



STABILITY OPERATIONS IN HAITI 2010: A CASE STUDY

Emma Vialpando



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Table of Contents

Table of Contents	ii
Foreword	iii
About the Author	iv
Introduction	1
Background and Strategic Conditions for the Operation	4
Operational Environment	19
Strategic Guidance	32
Design and Planning	34
Deployment and Intervention	50
Assessment and Insights	72
Conclusion	83
Appendix A: Glossary of Acronyms	87
Appendix B: Chronology	94
Appendix C: Biographical Sketches of Key Leaders	99
Appendix D: Key U.S. Actors and Roles in Foreign Humanitarian Assistance /Disaster Relief	106
Appendix E: Units Assigned to or Supporting JTF-Haiti	112
Appendix F: References	119
End Notes	124

FOREWORD

This stability operations case study project emerged from a Joint Requirements Oversight Council task to examine how Joint Professional Military Education (JPME) institutions teach operational planning for steady-state peacekeeping and stability operations. The Joint Staff J-7 requested the U.S. Army Peacekeeping and Stability Operations Institute (PKSOI), as the Joint Proponent for Peace and Stability Operations, accomplish a number of tasks to improve JPME curricula. As part of this effort, PKSOI is developing a series of professionally focused, historical case studies of successful joint peacekeeping and stability operations. The purpose of these case studies is to provide balanced analyses of the strategic conditions and guidance underlying each selected operation, and describe how military leaders successfully interpreted and implemented this guidance during the conduct of joint operations. The case studies provide current and future military leaders with insights into the principles and challenges of stability operations, and describe practical approaches for designing, planning, and conducting joint operations in a complex environment, particularly in situations when the Department of Defense does not lead the U.S. Government effort. Each case study will focus on answering the question: “Did the joint force commander and staff effectively design, plan, and establish the mission in a way that provided for initial operational success, while establishing the basis for long-term operational and strategic success?”

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ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Emma Vialpando is a defense consultant in Washington, DC. She has 14 years of experience working within the Department of Defense, the Department of Homeland Security, Congress, and the think tank community. She specializes in design and strategy development, and assists clients to develop and implement new ideas and solutions to keep up with their changing environments. Ms. Vialpando holds a Master in International Relations from the John Hopkins School of Advanced International Studies.

While at Booz Allen, Ms. Vialpando has worked with the Department of Defense to develop transformational concepts. She was the lead author of the 2010 Joint Security Concept for the former U.S. Joint Forces Command. She was also the co-author for the revision to the 2006 Military Support to Stabilization, Security, Transition and Reconstruction Joint Operating Concept.

From 2007-2008, Ms. Vialpando was an Associate Fellow at the Center for a New American Security, a national-security think tank in Washington D.C. During this time, she contributed as drafter and editor to multiple policy reports to include: *Shaping U.S. Ground Forces for the Future: Getting Expansion Right and Phased Transition: A Responsible Way Forward and Out of Iraq*. Ms. Vialpando also worked as a staffer to a Member of Congress on the House Armed Services Committee, where she provided analysis and recommendations for key issues.

INTRODUCTION

The stability operation in Haiti from January 14 to June 1, 2010 demonstrated how over a dozen U.S. Government departments and agencies worked together effectively in an unprecedented large-scale foreign humanitarian assistance/disaster relief (FHA/DR) effort. The 7.0 magnitude earthquake that struck Haiti on January 12, 2010, precipitated the operation. The Haiti action, known within the U.S. military as Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE, was not only a whole-of-government, but also a whole-of-nation and global undertaking. The United States played a significant role in the Haiti earthquake relief effort in collaboration with more than 140 countries and over 1,000 non-governmental organizations (NGOs).¹ Its objective was to alleviate human suffering in the immediate aftermath of the earthquake, establish a safe and secure environment for humanitarian aid distribution, and set the conditions for a transition to a longer-term recovery effort by the Haitian Government, the United Nations (UN), and the NGOs.

One day after the earthquake, President Barack Obama appointed the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) as the lead federal agency for the U.S. response effort, in charge of coordinating the activities of 14 federal departments and agencies, many of which had never participated in an overseas disaster relief operation. As a supporting entity, the Joint Force facilitated the broader humanitarian effort by conducting a wide range of activities, such as re-opening the damaged Port-au-Prince airport and seaport, creating logistical hubs to support the delivery of humanitarian aid, managing the arrival

and departure of planes and ships in and out of Haiti, providing security for aid distribution sites and convoys, dispensing emergency medical care, removing rubble, and transporting internally displaced persons (IDPs) to safer areas.

Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE demonstrated how the Joint Force can apply its unique capabilities and expertise, such as in logistics and transportation, assessments, security, engineering, and medical care to an FHA/DR effort. This study examines Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE to provide insight and lessons on how the Joint Force can plan and coordinate with a non-Defense lead federal agency, the UN, and NGOs during a large-scale international crisis. UNIFIED RESPONSE highlights how the Joint Force can not only support the immediate activities to relieve human suffering, but also help set the conditions for long-term recovery and reconstruction efforts.

This case study includes eight sections. “Background and Strategic Conditions for the Operation” describes the legacy of colonial rule in Haiti, the U.S. Marine Corps occupation from 1915-1932, and also the government, society, economy, and geography of the country. In many respects, Haiti’s history and culture help to explain the difficult circumstances that confronted the Haitian Government in providing an adequate response to the earthquake. “Operational Environment” describes conditions in Haiti after the earthquake and the operational challenges the Joint Force faced (e.g., lack of host nation infrastructure, limited situational awareness, etc.). This section introduces the principal Joint Force partners during Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE, and describes the response architecture of both the U.S. Government and the UN. “Strategic Guidance” provides an overview of U.S.

interests and policies in Haiti, which shaped the operational direction given to commanders. “Design and Planning” examines the formation of Joint Task Force (JTF) Haiti and assesses its mission, task organization, and desired end state for the operation. This section also discusses how JTF-Haiti conducted joint planning as well as planning with U.S. and multinational partners. It also addresses how the JTF engaged the media and conducted public communication. “Deployment and Intervention” describes the unfolding of events across the four phases of Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE. This section discusses how the Joint Force provided support across key activities, such as search and rescue, humanitarian assistance, logistics, assessments, security, and medical care. “Assessment and Insights” examines Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE through the prism of the eight principles of stability operations. The “Conclusion” provides overarching observations and distills a series of best practices derived from this study. The case study includes six appendices with supplemental materials to aid in a more detailed study of the operation.

The examination of Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE is important to the education of military and civilian national security leaders. Arguably, the operation marks the first time the U.S. Government conducted a comprehensive response of this scale and sophistication to an international emergency as severe as the Haitian earthquake. This case study assesses the Joint Force’s supporting role to USAID as the lead federal agency and discusses innovations (e.g., new organizations, processes, procedures) developed as a part of the operation. The case study examines how best to employ the Joint Force as part of an FHA/DR effort and identifies potential areas of activity during

the conduct of operations in the future. The case study also assesses the lessons of building a JTF in the midst of on-going deployments and operations. The nation's civilian leaders are likely to call upon the Joint Force again to participate in large-scale FHA/DR efforts.

BACKGROUND AND STRATEGIC CONDITIONS FOR THE OPERATION

Due to its geographic proximity and strategic position astride important shipping lanes, Haiti has long had strategic importance to the United States. Instability on the island nation has had a history of affecting the U.S. mainland, and the United States has intervened militarily in Haiti on a number of occasions. The earthquake that struck Haiti on January 12, 2010 was one of the deadliest natural disasters to have impacted the area in modern times, and it was an unprecedented human tragedy. There was little doubt that the United States would play a leading role as part of the international humanitarian response.

Geography

Haiti spans about 28,000 square kilometers, about the size of the state of Maryland. It occupies the western third of the Caribbean Island of Hispaniola, with the Dominican Republic taking up the eastern two-thirds of the island. Shaped like a horseshoe, Haiti has two main peninsulas, one in the north and one in the south. In addition to the mainland, Haiti controls several nearby islands. Four islands of notable size in Haitian territorial waters are *Ile de la Gonâve*, *Ile de la Tortue* (Tortuga Island), *Grande Cayemite*, and *Ile à Vache*. About 55 miles northwest of the northern peninsula is the Windward Passage, a strip of water that separates Haiti from Cuba.²

The mainland of Haiti has three regions: the northern region, the central region, and the southern region. Each of these regions contains a tapestry of moun-

tains, plateaus, and rivers.

In the north, the *Massif du Nord* (Northern Massif) is a mountain range that also extends into the Dominican Republic and ranges in elevation from 600 to 1,000 meters. The *Plaine du Nord* (Northern Plain) lies along



the northern border with the Dominican Republic, between the *Massif du Nord* and the North Atlantic Ocean. The main river in the northern region is *Les Trois Rivières*, or The Three Rivers, which is 90 miles long and averages 200 feet wide.³

In the central region, the *Plaine de l'Artibonite* surrounds Haiti's longest and most important river: the Artibonite. This 250-mile river provides the largest drainage system in the country. During the dry season (November–January), the Artibonite River is only about three feet deep, and it may even dry up completely in certain spots. During the wet season (February–May), the river can reach depths of more than 30 feet and produce flooding in surrounding areas. This pattern of slowing to a trickle during the dry season and carrying torrential flows during the wet season is common among many of Haiti's other rivers.

Another key geographical feature in the central region is the *Plateau Central* (Central Plateau), which extends along both sides of the Guayamouc River, one of the principal tributaries of the Artibonite River. To the southwest of the *Plateau Central* is the *Montagnes Noires*, a mountain range with elevations that reach 600 meters. The *Chaîne des Matheux* and the *Montagnes du Trou d'Eau* are two other mountain ranges in the central region, which are an extension of the *Sierra de Neiba* range of the Dominican Republic.

The southern region contains the *Plaine du Cul-de-Sac* depression and the mountainous southern peninsula. The *Plaine du Cul-de-Sac* is a sunken area, about seven miles wide, that extends 20 miles from the border with the Dominican Republic to the coast on the Port-au-Prince bay. The mountains of the southern peninsula are an extension of the *Sierra de Baoruco* in the Dominican Republic. The range's highest peak, the *Morne de la Selle*, has the utmost elevation in Haiti, rising to an altitude of about one-and-a-half miles. The most prominent body of water in the southern region is the salt-water lake, *Etang Saumâtre*, located at the eastern end of the *Plaine du Cul-de-Sac* depression.

Haiti has a generally hot and humid tropical climate with temperatures ranging from 59° Fahrenheit in the winter to 95° Fahrenheit during the summer. The average annual rainfall ranges from 55 to 80 inches, but it is unevenly distributed throughout the country. Generally, heavier rainfall occurs in the southern peninsula and in the northern plains and mountains. The western coast from the northern peninsula to Port-au-Prince, the capital, is relatively dry.⁴

Society

Haiti has a population of approximately 10 million people, with an annual growth rate of about 1.17 percent. The median age is 22.5 years old, and the majority of the population is under 25 (Figure 1). Ninety-five percent of Haiti's population is black, with the remaining being mulatto and white. Haiti has two official languages: French and Creole.⁵

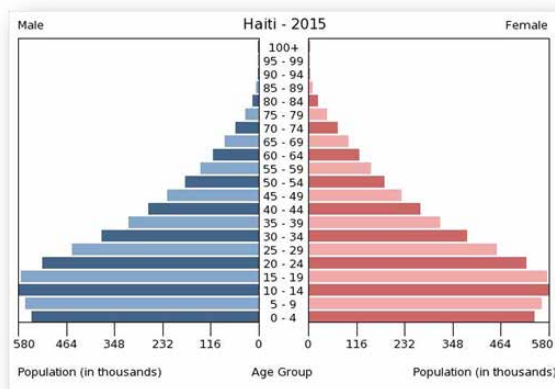


Figure 1 - Haiti's Population Structure

With a 70 percent unemployment rate, approximately four-fifths of Haitians live in extreme poverty and more than half suffer from malnutrition. Each year, tens of thousands of people die from preventable disease related to a lack of clean water. The average life expectancy is only 50 years.⁶

Currently, 60 percent of the population resides in urban areas, and the annual rate of urbanization is about three percent. The principal city is Port-au-Prince, which in 2015 had approximately 2.4 million

people.⁷ Since the 1950s, there has been significant migration from rural to urban areas, due in part to environmental degradation (e.g., soil erosion, deforestation), decreasing farm plot sizes, outdated farming techniques and means of production, and unsuccessful agricultural policies. In Port-au-Prince, the influx of migrants from the countryside has increased the pressure on the limited infrastructure. Authorities have been unable to provide adequate urban planning and facilitate development to address the needs of an expanding population. The steady and uncontrolled movement of migrants to the outskirts of the capital has created an ever widening belt of slums. As a consequence of shoddy construction practices, many of the buildings in Port-au-Prince did not withstand the 2010 earthquake and were completely destroyed.

Government

Haiti is a republic with three branches of government: legislative, executive, and judicial. The legislature has two chambers, the House of Deputies and the Senate. Deputies and senators are selected via direct elections. Deputies represent municipalities (or communes), and senators represent geographic regions. In the executive branch, the president serves as head of state. He is responsible for choosing a prime minister, from the majority party in the legislature, to head the government. The executive branch includes a number of cabinet ministers (e.g., Minister of Foreign Affairs, Minister of Defense, Minister of Economy and Finance). The judiciary consists of the Court of Cassation (Supreme Court), courts of appeal, and other smaller, local courts. The president appoints judges, who are drawn from a list of possible candidates sub-

mitted by various elected bodies, including the Senate as well as the departmental and municipal assemblies.

Economy

Haiti is the poorest country in the Western Hemisphere with 80 percent of the population living in poverty. About two-fifths of all Haitians depend on the agricultural sector, with many individuals taking part in small-scale subsistence farming. A lack of resources, corruption, a vulnerability to natural disasters, and low levels of education are among Haiti's most serious impediments to economic growth. The country also has a poor infrastructure, including unreliable access to electricity. Remittances from expatriates are the primary source of foreign exchange, totaling one-fifth of Haiti's gross domestic product (GDP) in 2012, which was more than five times the earnings from exports. Haiti suffers from a chronic lack of both private and public investment. The government relies on international economic assistance to sustain its finances, with over half of its annual budget coming from outside sources.⁸

Colonization and Independence

The modern history of Haiti began when Christopher Columbus discovered the Island of Hispaniola in 1492. After 200 years of Spanish colonial rule, the western third of the island was ceded to France as part of the Treaty of Ryswick in 1697. Under the French, St. Domingue – as Haiti was then known – became one of the richest colonies in the Western Hemisphere, due to sugar, coffee, indigo, and cotton production. This economic boom was fueled by inexpensive labor,

made possible by the large-scale importation of West African slaves – who were brought to Haiti because of their immunity to the diseases introduced by Europeans to the New World.⁹

In 1791, inspired by the French and American Revolutions, Haitian slaves, led by Toussaint l’Ouverture, began what became known as the Haitian Revolution. At the peak of the struggle, Toussaint amassed an army of more than 20,000 slaves, and over the course of the next thirteen years, the Haitians fought the French to a standstill. In 1802, Napoleon Bonaparte sent 17,000 soldiers under the command of General Victor-Emmanuel Leclerc to restore French authority in Haiti. Leclerc made several gains initially, as coastal cities and towns succumbed to his conventional tactics and superior firepower. The French were also successful in capturing Toussaint and imprisoning him in France. However, the Haitian resistance remained resolute and eventually French forces, worn down by combat, the severe environment, and yellow fever, withdrew in 1803. On January 1, 1804, the Haitians proclaimed their independence and established the Republic of Haiti.¹⁰

Although free from Spanish and French colonial rule, Haitians lacked experience in self-government and were unable to develop a political agreement on a way forward for the country. The racial caste system, a pre-revolution legacy, created obstacles to achieving a civic consensus. Those who led the early state were predominantly mulattos, who had been free before the revolution and believed in the continuation of a plantation economy with West African blacks as the primary laborers. Although the slave laborers won their freedom in the revolution and outnumbered the ruling class, their lack of leadership, education, and

organization made it difficult to turn their numerical superiority to political advantage. Consequently, Haiti's independence did not end the exploitation of agricultural laborers.¹¹

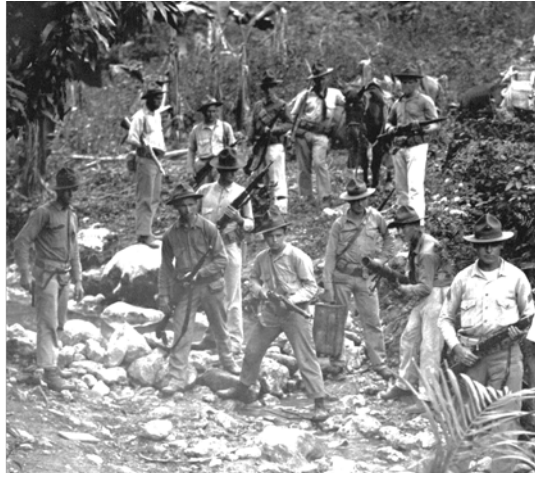
After the revolution, Jean-Jacques Dessalines, a general who had served with Toussaint, named himself governor-general for life. Opposed by the mulatto elite for his intention to nationalize land, Dessalines was murdered in 1806. During the ensuing political struggle, Haiti splintered into a northern and a southern state, each with its own president. In 1820, Jean-Pierre Boyer reunited Haiti and served as president until 1843, when he fled to Jamaica because of a popular uprising. With his departure, Haiti plunged into a prolonged period of political chaos, assassinations, and social upheaval.¹²

U.S. Military Occupation of Haiti

The 1823 Monroe Doctrine indicated that the United States would view European efforts to colonize land or interfere with states in North or South America as acts of aggression, requiring a U.S. response. Since this policy pronouncement, a series of U.S. administrations were keen on limiting European influence and control in the Americas. In the 1824 Franco-Haitian Agreement, France agreed to recognize Haitian independence, if Haiti paid a large sum as compensation. This provision kept Haiti in a state of indebtedness and placed France in a position of power over Haiti's trade and finances.

The United States did not officially recognize Haiti until 1862, decades after the Caribbean country achieved its independence. Washington was slow to acknowledge Haiti's status as an independent state, in

large part due to pressure from the southern U.S. states, who were leery of recognizing the legitimacy of the Haitian slave revolt. The U.S. policy towards Haiti focused initially on maintaining a positive economic relationship and



U.S. Marines and guide in search of bandits. Haiti, circa 1919.

Source: echodesmontaes.blogspot.com

limiting foreign influence in the country. However, France, as the former colonial power, retained strong economic and diplomatic ties with the Haitian Government. In response, U.S. President Andrew Johnson briefly considered annexing Hispaniola in 1868. From 1889 to 1891, the U.S. Department of State sought unsuccessfully to lease the northern Haitian city of Mole-Saint Nicolas to establish a naval base. In 1910, President William Howard Taft granted Haiti a large loan in hopes the Caribbean country could pay off its international debt, thus lessening European influence.¹³ Washington became increasingly concerned with German activity and influence in Haiti during this period, as German merchants dominated commercial businesses in the country. The United States considered Germany its chief rival in the Caribbean, and Washington feared that control over Haiti would give the Germans a powerful advantage in the region.¹⁴

Internal instability in Haiti was also a concern for the United States. Between 1911 and 1915, seven presidents were assassinated or overthrown in Haiti, increasing U.S. policymakers' fear of foreign intervention. On July 28, 1915, Haitian President Guillaume Sam was murdered by a street mob in Port-au-Prince. President Woodrow Wilson ordered the U.S. Navy to land a battalion of U.S. Marines that same day in an effort to reestablish order in the capital. The Marines reinforced the initial landing force with a brigade and fought a three-month counterinsurgency campaign. The U.S. Marine presence was formalized with the Haitian-American Treaty of 1915, leading to a 19-year U.S. military occupation of the country. The agreement created the Haitian Gendarmerie, which was a paramilitary force made up of U.S. citizens and Haitians under the control of the U.S. Marines. The United States also gained complete control over Haitian finances and the right to intervene in Haiti, whenever the U.S. Government deemed it necessary to protect its interests in the region. As part of his anti-imperialism policy, President Franklin D. Roosevelt ended the U.S. occupation on August 15, 1934.¹⁵

The Duvalier Family Rule

The Duvalier family would come to dominate Haiti's political life from 1957 to 1986. First Francois Duvalier ("Papa Doc") and then his son Jean-Claude ("Baby Doc") ruled Haiti and appointed themselves "president for life." Bent on retaining power at all costs, the Duvaliers levied heavy taxes to finance the military, the paramilitary security forces, and their family's vast personal expenses. Under their rule, Haiti suffered from human rights violations that included

the imprisonment and torture of the regime's political opponents, media censorship, extrajudicial killings, and embezzlement. While the anti-communist stance of the Duvalier family protected the regime from foreign intervention, a popular revolt finally ended the 30-year rule in 1986.

In an effort to prevent this type of dictatorship from reemerging, the 1987 Constitution reduced the president's powers, decentralized governmental authority, and established elected councils to fulfill local government responsibilities. In addition, the new constitution separated police and army functions, which the Duvaliers had previously combined, and established the government structure that exists today.¹⁶

The United Nations Mission in Haiti

Following the departure of the Duvaliers, Haiti experienced a series of *coups d'états* and provisional governments until December 1990, when Jean-Bertrand Aristide became Haiti's first democratically elected president. President Aristide took office in February 1991 but was overthrown in yet another *coup d'état* and forced to leave the country a few months later. Although a provisional government was established following Aristide's departure, the true power remained with the Haitian military.

Operation UPHOLD DEMOCRACY

In 1991, in an attempt to restore democratic governance in Haiti, the George H.W. Bush Administration worked with the Organization of American States (OAS) to impose a trade embargo on Haiti, affecting all goods except medicine and food. President William

J. Clinton continued this policy, increasing economic and diplomatic pressure on the military junta. In addition, the UN imposed a ban on petroleum sales to Haiti.¹⁷ In September 1993, UN Security Council Resolution 867 established the United Nations Mission in Haiti (UNMIH) to assist in democratizing the government, professionalizing the armed forces, creating and training a separate police force, and establishing an environment conducive to free and fair elections.¹⁸ However, the UN and other international agencies left Haiti a month later in October 1993, due to the continued instability created by the transitional government and the inability to move forward with the UN goal of reestablishing Haiti's fledgling democracy.¹⁹

Neither economic sanctions nor diplomacy had any effect. By September 1994, the United States saw no other option than to initiate military action to reinstate President Aristide. To this end, the United States led a UN-authorized mission, known as Operation UPHOLD DEMOCRACY (September 19, 1994 – March 31, 1995). Originally, the U.S. military planned a forced entry into Haiti to compel the Haitian Armed Forces and police to stand aside, while the legitimate government reassumed control of the country. Under the direction of U.S. Atlantic Command (USACOM), an airborne invasion was planned, spearheaded by the 82nd Airborne Division and a Joint Special Operations Task Force (JSOTF). In addition, U.S. Navy and Air Force elements would deploy from staging bases in Puerto Rico and southern Florida. However, on the eve of the invasion, former President Jimmy Carter and a U.S. delegation persuaded the Haitian military leaders to step down and allow Aristide to return to power. The political settlement was successful partly because the Haitian military understood a massive in-

vasion force was poised to enter the country. At this point, having reached an agreement, the U.S. military mission changed from a combat operation to a stabilizing and nation building effort, spearheaded by a U.S.-led multinational force. On October 15, 1994, Aristide returned to Haiti to complete his term in office. Operation UPHOLD DEMOCRACY officially ended on March 31, 1995 when UNMIH replaced U.S. forces and resumed stability operations and nation-building efforts.²⁰

Operation SECURE TOMORROW

After Operation UPHOLD DEMOCRACY, UNMIH remained in Haiti to maintain a secure and stable environment and promote the rule of law. The UN Security Council authorized this presence through a series of mandate renewals until 2004. There were some positive developments during this period, including the strengthening of a multifaceted civil society and a political culture based on democratic values. The period included the first peaceful handover of power between two democratically elected presidents in 1996. The 2000 elections brought Aristide back to power for a second non-consecutive term as president. Many voters viewed the election as rigged and, subsequently, in 2001 a three-year violent confrontation began between Aristide supporters and the Revolutionary Front for Haitian Advancement and Progress (*Front pour l'Avancement et le Progrès Haitien*, FRAPH), an opposition paramilitary group. The struggle for power created an environment of intimidation, political assassinations, and human rights abuses.²¹

In February 2004, the United States, along with Canada, France, the OAS, the Caribbean Community

(CARICOM), and the UN developed a peace plan, but the FRAPH rejected it. The situation continued to deteriorate as the FRAPH continued to escalate the violence and expand its territorial control. The Haitian National Police was incapable of reestablishing order among the competing factions.²² When it became clear to President Aristide that he could not regain power, he requested U.S. assistance to depart the country.^{23a}

In accordance with the Haitian constitution, Supreme Court Chief Justice Boniface Alexandre succeeded Aristide as interim president and petitioned the United Nations Security Council for the deployment of an international peacekeeping force. On February 29, 2004, the UN passed Security Council Resolution 1529 authorizing the deployment of a Multinational Interim Force to Haiti to stabilize the country for 90 days and create conditions for a follow-on U.N. Stabilization Force. The UN mandate was to support the constitutional political process in Haiti, enable the provision of humanitarian aid, facilitate international assistance to the Haitian police and Coast Guard to establish and maintain public safety and law and order and to protect human rights, and support the establishment of conditions for international and regional organizations to assist the Haitian people.²³ On the same day the UN resolution was passed, President George W. Bush ordered U.S. Marines into Haiti to help quell civil unrest throughout Port-au-Prince following Aristide's departure. Later that evening, the first elements of a Marine Air Ground Task Force (MAGTF) began arriving in Port-au-Prince. The MAGTF deployment was the first contingent of troops assigned to Operation SECURE TOMORROW (February 29 -June 25, 2004), a U.S.-led and UN-authorized military effort that included troop contributions from France, Canada, and Chile.²⁴

The U.S.-led operation included the formation of Combined Joint Task Force Haiti (CJTF-Haiti), which consisted of U.S., French, Canadian, and Chilean forces. CJTF-Haiti was under the command of U.S. Marine Brigadier General Ronald Coleman, and it had a French Colonel as its Deputy Commander. The CJTF-Haiti forces included a French contingent with an infantry battalion, a support battalion, and special operations forces contingent; a Chilean infantry battalion; U.S. and Canadian forces under the command of MAGTF 8; a U.S. aviation element; a Canadian aviation contingent; and maritime forces under the command of the U.S. Coast Guard.²⁵

By the end of March 2004, CJTF-Haiti had more than 3,000 personnel. Its mission was to create a secure and stable environment in the Haitian capital and promote the constitutional political process by:

- Securing key sites in Port-au-Prince
- Facilitating the delivery of humanitarian assistance
- Protecting U.S. citizens, as required
- Assisting in the repatriation of Haitian migrants interdicted at sea²⁶

The UN Security Council passed resolution 1542 on April 30, 2004, establishing the U.N. Stabilization Mission in Haiti (*Mission des Nations Unies pour la stabilisation en Haïti*, MINUSTAH) under Chapter VII of the U.N. Charter. On June 25, the United States transferred responsibility for the continued peacekeeping effort to the follow-on U.N. stabilization force led by Brazil.²⁷ Within MINUSTAH, the first Special Representative of the Secretary General (SRSG) was Chilean diplomat Juan Gabriel Valdés; the first Force Commander was Major General Augusto Heleno Ribeiro Pereira of Brazil.

UN Stabilization Mission in Haiti

MINUSTAH's mandate was to "ensure a secure and stable environment within which the constitutional and political process in Haiti can take place."²⁸ MINUSTAH was under the leadership of a special representative to UN Secretary General Kofi Atta Annan and included two deputies to oversee different aspects of the UN mission. The principal deputy was primarily responsible for the UN civilian police, human rights, justice, civil affairs, and electoral issues. The other deputy was responsible for humanitarian efforts, including gender equality; children's rights; disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration; HIV/AIDS issues; and other activities of the various UN agencies present in Haiti. MINUSTAH included a military contingent of up to 6,700 military troops.²⁹ The military force commander, who worked directly for the UN special representative, exercised operational control over ten infantry battalions, two separate infantry companies, and eight specialized detachments (military police, engineers, aviation, medical, and logistics). Eighteen countries provided military personnel and 41 countries contributed police officers. When the 2010 earthquake struck, MINUSTAH had been in Haiti for six years and had over 11,000 uniformed and civilian personnel.³⁰

OPERATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

The Earthquake

On January 12, 2010, Haiti experienced the worst natural disaster in its recorded history. The earthquake was also the deadliest global natural catastrophe, causing the greatest number of deaths per capita because of its proximity to the densely populated city of Port-au-Prince (Figure 2).³¹ The epicenter was about 15 miles southwest of Port-au-Prince, but the shallow depth of the quake made the shock waves more pronounced and caused immense damage in the overcrowded and impoverished city. The 7.0 magnitude earthquake affected over 2 million people, displaced 1.6 million, injured 300,000, and killed 230,000. According to USAID, damages from the earthquake amounted to over 115 percent of Haiti’s annual GDP.³² The levels of destruction and suffering in the earthquake’s aftermath prompted an overwhelming response from organizations across the globe, as over 140 countries offered government assistance and over 1,000 charities, private foundations, and other NGOs provided humanitarian relief.³³

Rank	Country	Year	Description	People killed	People killed per million inhabitants	Damages (US Millions, 2009)
	Haiti	2010	Earthquake	200,000 - 250,000	20,000 - 25,000	7,200 - 8,100
1	Nicaragua	1972	Earthquake	10,000	4,046	4,325
2	Guatemala	1976	Earthquake	23,000	3,707	3,725
3	Myanmar	2008	Cyclone Nargis	138,366	2,836	4,113
4	Honduras	1974	Cyclone Fifi	8,000	2,733	2,263
5	Honduras	1998	Cyclone Mitch	14,600	2,506	5,020
6	Sri Lanka	2004	Tsunami*	35,405	1,839	1,494
7	Venezuela	1999	Flood	30,005	1,282	4,072
8	Bangladesh	1991	Cyclone Gorki	139,252	1,232	3,038
9	Solomon Is	1975	Tsunami	200	1,076	n.a.
10	Indonesia	2004	Tsunami*	165,825	772	5,197

*Indian Ocean Tsunami caused a total of 226,000 deaths over 12 countries.
n.a. Not available
Source: Authors' calculations based on EM-DAT and WDI databases.

Source: Guha-Sapir, Debarati, M.S., Ph.D., Thomas Kirsch, M.D., M.P.H., F.A.C.E.P., Shayna Dooling, M.P.H., Adam Stiros, M.P.H., and Maral DerSarkissian, *Independent Review of the U.S. Government Response to the Haiti Earthquake*, p. 17.

Figure 2. Comparison of Global Natural Disasters

In most situations involving large-scale natural disasters, the affected country has principal responsibility for responding to the crisis in partnership with the UN and other international relief organizations.³⁴ However, in the immediate aftermath of the quake, it was impossible for the Haitian government to provide a response that was commensurate with the scale of the calamity. The government was largely incapacitated as 14 out of 16 ministerial and executive buildings were destroyed or severely damaged, to include the Presidential Palace and Parliament building. Further, the bodies of numerous government officials and employees remained within the rubble of these structures. The head of MINUSTAH and his principal deputy were killed when their headquarters collapsed, and about 150 of the organization's personnel were missing immediately following the seismic event.³⁵ Within hours of the earthquake, Haitian President René Préval issued a disaster declaration and requested U.S. assistance. President Préval's top priorities were to conduct search and rescue operations, provide medical and humanitarian assistance, and ensure political stability.³⁶

Operational Challenges

The Haitian earthquake created difficult conditions for the international relief effort, severely damaging the transportation infrastructure, impairing communications throughout much of the country, and disrupting food and water distribution. In Port-au-Prince, the quake damaged or destroyed over 50 percent of the city's dwellings, and thousands of inhabitants were trapped within the rubble of buildings. Debris blocked traffic in the streets, making it difficult

to conduct search and rescue activities and deliver immediate humanitarian assistance. Power was out throughout Port-au-Prince and most communications were disrupted, complicating efforts to develop a clear understanding of the situation and the needs of the survivors. The earthquake also destroyed the country's principal air and sea ports, impeding the delivery of much-needed relief supplies. There was a potential for an outbreak of violence and lawlessness, in particular since thousands of prisoners had escaped from custody in the immediate aftermath of the earthquake. Further complicating relief efforts, a series of aftershocks caused further damage—with 14 significant reverberations occurring within the first day following the main earthquake.³⁷

Thousands of Haitians who survived the earthquake began migrating away from Port-au-Prince to various rural communities across the country. While this movement of displaced persons helped to alleviate some of the pressure on rescue and assistance efforts in the capital, it posed a challenge to relief activities in parts of Haiti's interior. The humanitarian response would need to reach numerous isolated communities across the country. In many cases, people in need of assistance were in locations that did not have a preexisting UN or NGO presence.³⁸

The U.S. Response

USAID, as indicated previously, was the lead federal agency for the U.S. response effort in Haiti. Within USAID, the Office of U.S. Foreign Disaster Assistance (OFDA) assumed primary responsibility for coordinating and managing the FHA/DR effort. Less than 24 hours after the earthquake, USAID set up its

normal disaster response structure, which consisted of a Disaster Assistance Response Team (DART) and a Response Management Team (RMT). The DART deployed into Haiti to manage the U.S. Government response. Typical DART activities include making assessments, recommending response options, coordinating the distribution of relief supplies, and providing liaison with local government officials and NGOs. During FHA/DR operations, the DART coordinates efforts with the U.S. military and other participating federal departments and agencies. Following the Haitian earthquake, USAID stood up the RMT in Washington D.C. to provide leadership and operational support to the DART, focusing on the strategic planning for the response effort and coordinating with other U.S. Government departments/agencies in the National Capital Region (NCR). In this manner, the RMT enabled the DART to focus on providing assistance in the field.³⁹

Although USAID moved quickly, it faced capacity issues from the start, and its staff quickly became overstretched. The RMT/DART structure had difficulty coping with the crisis, due to the scale of the Haitian disaster and the involvement of U.S. Government departments and agencies that did not normally participate in FHA/DR efforts. Compounding these difficulties, the USAID Administrator, Dr. Rajiv Shah, had assumed office only five days prior to the earthquake; many USAID leadership positions important to the Haiti response were vacant; and the new USAID Haiti Mission Director had just arrived one day before the disaster.⁴⁰

USAID created new organizations—including the Office of the Response Coordinator (ORC) in Haiti and an Interagency Task Force in Washington

D.C.—to address coordination challenges. However, these new organizations deviated from the traditional FHA/DR protocols, functioned in parallel with preexisting entities, and caused confusion regarding roles and responsibilities during the early days of the response effort. The role of the ORC, which was headed by the Coordinator for Disaster Response and Reconstruction, was to synchronize USAID management efforts in Haiti and Washington and to coordinate with the Department of Defense (DoD) and other federal departments/agencies on the ground. This was normally the DART's responsibility, and it was unclear initially how the ORC and the DART should work together to coordinate efforts in Haiti. The newly created ORC reported directly to the U.S. Ambassador and the USAID Administrator in Washington D.C. However, the introduction of the ORC added to the complexity of decision-making in Haiti, where the U.S. Ambassador, the USAID Mission Director, and the DART team leader were already fulfilling roles that were defined in preexisting operating procedures.⁴¹

In Washington, the USAID Bureau of Democracy, Conflict and Humanitarian Assistance (DCHA) set up an Interagency Task Force to coordinate efforts across federal departments and agencies in the NCR. Friction soon developed between the Interagency Task Force and the RMT due to their parallel roles and responsibilities. The White House was also actively involved in the crisis and the National Security Council (NSC) Principals Committee, ultimately led the organization of the response effort in Washington. The Deputies Committee and an Interagency Policy Committee conducted strategic planning and policy articulation. Daily meetings among the Principals and Deputies Committee members were critical during the initial stages

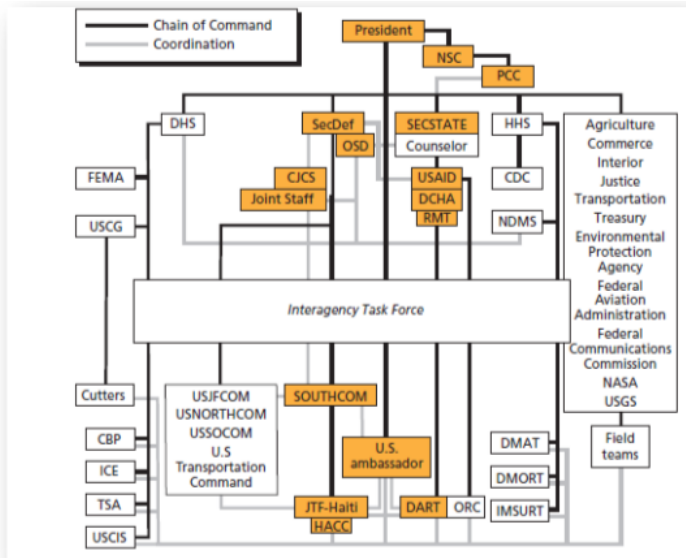
of the FHA/DR effort. Video teleconferences and telephone calls complemented the daily meetings.⁴²

Although the USAID response structure took some time to solidify, the Joint Staff made sure it communicated regularly by establishing a cell within the RMT. The Joint Staff cell included representatives from the J-2, J-3, J-4, and J-5 directorates and became the key point of interface between the RMT and the Joint Staff. The Joint Staff cell operated on a 24-hour schedule, synchronizing current and future operations as well as developing plans. The Joint Staff also enabled connectivity for USAID and the RMT representatives, enabling them to have visibility of DoD planning and execution efforts. USAID officials relied on the Joint Staff cell to communicate many of their priorities for the Haitian FHA/DR effort.⁴³

A unique aspect of the U.S. response centered on the range of organizations taking part in the operation, which included the participation of over a dozen federal departments and agencies. This was the first time the United States involved so many departments and agencies as part of an international relief effort of this type. In addition to the usual organizations that took part in FHA/DR efforts – USAID, the Department of State, and DoD – 11 other departments and agencies joined in the Haiti response, many of which had never before been involved in a FHA/DR operation (Figure 3), including:

- Department of Homeland Security (DHS)
- Department of Health and Human Services (HHS)
- Department of Transportation (DOT)
- U.S. Department of the Treasury (US Treasury)
- Department of Justice (DOJ)
- Department of Commerce (DOC)

- Department of the Interior (DOI)
- U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA)
- Federal Communications Commission (FCC)
- Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)
- National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA).



Source: Cecchine, Gary, Forrest E. Morgan, Michael A. Wermuth, Timothy Jackson, Agnes Gereben Schaefer, Matthew Stafford, *The U.S. Military Response to the 2010 Haiti Earthquake Considerations for Army Leaders*, Washington, DC: RAND, 2013.

The U.S. whole-of-government response involved many additional actors, who do not usually respond to foreign humanitarian assistance efforts. Highlighted in orange are the usual responders during overseas HA/DR efforts.

Figure 3 - The U.S. Government Response Structure

The United Nations Response

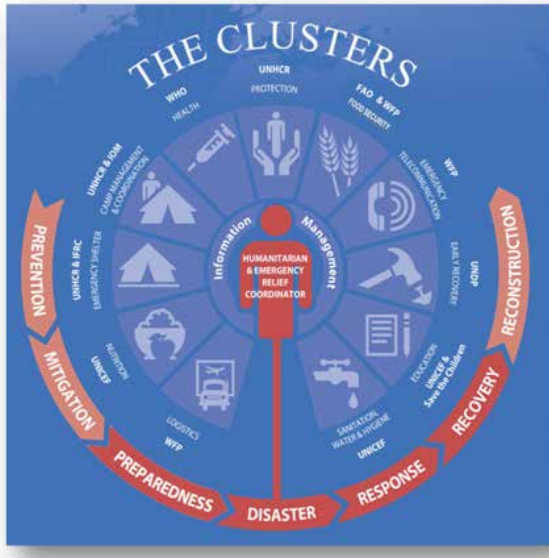
On January 13, UN Secretary General Ban Ki-moon sent Assistant Secretary General Edmond Mulet to Haiti to direct the U.N.'s response operation. Under Secretary Mulet's leadership, the UN organized and

coordinated the Haiti relief effort through its cluster system, which consists of groups of humanitarian organizations—both UN and non-UN—working in the various humanitarian sectors (e.g., shelter, logistics, health, etc.). Clusters are a standard aspect of UN operations, providing a clear point of contact when dealing with humanitarian efforts that involve a number of different organizations. The UN coordinated its clusters through the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Assistance (OCHA), standing up 12 clusters in Haiti:⁴⁴

- Camp Coordination and Camp Management, led by the International Organization for Migration (IOM)
- Emergency Shelter and Non-Food Items, led by IOM
- Education, led by the United Nations Children Emergency Fund (UNICEF)
- Nutrition, led by UNICEF
- Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene, led by UNICEF
- Food, led by the UN World Food Programme (WFP)
- Logistics, led by WFP
- Emergency Telecommunications, led by WFP
- Protection, led by The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR)
- Agriculture, led by the UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)
- Early Recovery, led by the UN Development Programme (UNDP)
- Health, led by the World Health Organization (WHO)

Initially, the UN clusters concentrated in Port-au-Prince, but after the first week following the earthquake, OCHA deployed staff in Jacmal and Leogane to work with the NGOs in providing assistance to the affected population southwest of Port-au-Prince.⁴⁵

The UN cluster system (Figure 4) was designed to coordinate a couple hundred organizations, but in Haiti the system had to work with over 1,000 international organizations that were looking to the UN for leadership and strategic direction.⁴⁶ Although the UN activated many clusters within the first three days of the crisis, it took two weeks for all clusters to become functional. One reason for the slow operational start was that many UN and cluster lead agencies were severely affected by the earthquake. Not only had they lost family members, friends, and colleagues, but their offices were damaged, and many personnel were forced to move into makeshift shelters at the MINUSTAH logistics base. In addition, many clusters were unable to identify and deploy senior and experienced coordinators rapidly, leading to a leadership gap—and a resulting lack of coordination—in some critical sectors.⁴⁷



Source: The United Nations Office for the Coordination of humanitarian Affairs. Retrieved from <http://www.unocha.org/what-we-do/coordination-tools/cluster-coordination>.

Figure 4. The UN Cluster System

Initially, the UN clusters were uncertain of how to integrate MINUSTAH and other military forces into the response effort. There was no clear guidance explaining how OCHA and the clusters should interface with the integrated civil-military MINUSTAH organization. MINUSTAH had taken on humanitarian assistance responsibilities during its previous six years in Haiti, and at the onset of the 2010 relief effort, there was an unclear division of roles and responsibilities between MINUSTAH and OCHA. These factors slowed international coordination in Haiti, as the clusters waited too long to engage MINUSTAH and the other foreign military forces that responded to the disaster. For instance, the OCHA field offices did not take advantage of the presence of MINUSTAH Civil

Affairs Officers, who had good local knowledge and long-standing relations with Haitian authorities. Consequently, there were lost opportunities in developing a unified international approach.⁴⁸

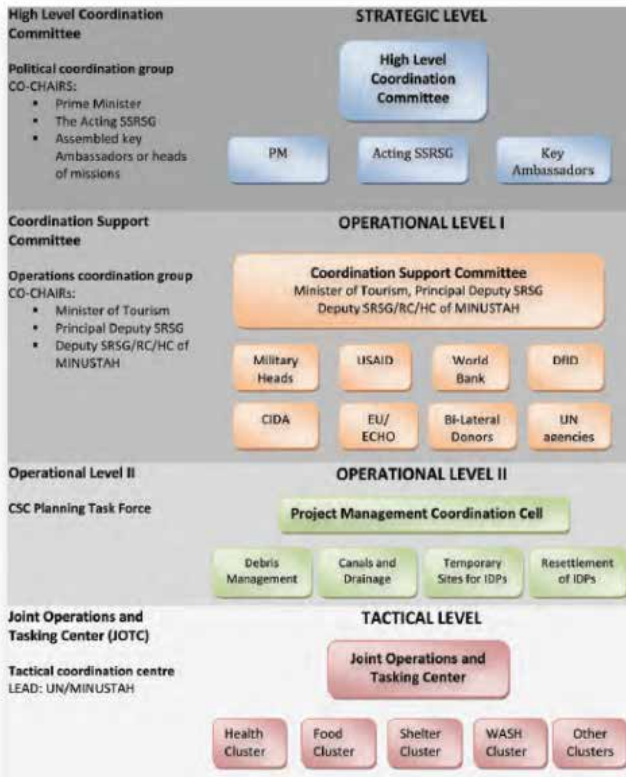
Eventually, OCHA worked with MINUSTAH to set up the Joint Operations and Tasking Centre (JOTC), as a single point of contact for requests for military or police assistance. This venue ensured the MINUSTAH military and police forces received validated and prioritized requests from humanitarian organizations through a single source. The JOTC became operational on January 26, working in close partnership with the Haitian government and the humanitarian relief community.⁴⁹

In addition to the JOTC, the international coordination architecture involved a number of committees and forums. Initially, the Haitian Government established the Presidential Commission on Recovery and Reconstruction to work with the UN cluster groups in prioritizing and coordinating humanitarian needs. Eventually, a multi-tiered structure evolved with the High Level Coordination Committee (HLCC) leading the international relief effort (Figure 5). The HLCC was co-chaired by the Haitian Prime Minister and the Acting UN SRSG and included key ambassadors and mission heads. The HLCC facilitated policy development for the relief effort and played a critical role in validating decisions by officials at the operational level.⁵⁰

The HLCC was supplemented with a Coordination Support Committee (CSC) chaired by the Haitian Minister of Tourism, the UN Principal Deputy SRSG, and the Deputy SRSG/Resident Coordinator (RC)/Humanitarian Coordinator (HC) of MINUSTAH. The CSC was comprised of the in-country heads of the

military and political organizations responding to the crisis and of the major bilateral and multilateral aid donors in Haiti. The CSC considered various public health challenges (e.g., sanitation, shelter, debris management) and geographic concerns (assessing the situation in areas beyond Port-au-Prince), enabling a coherent determination of priorities and helping to focus donor and military operational support. The selection of CSC issues was based on: priority, complexity, and the involvement of multiple actors. The CSC also established subsidiary planning and working groups, to address issues such as debris management and camp planning.⁵¹

A key component of the CSC was the Project Management Coordination Cell (PMCC), which facilitated an integrated approach to the development and implementation of project plans between the Haitian government, donors, NGOs, UN agencies, MINUSTAH, and the U.S. military. The PMCC's main areas of focus included: debris management, the improvement of canals and drainage, preparation of temporary sites for displaced persons, and registration and movement of IDPs to safe sites. The U.S. military, especially staff from the Army Corps of Engineers, and MINUSTAH provided critical technical assistance to the PMCC.⁵²



Source: Guha-Sapir, Debarati, M.S., Ph.D., Thomas Kirsch, M.D., M.P.H., F.A.C.E.P., Shayna Dooling, M.P.H., Adam Sirois, M.P.H., with assistance from Maral Der Sarkissian, *Independent Review of the U.S. Government Response to the Haiti Earthquake*, U.S. Agency for International Development, March 28, 2011, p. 72.

Figure 5. International Coordination Architecture

STRATEGIC GUIDANCE

Haiti’s security and stability have long been of strategic importance to the United States. The Caribbean country’s close proximity to U.S. territory has frequently meant that disturbances on the island nation can spillover and affect U.S. national security interests.

For instance, from the late 1970s to the early 21st century, hundreds of thousands of Haitians attempted to immigrate to the United States to escape the political chaos and poor economic conditions in Haiti. The U.S. Government returned a majority of the “Haitian Boat People” to Haiti because it regarded them as economic migrants, who were not eligible for political asylum.⁵³ Rather, U.S. policy focused on helping the Haitian people to develop a more prosperous, secure, and democratic Haiti. In the years before the earthquake, both the George W. Bush and Barack Obama Administrations provided significant resources to promote the stability and development of Haiti. From 2004 through 2006, Washington contributed more than \$640 million in assistance to Haiti. In 2007, DoD provided \$20 million to the Department of State to support the Haiti Stabilization Initiative, an interagency program with the goal of improving stability, security, and the economy in one of the most volatile areas of Port-au-Prince.⁵⁴ Ten months before the earthquake, Secretary of State Hillary Clinton declared Haiti a foreign policy priority for the United States and worked closely with the Government of Haiti to strengthen diplomatic and humanitarian relationships.⁵⁵

In addition to the strategic importance of Haiti, the 2010 earthquake was a tragedy that, in President Obama’s words, reminded the world of its “common humanity.”⁵⁶ He indicated the United States stood in solidarity with Haiti and would come to the assistance of its neighbors in their hour of need. The president understood the situation called for swift action and pledged U.S. support through a “whole-of-government” effort. On January 13, a day after the earthquake, President Obama gave guidance for how the U.S. Government would respond:

I have directed my administration to respond with a swift, coordinated, and aggressive effort to save lives. . . . I have directed my teams to be as forward-leaning as possible in getting the help on the ground and coordinating with our international partners as well. . . . Given the many different resources that are needed, we are taking steps to ensure that our Government acts in a unified way. My national security team has led an interagency effort overnight. And to ensure that we coordinate our effort going forward, I've designated the Administrator of the U.S. Agency for International Development, Dr. Rajiv Shah, to be our Government's unified disaster coordinator.⁵⁷

President Obama called for cooperation and partnership with other countries, international bodies, and NGOs. This was a crisis that not one single entity or country could address alone. The devastation required a strong network of individuals, organizations and countries to marshal their collective resources. The range of international relief activities would extend from search and rescue efforts—to the provision of emergency shelter, medical care, food and water, and sanitation—and would eventually include initiatives to enable the long-term institutional and societal recovery of Haiti.

The early expression of U.S. national commitment by President Obama provided the strategic intent, which focused on having a speedy response. As the lead federal agency responsible for coordinating the U.S. effort, USAID would be supported by other U.S. Government departments and agencies, including DoD. The President's declaration signaled that Haiti was a priority for the administration and that resources should be diverted from other undertakings to assist in the relief effort. One area that required

additional fidelity, however, was how and when the military should transition out of Haiti. Military planners in U.S. Southern Command (SOUTHCOM) and Washington D. C. repeatedly requested guidance from policymakers to plan for the return of military forces to the United States. Many key political leaders felt that U.S. forces should remain as a “safety blanket,” but there was no clear articulation of the U.S. military mission by senior civilian decision-makers.⁵⁸

Design and Planning

On January 13, in response to the President’s direction, the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff (CJCS), Admiral Michael Mullen, issued Execute Order (EXORD) 2236 authorizing U.S. military forces to commence Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE. Shortly thereafter, SOUTHCOM stood up JTF Haiti to provide foreign humanitarian assistance and disaster relief in support of USAID. SOUTHCOM Commander General Douglas Fraser selected Lieutenant General (LTG) Ken Keen, the SOUTHCOM Deputy Commander, as the JTF Commander, since he was already in Port-au-Prince as part of a routine theater security cooperation visit and familiar with Haiti. Another key reason for LTG Keen’s selection was his extensive relationships with key actors that would participate in the humanitarian response effort, including individuals in the U.S. Embassy, MINUSTAH, and several NGOs. One of the most important of these relationships was with Major General Floriano Peixoto, the Brazilian commander of the MINUSTAH military contingent. Their partnership extended back to an exchange program in the 1980s in which the two established a friendship that would continue for many years. Their close re-

lationship was critical to addressing a number of operational issues, which included the delineating of security responsibilities between U.S. and MINUSTAH forces.⁵⁹

During the initial organization and planning for JTF-Haiti, LTG Keen faced a number of challenges that included:

- “Building the plane in flight”; JTF-Haiti had to develop its organization, while simultaneously executing its mission
- A lack of situational awareness in the immediate aftermath of the earthquake, which made it difficult to understand requirements and conduct force planning
- Ensuring non-JTF partners (e.g., international relief organizations and the NGOs) were integrated into planning and daily activities
- Speaking with one voice to the hundreds of media organizations that arrived in Haiti within hours of the earthquake.

JTF-Haiti Mission

JTF-Haiti's mission was to support USAID with the aim of accelerating international HA/DR activities. A key goal would be to transition responsibility and control of the mid- and long-term activities to civilian partners.⁶⁰ The military mission would end when USAID, UN/MINUSTAH, and the Government of Haiti no longer required U.S. military HA/DR support.⁶¹

JTF-Haiti Mission Statement

JTF-Haiti conducts Humanitarian Assistance/Foreign Disaster Response operations in support of USAID in Haiti to save lives, mitigate near-term human suffering, and accelerate relief efforts to facilitate transition to Government of Haiti, UN, and USAID.

One aspect missing from the JTF-Haiti mission statement regarded the need to provide security. Since MINUSTAH already had thousands of soldiers and police officers from various countries conducting stability operations in Haiti, U.S. and UN officials decided not to establish a combined task force. LTG Keen, the Haitian Government, SOUTHCOM, and UN representatives agreed that MINUSTAH would continue its mission of providing security and stability in Haiti. JTF-Haiti would focus on HA/DR. However, JTF-Haiti did assume a limited security role that centered on safeguarding personnel who participated in HA/DR activities, including food distribution and the conduct of relief convoys.⁶² LTG Keen worked closely with Major General Peixoto to ensure military unity of ef-

fort. Together, Keen and Peixoto clearly defined their respective roles to avoid confusion or unnecessary duplication. The two commanders agreed that the most effective way to operate would be to collaborate whenever possible. Early cooperation and dialogue set the tone for the operations that followed, including efforts to administer food distribution points and conduct a show of force in the opening days of the operation. To increase communications between their staffs, Major General Peixoto and LTG Keen established liaison officers in each other's headquarters.⁶³

JTF-Haiti Organization

JTF-Haiti would be under the operational control of SOUTHCOM. With few military units assigned to it, SOUTHCOM had to build JTF-Haiti largely from scratch, requesting many units from across the United States.⁶⁴ Early on, one of the major decisions was identifying the command and control element that would form the nucleus of the JTF staff. LTG Keen considered three courses of action:

- Designate a subordinate Service component command (e.g., U.S. Army South (ARSOUTH), U.S. Naval Forces Southern Command, or 12th Air Force, Air Forces Southern (AFSOUTH))
- Build around the SOUTHCOM Standing Joint Force Headquarters (SJFHQ)
- Use an external organization that was JTF-capable.⁶⁵

LTG Keen believed it was important for at least part, if not all, of the JTF-Haiti headquarters to be physically present in Haiti. He required continuous dialogue and communications with the U.S. Embassy,

the Haitian Government, the UN, other relief organizations, and most importantly, the Haitian people on the ground. LTG Keen wanted a highly visible presence on land to reassure the traumatized Haitian population. The requirement for a land-based JTF narrowed the prospective headquarters that could form the nucleus for JTF-Haiti down to the II Marine Expeditionary Force (MEF) and ARSOUTH. However, both organizations were unavailable. SOUTHCOM had already designated ARSOUTH as the lead for JTF-Migrant Operations (MIGOPS) in the event there was a mass exodus of Haitians toward Cuba or the United States, and II MEF had commitments in the U.S. Central Command area of responsibility (AOR) that could not be postponed.⁶⁶

The next option was to build JTF-Haiti around SOUTHCOM's Standing Joint Force Headquarters. Elements of the SJFHQ were already in Haiti, having arrived in Port-au-Prince within 24 hours of the earthquake. However, the SJFHQ could not form the core of the JTF-Haiti headquarters without significant personnel augmentation, since half of its members had been integrated into the SOUTHCOM staff to make up for manning shortfalls. Although the SJFHQ personnel brought valuable understanding of the country and the broader SOUTHCOM AOR, they were too few to provide a viable headquarters staff for 24/7 operations.⁶⁷

By default, the XVIII Airborne Corps Assault Command Post (ACP), out of Fort Bragg, N.C., provided JTF-Haiti's core headquarters staff. The ACP, part of the Global Response Force (GRF), was packed and ready to deploy for a training exercise and could be easily redirected to Haiti. In addition, the 2nd Brigade Combat Team (BCT) from the 82nd Airborne Divi-

sion—also at Fort Bragg and part of the GRF—was already tasked for deployment to Haiti. The decision was made. Yet, the ACP did not have the command and control (C2) capacity of a JTF-capable headquarters. Among other deficiencies, the ACP lacked a joint logistics C2 element. Efforts to identify and deploy forces to address these capability gaps in a time-sensitive manner strained the SOUTHCOM staff, which itself had little force deployment planning capacity (see Joint Planning section below). Many of the needed enabling capabilities, such as engineering, civil affairs (CA), Military Information Support Operations (MISO), public affairs, and medical services would need to come from various units and locations. As is often the case during crisis response operations, JTF-Haiti consisted of a patchwork of organizations from across the United States, with units that possessed varying levels of readiness and dissimilar deployment timelines. Consequently, it took about six weeks for the JTF to assemble and become fully operational.⁶⁸

As depicted in Figure 6, the initial force list for JTF-Haiti included:

- XVIII Airborne Corps Assault Command Post (ACP)
- Army Forces (ARFOR): 2nd Brigade Combat Team (BCT), 82nd Airborne Division
 - 1st Battalion, 325th Airborne Infantry (1-325)
 - 2nd Battalion, 325th Airborne Infantry (2-325)
 - 1st Squadron, 73rd Cavalry (1-73)
 - 2nd Battalion, 319th Airborne Field Artillery (2-319)
- Joint Force Maritime Component Command (JFMCC)

- USS *Bataan* Amphibious Ready Group (ARG)/22nd (MEU)
- USS *Nassau* ARG/24th MEU
- Joint Force Special Operations Component Command (JFSOCC)
- Joint Logistics Command: 377th Theater Sustainment Command (TSC)
 - 3rd Expeditionary Sustainment Command (ESC)
- JTF Port Opening (PO)
- Air Force Forces (AFFOR)

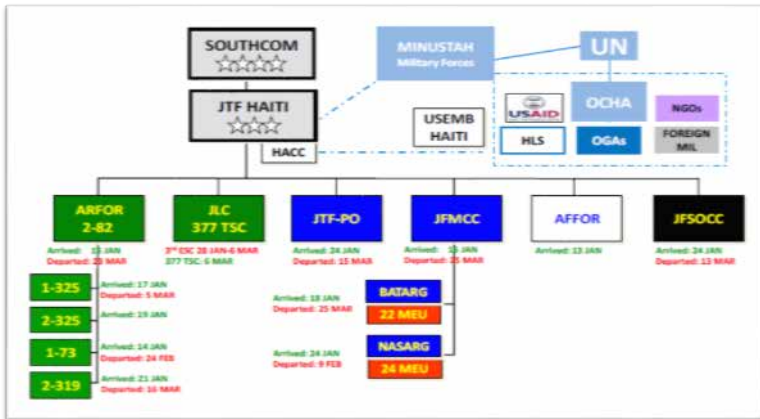


Figure 6 - JTF-Haiti Organizational Structure

JTF-Haiti received a range of specialized capabilities from a number of organizations, including: U.S. Joint Forces Command, U.S. Northern Command, U.S. European Command, U.S. Transportation Command, U.S. Special Operations Command, and other organizations. Outside of Haiti, in Guantanamo Bay, Cuba, U.S. Army personnel from ARSOUTH prepared for potential migrant operations⁶⁹

Rules of Engagement

SOUTHCOM provided initial guidance for the rules of engagement (ROE). The ROE directed military commanders to minimize the use of force but also ensure the right of self defense in response to hostile acts or

demonstrated hostile intent. SOUTHCOM directed JTF-Haiti to develop escalation of force (EOF) procedures.

JTF-Haiti established an EOF approach that emphasized de-escalation of the situation and restraint. The first step called for an evaluation of the situation. JTF members should assess circumstances on the ground within the larger context in Haiti and understand that violence could likely be the result of hunger and desperation. The second step was disengagement. JTF-Haiti personnel should allow hostile—or potentially hostile—elements the opportunity to withdraw or cease aggressive acts. By allowing antagonistic individuals and groups the opportunity to disengage, JTF-Haiti could de-escalate a potentially dangerous situation. The third step in JTF-Haiti's EOF process

Rules of Engagement for Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE

JTF-Haiti's ROE centered on the need to minimize the use of force.

Supplemental to the ROE were four steps for the escalation of force:

- **Evaluation of the situation**
- **Disengagement through withdrawal or breaking contact**
- **Use of non-lethal measures to de-escalate situations**
- **As a last resort, use of lethal measures**

was the use of non-lethal measures, such as audible signals, visual signs, and physical manipulation. The final step involved the use of lethal force. Given the humanitarian nature of the operation, the JTF-Haiti Commander felt it was particularly important to employ deadly force only as a last resort. In addition, LTG Keen did not authorize the use of deadly force to protect food, water, medical aid, or other relief supplies. While recognizing that the theft of humanitarian supplies could deny aid to needy Haitians, he also assessed that using lethal force could result in a loss of support for JTF-Haiti among the local inhabitants and the international community.⁷⁰

Joint Planning

SOUTHCOM began crisis action planning (CAP) on the evening of January 12—before receiving an official tasking from the Joint Staff. Immediate tasks focused on making an estimate of the situation regarding the extent of the damage in Haiti and determining what the DoD contribution to the whole-of-government response should be.

Three significant planning challenges surfaced in the immediate aftermath of the Haitian earthquake:

- SOUTHCOM did not have an adequate standing Operational Plan (OPLAN), with associated force flow information, to deal with the crisis
- The nontraditional organization of the SOUTHCOM headquarters would hinder crisis action planning and coordination with personnel from external organizations who were not familiar with the SOUTHCOM structure
- An on-the-ground assessment of the situation was needed to identify requirements and in-

form any request for forces to conduct FHA/DR operations

SOUTHCOM did not have a standing Concept of Operations (CONOP) or OPLAN that the staff could use to begin force flow planning. While SOUTHCOM had a functional plan (FUNCPLAN 6150-06) for HA/DR operations, it was outdated and did not correspond with nature and magnitude of the Haitian earthquake.

SOUTHCOM's unorthodox organizational structure contributed to additional planning challenges. In 2008, SOUTHCOM replaced its traditional J-code staff structure with functionally aligned directorates so the command could enhance integration with inter-agency partners, NGOs, and private organizations.⁷¹ As a result, the traditional primary and special staff organization necessary to deal with the situation in Haiti—and conduct crisis action planning—was not in place in the immediate aftermath of the earthquake. For example, SOUTHCOM's logistics and deployment experts were distributed across the headquarters, making it difficult to combine their expertise in a thoughtful manner. The staff was manned only to about 85 percent of its authorized capacity. To make up for this gap, SOUTHCOM received augmentees from the military services and other combatant commands. Again, SOUTHCOM's nontraditional organizational structure created problems, complicating efforts to absorb some 250-plus augmentees within the headquarters quickly. Consequently, five days into the crisis, SOUTHCOM conducted a reorganization to a traditional J-code staff structure.⁷²

A lack of an accurate on-the-ground assessment of the situation delayed any real appreciation of requirements and the identification of necessary forces for

FHA/DR operations. Developing a detailed understanding of conditions on the ground in Haiti was a key priority.

Planning With U.S. and Multinational Partners

JTF-Haiti had to develop effective planning and coordination processes and mechanisms to ensure it could support USAID's priorities. JTF-Haiti also needed to understand what various U.S. and international partners would contribute to the humanitarian effort, to avoid gaps or unnecessary duplication. From the start, JTF-Haiti planning with the U.S. and international partners emphasized daily coordination, open and unclassified communications, and the fostering of trust-based relationships.

JTF-Haiti initially located its headquarters at the U.S. embassy in Port-au-Prince. Although struggling with its own manpower issues, JTF-Haiti provided planners to USAID to help address its personnel shortfalls.⁷³ Having military and civilians working side-by-side strengthened relationships among JTF-Haiti, the U.S. diplomatic mission, and a range of other organizations. As the operation matured, JTF-Haiti relocated its headquarters to its own facility, but it continued to stay in ongoing contact with mission partners through the Humanitarian Assistance Coordination Center (HACC) – an internal JTF organization that functioned as a hub for collaboration.⁷⁴

The HACC served to (1) coordinate, synchronize, track and assess the FHA/DR operation; (2) create and maintain a common operational picture; (3) coordinate with all stakeholders to develop prioritized lists of support requirements; and (4) serve as the primary JTF interface with UN, NGO, and interagency

partners. About half of the HACC's members operated from the U.S. Embassy in Port-au-Prince, acting as DoD's interface with OFDA. The HACC's other members worked at the UN Logistics Base, partnering with OCHA, MINUSTAH, international military forces, and various aid organizations. Figure 7 illustrates how the HACC integrated with the major players in the Haiti relief effort, including the U.S. Embassy and the UN's JOTC, which served as a focal point for requests for assistance (RFAs) from humanitarian organizations.⁷⁵ The continual dialogue within the HACC was crucial because of the overlap of operational areas among many partners. For example, in some places MINUSTAH and JTF-Haiti both operated in the same areas and needed to synchronize their activities properly. Working through the HACC, JTF-Haiti personnel familiarized themselves with the IDP camps, enabling them to better understand how to assist their civilian counterparts.⁷⁶

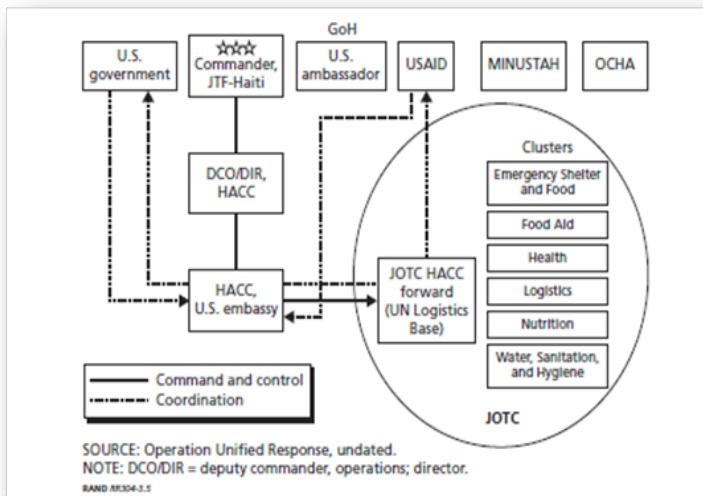


Figure 7. The Humanitarian Assistance Coordination Center

Having a HACC representative in the JOTC was beneficial to obtain awareness of the various requests for assistance from the NGO community. As a need arose to support an NGO, the UN validated the request in cluster meetings and sent an official request to MINUSTAH through the JOTC. If MINUSTAH was unable to provide the assistance requested, JTF-Haiti or another organization could volunteer to respond to the request. USAID would then log the request into a spreadsheet called a Mission Tasking Matrix (MITAM). JTF-Haiti then received the MITAM and produced a fragmentary order (FRAGO), which tasked an organization to provide the support requested.⁷⁷ Figure 8 outlines the RFA process.

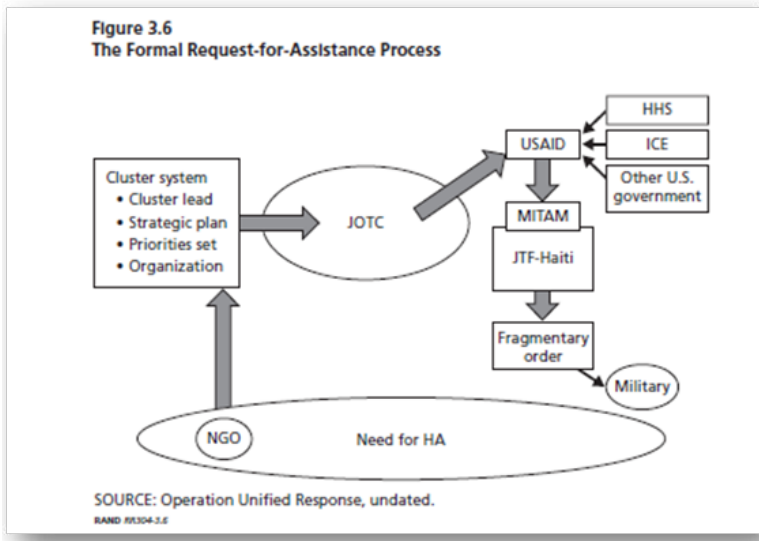


Figure 8. The Request for Assistance Process

Another key aspect of the coordination and communication process with non-DoD partners involved the use of an unclassified information-sharing network. Early on, the JTF Commander directed that all planning and work associated with Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE would be at the unclassified level. This decision was pivotal to expanding coordination and collaboration to include the widest possible range of stakeholders. Using unclassified systems and generally available tools, such as Google imagery and maps, provided the basis for an interactive and user-defined common operational picture (COP). Through an All Partners Access Network (APAN), JTF-Haiti and its partners were able to access multiple websites and data sources to further collaborate and share information. The ease of information sharing facilitated SOUTHCOM and JTF-Haiti efforts to disseminate controlled, unclassified information to international relief organizations, NGOs, foreign embassies, and non-U.S. military forces.⁷⁸

Media and Public Communication

The 24-hour news cycle became another key element that JTF-Haiti needed to consider during the design and planning of operations. One day after the earthquake, there were more media representatives on the ground in Haiti than U.S. military personnel. Images broadcast out to the world heightened the international community's sense of urgency, as governments and relief organizations determined how best to respond. The news media often drove information requests. Senior officials from Washington called SOUTHCOM, JTF-Haiti, and the U.S. Embassy asking about what was being done in response to the issues they had seen on television.⁷⁹

D u r i n g the first days of the crisis, CJCS Admiral Mullen sent his public affairs officer (PAO) to serve with the JTF Commander. LTG Keen remarked on numerous occasions that having the PAO was one of his most

Centrality of Media and Public Communication

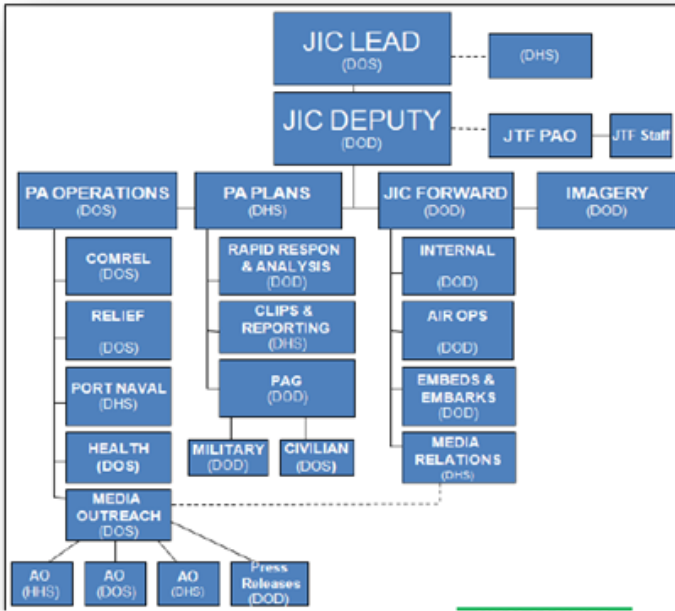
On 14 January, about 36 hours after the earthquake, the ramp of the Toussaint Louverture International Airport was occupied by hundreds of journalists and camera crews from all over the world.

The tragic circumstances surrounding the earthquake had focused the eyes of the world on Haiti. We recognized that the JTF must be transparent, approachable, and responsive to the public – Haitian and U.S. as well as international audiences.

LTG Keen
JTF-Haiti Commander

valuable assets during the initial days of the operation.⁸⁰ For the longer-term, however, JTF-Haiti required a comprehensive communications effort that enabled all U.S. government personnel in Haiti to speak with one voice and provide timely and accurate information. To accomplish this, JTF-Haiti helped to establish the Joint Interagency Information Cell (JIIC).

JIIC operations involved a whole-of-government effort, and the cell provided a hub for synchronizing communications from the strategic to the tactical level. The Department of State headed the JIIC, supported by the U.S. Embassy Public Diplomacy Office. DoD provided the JIIC deputy lead and USAID, DHS, and HHS were participating departments/agencies (Figure 9).⁸¹



Source: U.S. Joint Forces Command, "Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE - Haiti Earthquake Response," Joint Center for Operational Analysis, Final Draft, May 15, 2010.

Figure 9. The Joint Interagency Information Cell

The JIIC communications goals focused on three areas:

- Establishing an accurate understanding of the U.S. military’s relief efforts
- Dispelling the notion that the U.S. military was the primary relief provider
- Building awareness that the Haitian government, MINUSTAH, USAID, and NGOs were meeting critical needs

A key message in support of these goals was that the U.S. military would transition its role to other organizations, as these partners increased their ability to

address critical needs, and then U.S. forces would remain in Haiti only as an asset of last resort. This message was important, because it emphasized that the United States was not an occupying force – nor would the U.S. military rebuild Haiti the way it was before the earthquake. In addition, to ensure the legitimacy of the operation, it was critical to emphasize the role of the Haitian government in all aspects of the relief effort.⁸²

One of the JIIC's products was a set of daily talking points that provided the overall communication goal, core themes, target audiences, and top-line messages. This product evolved into the "JTF Two Pager" that included Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE themes, priorities, talking points, facts, and figures. It was distributed throughout JTF-Haiti, the SOUTHCOM headquarters, and the U.S. Mission. JTF-Haiti also used social media to broadcast its messages through Facebook and Twitter.⁸³ For example, during the movement of IDPs from a temporary camp to a new site, JTF-Haiti personnel used their cell phone cameras to "Twitpic" Haiti's president visiting the new resettlement location.⁸⁴ Utilizing social media in this way enabled JTF-Haiti to create a transparent environment and emphasize the central role of the Haitian Government in response efforts.

DEPLOYMENT AND INTERVENTION

Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE was the largest FHA/DR effort in U.S. history, and the U.S. military was the single largest contributor to the overall effort.⁸⁵ At the height of the operation, there were over 22,000 servicemen and servicewomen deployed in theater with 23 ships and more than 58 aircraft supporting relief efforts.⁸⁶ The urgency and magnitude of the disaster resulted in the deployment of forces even before the standup of JTF-Haiti had been completed. JTF-Haiti had to manage simultaneously the deployment of forces and provide immediate humanitarian assistance, while efforts to establish the command were still underway.

JTF-Haiti executed Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE in four phases:⁸⁷

- **Phase I - Initial Response (January 14-February 4).** This initial phase focused on forming JTF-Haiti, deploying troops into theater, supporting immediate lifesaving actions (e.g., conducting search and rescue; facilitating medical care; and providing emergency food, water, and shelter), enhancing situational awareness, reopening the air and sea ports, and evacuating American citizens.
- **Phase II - Relief (February 5 - mid-March).** The second phase centered on mitigating near-term suffering through the sustained delivery of humanitarian aid via distribution sites. Key activities included providing planning, logistical, and security support to the World Food Programme at 16 distribution sites and working to clear the rubble in and around Port-au-Prince.

- **Phase III - Restoration (mid-March - mid-April).** During this phase, JTF-Haiti planned and implemented safety precautions and countermeasures at IDP camps to prepare for potential floods and mudslides that were likely to occur during the upcoming rainy season. As the need for humanitarian relief decreased, the bulk of U.S. military forces in Haiti began deploying back to the United States.
- **Phase IV - Recovery (mid-April - June 1).** During this last phase, JTF-Haiti finalized the transition of its activities to the Haitian Government, USAID, UN, and MINUSTAH. To help with the longer term recovery, SOUTHCOM redirected many of its theater security cooperation activities to support Haitian reconstruction efforts.

The plan was that transition between these phases would be conditions based, rather than dictated by arbitrary timelines. The general approach envisioned that with each subsequent phase, JTF-Haiti's footprint would decrease as the Joint Force transitioned its responsibilities to other entities. LTG Keen would work closely with the U.S. Ambassador to Haiti, USAID, and the Haitian Government to identify specific tasks and conditions to enable transitions across various areas of activity (e.g., security, medical assistance, engineering support).⁸⁸

Originally, an additional phase focused on stabilization was planned; however, JTF-Haiti did not execute this phase. LTG Keen envisioned executing a stabilization phase if there was no functioning Haitian Government in place to coordinate relief efforts. If this had been the case, JTF-Haiti would have supported

a non-Defense U.S. Government department/agency or the UN in providing transitional governance until the Haitian people could establish a legitimate, functioning government. SOUTHCOM and JTF-Haiti, in coordination with MINUSTAH and the Haitian Government, determined that these activities were not necessary.⁸⁹

Phase I: Initial Response

Phase I began on January 14, when SOUTHCOM formally established JTF-Haiti. Within hours of the quake, the Haitian Government issued a disaster declaration and requested immediate humanitarian assistance. One of the initial requests was for assistance to re-open the Toussaint Louverture Airport. The tower was damaged and could not function without electrical power. On the airfield, dozens of damaged aircraft cluttered the single runway. Through the night of January 12, the 623rd Air and Space Operations Center (AOC) of the Air Force's Special Operations Command (AFSOC) facilitated unit planning and the development of load plans across the four AFSOC wings—two active-duty, one reserve, and one National Guard. Ultimately, the 623rd AOC sent 16 aircraft and a Joint Special Operations Air Detachment (JSOAD) to Haiti. The JSOAD is rapidly deployable and provides command and control, communications, air traffic control, emergency medical, aerial port operations, security, and cargo-handling capabilities.⁹⁰ General Keen arranged for combat control teams (CCTs) from AFSOC's 1st Special Operations Wing (1st SOW) to arrive 26 hours after the earthquake. These teams provided air traffic control, and they re-established flight operations 28 minutes after reaching the scene.⁹¹

Other SOF elements that were part of the initial force included a nine-person Situational Awareness Team that worked with the U.S. Embassy to develop an improved understanding of conditions on the ground.⁹² A four-person Military Information Support Team (MIST) from the 4th PSYOPS Group (Airborne) also arrived on January 14 and provided a variety of media resources to help advance strategic communications goals and themes.⁹³

Deploying Initial Forces into Haiti

Under the direction of SOUTHCOM, military forces and assets continued to arrive in Haiti; many elements reached the country even before Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE and JTF-Haiti were officially established.⁹⁴ On January 14, the Air Force's 817th Contingency Response Group (CRG)—part of JTF-PO—arrived in Port-au-Prince and took over air operations from AFSOC. On that same day, an Air Force Joint Assessment Team from the 621st Contingency Response Wing arrived in Port-au-Prince to conduct further assessments of the airfield.⁹⁵ The aircraft carrier USS *Carl Vinson*, which arrived offshore from Port-au-Prince on January 15, supported the initial response operation by delivering relief supplies and providing 19 helicopters for airlift. DoD immediately ordered the USS *Bataan*, USS *Nassau*, and USS *Carter Hall* to Haiti along with additional forces from the 82nd Airborne Division and XVIII Airborne Corps assigned to the Global Response Force. The United States Coast Guard (USCG) was also among the first to respond. At the time of the quake, USCG Cutter (USCGC) *Forward* and USCGC *Mohawk* were near Port-au-Prince, and four more Coast Guard ships joined within a few days to

provide initial damage assessments, assist in medical evacuations, help open Haiti's ports, and coordinate the arrival of seaborne relief supplies.⁹⁶

Most of the major force deployment decisions were made within the first 72-96 hours following the seismic event, when the situation was still very unclear. For the first several days after the earthquake, with most communication systems down, there was little information coming out of Haiti to enable decision making. SOUTHCOM and JTF-Haiti conducted parallel assessments and planning to identify requirements. LTG Keen issued verbal orders of commanding officer (VOCO) to expedite requests for military forces. He initially "asked for everything" to enable JTF operations. As his understanding of conditions improved, LTG Keen was able to tailor his requests accordingly.⁹⁷

The extensive use of VOCOs in place of written requests for forces (RFFs) fast-tracked DoD's response. However, there were also complications. Units arrived without the situational awareness and direction that a more conventional planning approach would have provided. This situation created gaps in the reception, staging, onward movement, and integration (RSOI) of forces, equipment, and supplies.⁹⁸ Because JTF planners and leaders felt they did not have adequate visibility of "what they had, where it was, and what was coming," JTF-Haiti created the Force Flow Working Group consisting of personnel from SOUTHCOM's J-3 and J-4 Directorates, who met daily to de-conflict issues and apprise the commander.⁹⁹

During the initial emergency response, units deployed to the Haiti theater supported search and rescue (SAR), provided emergency medical care, and distributed humanitarian aid, including food and water.¹⁰⁰ Other critical tasks included improving situa-

tional awareness and developing a sustained logistics flow to enable the larger relief effort. Concurrently, as the Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE military effort was underway, the Department of State laid the diplomatic groundwork. On January 22, U.S. Ambassador Ken Merten signed a Statement of Principles between the U.S. Government and the United Nations, recognizing the primary responsibility of the Haitian Government for leading the response effort and the supporting role of the UN and United States.¹⁰¹

A Closer Look: Deploying the Army's 3rd Expeditionary Sustainment Command

One challenge to the rapid influx of forces in Haiti centered on conducting a deployment into an immature theater without prior warning or preparation. For many units – such as the Army's 3rd Expeditionary Sustainment Command – it was the first time they had deployed on short notice in a contingency or expeditionary situation. Compared with deployments to Iraq and Afghanistan, where many factors were well-known, there was limited information on the overall security situation and infrastructure in Haiti. For instance, would there be any theater-provided equipment units could use? Without knowing the specific requirements of the mission, unit leaders determined as best they could what equipment would most likely be needed. Haiti also proved to be a test of field craft skills for many soldiers. Many had to build field showers, wash clothes in the field, and practice the essentials of field sanitation. The knowledge gained through this deployment reinforced the importance of basic Army field craft and its criticality to developing adaptive troops.

Source: Hayes, Major Paul R, "Deploying an Expeditionary Sustainment Command to Support Disaster Relief," *Army Sustainment: The 3d Expeditionary Sustainment Command Supports Disaster Relief*, November December 2010.

Developing Situational Awareness

During the initial days following the earthquake, LTG Keen indicated he had little knowledge of conditions outside of Port-au-Prince. To address this problem, Special Operations Command South organized multi-functional teams consisting of Special Forces, MISO, and CA personnel to survey areas outside of the capital, examining roads and bridges, talking to the local inhabitants, and providing critical early information of conditions on the ground. The special operations forces (SOF) multi-functional teams developed assessments on six principle areas outside of Port au Prince.¹⁰²

Difficulties in developing initial situational awareness impeded the determination of requirements and priorities, complicating the transportation of manpower and supplies. In addition to the use of the SOF multifunctional teams, JTF-Haiti improved its situational awareness through a combination of aerial intelligence, surveillance, and reconnaissance (ISR); human intelligence (HUMINT) and engagement with the population; and the use of non-traditional tools on commercial internet sites.¹⁰³ A Global Hawk Unmanned Ariel Vehicle (UAV) snapped the first pictures of critical infrastructure within two days of the earthquake, marking the first time that this strategic asset had supported a humanitarian operation. The Joint Force also used a P-3 Orion aircraft to gather visual information and released ground imagery and videos from the aerial sorties to the humanitarian community. This process, however, took several days—consuming time that was precious to the search and rescue efforts.¹⁰⁴ Other aerial ISR platforms (e.g., Predators, U2s, RC-26s) were high-demand, low-density assets

and were not immediately available during the initial days of the crisis. When the Predators did arrive, they operated with multiple restrictions out of a concern they could endanger commercial and private air traffic over Haiti. Therefore, during the opening phase of the operation, JTF-Haiti continued to gain an appreciation of the situation the old fashioned way – with boots on the ground.

SOUTHCOM deployed HUMINT teams to obtain information on the Haitian population. By using social networking sites and blogs – and engaging clergy, NGOs, and the Haitian people – SOUTHCOM supplemented its aerial ISR capabilities with sources that could provide first-hand accounts of the situation and help focus humanitarian efforts within the country. The arriving troops from the 22nd MEU and the 82nd Airborne conducted detailed ground reconnaissance to assess conditions on the ground, reporting on the state of critical infrastructure and identifying local leaders who could facilitate relief efforts. Soldiers from the 82nd Airborne also supported the improvement of situational awareness by using Google Earth to overlay the details of the air and ground reconnaissance on a commercial map background. These maps later became the basis for a viable FHA/DR COP.¹⁰⁵

In Washington, a number of factors hindered officials from developing an early understanding of the situation in Haiti. The initial lack of a COP prevented U.S. Government departments and agencies from accurately visualizing the situation on the ground and later assessing the overall efficacy of the U.S. response. A primary obstacle in creating a whole-of-government COP was not the quantity but rather the quality of the data. In fact, a range of NGOs, the UN, USAID, international donors, and even private citizens generated

a robust amount of information. These diverse entities did not have standard guidelines for conducting disaster assessments (e.g., methodology, indicators, reporting templates, data criteria). Furthermore, these organizations and individuals often worked in isolation while conducting surveys on the ground—with little collaboration among them. USAID’s Emergency Operations Center (EOC) in Washington did not have a dedicated staff to collect, centralize, validate, and report findings to its partners and U.S. Government leaders. The EOC initially lacked the office space for surge personnel and did not have large-scale teleconference capabilities. Eventually, the use of interagency liaison offices helped to improve communications and coordination.¹⁰⁶

Search and Rescue

The overall search and rescue effort largely consisted of 43 international SAR teams.¹⁰⁷ While the majority of these teams came from civilian and international organizations, JTF-Haiti contributed two urban search and rescue teams: the California Task Force 2 and New York Task Force 1 from Air Mobility Command.¹⁰⁸ Initial AFSOC forces on the ground from the 720th Special Tactics Group also participated in the SAR effort.¹⁰⁹ One of the most valuable capabilities JTF-Haiti brought to the SAR effort was its technical expertise for conducting assessments of damaged buildings. Within the Port-au-Prince area, the massive amounts of debris throughout the city complicated rescue efforts. Collapsed buildings were extremely perilous because removing the wrong beam or section of concrete could cause the entire remaining structure to fall down. Army engineers from the 82nd Airborne

Division worked with civilian structural experts from the Army Corps of Engineers to conduct site assessments that helped determine the best way to organize and sequence rubble removal.¹¹⁰ Other critical SAR capabilities provided by JTF-Haiti included vertical lift aircraft for rescuing survivors and transporting them to medical facilities and earth-moving equipment for removing rubble. By January 26, the Haitian Government called off search and rescue efforts.

Emergency Medical Care

After the earthquake, the Ministry of Health building and many of the hospitals in Port-au-Prince were destroyed. Hundreds of health care workers had perished, and the limited remaining staff in many hospitals were quickly overwhelmed with an estimated 300,000 injured in the Port-au-Prince area alone.¹¹¹ Initial medical capabilities from JTF-Haiti included those onboard USS *Carl Vinson* and USS *Bataan*. Each ship functioned as a “sea base,” using its helicopters to airlift casualties from land to onboard medical facilities.¹¹² USS *Carl Vinson* operated offshore from Port-au-Prince, and USS *Bataan*, off the southern peninsula of Haiti, employed its helicopters and landing craft air cushion (LCACs) to deliver nearly 1,000 pallets of relief supplies and medically evacuate over 500 patients.¹¹³ Medical and dental personnel from the 24th MEU, aboard USS *Nassau*, treated more than 100 Haitians on the island of Gonave.¹¹⁴ Within the Port-au-Prince area, infantry units from the 82nd Airborne helped facilitate emergency medical services by establishing trauma care facilities, delivering critical medical supplies, providing security at aid stations, and facilitating the transfer of injured patients to facilities

outside of Haiti.¹¹⁵ Twenty-three medical personnel from SOUTHCOM's JTF-Bravo deployed from Honduras on January 17 in support of JTF-Haiti, providing urgent medical care in and around the town of Killick on the coast west of Port-au-Prince.¹¹⁶

On January 20, the hospital ship USNS *Comfort* arrived and joined the relief efforts, serving as a referral hospital for the most severely injured.¹¹⁷ USNS *Comfort* had 1,000 patient beds, 20 operating rooms, and a dedicated staff of almost 400 doctors, nurses, and corpsmen.¹¹⁸ Upon arrival, one of the first challenges involved establishing a civil-military patient referral system. Medical personnel had to decide which cases the hospital ship should handle, determine how many patients to transfer to the vessel, and arrange helicopter and other transportation as necessary. Initially, most of the civilian partner organizations in Haiti were not familiar with requesting helicopter medical evacuations and had to learn how to obtain and report the necessary information. Eventually, the patient referral process would include physicians onboard USNS *Comfort* speaking directly with civilian coordinators ashore. The main means of communication was initially through text messages using a free plan from AT&T. Each day, the civilian coordinators assessed which services were available on land and which were needed from the hospital ship. They would then upload their assessment into a database. Medical personnel onboard USNS *Comfort* and elsewhere used the database to match requirements with their available resources—and later to track the patients themselves within the treatment system.¹¹⁹

Prior to the earthquake, USNS *Comfort* had supported SOUTHCOM by conducting several short-term medical missions in Haiti, the most recent in

2009. Over the course of these deployments, many individuals on USNS *Comfort* developed personal relationships with Haitian officials and knowledge of trusted organizations in Haiti, such as the Ministry of Public Health and Population. Personnel on USNS *Comfort* had the email addresses and phone numbers for key Haitian contacts; this allowed healthcare professionals on USNS *Comfort* to integrate and respond quickly as part of the larger medical effort.¹²⁰

One of the lingering challenges throughout the medical response effort was maintaining accurate patient logs, especially information on individuals requiring acute surgical procedures. Although some patient logs were maintained, there was no systematic monitoring on a daily or weekly basis to allow for adequate follow-up. As a result, it was difficult for medical practitioners to conduct longer-term medical planning, especially for post-operative care. In addition, guidance on the standards of local care and processes for making decisions about the standards of care were not provided consistently to U.S. medical personnel. Consequently, medical teams conducted a number of complex operative procedures that sometimes created problems for the Haitian health care system, which could not always provide follow-on care in specialized areas.¹²¹

Humanitarian Assistance

While civilian and international organizations held the primary responsibility of delivering humanitarian aid, JTF-Haiti worked to facilitate their efforts throughout the country. On the mainland, soldiers from the 82nd Airborne Division provided security at the airport, aid distribution sites, and the U.S. Em-

bassy – and along transportation routes. Military engineers helped to establish and fortify base camps for distributing food and water, and constructed temporary shelters.¹²² In the initial days of the relief effort, there were few incidents involving violence and looting, most of these were in areas known for lawlessness prior to the earthquake. Working with MINUSTAH personnel, who had overall responsibility for security in Haiti, JTF units augmented the UN force and more than doubled the troop presence in volatile neighborhoods. This united show of force helped to increase the sense of security for the local Haitians and facilitated the continued delivery of aid in a secure environment.¹²³

The 22nd and 24th MEUs supported the humanitarian aid missions outside Port-au-Prince to the west and north.¹²⁴ Their presence in the outlying regions enabled emergency aid to reach thousands of Haitians, who had fled Port-au-Prince following the earthquake. This sea-based force brought a variety of capabilities to aid the relief efforts – such as heavy lift and utility helicopters, logistical assets, water purification systems, and limited medical support – without taxing the already strained sustainment infrastructure ashore.¹²⁵

By January 18, the 22nd MEU began conducting FHA/DR activities, operating from ARG ships off the western shore of Haiti. One exception was a ground combat element (GCE) tactical command center that operated ashore and the Combat Logistics Battalion-22 (CLB-22) that established a presence in the town of Petit Goave on the western flank, commonly referred to as Haiti's southern claw. The 22nd MEU conducted its mission (e.g., providing food and water, temporary shelter, security), while moving from west to east, starting in Petit Goave and ending in Carrefour, a suburb of Port-au-Prince.¹²⁶

On January 19, four days after the USS *Bataan* ARG and 22nd MEU arrived in Haiti, the Marines set up a major supply distribution point in the town of Leogane, west of Port-au-Prince, which became a primary area of operations. Working with MINUSTAH forces, the Marines distributed over 1,200 humanitarian rations to earthquake survivors in the area. In addition, the 22nd MEU dispatched reconnaissance patrols to survey the surrounding areas for future operations.¹²⁷ The USS *Bataan* crew conducted “Sailors Ashore Missions,” during which they removed 150 tons of rubble, built shelters for over 100 families, and distributed more than 500,000 meals.¹²⁸

The Security Cooperation-Marine Air Ground Task Force (SC-MAGTF) Africa Partnership Station 2010 (APS-10) also deployed as part of the 22nd MEU. It was diverted from a planned set of exercises in Africa and directed to deploy aboard the USS *Gunston Hall* as an afloat quick reaction force. The APS-10 operated on land from Carrefour. One valuable capability APS-10 provided were unarmored high-mobility, multi-wheeled vehicles (HMMWV) that could carry more cargo than the up-armored versions and were less likely to damage the unstable Haitian roads.¹²⁹

The 24th MEU, for its part, was diverted from a Middle East deployment and arrived in theater on January 24 on the USS *Nassau* (LHA-4) ARG. During the first week of its deployment in Haiti, the 24th MEU distributed humanitarian aid, conducted assessments, and provided medical assistance along the northern peninsula of Haiti (the “northern claw”). The 24th MEU used Landing Craft Utility (LCU) to conduct amphibious landings on the northern shore of La Gonave Island, northwest of Port-au-Prince, enabling relief efforts for the local inhabitants.

To establish rapport with the Haitian people, the Marines involved local residents in the delivery of humanitarian aid. The Marines liaised with local leaders and included Haitian workers in the task of off-loading food and medical supplies. The Marines helped to manage the people's expectations by announcing the exact time and location that local authorities would distribute aid, and the amount that would be available. Haitian officials could then organize the food distribution effort and keep local inhabitants informed, while concurrently strengthening their legitimacy in the eyes of the people. Where possible, the Marines also used Haitian security personnel to provide an inner cordon for crowd control at aid distribution sites, while the U.S. military units maintained the outer security. Not only did the use of local forces put a Haitian face on the delivery of aid, but it also empowered locals who were more adept at handling their own people.¹³⁰ The payment of local personnel who contribute services to the assistance effort is critical, to avoid any perceptions the relief community is acting in an exploitative manner. In some cases, the Haitians supporting aid delivery received meager payment—and sometimes none at all.¹³¹

The 24th MEU used its MV-22 Osprey tiltrotor aircraft to assess towns in northern Haiti, determine the extent of earthquake damage, and identify the type of aid that was most needed. The Marines chose the Osprey because it had a longer range and greater payload and speed than either the UH-1 Huey Helicopter or the CH-46 Sea Knight Medium Utility Helicopter, enabling them to assess more sites in less time. The 24th MEU would eventually move south to continue delivering aid outside of Port-au-Prince.¹³²

Logistics

For the first week following the earthquake, the CCTs managed the air traffic coming in and out of the Toussaint Louverture International Airport, while the Air Force's 817th CRG operated the ramp and airfield. By the second week of the operation, Air Force air traffic controllers arrived and took over air operations.¹³³ AFSOUTH worked closely with First Air Force (Air Forces Northern) (AFNORTH) because of the latter's humanitarian operations experience in the continental United States. AFNORTH benefited from several preexisting relationships, including with various government and non-governmental organizations. AFNORTH played a key role enabling the evacuation of American citizens from Haiti to the United States, as part of Operation SAFE RETURN.¹³⁴

The 612th AOC, located at Davis-Monthan Air Force Base in Arizona, was the Air Force's primary command and control element for Haiti operations. In the initial days of the FHA/DR effort, the 612th AOC worked to develop a longer-term solution for organizing and prioritizing flights in and out of Haiti. This was especially critical because operations relied heavily on the airlifting of supplies and equipment into the country until the seaport could be repaired. With more planes coming in

Command and Control of the Airport

When the earthquake happened, relief agencies from around the world headed to Toussaint Louverture International Airport. It was "...like Larry, Curly, and Moe all trying to get through the door at the same time."

Civilian, assigned to the 612th Air and Space Operations Center

on a daily basis, developing, assigning, and controlling slot times for the incoming aircraft was a singular challenge. “Slot times” indicated when each aircraft would arrive, the maximum time it could stay on the ground in Haiti, and its departure time. Working with the U.S. Federal Aviation Administration (FAA), JTF-Haiti personnel coordinated with the Haitian government to assume temporary control of Haiti’s airspace, beginning on 15 January 2010. Reaching an agreement was a delicate process because it involved a concession regarding Haiti’s national sovereignty. U.S. officials were careful to emphasize this was a temporary arrangement. With control of the airspace, the U.S. Air Force drew on AFNORTH’s previous HA/DR experience to establish the Haiti Flight Operations Coordination Center (HFOCC)—under the direction of the 601st AOC at Tyndall Air Force Base, Florida. The HFOCC assumed responsibility for managing Haiti’s airspace.¹³⁵

The established slot system facilitated the initial delivery of food, water, and medical supplies. Before the earthquake, the airport handled about 25 flights per day on its single runway. By January 19—one week after the earthquake—the airport had the ability to schedule 126 sorties daily. Demand for slot times, however, created a schedule that was booked two-to-three weeks in advance. As the volume of air cargo flights to the Toussaint Louverture International Airport increased, the issues of slot times and the offloading of supplies continued to receive a great deal of attention. In administering the airspace, the HFOCC had to manage the expectations of the various organizations operating in Haiti, each of which believed its cargo was a priority. The HFOCC tried not to turn anyone away, but it could not always provide the desired

slot times. In some cases, this prompted accusations of favoritism in the scheduling of flights. Eventually, as the operation shifted from emergency relief to sustainment, air operations became more predictable.

JTF-Haiti leaders soon realized that the airport was impractical to sustain long-term relief and reconstruction efforts. It had many limitations (e.g., single runway, limited parking space, non-existent personnel support facilities) that would impede operations.¹³⁶ The bulk of humanitarian assistance supplies would need to be delivered by sea. This was problematic because the earthquake had made Port-au-Prince's seaport inoperable.¹³⁷ Rehabilitating the port was a clear priority during the opening days of the operation. JTF-Port Opening (PO) and the Joint Logistics Command (JLC) worked to reestablish the docking facilities in Port-au-Prince.¹³⁸ By January 22, a U.S. Navy underwater construction team re-opened the seaport, and the delivery of emergency materials and supplies soon followed.

As the crisis unfolded, the SOUTHCOM Washington Office received offers of humanitarian relief supplies and rescue equipment in support of the Haiti FHA/DR effort. At first, all offers were sent to the SOUTHCOM Partnership for the Americas Collaboration Center (PFACC) or the SCJ9. However, these organizations were consumed with current operations. Rather than giving potential donors PFACC or SCJ9 phone numbers (adding to the workload of these offices and potentially resulting in donor frustration), the SCWO started referring individuals to the All Partners Access Network or APAN website where donors could be more easily matched with aid recipients.¹³⁹

Phase II: Relief

On February 5, JTF-Haiti transitioned from initial response operations to relief operations. During Phase II, the focus of operations shifted from search and rescue and immediate emergency relief to mitigating near-term human suffering by the continued provision of basic humanitarian aid (e.g., water, food, medical assistance, shelter, etc.). While delivery of humanitarian aid began in the previous phase; it reached its peak in the relief phase. As in Phase I, the success of the FHA/DR mission was directly connected to JTF-Haiti's ability to provide security for the distribution of aid. Medical activities began to shift from meeting life-saving needs to preventative medicine and trauma follow-up.¹⁴⁰ An emergent priority during this phase was providing assistance and resources for IDPs. During Phase II, JTF-Haiti also started to plan, coordinate, and prepare for a phased transition of selected efforts to capable partners, as they became ready to assume responsibilities for key relief and reconstruction activities.¹⁴¹

Humanitarian Assistance

Initial limitations on the amount of inbound relief supplies that reached Haiti fueled a sense of desperation among many of the Haitian people, and as a result, street violence erupted in parts of Port-au-Prince. JTF-Haiti attempted several food airdrops, but stopped when it became clear these delivery efforts were triggering more violence on the ground as people fought over parachute bundles.¹⁴² The situation gradually stabilized as the World Food Programme, in collaboration with MINUSTAH and JTF-Haiti, launched a fixed-

point food distribution system. Structured around 16 delivery sites in Port-au-Prince and Carrefour, the system created a civil-military division of labor, with the WFP partners distributing aid and MINUSTAH and JTF-Haiti units providing logistical support and security. The WFP food distribution program transitioned the delivery of humanitarian aid from the provision of emergency rations (i.e., daily rations) to a more sustained effort that provided 15-days' worth of rations to aid recipients. The food distribution system was a notable example of successful planning and coordination, which resulted in more than two million Haitians receiving much-needed food and water.¹⁴³

The distribution of humanitarian aid required another crucial activity: the clearing of rubble from the streets. The earthquake generated 20 to 25 million tons of rubble, and much of the debris needed to be cleared before reconstruction could begin. The Haitian Government and the UN, with the assistance of JTF-Haiti and the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, created the PMCC to organize and coordinate rubble removal in Port-au-Prince. The impending hurricane season made the removal of rubble—especially to help improve drainage—critical to mitigate storm damage. JTF-Haiti made a key contribution by clearing a number of roads of debris. The PMCC worked well during the first three months of the response effort, coordinating rubble removal and designating disposal sites. As responsibility for providing support to the PMCC shifted from MINUSTAH and JTF-Haiti to the Haitian Government, rubble removal became less effective. Complications arose as many property owners objected to their land being used for the disposal of debris. As a result, one year after the earthquake, the PMCC estimated that less than one percent of the total

rubble had been cleared from the city. Future plans for continued rubble removal were estimated to require years to complete.¹⁴⁴

Phase III: Restoration

Phase III lasted roughly from mid-March through mid-April. During this phase, a major challenge facing the Haitian Government was addressing the plight of an estimated one-to-two million IDPs. Many IDPs established spontaneous settlements in Port-au-Prince and were living in close quarters, increasing the potential for an outbreak of disease. In response, JTF-Haiti, along with USAID and the Haitian Government, developed a public information campaign focused on emphasizing personal hygiene and encouraging Haitians to only drink water from safe, clean sources.¹⁴⁵

Some IDP camps materialized in areas prone to flooding and mud slides. Many families only had sheets or tarps to protect them from the severe weather. Therefore, JTF-Haiti focused extensively on ameliorating the danger of the impending heavy rains at the nine priority IDP camps in Port-au-Prince. U.S. troops helped to safeguard the IDP camps from flash-flooding and landslides by providing engineering support to improve drainage, transportation to move people and material, and civil affairs teams to enable the Haitians to help themselves. A Japanese contingent and U.S. Navy construction units (“Seabees”) improved the drainage system and reinforced walls inside several IDP encampments. JTF-Haiti also supported the UN in the building of IDP camps north of Port-au-Prince and helped to relocate displaced people to new shelters and camps. At the strategic level, the JTF and USAID worked with the UN and the Government of Haiti to develop and implement an IDP strategy.¹⁴⁶

Initial Transitions

During the restoration phase, JTF-Haiti activities also focused on turning over responsibility for many support functions to civilian partners. One of these hand-overs included the resumption of Haitian Government control of the Toussaint Louverture Airport on March 16. Transitions also occurred at the seaport. Navy and Army divers had repaired the damaged pier in record time and by mid-March the port was turned over to Haitian authorities. By April, JTF-Haiti efforts had doubled the port's capacity, allowing the offload of over 8,500 containers totaling over 10.2 million short tons of cargo. Joint Logistics Over-the-Shore operations, led by the JLC, brought supplies from ships anchored offshore to the beaches via landing craft, amphibious vehicles, and hovercraft. JTF-Haiti helicopters from the Army, Navy, and Marine Corps flew every day, bringing in supplies from ships and transporting patients to treatment facilities.¹⁴⁷

The JTF-Haiti Headquarters also conducted a relief-in-place as ARSOUTH Headquarters replaced the XVIII Airborne Corps ACP, and LTG Keen handed over command to Major General (MG) Simeon Trombitas, who had been serving as the deputy commanding general of JTF-Haiti. In addition, JTF-Haiti began to stage and redeploy forces.¹⁴⁸ On March 24—ten weeks into the crisis—the 24th MEU redeployed. As the Marines departed Haiti, international partners took over responsibility for food and water distribution in the respective areas of operation.¹⁴⁹

Phase IV: Recovery

In late May, during the last days of Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE, JTF-Haiti further drew-down its forces in preparation for the full transition of its responsibilities to the Haitian Government. By this time, the JTF had distributed over 4.9 million meals, 17 million pounds of bulk food, and 2.6 million bottles of water. Over one million people received emergency shelter, while more than 80 blocks of debris-covered streets were cleared and over 40,000 buildings were assessed for their structural safety by JTF engineers.¹⁵⁰ Although the Joint Force continued to contribute to USAID and UN efforts, only a small contingent of U.S. military police and engineers remained with the headquarters on June 1, 2010 when the mission was declared complete. Moving forward, the Joint Force's contribution to the longer-term recovery and restoration of Haiti would be undertaken as part of SOUTHCOM's theater campaign plan. A central aspect of the SOUTHCOM effort were the NEW HORIZON exercises, which included medical, dental, and veterinarian readiness exercises as well as the conduct of civil affairs and engineering projects (e.g., digging wells, site assessments, refurbishing schools) in Port-au-Prince and interior rural areas.¹⁵¹ Military projects provided training for U.S. medical and engineering personnel and employed Haitian citizens to improve the infrastructure in several cities. As part of NEW HORIZON, JTF-Haiti conducted 12 medical exercises and administered 35 humanitarian programs in the cities of Gonaives, Les Cayes, and Jeremie. JTF-Haiti targeted these cities because they had experienced a large influx of displaced Haitians from Port-au-Prince after the earthquake. In addition, JTF-Haiti planners

met with community leaders to discuss their most pressing assistance needs. The objective was that the Joint Force's assistance programs, managed in cooperation with the UN, NGOs, and non-DoD departments/agencies, would provide support to communities and encourage displaced Haitians not to return to Port-au-Prince, where camps were overburdened.¹⁵²

As JTF-Haiti wrapped up its efforts, the Department of State and USAID continued working closely with the Haitian Government to ensure a successful transition from relief to reconstruction and development. U.S. Government officials worked closely with President Préval and the UN to establish the Interim Haiti Recovery Commission (IHRC), which oversaw the implementation of the Haitian Government's Action Plan for National Recovery and Development. The goal was to verify that international assistance was aligned with the priorities of the Haitian people and their government, as well as to promote accountability and transparency. The U.S. Government also worked closely with the Haitian Government to establish the Bureau for the Resettlement of IDPs. On May 20, President Préval directed the development of a more robust and permanent Bureau for Resettlement of IDPs to plan for large-scale IDP relocation. USAID worked to support the design and staffing of the new bureau.¹⁵³

ASSESSMENT AND INSIGHTS

Stability operations are various military missions, tasks, and activities conducted outside the United States as part of the application of the instruments of national power to maintain or reestablish a safe and secure environment, provide essential governmental services, emergency infrastructure reconstruction, and humanitarian relief.¹⁵⁴ Building on this definition, Joint Publication 3-07, *Stability Operations*, outlines eight stability operations principles that should guide design, planning, and execution.

Objective - Direct every military operation toward a clearly defined, decisive, and attainable objective.

Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE had a clear objective, laid out by presidential strategic guidance: support the FHA/DR effort led by USAID. As a result, JTF-Haiti could drive forward with its initial activities, even within an uncertain environment during the first days of the operation. JTF-Haiti's subsequent mission statement was well scoped and achievable. It was not the JTF's responsibility to restore Haiti to its pre-earthquake condition; rather, its mission was to mitigate near-term suffering and accelerate relief efforts.

Underlying JTF-Haiti's mission was the objective of transitioning tasks and activities, as soon as feasible, to the Haitian Government, USAID, the UN, and MINUSTAH. Strategic guidance, however, did not articulate requirements or conditions for standing down the JTF. Rather, JTF-Haiti developed its own individual transition criteria for various activities.¹⁵⁵ For example, in the case of the USS *Bataan* ARG and the

22nd MEU, as the Marines and ships completed their missions and the JTF-Haiti commander deemed they were no longer needed, these forces transitioned, and SOUTHCOM approved their sequential redeployment.¹⁵⁶ JTF-Haiti transitioned its activities in close collaboration with the U.S. Embassy, USAID, the UN, and the Haitian Government. Some participants in the operation assessed that clearer policy guidance and conditions-based milestones would have been helpful. The lack of articulated guidance regarding the disbanding of the JTF needlessly prolonged the Joint Force mission in Haiti. In after action interviews, several military and civilian officials stated the JTF could have stood down much earlier without negatively affecting the situation in Haiti.¹⁵⁷

An inherent aspect of JTF-Haiti's mission was to ensure that its efforts contributed positively to the longer-term recovery of the Caribbean country. This required an understanding of the U.S. development and assistance goals for Haiti and an appreciation of the host nation's ability to sustain long-term recovery efforts. For example, the deployment of specialized medical assets, such as the USNS *Comfort* and Disaster Medical Assistance Teams (DMAT) from HHS, often provided a higher standard of care than what was available in Haiti before the earthquake. Guidance on the standards of local care and processes for making decisions about the standards of care were not provided consistently to U.S. medical personnel. Therefore, U.S. medical teams conducted a number of complex surgical procedures, even though the Haitian health care system could not provide adequate post-operative care for many patients over the long term.¹⁵⁸ In many cases, if assistance during an FHA/DR effort is not sustainable by the host nation or relief orga-

nizations over the long term, beneficial results may be short-lived and could produce potentially counterproductive outcomes after the U.S. scales back its presence.

Offensive - Seize, retain, and exploit the initiative.

In stability operations, “failing to act quickly to gain and maintain the initiative in stabilization efforts may create a breeding ground for dissent and possible exploitation opportunities for enemies or adversaries.”¹⁵⁹ Although Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE occurred in a permissive environment, there was the potential that JTF-Haiti and its partners could lose the initiative to nefarious actors, possibly resulting in civil unrest and criminal activity. In the initial days after the earthquake, there were incidents of looting in Port-au-Prince and surrounding areas. In addition, after the earthquake, thousands of convicts escaped from prisons and congregated in Cité Soleil, a traditionally violent neighborhood in Port-au-Prince. Soldiers from the 82nd Airborne Division acted quickly to augment MINUSTAH in highly volatile areas, providing a united show of force that helped to increase the sense of security among local Haitians. Furthermore, JTF-Haiti’s coordination with the UN allowed MINUSTAH to focus its efforts on capturing the escaped prisoners, while U.S. forces concentrated on providing humanitarian assistance.¹⁶⁰ By understanding the need to retain the initiative, JTF-Haiti helped preempt potential threats and set the foundation for a secure and stable environment, where civilian and military organizations could work together to relieve the suffering of the Haitian people.

Mass - Concentrate power at the decisive time and place.

Conducting stability operations in a hostile environment necessitates the deployment of a military force that has the capability to both protect the population and neutralize hostile groups. The Joint Force must concentrate power at the right centers of gravity.¹⁶¹ During Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE, the population was the “center of gravity” and ensuring it received immediate assistance was essential to alleviate suffering and accomplish the JTF-Haiti mission. Key activities that required the concentrated application of JTF resources were those that facilitated the overall humanitarian effort, such as the restoration of air and sea ports and the security of aid distribution sites. Even before JTF-Haiti stood up, AFSOC provided key capabilities to resume flights in and out of the International Toussaint Louverture Airport. The U.S. Air Force, with the FAA, enabled long-term flight operations via the HFOCC. The U.S. Navy provided underwater construction teams to reopen the seaport, increasing the flow of humanitarian aid into Haiti. The 82nd Airborne Division provided security to ensure aid distribution points and transportation routes were safe and secure for both the Haitians and the relief organizations.

During Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE, there was one question regarding mass that was not fully considered upfront: how much military capacity would be enough? In the absence of a formal requirements assessment or OPLAN, LTG Keen relied on his professional judgment to request forces and resources through VOCOs. Many of the early assessments were intuitive estimates regarding what capabilities and

how much capacity JTF-Haiti needed. The Joint Force provided capabilities and resources, often without a formal request from USAID.¹⁶² While the rapid influx of U.S. forces into Haiti was effective, there was a trade-off regarding efficiency. LTG Keen believed that under the circumstances this trade-off was warranted, as SOUTHCOM deployed troops and resources into Haiti even without an exact understanding of requirements. U.S. troops were needed in Haiti to facilitate the distribution of humanitarian aid and create a safe and secure environment for the international relief effort.¹⁶³ By the end of January, about three weeks into the operation, JTF-Haiti consisted of over 22,200 troops both on the ground and offshore.¹⁶⁴

In FHA/DR efforts, “more is not always better.” *The proper sequencing of resources is critical to effective response management in the field.* The influx of civilian and military resources during the early days of the crisis overwhelmed the logistics infrastructure in Haiti and complicated response efforts. In some cases, the Joint Force sent too much equipment that could not be used and had to be sent back, wasting time and logistical resources.¹⁶⁵ For future FHA/DR efforts, USAID has suggested the development of a menu of DoD capability packages that could respond to a humanitarian emergency within 24 hours of an incident (e.g., such as airlift, logistics, security, medical, engineering, intelligence). Each package could be scalable and tailored to the needs on the ground, depending on the magnitude and characteristics of a particular disaster. Similarly, other federal agencies that have special capabilities could develop pre-defined packages and agreements with USAID to outline their employment.¹⁶⁶

Economy of force – Allocate minimum essential combat power to secondary efforts.

According to this principle, personnel should not presume that stability operations are “secondary” efforts, especially during major operations and campaigns. Rather, stability operations should be considered across all phases of a joint operation.¹⁶⁷ In many ways, economy of force is the inverse of the “mass” principle, requiring the acceptance of risk in selected areas to achieve superiority in more decisive aspects of the operation.

One area that JTF-Haiti applied economy of force was in the distribution of humanitarian aid. Initially, many JTF units passed out humanitarian aid directly to local inhabitants; however, this was not the best use of the JTF’s capabilities. JTF members learned that it was more effective to facilitate delivery by civilian and local organizations with the Joint Force providing logistics, engineering, and security support. As a result, JTF-Haiti focused on transporting humanitarian supplies in bulk, rather than participating directly in the distribution of aid to the population. NGOs and local civic and religious groups were fully capable of distributing items to the public in a manner consistent with local cultural norms. Similarly, rather than passing out individual plastic water bottles, JTF-Haiti contracted local companies to provide water from cistern trucks. This commercial solution helped to eliminate piles of trash, provided wages to local workers, and put a “Haitian face” on distribution efforts.¹⁶⁸ In addition, Marines utilized reverse osmosis water purification units (ROWPU) to produce clean water that local volunteers and workers could provide to the people at distribution sites. The use of the ROWPU released

Marines to conduct other essential missions, such as security, assessments, and logistics support.¹⁶⁹

Unity of Command – Seek unity of effort in every operation.

Unity of command ensures that all forces operate under a single commander, who directs forces toward a common objective. While there was a single Joint Force Commander on the ground during Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE, he did not have the authority or responsibility to direct the actions of non-U.S. military personnel. The key was to enable unified action across U.S. departments and agencies, and with the range of other mission partners. Coordination and collaboration with the Haitian Government, the interagency community, MINUSTAH, intergovernmental organizations, NGOs, and the private sector were critical to ensure a shared understanding of the operational environment, objectives, and mission.¹⁷⁰ LTG Keen often said that during the Haiti earthquake response “C2” more often meant coordinate and collaborate rather than command and control.¹⁷¹

One of the difficulties of working with numerous entities was in determining the appropriate counterparts in these organizations to coordinate specific activities.¹⁷² Unified action requires partnerships built on trust from the strategic through the tactical level. During the Haiti FHA/DR effort, a catalyst to unified action was the relationship between the JTF-Haiti and MINUSTAH Commanders, LTG Keen and Major General Peixoto. With a friendship dating back to the 1980s, their camaraderie set the tone for their staffs to work closely together in Haiti. The two commanders aligned priorities, de-conflicted mission parameters,

and worked collaboratively toward common objectives.

The unity of effort within the U.S. response structure took a few weeks to solidify. In 2010, the whole-of-government approach applied in Haiti benefited from many of the recommendations in the *2008 Project on National Security Reform*, which emphasized integrated efforts, collaboration, and agility. The U.S. response to the Haiti earthquake was the first time the updated whole-of-government approach was employed in a large-scale overseas effort.¹⁷³ While there was an established framework for how U.S. Government departments and agencies would work together, many details had to be resolved on the ground. Leaders had to determine how supporting departments and agencies would contribute to the relief effort and develop processes and procedures for assigning initial tasks. Furthermore, they had to coordinate staff deployments, establish reporting relationships and liaison structures, and mobilize necessary assets.¹⁷⁴ Amidst the commotion of the initial days, USAID created new organizations to help organize and manage the response effort: the ORC and Interagency Task Force. These new organizations operated in parallel with the traditional, and well understood, FHA/DR entities—the RMT in Washington D.C. and the DART in Haiti—generating confusion regarding roles, responsibilities, and reporting structures.¹⁷⁵ Despite these initial challenges, LTG Keen ensured that he was in lock-step with his civilian partners. Through daily meetings with the U.S. Ambassador to Haiti and the USAID representatives, LTG Keen ensured that JTF-Haiti personnel understood how they could best support the relief effort, while working in partnership with the Haitians and various U.S. and international relief organizations.

The HACC functioned as a key enabler of unified action. Through the HACC, JTF-Haiti placed liaison personnel in all of the key response organizations, enabling the Joint Force to work side-by-side with its mission partners. Within the HACC, the Joint Force provided the majority of the personnel to conduct many of the administrative and support tasks (e.g., setting up computer networks, developing map overlays, creating presentations, sharing notes from various meetings) to facilitate a unified effort. Since most civilian organizations were overstretched, the manpower and know-how that JTF-Haiti provided to the HACC were indispensable, allowing stakeholders to share information and move forward in a common direction.¹⁷⁶

Restraint – Apply appropriate combat capability prudently.

During stability operations, defending and protecting the population is paramount. Restraint requires a disciplined balance between safeguarding the people and infrastructure, conducting military operations, protecting the Joint Force, and achieving the overarching objectives of the operation. Using force in pursuit of stability operation objectives can antagonize the population and damage the legitimacy of the host nation government as well as the Joint Force. When force is used, it must be lawful and measured.¹⁷⁷

A key priority during Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE was to closely supervise the use of force. The ROE and escalation of force procedures played a key role. JTF-Haiti went to great lengths to describe non-lethal measures, particularly techniques that could help to diffuse volatile situations. For instance, JTF-

Haiti developed distribution point tactics, tactics and procedures (TTPs) to help mitigate the possibility of looting. The TTPs highlighted actions that troops could use to attract the attention of rowdy crowds, including the use of horns, sirens, bull horns, vehicle mounted PA systems, and flares. Anything that might cause a mob to stop rioting, even for a moment, was viewed as a potentially effective way to divert attention and cause individuals and groups to reconsider their actions. Ultimately, JTF-Haiti wanted to show it was not there to deliver aid through the barrel of a gun but by reaching out with a hand of friendship.¹⁷⁸

Perseverance – Prepare for the measured, protracted application of military capability in support of strategic aims.

Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE was the largest and longest FHA/DR operation conducted by the U.S. military, lasting six months, from January 14 to June 1, 2010.¹⁷⁹ Yet, the long-term recovery of Haiti would require an even more prolonged effort. It was not JTF-Haiti's responsibility to restore Haiti to its pre-earthquake conditions or rebuild the country to a new and better standard than before the disaster. According to doctrine, when "military forces conduct initial response activities to fill immediate gaps in assistance, military objectives should be to enable civilian control of stabilization efforts."¹⁸⁰ The Joint Force must exercise caution not to turn over stabilization activities before other institutions are prepared. JTF-Haiti worked to hand-over its various mission responsibilities to either the Government of Haiti, the UN, USAID, or other civilian entities, as appropriate. Transition criteria were based on the conditions on the ground and established

on a case-by-case basis in consultation with SOUTHCOM, the U.S. Embassy, USAID, MINUSTAH/UN, and the Haitian Government. This approach facilitated a gradual withdrawal of U.S. military forces, while enabling the long-term conduct of international relief and reconstruction efforts.

Legitimacy – Sustain the legitimacy of the operation and of the host government.

When conducting stability operations, the credibility of the host nation government and its ability to generate support and the consent of its people are critical to the success of the effort.¹⁸¹ For stability operations in a post-disaster situation, host nation government leaders need to get out among the people and communicate with citizens. They should also be involved in all aspects of planning and decision making.

For the Haitian Government to have legitimacy with its citizens, it needed to provide early, consistent, and visible leadership of all aspects of the humanitarian assistance and disaster relief effort. It was important to reassure the people that their government was in charge and working to address their needs. The earthquake significantly impaired the Haitian Government, and many individuals who survived the seismic event were understandably traumatized by the catastrophe. Therefore, at the beginning of the operation, it proved challenging to highlight the host nation's leadership role. Haitians initially complained about the lack of visible national leadership. Over time, however, JTF-Haiti found ways to highlight and emphasize the Haitian Government's role in directing and managing relief efforts via a concerted information and public relations campaign. Key efforts in-

cluded: involving local authorities in the distribution of humanitarian aid, posting social media pictures of national leaders visiting IDP camps, and transitioning control of the airport back to the Government of Haiti two months after the earthquake, which provided a visible symbol of progress.

Conclusion

Natural disasters never occur when it is convenient, nor do any two of them unfold in the same manner. Each natural disaster brings new challenges and complications that must be addressed as best as possible in each situation. However, there are best practices that can be learned from Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE and applied to future FHA/DR efforts:

- **Respond quickly and effectively.** In the first days of an FHA/DR effort, providing an immediate response – via the delivery medical care, food, and water and the provision of shelter – is critical. It is equally important to establish and maintain the flow of logistics via air, sea, and land to facilitate the relief effort. There should be a balanced approach to the deployment of forces. While military commanders will want to have robust capabilities to assist in alleviating human suffering, the Joint Force should not overburden the logistics system with its own sustainment needs at the expense of the relief effort or create an unnecessary duplication of capabilities with other responding entities.
- **Protect the people.** During FHA/DR, the people are the center of gravity and ensuring their safety and protection is paramount. Even in a

permissive environment, an FHA/DR effort can encounter violent and/or volatile situations (e.g., looting, criminal activities, factional fighting) that require both preemptive and reactive Joint Force actions. A show of force can help to arrest an escalating situation and provide both physical security and psychological comfort to the population. In addition, the Joint Force must have a longer-term view of the population's needs and pay particular attention to the plight of IDPs. Planning should begin early and identify measures to protect IDPs from various threats and hazards (e.g., severe weather, lack of adequate shelter, an outbreak of disease).

- **Build partnerships with key players.** When participating FHA/DR efforts, the Joint Force must have an understanding of the organizational culture, language, and operating practices of its partners to optimize collaborative efforts. This requires both institutional and personal relationships developed prior to and during the FHA/DR operation. The exchange of liaison officers among key organizations has proven beneficial to fostering relationships, understanding, and unity of effort. During Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE, the institutional relationship between the Joint Force and many of the foreign military forces within MINUSTAH enabled the troops on the ground to conduct combined patrols quickly and develop an understanding of the environment.¹⁸² The personal relationship between LTG Keen and Major General Peixoto strengthened the partnership among their forces. Similarly, the per-

sonal relationships that medical staff on USS *Comfort* had previously developed through SOUTHCOM's security cooperation missions enabled them to partner quickly with local and international medical personnel and integrate into the larger assistance effort. Partnerships within the Joint Force, developed over time, also provide a strong foundation for working together during crisis situations. For example, when the 22nd MEU deployed aboard USS *Bataan*, the relationship between the Marines and sailors developed while working together since September 2008, proved indispensable to the rapid reconstitution of the ARG/MEU. This enabled the deployment of a competent and capable force less than 48 hours following notification.¹⁸³

- **Clarify military roles and responsibilities upfront.** During FHA/DR operations that involve multiple U.S. Government departments and agencies, NGOs, and various international participants, it is important to understand the scope of the military's role. While the military has specific resources and expertise for FHA/DR, it is often best for its partners to perform those tasks that are most suitable to them. Rather than Joint Force personnel distributing humanitarian aid themselves directly to the people, they can often work with partners that may have best practices, local knowledge, and established procedures for doing so. This would allow the Joint Force to focus on areas where it has a comparative advantage, such as in providing security, logistics, engineering, and assessment capabilities.¹⁸⁴

- **Ensure communication is transparent and consistent.** As demonstrated during Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE, participation in large-scale FHA/DR efforts requires regular communication with multiple organizations outside of the Joint Force. This often involves working outside normal military communication channels and collaboration venues. The Joint Staff cell within the RMT in Washington D.C. enabled DoD and USAID to establish a dedicated connectivity link to share information and outline priorities during the ramp up for Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE. This was especially important because it facilitated direct communication, in the midst of a fluid situation and evolving U.S. response structure (e.g., ORC, RMT, DART, interagency task force). The use of “open” communications and an unclassified information-sharing network allowed JTF-Haiti to expand its coordination and collaboration with non-U.S. entities. Though degraded, the commercial communications infrastructure became part of the *de-facto* crisis response coordination architecture and a viable alternative to military communications, helping to improve situational awareness, promote unity of effort, prevent unnecessary duplication of resources and activities, and enable adaptation to an evolving situation.¹⁸⁵
- **Include the Host Nation Government and local nationals as much as possible.** Among the multitude of actors participating in a FHA/DR effort, it is important that the host nation government be intimately involved in plan-

ning and visibly concerned with the execution of the disaster response, especially when dealing with issues affecting sovereignty and local laws. Because the people are the “center of gravity” for an FHA/DR operation, they must see their government leading the relief effort. During Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE, the Joint Force was cognizant of the importance of clearly articulating its supporting role. JTF-Haiti identified specific ways to integrate its efforts with the Government of Haiti and highlight the contributions and importance of local leaders: having them organize local aid distribution points, negotiating respectful terms for taking control of the air traffic over Haiti, and developing a responsive IDP strategy. Overshadowing the host nation government could have caused the population to doubt its leaders’ abilities or perceive the foreign military presence as overbearing.

APPENDIX A: GLOSSARY OF ACRONYMS

ACP	Assault Command Post
AFFOR	Air Force Forces
AFNORTH	Air Forces Northern
AFRICOM	Africa Command
AFSOC	Air Force Special Operations Command
AFSOUTH	Air Forces Southern
AOC	Air and Space Operations Center
AOR	Area of Responsibility
APAN	All Partners Access Network
APS	Africa Partnership Station
ARFOR	Army Forces
ARG	Amphibious Ready Group
ARSOUTH	Army South
BCT	Brigade Combat Team
CA	Civil Affairs
CAP	Crisis Action Planning
CARICOM	Caribbean Community
CCT	Combat Control Team
CJCS	Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff
CJTF	Combined Joint Task Force
CLB	Combat Logistics Battalion
CONOP	Concept of Operations
COP	Common Operational Picture

CRG	Contingency Response Group (CRG)
CSC	Coordination Support Committee
CSG	Carrier Strike Group
DART	Disaster Assistance Response Team
DCHA	Bureau of Democracy, Conflict and Humanitarian Assistance
DHS	Department of Homeland Security
DMAT	Disaster Medical Assistance Teams
DOC	Department of Commerce
DOI	Department of the Interior
DOJ	Department of Justice
DOT	Department of Transportation
DSCA	Defense Security Cooperation Agency
EOC	Emergency Operations Center
EOF	Escalation of Force
EPA	Environmental Protection Agency
ESC	Expeditionary Sustainment Command
EXORD	Execute Order
FAA	Federal Aviation Administration
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization (United Nations)
FCC	Federal Communications Commission
FHA/DR	Foreign Humanitarian Assistance/Disaster Response
FRAGO	Fragmentary Order

FRAPH	Revolutionary Front for Haitian Advancement and Progress (<i>Front pour l'Avancement et le Progrès Haitien</i>)
FUNCPLAN	Functional Plan
FY	Fiscal Year
GCE	Ground Combat Element (U.S. Marine Corps)
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GRF	Global Response Force
HA	Humanitarian Assistance
HACC	Humanitarian Assistance Coordination Center
HC	Humanitarian Coordinator (United Nations)
HFOCC	Haiti Flight Operations Coordination Center
HHS	Health and Human Services
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/ Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
HLCC	High Level Coordination Committee
HMMWV	High-Mobility, Multi-Wheeled Vehicle
HUMINT	Human Intelligence
IDP	Internally Displaced Person
IHRC	Interim Haiti Reconstruction Commission
IOM	International Organization for Migration
ISR	Intelligence, Surveillance, and Reconnaissance
JFCOM	Joint Forces Command
JFMCC	Joint Force Maritime Component Command
JFSOCC	Joint Force Special Operations Component Command
JIIIC	Joint Interagency Information Cell

JLC	Joint Logistics Command
JOTC	Joint Operations and Tasking Centre (United Nations)
JPME	Joint Professional Military Education
JSOTF	Joint Special Operations Task Force
JTF	Joint Task Force
LCU	Landing Craft Utility
LTG	Lieutenant General
MAGTF	Marine Air Ground Task Force
MEF	Marine Expeditionary Force
MEU	Marine Expeditionary Unit
MIGOPS	Migrant Operations
MINUSTAH	United Nations Stabilization Mission in Haiti <i>(Mission des Nations Unies pour la stabilisation en Haïti)</i>
MISO	Military Information Support Operations
MITAM	Mission Tasking Matrix
MIST	Military Information Support Team
NASA	National Aeronautics and Space Administration
NCA	National Command Authority
NECC	Navy Expeditionary Combat Command
NCR	National Capital Region
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NSC	National Security Council
OAS	Organization of American States

OCHA	Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Assistance (United Nations)
OFDA	Office of U.S. Foreign Disaster Assistance
OHCHR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
OHDACA	Overseas Humanitarian Disaster and Civic Aid
OPLAN	Operational Plan
ORC	Office of the Response Coordinator
OSD	Office of the Secretary of Defense
PAO	Public Affairs Officer
PCC	Policy Coordination Committee
PFACC	Partnership for the Americas Collaboration Center
PKSOI	Peacekeeping and Stability Operations Institute (U.S. Army)
PMCC	Project Management Coordination Cell
RC	Resident Coordinator
RFA	Request for Assistance
RMT	Response Management Team
ROE	Rules of Engagement
ROWPU	Reverse Osmosis Water Purification Units
RSOI	Reception, Staging, Onward Movement, and Integration
SAR	Search and Rescue
SJFHQ	Standing Joint Force Headquarters
SOF	Special Operations Forces
SOUTHCOM	Southern Command

SOW	Special Operations Wing
SRSG	Special Representative for the Secretary General
TSC	Theater Sustain Command
UAV	Unmanned Aerial Vehicle
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNICEF	United Nations Children Emergency Fund
UNMIH	United Nations Mission in Haiti
USACOM	United States Atlantic Command
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USCG	United States Coast Guard
USCGC	United States Coast Guard Cutter
USDA	Department of Agriculture
USNS	United States Naval Ship
USS	United States Ship
VOCO	Verbal Orders of Commanding Officer
WFP	World Food Programme (United Nations)
WHO	World Health Organization

APPENDIX B: CHRONOLOGY

January 12, 2010	<p>7.0 magnitude earthquake strikes Haiti at 1653 hours.</p> <p>Haitian President Préval requests assistance from the United States.</p> <p>CJCS declares x-hour 1800.</p> <p>SOUTHCOM begins crisis action planning and submits its initial request for forces.</p> <p>USAID stands up a Response Management Team in Washington, D.C.</p>
January 13, 2010	<p>U.S. President Barack Obama pledges U.S. Government support through a whole-of-government effort.</p> <p>U.S. Ambassador Ken Merten declares Haiti a disaster area.</p> <p>CJCS Michael Mullen issues EXORD 2236 authorizing U.S. military forces to commence Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE. Declares n-hour 1800.</p> <p>Secretary General Ban Ki-moon sends Assistant Secretary General Edmond Mulet to Haiti to direct the U.N.'s immediate response efforts.</p> <p>USS <i>Carl Vinson</i> and USS <i>Bataan</i> are ordered to support the earthquake response.</p> <p>USCG Cutters <i>Forward</i> and <i>Mohawk</i> arrive in Haiti and begin delivering relief supplies and evacuating American citizens.</p> <p>USAID sends DART into Haiti.</p> <p>AFSOC, 1st SOW, Combat Control Teams arrive and reestablish flight operations at the Toussaint L'Ouverture International Airport.</p> <p>SOF Situational Awareness Team arrives.</p> <p>SOUTHCOM SJTFHQ deploys to Haiti.</p>

<p>January 14, 2010</p>	<p>JTF-Haiti officially stands up.</p> <p>USNS <i>Comfort</i>, 22nd MEU, 82nd Airborne Division, and JTF-PO ordered to joint operations area.</p> <p>82nd Airborne Division begins to arrive in Haiti (1st Squadron, 73rd Calvary (1-73)).</p> <p>SOF MIST arrives.</p> <p>60th Air Mobility Wing transports California Task Force 2 Urban SAR Team to Port-au-Prince.</p> <p>Joint Assessment Team (621st Contingency Response Wing) arrives in Port-au-Prince to assess the airfield.</p> <p>817th CRG arrives Port-au-Prince and begins to assume control of air operations from AFSOC.</p>
<p>January 15, 2010</p>	<p>XVIII Airborne Corps ACP arrives in Haiti.</p> <p>USS <i>Carl Vinson</i> arrives in Haiti and supports the operation offshore from Port-au-Prince, delivering relief supplies and providing helicopters for airlift.</p> <p>Carrier Strike Group ONE (CSG-1), with USS <i>Carl Vinson</i> as its flagship, is designated JFMCC.</p> <p>JTF-Haiti and the FAA assume temporary control of Haiti's airspace.</p> <p>JFT-Haiti reaches initial operating capability.</p> <p>The Haitian Government establishes the Presidential Commission on Recovery and Reconstruction, which worked with the UN cluster groups to coordinate needs and priorities for the response.</p>

January 16, 2010	<p>USS <i>Bunker Hill</i> arrives in Haiti and joins USS <i>Carl Vinson</i>.</p> <p>62nd Airlift Wing transports New York Task Force 1 Urban SAR Team to Port-au-Prince.</p>
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January 17, 2010	<p>82nd Airborne troops continue to arrive (1st Battalion, 325th Airborne Infantry (1-325)).</p> <p>JTF-MIGOPS (ARSOUTH) deploys to Guantanamo Bay, Cuba.</p> <p>USNS <i>Grasp</i> arrives at Port-au-Prince to begin repairs to the wharves.</p>
January 18, 2010	<p>22nd MEU begins conducting FHA/DR activities, operating from USS <i>Bataan</i> ARG ships off the western shore of Haiti.</p> <p>USS <i>Gunston Hall</i> anchors at Killick and begins relief operations.</p>
January 19, 2010	<p>82nd Airborne troops continue to arrive (2nd Battalion, 325th Airborne Infantry (2-325)).</p> <p>SOUTHCOM headquarters conducts an in-stride reorganization to realign its structure with the traditional J-code arrangement.</p>
January 20, 2010	<p>USNS <i>Comfort</i> arrives and serves as a referral hospital for the most severely injured.</p>
January 21, 2010	<p>2nd Brigade Combat Team (BCT), 82nd Airborne Division is complete with the arrival of the 2nd Battalion, 319th Airborne Field Artillery (2-319).</p> <p>SOUTHCOM's 24th Air Expeditionary Group takes over air traffic control operations from 817th CRG.</p> <p>Approximately 10,500 people have been evacuated from Haiti to the U.S., including 8,300 U.S. citizens. Approximately 45,000 American citizens were thought to have been in Haiti at the time of the earthquake.</p>

January 22, 2010	<p>U.S. Navy underwater construction team re-opens the seaport.</p> <p>U.S. Ambassador Ken Merten signs a Statement of Principles between the U.S. Government and the United Nations, recognizing the primary responsibility of the Haitian Government for the humanitarian response and the supporting role of the UN and U.S. Government</p>
January 23, 2010	JTF-Haiti establishes its Air Forces Headquarters

January 24, 2010	<p>24th MEU arrives in theater on USS <i>Nassau</i> ARG and begins distributing humanitarian aid, conducting assessments, and providing medical assistance along the northern peninsula of Haiti.</p> <p>JTF-Haiti stands up the JTF-PO and JFSOCC Headquarters.</p>
January 26, 2010	The Haitian Government suspends search and rescue efforts.
January 28, 2010	JTF-Haiti stands up the Joint Logistics Command.
January 31, 2010	<p>JTF-Haiti reaches its peak capacity with over 22,000 service members, 58 aircraft, and 23 ships.</p> <p>9 of 16 WFP food distribution points are open.</p> <p>Phase I of the WFP food distribution surge begins (providing two-week rations of rice).</p>
February 1, 2010	<p>USS <i>Carl Vinson</i>, USS <i>Bunker Hill</i>, and USNS <i>Henson</i> (T-AGS-63) end their mission and depart Haiti.</p> <p>USS <i>Bataan</i> ARG assumes lead for the JFMCC.</p> <p>12 of 16 WFP food distribution points are open.</p>

February 2, 2010	14 of 16 WFP food distribution points are open.
February 3, 2010	The USS <i>Higgins</i> ends its relief mission in Haiti. All 16 WFP food distribution points are open.
February 5, 2010	JTF-Haiti transitions from initial response operations (Phase I) to relief operations (Phase II).
February 9, 2010	USS <i>Nassau</i> ARG/24th MEU depart Haiti.
February 13, 2010	The USS <i>Gunston Hall</i> ends its relief mission in Haiti.
February 14, 2010	JTF-Haiti reduces its forces by roughly 13,000 troops.
February 20, 2010	817th CRG departs Haiti.
March 1, 2010	USS <i>Carter Hall</i> redeploys to the United States.
March 6, 2010	3rd ESC departs Haiti. Phase II of the WFP food distribution surge begins (providing two-week rations of rice and four-week rations of beans, corn soy-blend, oil and salt). Phase II ends on March 31.
March 10, 2010	USNS <i>Comfort</i> departs Haiti.
March 13, 2010	JFSOCC stands down.
March 15, 2010	JTF-PO departs Haiti.
Mid-March 2010	JTF-Haiti transitions to Restoration (Phase III), focusing on addressing the plight of an estimated one-to-two million IDPs.
March 16, 2010	Haitian Government resumes control of the Toussaint Louverture Airport.
March 18, 2010	JTF-Haiti Headquarters conducts a relief-in-place as ARSOUTH Headquarters replaces the XVIII Airborne Corps ACP, and LTG Keen hands over command to MG Simeon Trombitas.
March 24, 2010	24th MEU redeploys from Haiti.
March 25, 2010	USS <i>Bataan</i> ARG/22nd MEU leave Haiti. JFMCC stands down.

April 18, 2010	JLC begins redeployment back to the United States.
May 5, 2010	President Préval and the Council of Ministers sign a Presidential Decree establishing the IHRC to provide oversight of Haiti's reconstruction and development.
May 20, 2010	President Préval directs the development of a more robust and permanent Bureau for Resettlement of IDPs to plan for large-scale IDP relocation.
Late May, 2010	JTF-Haiti transitions to Recovery (Phase IV).
June 1, 2010	JTF-Haiti declares mission complete.

Appendix C: Biographical Sketches of Key Leaders

United States

President Barack Obama: President Obama called for swift action and pledged U.S. support to Haiti through a whole-of-government effort, led by USAID. The President's guidance directed his administration to "lean forward" and instructed departments/agencies to work together to save lives in the wake of the earthquake. In addition, President Obama pledged \$100 million to meet the disaster response needs. He understood that the humanitarian situation required a united effort with numerous individuals and organizations; he called for cooperation and partnership with other countries, international bodies, and NGOs.

Secretary of State Hillary Rodham Clinton: Haiti was a priority for the Department of State, and Secretary Clinton was actively involved in executing the President's policy and ensuring that appropriate funding was available to U.S. entities for the humanitarian response. Secretary Clinton took special interest in the coordination, planning, and execution of the relief effort. Under her direction, the Department of State established an emergency operations center to manage the crisis continuously and stood-up six separate task forces to accomplish various efforts. Officials played a key role in evacuating 16,800 U.S. citizens from Haiti: processing visa applications for Haitian refugees wanting to come to the United States; planning for recovery, reconstruction, and stabilization; and working with the U.S. Department of Homeland Security (DHS) and the American and International Red Cross to assist orphans and vulnerable minors.¹⁸⁶

Ambassador Kenneth H. Merten: In Haiti, Ambassador Merten led the U.S. Government effort. Shortly after the earthquake, a Haitian Government representative rode up on a motorbike and delivered an oral request for U.S. assistance, which Ambassador Merten relayed to Washington D.C. The following day, on January 13, Ambassador Merten declared Haiti a disaster area, clearing the way for OFDA to provide an initial \$50,000 of aid through the U.S. embassy. To underscore that the U.S. aim was to support the Haitian people, Ambassador Merten signed a Statement of Principles between the U.S. Government and the United Nations, which recognized the primary responsibility of the Government of Haiti for the response effort and the supporting role of the UN and U.S. Government.¹⁸⁷

USAID Administrator Rajiv Shah: President Obama designated Rajiv Shah, the USAID Administrator, as the unified U.S. Government coordinator for the Haitian disaster response. In this role, Administrator Shah synchronized the efforts of USAID, the Department of State, DoD, and eleven other U.S. departments and agencies. Within hours of the disaster, Administrator Shah deployed a DART to Haiti to assist the U.S. Embassy in Port-au-Prince in managing efforts on the ground. Having assumed office only five days prior to the earthquake, Administrator Shah faced a number of challenges, to include an overstretched response structure that did not have adequate capacity to deal with the Haitian disaster. To help address this challenge, USAID established the Office of the Response Coordinator to strengthen coordination efforts in Haiti with the various U.S. Government departments and agencies, inadvertently cre-

ating some overlap of responsibilities with the USAID Haiti Mission Director and the DART.

General Douglas Fraser: At the time of the Haitian earthquake, the SOUTHCOM Commander, General Douglas Fraser, had been in command for a little over six months. He had expressed concerns earlier about the command's ability to manage a crisis and work with outside organizations, due to SOUTHCOM's non-traditional structure (e.g., stability directorate, partnering directorate, partnership center). Days before the earthquake, he held a Director's meeting to discuss modifications to the command's organizational model. General Fraser felt that SOUTHCOM had lost some of its planning discipline—as well as capacity—across several of the traditional staff functional areas. When the disaster struck, the command had not yet implemented any organizational changes. General Fraser requested personnel augmentation via the Joint Staff. Five days into the crisis, he directed the staff to reorganize into the traditional J-code structure. Through this decision, General Fraser enabled the rapid integration of 274 augmentation personnel and made possible a more immediate contribution by the command.¹⁸⁸

LTG P.K. (Ken) Keen: The Deputy Commander of SOUTHCOM, LTG Keen, was visiting the residence of the U.S. Ambassador to Haiti at the time of the quake and was appointed commander of JTF-Haiti on January 14. In part, LTG Keen's selection as the JTF-Haiti Commander was due to his extensive relationships with key actors that would participate in the humanitarian response effort, including individuals in the U.S. Embassy, MINUSTAH, and several NGOs. His long-

time relationship with the MINUSTAH Commander, Major General Peixoto, was especially crucial; LTG Keen was able to facilitate early and continual coordination and ensure unity of effort between his forces and the UN contingent in Haiti.

MG Simeon Trombitas: On March 18, 2010, MG Trombitas assumed command of JTF-Haiti. At the time, he was the ARSOUTH Commander and had been functioning as the JTF-Haiti Deputy Commander. When the ARSOUTH Headquarters relieved the XVIII Airborne Corps ACP as the JTF-Haiti Headquarters, MG Trombitas assumed command. The leadership transition occurred as JTF-Haiti prepared for the rainy season, and its activities focused on safeguarding IDP camps from impending floods. In addition, JTF-Haiti was in the process of redeploying forces, retaining only those capabilities required to assist its partners. During his tenure as JTF Commander, MG Trombitas oversaw the initial implementation of the NEW HORIZONS exercises, which included medical, dental, and veterinarian readiness exercises as well as the conduct of civil affairs and engineering projects (e.g., digging wells, conducting site assessments, refurbishing schools) in Port-au-Prince and interior areas of Haiti.¹⁸⁹

Haiti

President René Préval: Within hours of the earthquake, President Préval sent a representative to U.S. Ambassador Merten's residence, requesting immediate assistance from the United States to help reopen Haiti's air and sea ports. During the initial days following the disaster, President Préval and the Hai-

tian Prime Minister developed an initial government framework to manage the response effort and coordinate with the international community. President Préval spearheaded the establishment of the IHRC, which functioned as a forum for developing Haiti's long-term reconstruction and development plans. When the earthquake struck, President Préval was in his second non-consecutive term as President of Haiti. He also served as President from February 7, 1996 to February 7, 2001, and he was Prime Minister from February 1991 to October 11, 1991.

Prime Minister Jean-Max Bellerive: Together with President Préval, Prime Minister Bellerive led the Haitian government's response to the humanitarian disaster at both the policy and operational level. Within 36 hours of the earthquake, the President and Prime Minister developed an initial government framework to manage the crisis and coordinate with the international community. Prime Minister Bellerive co-chaired the High Level Coordination Committee that facilitated policy development and played a critical role in validating decisions by officials at the operational level. He also co-chaired the IHRC with former U.S. President Bill Clinton. The IHRC ensured the recovery efforts were Haitian-led; coordinated with donor, civil society, and private sector communities; furthered Haiti's development goals; promoted accountability and transparency; and communicated the aspirations of the Haitian people.¹⁹⁰

United Nations

UN Secretary General Ban Ki Moon: As leader of the UN, Secretary Ban Ki Moon was a proactive diplomat and advocate for the Haitian people during the earthquake response effort. He directed the UN's humanitarian agencies to mobilize swiftly and coordinate closely with the international community. Throughout the evening of January 12 and during the following morning, the Secretary General was in contact with key world leaders to make sure that the developing response would be well-coordinated, effective, and timely. Secretary Moon worked especially close with the Obama Administration, requesting that the United States send helicopters, engineers, and medical supplies to aid in the immediate crisis response effort. He also released \$10 million from the Central Emergency Response Fund to kick-start the UN's reaction to the crisis.

Assistant Secretary General Edmond Mulet: Assistant Secretary Mulet was tasked by UN Secretary General Ban Ki Moon to assume full responsibility for the UN Mission in Haiti during the earthquake response effort. Secretary Mulet directed the UN's emergency actions and played a central role in coordinating international aid. Secretary Mulet was the former SRSG for MINUSTAH, serving in this role from 2005 to 2007. He understood Haiti, its culture, and its challenges. In addition to aiding the Haitian people, Secretary Mulet had to reassure a traumatized UN staff in the aftermath of the earthquake. The MINUSTAH Headquarters was completely destroyed, and 96 UN peacekeepers lost their lives. Secretary Mulet provided critical leadership and helped the UN find

its footing. On January 22, he signed a Statement of Principles between the U.S. Government and the United Nations that recognized the primary responsibility of the Government of Haiti for synchronizing the response effort and the supporting role of the UN and U.S. Government

Major General Floriano Peixoto: Major General Peixoto was the MINUSTAH commander during the Haiti relief effort. He was out of the country when the earthquake hit, but upon learning of the disaster, he returned quickly to Haiti on 13 January. He took immediate action to reconstitute command and control, establishing an emergency operations center at the MINUSTAH logistics base at the Port-au-Prince airport. He also redistributed his forces, bringing troops from less-affected or unaffected parts of the country into the capital region and downtown Port-au-Prince.¹⁹¹ Since MINUSTAH already had a strong military presence in Haiti, it assumed primary responsibility for maintaining security. One of the first things Major General Peixoto and LTG Keen did, based on their previous interaction and personal relationship, was to develop a combined concept for how JTF-Haiti and MINUSTAH would work together. Peixoto and Keen agreed to collaborate and provide mutual support whenever possible. Their early dialogue set the stage for a series of combined efforts, with UN and JTF-Haiti troops operating alongside each other, administering food distribution points, and providing humanitarian aid.

Appendix D: Key U.S. Actors and Roles in Foreign Humanitarian Assistance/Disaster Relief

The Department of State

The Secretary of State has the long-standing, preeminent authority to manage the foreign affairs of the United States. The secretary is empowered to conduct and manage, on behalf of the President, all manner of foreign relations. The Foreign Assistance Act of 1961 (Pub. L. 87-195), as amended (Title 22 U.S. Code, section 2151) authorizes the Secretary of State to conduct exclusively most programs for foreign assistance. Within the Department of State, the Director of the Office of U.S. Foreign Assistance (DFA) is the principal staff member for coordinating foreign assistance programs. The DFA mission statement includes integrating “foreign assistance planning and resource management across State and USAID” and allocating “State and USAID foreign assistance funding.”¹⁹² The Department of State expended approximately \$845 million on international disaster relief in fiscal year (FY) 2011 and approximately \$860 million in FY 2012.¹⁹³

Chief of Mission

Under the direction of the President, the Chief of Mission to a foreign country has responsibility for the direction, coordination, and supervision of all U.S. Government executive branch employees in that country (except for Voice of America correspondents on official assignment and personnel under the command of a United States area military commander). Any executive branch department or agency having

personnel in a foreign country must keep the Chief of Mission to that country fully and currently informed with respect to all activities and operations. Departments/agencies must ensure that their personnel in a country comply fully with all applicable directives of the Chief of Mission.¹⁹⁴ The U.S. Chief of Mission will synchronize U.S. Government efforts in a particular country, and the U.S. Mission and country team will function as an epicenter for USG collaboration.

The United States Agency for International Development

USAID is an independent federal government agency and is the principal U.S. agency to extend assistance to countries recovering from disaster, trying to escape poverty, and engaging in democratic reforms. To accomplish its work, USAID frequently partners with private voluntary organizations, academia, business entities, and international organizations, and it often coordinates directly with foreign government agencies and with U.S. government organizations, including DoD. USAID has personnel detailed to most U.S. embassies around the world.¹⁹⁵

Although independent, Title 22 of the U.S. Code directs that the USAID Administrator reports to and receives foreign policy guidance from the Secretary of State. In 1995, President William J. Clinton designated the USAID Administrator as the President's Special Coordinator for International Disaster Assistance, pursuant to section 493 of the Foreign Assistance Act. To help establish a common vision, outline priorities, ensure unity of effort, and avoid major policy disagreements, the Department of State and USAID periodically publish a joint strategic plan. In practice,

USAID is the main U.S. government agency responsible for administering the major portion of U.S. foreign assistance, including key programs authorized by the Foreign Assistance Act of 1961.¹⁹⁶

Office of U.S. Foreign Disaster Assistance

Located within the USAID Bureau for Democracy, Conflict, and Humanitarian Assistance, OFDA is the principal entity responsible “for facilitating and coordinating U.S. Government emergency assistance overseas to save lives, alleviate human suffering, and reduce the social and economic impact of humanitarian emergencies worldwide.”¹⁹⁷ OFDA coordinates the U.S. Government response not only to all forms of natural disasters but also for emergencies involving civil conflict, acts of terrorism, or industrial accidents.

OFDA may deploy a Disaster Assistance Response Team (DART) into a disaster area to assist in the coordination of a response effort. A DART provides specialists, trained in a variety of skills, to assist U.S. embassies and USAID missions with the management of the U.S. Government response to a foreign disaster. Its composition and specific mission will depend on the nature, severity, and duration of a particular disaster. Depending on the scope of the disaster and composition of the team, the DART is capable of: making assessments, recommending response activities, managing relief efforts, coordinating the distribution of humanitarian aid, and providing liaison with government officials and NGOs. The DART works closely with the U.S. military during foreign disaster relief operations. In certain circumstances, the OFDA director may establish a response management team (RMT), which serves as the primary liaison between

the USAID headquarters and those entities conducting foreign disaster response operations. The RMT is the USAID principal point of contact for the DART, overseeing headquarters-based support to field operations, and is the USAID representative for working-level interagency coordination.¹⁹⁸

The Department of Defense

U.S. Code Title 10, section 404 is the basic authority for DoD to provide FHA/DR assistance, at the request or with the agreement of a foreign government and as directed by the President. Assistance may include the provision of transportation, supplies, services, and equipment. DoD receives annual authorization and appropriations for many assistance activities through the Overseas Humanitarian Disaster and Civic Aid (OHDACA) program. The authority under section 404 is distinct from Title 10 U.S. Code, section 401, which authorizes the Secretary of Defense to provide humanitarian and civic assistance “in conjunction with authorized military operations.”¹⁹⁹

Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense for Stability and Humanitarian Affairs

Within the Office of the Secretary of Defense (OSD), policy direction and oversight for FHA/DR operations are provided by the Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense for Stability and Humanitarian Affairs.²⁰⁰ The Defense Security Cooperation Agency (DSCA) is the DoD entity primarily responsible for administering most of the department’s international security cooperation programs. Within DSCA, the Humanitarian Assistance, Disaster Relief, and Mine Action Division

is responsible for managing DoD humanitarian assistance (HA) programs funded with OHDACA appropriations. DSCA coordinates management of DoD HA programs with DoD entities and with other departments/agencies of the U.S. Government, especially the Department of State and USAID.²⁰¹

Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff

The CJCS is the principal military adviser to the President and Secretary of Defense. He advises the Nation's civilian leaders on military operations, including those involving FHA/DR. The CJCS communicates the orders of the President and Secretary of Defense to the various combatant commanders. Within the Joint Staff, the Director of Strategic Plans and Policy (J-5) is primarily responsible for reviewing and recommending to the CJCS the approval of operational plans in support of FHA/DR efforts. The Director for Operations (J-3) recommends to the CJCS the form and substance of EXORDs for such activities. The Director for Logistics (J-4) provides oversight of supporting joint logistics operations for FHA/DR.²⁰²

Geographic Combatant Commanders (GCCs)

The GCCs have broad latitude in the way they plan and conduct FHA/DR operations. Commanders historically have created some form of JTF for FHA/DR operations. Some commanders also have the availability of a Standing Joint Force Headquarters (SJFHQ) around which to form a JTF. Conversely, they may use the core elements of the SJFHQ as augmentation to a JTF. In addition to a JTF—and, in most cases, prior to its deployment and full operational capability—the

GCC has the option of forming other entities to include:

- A crisis action team for immediate deployment and assessment of the situation.
- A survey team to provide an assessment of the host nations' capabilities and facilities; determine points of contact with other governmental and nongovernmental entities involved in an operation; and coordinate arrangements for the initial arrival of supplies, equipment, and personnel.
- A HACC to assist initially with interagency coordination.²⁰³

The National Security Council

The NSC serves as the President's principal entity for coordinating policy among various government departments and agencies. Within the NSC system, various committees may be involved in considering important policy issues and eventually recommending to the President a particular course of action. The Principals Committee—essentially the full NSC without the President or Vice President—historically has met to discuss important national security issues and to review and coordinate specific policy recommendations developed by subordinate NSC organizations. The Deputies Committee—normally composed of cabinet and independent agency deputies—is the next level down for the consideration of policy issues involving various departments and agencies.²⁰⁴ NSC Interagency Policy Committees, enable day-to-day coordination, provide policy analysis to the more senior committees, and ensure timely responses to Presidential decisions.²⁰⁵

Appendix E: Units Assigned to or Supporting JTF-Haiti

Army Forces

- XVIII Airborne Corps Assault Command Post (JTF-Haiti Headquarters from January 15-March 18, 2010)
- United States Army South (JTF-Haiti Headquarters from March 18 - June 1, 2010)
- 2nd Brigade Combat Team, 82nd Airborne Division
 - 1st Battalion, 325th Airborne Infantry (1-325)
 - 2nd Battalion, 325th Airborne Infantry (2-325)
 - 1st Squadron, 73rd Cavalry (1-73)
 - 2nd Battalion, 319th Airborne Field Artillery (2-319)

Naval Forces

- USS *Carl Vinson* (CVN-70)
- USS *Bataan* (LHD-5) Amphibious Ready Group (ARG)/22nd MEU
- USS *Higgins* (DDG-76)
- USS *Nassau* (LHA-4) ARG/24th MEU
- USS *Carter Hall* (LSD-50)
- USS *Fort McHenry* (LSD-43)
- USS *Ashland* (LSD-48)
- USS *Mesa Verde* (LPD-19)
- USS *Gunston Hall* (LSD-44)
- USNS *Comfort* (T-AH-20)
- USNS *Big Horn* (T-AO 198)
- USNS *Cape May* (T-AKR-5063)
- USNS *PFC Dwayne Williams* (T-AK-30009)
- USS *Normandy* (CG-60)
- USS *Bunker Hill* (CG-52)
- USNS *Sacagawea* (T-AKE-2)
- High-Speed Ferry Ship *Huakai* (MV)

Air Force Forces

- 601st AOC (AFNORTH)
- 612th AOC (AFSOUTH)
- 618th Tanker Airlift Control Center
- Air Mobility Command
 - 6th Air Mobility Wing, Air Mobility Command
 - 19th Airlift Wing
 - 43rd Airlift Wing
 - 60th Air Mobility Wing
 - California Task Force 2 Urban SAR Team
 - 62nd Airlift Wing
 - New York Task Force 1 Urban SAR Team

- 305th Air Mobility Wing
- 317th Airlift Group
- 615th Contingency Response Wing
- 621st Contingency Response Wing
- Joint Assessment Team, 621st Contingency Response Wing

Air Force Reserves

- 94th Airlift Wing
- 302d Airlift Wing
- 315th Airlift Wing
- 349th Air Mobility Wing
- 433d Airlift Wing
- 440th Airlift Wing
- 446th Airlift Wing
- 452d Air Mobility Wing
- 512th Airlift Wing
- 908th Airlift Wing
- 910th Airlift Wing
- 914th Airlift Wing
- 916th Airlift Wing
- 934th Airlift Wing
- Air National Guard
 - 107th Airlift Wing
 - 118th Airlift Wing
 - 123d Airlift Wing
 - 130th Airlift Wing
 - 136th Airlift Wing
 - 139th Airlift Wing
 - 145th Airlift Wing
 - 152d Airlift Wing
 - 164th Airlift Wing
 - 165th Airlift Wing
 - 172d Airlift Wing

- 176th Airlift Wing
- 179th Airlift Wing
- 182d Airlift Wing

- Air Education and Training Command
 - 97th Air Mobility Wing
 - 314th Airlift Wing

- Air Force Materiel Command
 - 412th Test Wing
 - Warner Robins Air Logistics Center

- Pacific Air Forces (PACAF)
 - 3d Wing
 - 15th Mobility Wing

Special Operations Forces

- 1st SOW, AFSOC
- 623rd AOC, AFSOC
- 4th PSYOPS Group (Airborne)
- 27th Special Operations Wing
- 919th Special Operations Wing, U.S. Air Force Reserves
- 193d Special Operations Wing, Air National Guard
- U.S. Army Special Forces Command (Airborne)
- 95th Civil Affairs Brigade (Airborne)

Joint Logistics Command

- 3rd Expeditionary Sustainment Command
- 377th Theater Sustain Command

JTF Port Opening

- 7th Sustainment Brigade, U.S. Army
- 10th Transportation Battalion, U.S. Army
- 544th Engineer Team (Dive), U.S. Army
- 688th Rapid Port Opening Element, U.S. Army
- 817th Contingency Response Group, U.S. Air Force
- Explosive Ordnance Group Two (EODGRU-2), Navy Expeditionary Combat Command (NECC)
 - USNS *Grasp* (T-ARS-51)
 - USNS *Henson* (T-AGS-63)
 - USNS *1st LT Jack Lummus* (T-AK 3011)
 - Mobile Diving and Salvage Unit TWO (MDSU-2)
 - Underwater Construction Team ONE (UCT-1), Detachment Alpha
 - Naval Mobile Construction Battalion SEVEN (NMCB-7)
- Naval Beach Group TWO (NBG-2)
 - Amphibious Construction Battalion TWO (ACB-2), NBG-2
 - Assault Craft Unit TWO (ACU-2), NBG-2
 - Navy Cargo Handling Battalion ONE (NCHB-1), NECC
- Naval Cooperation and Guidance for Shipping
- Coast Guard Maritime Transportation System Recovery Unit (MTSRU)
- USCG Cutter *Oak*
- Port Security Unit, USCG

U.S. Coast Guard

- USCGC *Forward*
- USCGC *Mohawk*
- USCGC *Tahoma* (WMEC-908)
- USCGC *Valiant*
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Appendix E

See Figure 6 for the core JTF-Haiti organization. The list of units in this appendix is not exhaustive. The author could not find a centralized and official list of all units assigned to or supporting Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE. Many individual services and organizations conducted their own studies on the operation and partially documented participation. Therefore, this appendix was compiled from a variety of sources and is meant to showcase the breadth of participation in Operation UNIFIED RESPONSE. Furthermore, many of the organizations did not deploy their entire units but provided select capabilities. For example, a number of U.S. Air Force Groups and Wings only deployed certain designated aircraft (e.g., C-17s, C-130s) that provided air mobility. The sources used for this appendix include: (1) Cecchine, Gary, *et al*, *The U.S. Military Response to the 2010 Haiti Earthquake: Considerations for Army Leaders*, Washington, DC: Rand, 2013; (2) U.S. Naval Forces Southern Command, Fourth Fleet, "Haiti HA/DR and Climate Change Impact on Naval Operations and SOUTHCOM AOR," briefing, undated; (3) Center for Naval Analysis, *Operation Unified Response: Reconstruction and Analysis of the U.S. Navy Response*, 13 August, 2010; (4) United States Marine Corps Center for Lessons Learned, *Humanitarian Assistance/ Disaster Relief Operation Unified Response*, August 23, 2010; (5) Wallwork, *et al*, *Operation Unified Response: Air Mobility Command's Response to the Haiti Earthquake Crisis*, Scott Air Force Base, Illinois: Office of History, Air Mobility Command, December 2010; and (6) Lagan, Christopher, "UPDATE: Coast Guard response to Haiti earthquake," *Coast Guard Compass*, January 15, 2010.

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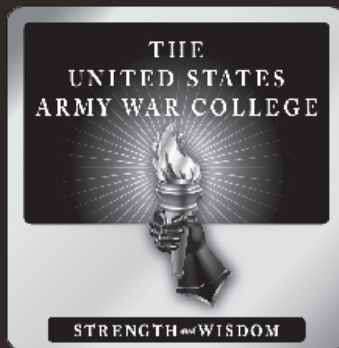
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