction [led by Aideed] SRRC (Somali Reconciliation and Restoration Council)		Minor Minor Intermediate War Intermediate Minor
Sudan	Government/Territory (Southern Sudan)	SPLM (Sudan People's Liberation Movement), Faction of SPLM, NDA (National Democratic Alliance) ²⁹	1983–92 1993–94 1995–02	War Intermediate ³⁰ War

²⁵ Possibly intermediate by 2001. Possibly war in 2002.

²⁶ Possible intermediate 2001. Possibly war in 2002.

²⁷ Opposition alliance consists of the ALiR (l'Armée pour la Libération du Rwanda: Army for the Liberation of Rwanda) and the FDLR (Forces démocratiques de liberation du Rwanda: Democratic Forces of Rwanda), which the government argues consists of Forces armées rwandaises (the former Rwandan Armed Forces, ex-FAR) and Interahamwé militia.

²⁸ Somalia is not included as an armed conflict in 1997–2000 since no government can be identified. If the government criterion is disregarded, Somalia would be included for the years 1997–2000 as an intermediate armed conflict, since it meets the other criteria of armed conflict.

 $^{^{29}\,\}mathrm{NDA}$ includes SPLM as its largest member organization.

³⁰ Possibly war in 1993–94.

Location	Incompatibility	Opposition organization	Year	Intensity level
Uganda	Government	LRA (Lord's Resistance Army), WNBF (West Nile Bank Front), ADF (Alliance of Democratic Forces)	1994–95 1 996–02	Minor Intermediate ³¹
Americas				
Colombia	Government	FARC (Fuerzas armadas revolucionarias colombianas: Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia), ELN (Ejército de liberación nacional: National Liberation Army), EPL (Ejército popular de liberación: People's liberation Army), M-19 (Movimiento 19 de Abril: April 19 Movement), Faction of FARC, Faction of ELN, MAO (Movimiento de autodefensa obrera: Workers' Self-Defence Movement), Quintin lame ³²	1965–79 1980–88 1989–90 1991 1992–93 1994–97 1998–02	Minor ³³ Intermediate ³⁴ War Intermediate War Intermediate War
USA ³⁵	Government	al-Qaeda (The Base)	2001 2002	War Intermediate

³¹ Possibly war in 2002.

³² Only FARC and ELN active in 1992–2002.

³³ It is unclear when the conflict changed from minor to intermediate.

³⁴ Possibly war in several of the years.

³⁵ Supported by the Multinational Coalition, in 2001, comprising troops from Australia, Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Jordan, Netherlands, Poland, Russia, Turkey, and the United Kingdom. In 2002, the coalition also included troops from the Czech Republic, Denmark, Greece, New Zealand, Norway, Pakistan, Romania, South Korea, and Spain. Russia was only active in 2001. USA was also supported by troops from Afghanistan in 2002.

Appendix 2. Unclear Cases in 2002

Cases which have been completely rejected on the grounds that they definitely do not meet the criteria of armed conflict are not included in the list below. For the conflicts listed here, the available information suggests the *possibility* of the cases meeting the criteria of armed conflicts, but there is insufficient information concerning at least one of the three components of the definition: (1) the number of deaths (e.g. there are reports on

the use of armed force, but the number of deaths cannot be verified); (2) the identity or level of organization of a party; or (3) the type of incompatibility. For a complete list of unclear cases 1946–2002, see the website for the data (http://www.pcr.uu.se or http://www.prio.no/jpr/datasets.asp). Unclear cases are also discussed in appendices to the earlier annual articles in *JPR* by Wallensteen & Axell and Wallensteen & Sollenberg.

Location/government	Incompatibility	Opposition organization				
Algeria	Government	GSPC (al-Jama'ah al-Salafiyah lil-Da'wah wal-Qital; Groupe Salafite pour la prédication et le combat: Salafi				
		Group for Preaching and Combat)				
Chad	Government	Forces of Abdoulaye Miskine				
	Government	ANR (National Resistance Army)				
Ethiopia	Government	EPPF (Ethiopian People's Patriotic Front)				
•	Government	BPLM (Benshangul People's Liberation Movement)				
Guinea	Government	RFDG (Rassemblement des forces démocratiques de				
		Guineé: Rally of Democratic Forces of Guinea)				
India	Territory (Nagaland)	NSCN (National Socialist Council of Nagaland)				
India	Territory (Manipur)	UNLF (United National Liberation Front)				
Iran	Government	Mujahideen-e-Khalq				
Myanmar	Territory (Kaya)	KNPP (Karenni National Progressive Party)				
Senegal	Territory (Casamance)	MDFC (Mouvement des forces démocratiques de				
-		Casamance: Movement of the Democratic Forces of the				
		Casamance)				

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