AFRICOM: Reconstruction and Stability Through the Provincial Reconstruction Team-Enhanced, Enabled by Unity of Command

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Introduction

Africa Command (AFRICOM), given its unique command structure with coequal deputy commanders from the Department of State (DoS) and Department of Defense (DoD), has an opportunity to partner with African countries and apply theater security cooperation (TSC) and reconstruction and stability (R&S) operations in a more integrated and coherent whole of government approach. However, it will face challenges to integrate all instruments of national power and eliminate interagency (IA) parochialisms in conjunction with a requirement to solicit input from African nations in support of common goals. In order to be successful, AFRICOM must identify a process model through which it will employ its resources that will contain elements of numerous United States Government Department and Agencies (USG-D/A) while coordinating U.S. efforts with international partners, non-governmental organizations (NGO), private venture organizations (PVO) and of critical importance, African nations. After providing a historical perspective on military/interagency integration efforts, along with lessons learned in their application in Iraq and Afghanistan, this paper outlines a way to achieve unified action within AFRICOM via unity of command and unity of effort incorporating all elements of national power. We feature a process that focuses on empowering the Provincial Reconstruction Team-Enhanced (PRT-E) concept enabled through a defined functional command and control structure as the means to achieve regional objectives.

Background

One of the biggest challenges facing the U.S. Government is integrating the actions of the USG-D/A to ensure unity of effort and unity of command where their responsibilities either overlap or are required to facilitate each other’s efforts in accomplishing strategic/operational objectives. The 9/11 Commission Report is replete with examples of interagency issues and failures within the executive departments.

Integration issues are not just a recent phenomenon. The “Small Wars Manual,” written in 1940 and based on U.S. Marine Corps experience in the late 19th and early 20th century, encapsulated what it had taken Marines to conduct what we today call full spectrum operations. Though antiquated, the manual covered issues that are still applicable today such as “Relationship with the State Department, Military-civil relationship, Training, Disarmament of a Population,
Military government, and elections processes” to name a few (United States Marine Corps 1940).

The manual further recognizes the importance of unity of effort as well, by stating, “The efforts of the different agencies must be cooperative and coordinated to the attainment of the common end” (United States Marine Corps 1940, SWM 1-9). Finally, an entire section dedicated to the Marine Corps interaction with the State Department identifies the lack of defined principles of what was termed “Joint Action,” but called for adherence to standing Navy Regulations and encouraged cooperation and integration (United States Marine Corps 1940, SWM 1-19 - 1-20). The fact that the manual was mothballed soon after it was drafted illustrates the failure of the military to recognize the importance of Security, Stability, Transition, and Reconstruction (SSTR) operations and, to small a degree, the enduring failure of the government as a whole to resolve interagency issues.

Facing a serious insurgent threat, the U.S. in Vietnam began an advisory effort aimed at mitigating the impact of Communism while winning the hearts and minds of the local population. Several different U.S. government organizations that included the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), USAID, and the DoS participated in the effort. “Each agency developed its own program and coordinated it through the American embassy” (Andrade and Willbanks 2006, 12). There was no single command structure that tied these programs into the military command structure in Vietnam who, at the time, was primarily focused on the conflict and the application of kinetic combat power. Recognizing this, then President Lyndon Johnson created the Civil Operations and Revolutionary Development Support (CORDS) program in May of 1967 via National Security Action Memorandum (NSAM) 362 (Johnson 1967). Additionally, the President appointed, as three-star equivalent, Robert Komer as General Westmoreland’s deputy for “Pacification (Revolutionary Development)” (Johnson 1967, 1). CORDS created a unique command structure for its time with a military commander having both a civilian deputy and military deputy, similar to a degree to AFRICOM’s command structure. The most important thing President Johnson did was aligning all U.S. efforts in Vietnam under one commander, ensuring unified action.

The US military has recently expanded its doctrine to include stability and civil support operations. DOD Directive 3000.5 elevated stability and civil support operations to core competency operations, equal to that of major combat operations. The US Army’s recently published FM 3-0 “OPERATIONS” and FM 3-07 “STABILITY OPERATIONS” are clear examples of the militaries acknowledgement of the changing operating environment that is currently dominated by SSTR operations. Additionally, the Army’s Center for Army Lessons Learned published “PRT Playbook: Tactics, Techniques, and Procedures” in September 2007. This handbook serves as a guide to prospective PRT commanders and PRT members. These three significant publications not only adequately address the role of the military in SSTR operations, but also address other elements of national power with an emphasis on unity of effort to accomplish national objectives.

In addition to efforts of the military to improve its processes relative to integrating civilian USG agencies in operational planning and execution, civilian agencies have also attempted to improve integration. President Bush, via National Security Presidential Directive/NSPD-44, came close
to establishing a command and control structure with regard to R&S operations by specifically assigning the DoS as the lead agency for such operations and defining the roles of other USG-D/A who support their efforts. The President recognized the need for improved USG-D/A integration by stating:

“To achieve maximum effect, a focal point is needed (i) to coordinate and strengthen efforts of the United States Government to prepare, plan for, and conduct reconstruction and stabilization assistance and related activities in a range of situations that require the response capabilities of multiple United States Government entities and (ii) to harmonize such efforts with U.S. military plans and operations” (Bush 2005, 2).

The overall intent of NSPD-44 is the establishment of the Office of the Coordinator for Reconstruction and Stabilization (S/CRS) by the DoS. Instead of defining a clear chain-of-command with regard to R&S operations, the DoS creates the office of S/CRS and then directs it to coordinate its efforts via the National Security Council process. In this construct, DoS is the lead agency, but it holds no authority over the DoD and other agencies of the U.S. government it may need support from to accomplish specific objectives. Complicating the coordination responsibilities of the S/CRS are the U.S. Ambassadors to each country. The Presidents direct representative to a particular country, the Ambassador falls directly under the President and is be-holding to no one other than the President.

S/CRS, in an effort to establish a framework from which to execute their NSPD-44, developed the “Interagency Management System for Reconstruction & Stabilization” (IMS). Approved by the S/CRS coordinator Ambassador John Herbst on 22 January 2007, the IMS is designed to assist USG agencies in Washington, US Embassy (USEMB) Chiefs of Mission (COM), and military commanders manage complex R&S operations while ensuring integration of all elements of national power (Department of State, Office of the Coordinator for Reconstruction and Stabilization 2007, 3).

In addition to establishing the framework for the IMS, S/CRS established a set of criteria that must be met in order to initiate a national response for both long-term and immediate crisis situations through its publication of “Triggering Mechanisms for ‘Whole-of-Government’ Planning for Reconstruction, Stabilization and Conflict Transformation” (Department of State, Office of the Coordinator for Reconstruction and Stabilization 2007). According to the Triggering Mechanisms for “Whole-of-Government” Planning for Reconstruction, Stabilization and Conflict Transformation proposals for initiating “whole of government” R&S planning should be based on the following criteria (Department of State, Office of the Coordinator for Reconstruction and Stabilization 2007, 1-2):

- Importance: Impact on US national security and foreign policy

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1 While NSPD-44 instructs the DoS to “coordinate” the efforts of all USG-D/A and defines “what” each element of the interagency must do, it repeats mistakes of President Johnson prior to the establishment of CORDS with regard to pacification efforts in Vietnam by failing to establish unity of command for those efforts. With department secretaries on a level plain with regard to a “rank structure”, and absent directive Presidential guidance, department secretaries simply cannot effective “lead” other departments.
- **Magnitude**: Regional impact; potential scale of humanitarian needs; potential for significant US military involvement
- **Likelihood**: Probability of a crisis occurring, as indicated by various intelligence community watch lists, USAID, and/or assessments by the UN or other international organizations
- **Capacity**: Ability of the impacted country and neighbors to respond effectively to the crisis

The IMS construct provides the S/CRS the ability to coordinate USG efforts through the Country Reconstruction and Stabilization Group (CRSG). A Washington D.C. based organization; the CRSG is the central coordinating body for the USG effort. The graphic below graphically depicts the coordinating mechanism of the USG. The Integrated Planning Cell (IPC) deploys to the appropriate Geographic Combatant Commander (GCC), and is composed of relevant Interagency (IA) planners and experts, falls under the authority of the Embassy’s Chief of Mission (COM), and coordinates with the CRSG, COM, and GCC. In the end, no one individual or agency is actually responsible for the whole of USG SSTR operations. Ultimately left to a myriad of coordinating efforts, personalities become a deciding factor in the overall effectiveness of American policies.

The IMS and *Triggering Mechanisms for “Whole-of-Government” Planning for Reconstruction, Stabilization and Conflict Transformation* appears to provide a solid foundation from which to execute SSTR operations, however, flexibility in execution will be key to ensure success. The creation of S/CRS, its response to the Presidential direction contained in NSPD-44 through developing the IMS, and its subsequent staffing and approval by the other primary USG-D/A, demonstrates positive signs of desire from the interagency to achieve unity of effort at the National level.
United States Command & Control Diagram for R&S Operations

Source: Interagency Management System for Reconstruction and Stability Operations
(Department of State, Office of the Coordinator for Reconstruction and Stabilization 2007)

DoD Directive 3000.05, Military Support for Stability, Security, Transition, and Reconstruction Operations, compliments Presidential guidance from NSPD-44 and the on-going efforts of the DoS S/CRS. DoD Directive 3000.05 elevated SSTR to a core competency, equal to that of major combat operations in addition to adopting organizational changes within the DoD for support to SSTR operations (England 2005, 2). The Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, Military Departments, and OGA’s were directed to establish leadership positions within their organizations focused on SSTR and to ensure that all levels of professional military education (PME) incorporated SSTR specific training (England 2005). While the Directive is lacking in how change at the operational level will be implemented, it provides ample guidance to higher levels and signifies the increasing recognition of how important SSTR operations are now and will be in the near future.

Provincial Reconstruction Teams

PRTs are not intended to replace or act as a host nation’s government; rather they seek to improve the capacity of the current government. PRTs stabilize an unstable area through an integrated civil-military focus characterized by a whole of government approach that employs all elements of national power to achieve its objectives. The PRT is designed to help improve
stability of the host nation through building governance capacity, enhancing economic opportunities, and delivering essential public services such as security, law and order, health care, education, sanitization, and other basic services. The end state of a PRT is achieved once the host nation is capable of ensuring provisions for security and public safety are sufficient to support traditional means of development, and its political stability is sustainable upon the withdrawal of the PRT and other international forces (Center for Army Lessons Learned (CALL) 2007, 3-6).

Unity of effort is essential to ensuring success of a PRT. It requires coordination and cooperation within each contributing USG-D/A, international partners, NGO’s, IGO’s, and other organizations in addition to the host nation. It is of vital importance that the PRT leadership “ensures that the guidance coming in from multiple agencies is carefully coordinated and mutually reinforcing (Center for Army Lessons Learned (CALL) 2007, 14). Coordination and guidance provided to the PRT from the national level, if not properly nested within other contributing agencies, could have negative impacts at the tactical / operational level from which the PRT operates.

Provincial Reconstruction Teams in Afghanistan

Commanded by a military service member, the US PRT model in Afghanistan is typically comprised of an average of 80 personnel, three of which are civilians representing the DoS, USAID, and USDA (Katzman, Afghanistan: Post-War Governance, Security, and U.S. Policy 2008, 33). The remainder of personnel is military service members that make up the commanders staff, civil affairs teams, a force protection unit, intelligence officers, and other specialists (Perito, United States Institute of Peace 2007). PRT staffing is conducted through the joint sourcing process, in which service components provide personnel in response to request for forces from the Commander, CENTCOM (United States Government Accountability Office 2008, 9).

The military component of Afghanistan PRT’s performs a variety of tasks ranging from development, reconstruction, governance activities, PRT security, and administrative tasks. In addition to U.S. membership, PRTs also include representatives from the Afghan Ministry of the Interior (MOI) and other local nationals who serve as technical experts and interpreters and liaise with local community leaders (The White House 2008, 2). As noted with the U.S. CORDS program in Vietnam, integration of local nationals, both civilian and military, is critical in order to achieve unity of effort with regard to the host nation. The Afghan nationals serving on PRTs provides the PRT a higher level of initial credibility with local / tribal leaders and enables their ability to affect positively the region. Appointing a MOI representative to the PRT was done as an effort to improve PRTs ability to build relationships and extend the reach of the Government of Afghanistan (GOA) (McNerney 2005-2006, 42).

Lines of authority and clear distinction of responsibilities from the lead nation perspective are lacking in the US Afghanistan model, however. While each PRT has a defined leader, the leader does not have the ability to exert command authority over the other contributing agencies activities (Abbaszadeh, et al. 2008, 50). As a result, the planning process is incoherent and an interagency project development plan with joint goals “does not appear to be a consistent feature
of PRT decision-making” (Abbaszadeh, et al. 2008, 50). Unity of effort at the PRT level is largely based on personalities. The fact of the matter is that there is no executive level interagency organization specifically tasked, and empowered, with overall responsibility for coordination and oversight of PRTs (Abbaszadeh, et al. 2008, 48). As a result, when there are conflicts within the PRT, they are passed up through specific agency stovepipes for resolution (Perito, United States Institute of Peace 2007).

Staffing requiring civilian personnel to accomplish key tasks has been a consistent challenge for interagency departments (Gallis 2008, 8). For example, only 37 experts from the USDA have served as PRT advisors since May 2003 (U.S. Department of Agriculture: Foreign Agricultural Service 2008). These advisors have come from a variety of different agencies within the Department, indicating an inability to sustain focus due to a shortage of manpower (U.S. Department of Agriculture: Foreign Agricultural Service 2008). Additionally, the DoD has been responsible for funding nearly all of the costs associated with PRTs (United States Government Accountability Office 2008, 10). This includes security, life support, logistical sustainment, and housing costs (United States Government Accountability Office 2008, 10). There is only one source of programmatic funding for Afghanistan PRTs, but just as PRTs in Iraq, they have the ability to coordinate with other US funded programs for access to additional money (United States Government Accountability Office 2008, 11).

Afghanistan PRTs have made significant strides. They have evolved from a primarily exclusive military composition to an increasingly civil-military team. Their ability to provide security for civilian experts from a variety of governmental agencies to non-governmental aid agencies has enabled a broadened response to a plethora of issues. Fruits of their labor are illustrated in school construction projects, health care clinic construction or refurbishment projects, road infrastructure improvement projects, assisting with communication between provincial and central government entities, and assisting with developing increased provincial government capacity (United States Government Accountability Office 2008, 8). In the Ghazni Province, almost every school is now open, where only a year ago many were closed due to threat and intimidation from the Taliban (Katzman, Afghanistan: Post-War Governance, Security, and U.S. Policy 2008, 32). Additional efforts in the Ghazni Province are road improvement projects, providing medical equipment to the local hospital with new emergency services including 19 ambulances to improve care for rural citizens, and providing micro-grants for small business that improve their ability to hire new workers, restock inventory, and repair business equipment (The White House 2008). In Khost, PRT activities focused on road building and district center construction that tie the people to their government have led to significant security improvement (Katzman, Afghanistan: Post-War Governance, Security, and U.S. Policy 2008, 32). They are also focused on assistance to repair the Kinaki Dam electrical facility to help expand access to electricity across the southern portion of the country (The White House 2008).

**Provincial Reconstruction Teams in Iraq**

The Bush Administration, in its November 2005 “National Strategy for Victory in Iraq,” announced a strategy called “clear, hold, and build” (Katzman, Iraq: Post-Saddam Governance and Security 2008, 39). In conjunction with the announcement of this new strategy, the Administration established PRTs in Iraq. In contrast to the Afghanistan model, US PRTs in Iraq
are lead by a Foreign Service Officer (FSO) from the DoS with other team members sourced from USAID, USDA, DoD, contract personnel, and interpreters (Katzman, Iraq: Post-Saddam Governance and Security 2008, 39). There are currently two types of PRTs operating in Iraq: Original PRTs, and Embedded PRTs (ePRT). In both cases, the military component provides security and protection for civilian officials and specialists, allowing them greater freedom of movement in parts of Iraq that would not otherwise be possible (Tarnoff 2008, 24). The civilian component focuses on development of governance, economic improvement, infrastructure development, and providing essential services. Besides security functions, the DoD contribution of civil affairs soldiers to the PRT enable not only doctrinal CA functions for the PRT, but also provides the PRT with important substitutes for civilian agency vacancies (Perito, Provincial Reconstruction Teams in Iraq 2007, 6).

ePRTs, because they are embedded within military units who contribute to the ePRTs requirements, are experiencing greater unity of effort than original PRTs. Unity of effort appears to be best achieved within the ePRTs where civilian efforts are integrated and nested within Brigade Combat Team (BCT) / Regimental Combat Team (RCT) operations. The unity of effort experienced between the ePRT and its military counterpart is further facilitated through coordinated and shared information flowing to and from higher levels of command within both the military and civilian side of the house.

While success at the tactical level continues to improve, PRTs in Iraq have experienced many of the same issues noted in the review of PRTs in Afghanistan; germane and worth a review are funding, training, overall coordination, and PRT oversight issues.

With the recent change in US, military doctrine that recognizes stability operations as a core military mission, the role of the DoD and its participation in stability operations, via the PRT, was legitimized. Military components of the PRT look for Quick Impact Projects (QIP) that have an immediate impact on locals in an effort to “win the hearts and minds” of the populace and to stem the tide of insurgent activity. These projects are not always coordinated with other elements of US instruments of power, thus opening the door to critics who note that this lack of coordination results in untimely projects and duplicative efforts between the PRT, NGOs, and other non-governmental organizations. For example, schools have been built through PRT efforts without coordination with the US Department of Education to ensure that teachers and teaching materials are available (Perito, The U.S. Experience with Provincial Reconstruction Teams in Afghanistan by Robert Perito: Special Reports: U.S. Institute of Peace 2005, 9).

The lack of oversight and coordination as a source of friction is exacerbated as PRTs have access to various sources of money that are managed by numerous agencies and intended for different, yet specific, purposes. PRTs have access to the military CERP funds and funding from specific USG-D/A such as LGCD funds through USAID (U.S. House of Representatives, Committee on Armed Services, Subcommitte on Oversight & Investigations 2008, 22). USAID’s Local Governance Program (LGP), Community Action Program (CAP), and the Community Stabilization Program (CSP) are also funding sources available to PRTs (United States Government Accountability Office 2008, 15). Furthermore, PRTs in Iraq have access to Quick Reaction Funds (QRF) (U.S. House of Representatives, Committee on Armed Services, Subcommitte on Oversight & Investigations 2008). The numerous funding sources make it
nearly impossible to account adequately for where funds are obligated, which makes it difficult to measure the effectiveness or impact the money is actually having. Absent of clear guidance and directions, PRTs are left to execute “tactical” level plans with no tie-in to supporting operational or strategic objectives.

Finally, PRT specific training is offered by different agencies that primarily focus on agency specific training vice a centralized training program that integrates the various USG-D/A (U.S. House of Representatives, Committee on Armed Services, Subcommitte on Oversight & Investigations 2008, 40). Historical lessons experienced with CORDS in Vietnam seem to have been lost or overlooked.

**PRT Lessons Learned for AFRICOM**

The mission of a PRT, along with its structure, personnel, resourcing and planning process, must be adaptable to its current environment with an ability to evolve over time as situations change (Department of State, Office of the Coordinator for Reconstruction and Stabilization 2008, 6). Due to its transitional nature and the varying environments in which they operate, it is impossible to develop a definitive single mission statement that is applicable to every PRT. Each PRT should be resourced and capable of accomplishing four general objectives: 1) Improve stability, 2) Increase local institutional capacity, 3) Facilitate reconstruction activities, and 4) Execute a strong strategic communications program (Center for Army Lessons Learned (CALL) 2007, 6). Specific mission statements for each PRT should be derived from these four general objectives as they apply to the operational environment applicable to each individual team.

PRT’s are all generally structured as a joint civil-military unit consisting of 50 to 300 personnel (Jakobsen 2005, 11). A standard table of organization has not been permanently established for PRTs for good reason. Manning level requirements must be determined based on a preliminary assessment of the area in which the PRT will operate and organized in response to the environment (Department of State, Office of the Coordinator for Reconstruction and Stabilization 2008, 6). Once the preliminary assessment is conducted, PRT leaders must have the ability to source the PRT in a manner that provides requisite levels of expertise in the areas of need that are identified. Where the US has not enjoyed success however, is in its ability to consistently provide PRT’s with required civilian experts due to difficulties finding volunteers from existing employees and difficulties in recruiting and training new personnel (Perito, USIPeace Briefing: Provincial Reconstruction Teams in Iraq 2007). The DoD has stepped in and provided civil affairs personnel to fill a number of unfilled DoS billets, even though they may not be trained to function in that specific job (Tarnoff 2008, 27). To ensure the PRT is postured for success, the USG must develop the capacity to source required personnel.

Command relationships and organizing the PRT in a manner that provides unity of effort is critical to the PRTs success. Historically, the US has not effectively integrated its civilian agencies and departments with its military component very well. The historical example regarding US pacification efforts in Vietnam and the CORDS program illustrates this. As alluded to earlier, it was not until President Johnson, frustrated by the inability or unwillingness of government agency leaders to unify combat and pacification efforts, mandated a single command structure through NSAM 362 that all elements of national power were unified in
Vietnam (Johnson 1967). Other examples of integration and unity of effort being done well are usually the result of situations where leaders’ personalities are the impetus for success vice any prescriptive direction from a higher authority, as noted by LtGen David Barno and US Amb Zalmay Khalizad’s development of a unified staff in Afghanistan (Griffin 2007, 35-36). Another significant example of functional interagency unity of effort is found in the interaction between Ambassador Robert Oakley and LtGen Robert Johnston, USMC, during Operation Restore Hope. The first key to their success was that they got along (Oakley and Casey 2007, 149). Secondly, due to the US Liaison Office not being large enough to constitute a formal Country Team, the two “agreed on alternative informal coordination mechanisms” (Oakley and Casey 2007, 149). Both leaders’ deputies played a significant supporting and collaborative role through attending all meetings of their boss’s counterpart and Oakley and Johnston agreed to meet daily to ensure their efforts were coordinated and complimentary (Oakley and Casey 2007, 149).

Unfortunately, in both previously noted cases, once there was a turnover of the primary leaders, both situations eroded along agency paradigms to the detriment of the overall mission. “PRTs require integration at all levels for command guidance, planning, and support to achieve unity of [effort]” (Department of State, Office of the Coordinator for Reconstruction and Stabilization 2008, 7).

PRT’s must be led by the appropriate agency based on the developed mission of the PRT and expertise required to accomplish the mission, not by the agency that provides the preponderance of resources (Department of State, Office of the Coordinator for Reconstruction and Stabilization 2008, 7). Additionally, PRT’s must be enabled through a framework that provides direction from appropriate USG-D/A’s and allows for bottom-up refinement based on assessments of the operating environment and team requirements to satisfy its specific mission (Department of State, Office of the Coordinator for Reconstruction and Stabilization 2008, 7). NSPD-44 assigned responsibility for S&R operations to the DoS and directed the establishment of the Office of the Coordinator for Stability and Reconstruction. NSPD-44 fails, however, to assign ultimate responsibility to a specific agency or department. In order to effectively integrate all required elements of national power to provide unity of effort in S&R operations, this organization (S/CRS) must be empowered to organize and direct the actions of other USG-D/A’s as opposed to its current role as a “coordinator” as stipulated in NSPD-44.

PRTs are comprised of personnel from various departments and agencies. Each must first bring an understanding of their parent organization’s mission, capabilities, and limitations as are pertinent to the mission of the PRT. An organizational training program must establish this understanding. The challenge then is how to best integrate the capabilities of each contributing department and agency into the PRT in order to accomplish the teams mission. This integration must begin before the individual deploys to the PRT and will be best served through an interagency training program. The power of one USG-D/A alone is not sufficient to achieve national objectives; all elements of national power must work cohesively and in a complimentary manner. This cohesiveness will only be truly achieved through training in a benign environment, not in the operational environment.

For US led PRTs in Afghanistan, the Army provides training for Army, Navy, and Air Force personnel. Centered in Ft Bragg, the Army’s PRT training is provided to active duty, guard, and reserve forces set to deploy for service on a PRT. PRT commanders and senior military staff
members receive theater and mission specific training for a three-week period just prior to their team’s arrival for general pre-deployment training. Several weeks after the military PRT members training is concluded, civilian members (who desire to attend) arrive at Ft Bragg for classroom and field training, focused primarily on survival skills and preparing them for participation in a mission rehearsal exercise. Iraq specific PRT training for civilian members is limited to classroom instruction only, as there is currently no program that provides field training to them (U.S. House of Representatives, Committee on Armed Services, Subcommittee on Oversight & Investigations 2008, 40).

Current programs fall short of providing the level of training required of both military and civilian personnel as the majority of either group does not possess previous civil-military interaction (Abbaszadeh, et al. 2008, 9). The PRT training at Fort Bragg does not even train the military and civilian members at the same time, eliminating a perfect venue to begin achieving cohesion and collective understanding. The DoS has developed a PRT-related training program based in a classroom environment that is offered at the Foreign Service Institute (U.S. House of Representatives, Committee on Armed Services, Subcommittee on Oversight & Investigations 2008, 40). The training is offered to members of any USG-D/A; however, it is not mandatory, even for DoS personnel (U.S. House of Representatives, Committee on Armed Services, Subcommittee on Oversight & Investigations 2008, 40).

The House Armed Services Subcommittee on Oversight and Investigations conducted more than 94 surveys and interviews of previous and current PRT members between September 2007 and March 2008. Eighty-six percent of those surveyed cited significant challenges with regard to the quality of training they received, with sixty-nine percent rating it as insufficient (U.S. House of Representatives, Committee on Armed Services, Subcommittee on Oversight & Investigations 2008, 69-70). The most common recommendation for improving future training was that the team should train as a team, with military and civilian PRT members participating collectively prior to deployment (U.S. House of Representatives, Committee on Armed Services, Subcommittee on Oversight & Investigations 2008, 70).

Civil-military integration requires collaboration and a shared vision of a particular mission and its associated end state. US-led PRTs have deployed with limited preparation and training for working within a civil-military construct (McNerney 2005-2006, 39). On the other hand, members of British-led PRTs train and deploy together, which fosters an understanding of their mission and how civil-military personnel complement each other to achieve team objectives (McNerney 2005-2006, 40). Current US training programs, specific to PRTs, are insufficient and fail to achieve adequately cohesion, a key element to achieving unity of effort. Michael J. McNerney, on a trip to Afghanistan, interviewed both military and civilian personnel assigned to PRTs. Comments made by each “side” illustrate issues that are likely a result of the poor training and education process and reflected frustration among team members. For example, one civilian member who was a retired military service member commented that “this place is completely dysfunctional” as he, and other civilians perceived, that the military personnel were hesitant to support them and did not treat them as members of the team (McNerney 2005-2006, 37). Military members reported disappointment in the civilian members of the PRT as they were perceived to have little authority vested in them by their parent department, did not completely understand their role on the PRT, and usually reported for duty with little to no resources.
(McNerney 2005-2006, 37). Without an institutional and mandatory integrated training program that explains capabilities, limitations, and legitimate expectations, each element of a PRT is left to personalities and figuring it out “on the fly.”

PRT capabilities have developed over time, however, PRT planning and operations remain decentralized with a noted absence of clear objectives and guidance from relevant USG-D/A’s who source them and from higher operational commands in the countries within which they operate (U.S. House of Representatives, Committee on Armed Services, Subcommittee on Oversight & Investigations 2008, 18). With access to ample funding and this lack of overarching guidance, PRTs are often left alone to decide what projects they will accomplish based on their judgment and tightly focused viewpoint. As a result, the ability to evaluate effectively their performance does not exist (U.S. House of Representatives, Committee on Armed Services, Subcommittee on Oversight & Investigations 2008, 18). The problem with multiple assistance programs that are implemented by different agencies with different funding sources is the lack of not only programmatic priorities, but more importantly, the lack of a coherent overall US end state. PRTs, as part of the overall US plan, lack an integrated decision-making process and prioritization of effort that facilitates the accomplishment of US strategy within Iraq and Afghanistan. There is currently no “unity of funding” to support PRTs and access to funding is confusing as each funding source has its own authorities and limitations (U.S. House of Representatives, Committee on Armed Services, Subcommittee on Oversight & Investigations 2008, 32).

Jointly owned by the Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO), the Department for International Development (DFID), and the Ministry of Defense (MOD), Britain’s Stabilization Unit provides a model for SSTR operations that has not only increased interagency unity of effort, but also possesses unity of funding. The Stabilization Unit is responsible for managing the Stabilization Aid Fund that comprises the primary source of funding for British PRTs (British Stabilisation Unit n.d.). Not only does the joint ownership of the Stabilization Unit increase unity of effort at the PRT level, its common funding mechanism alleviates ambiguity and provides a common frame of reference with regard to fund availability, accessing funds, and what the priorities for the funds are.

Coordinating the efforts of PRTs relevant to funding and executing projects with NGO’s has been problematic. Additionally, projects are not always coordinated with other elements of US National power, which opens the door for critics who note that this lack of coordination results in untimely projects and duplicative efforts between the PRT, NGOs, and other non-governmental organizations. NGO’s, obviously, do not fall under any level of control by the USG. Efforts to include them through coordination and training are an objective of the USG in order to incorporate their capabilities in achieving US national objectives.

The current PRT model employed by the British enjoys positive overall relationships with NGOs. Through proactive efforts on behalf of their governments to include NGOs in both pre-deployment training and routing planning meetings once operating in theater, NGO’s are more likely to operate within the British AO with collective confidence (Abbaszadeh, et al. 2008, 30, 44). This confidence enables greater results through coordinated efforts.
Despite interagency coordination and staffing issues, U.S. PRTs have accomplished much since their humble beginnings in Afghanistan in 2002. The relevance of U.S.-led PRTs in the future is contingent, ultimately, on unity of effort through unity of command. Efforts on behalf of President Bush through NSPD-44 and the establishment of S/CRS, the DoD through DoD Directive 3000.05, DoS’s development of the IMS, and the US Army Manual FM 3-0 are examples of positive signs of the recognition within senior US governmental and military leaders that greater interagency cooperation is required for the US to secure strategic end states. As US involvement in Iraq begins to taper off and involvement in Afghanistan increases, the newly created GCC, AFRICOM, will face a variety of challenges where US strategic interests are at stake. We will do well to apply lessons learned from recent history, and specifically those from Iraq and Afghanistan that are relevant to security, stability, transition, and reconstruction operations. For just as vast as the continent of Africa is, so too are the opportunities for the US and its international partners to initiate SSTR operations in coordination with African nations to provide for basic and essential services, governance, the rule of law, and humanitarian aid and relief. Failure on our part to address adequately the issues within Africa will result in opportunity for other nations such as China to increase their influence and for terrorist organizations to establish safe-havens from which to plan and launch acts of terror throughout the globe.

Recommendations and Conclusion

“PRTs must have clear objectives against which to measure success or from which to identify alternate ways and means for achieving success. They must have a clear, unified chain of command to achieve unity of effort. They must have the right resources both in terms of funding and in terms of qualified personnel. Funding streams must make sense so they can be coordinated or deconflicted.” (U.S. House of Representatives, Committee on Armed Services, Subcommittee on Oversight & Investigations 2008, 31).

PRT’s, though faced with a plethora of issues and problems have evolved to a point where they are making positive impacts on the governments, militaries, and populations of Iraq and Afghanistan. Their utility as one of several means to accomplish US / coalition objectives in Iraq and Afghanistan has been proven to the extent that, as a concept, AFRICOM should recognize their applicability as a means to enable the accomplishment of US objectives within Africa. Given the PRT concept as a means, ensuring unity of effort at the team level poses a significant challenge that must be resolved. This paper demonstrates that without unity of command and a mechanism to enable unity of effort, achieving strategic and regional objectives has been rare.

The immediate challenge for AFRICOM is developing a mechanism, or a means, that will ensure the accomplishment of US strategic and regional objectives. This mechanism must be enabled through a command and control structure that provides unity of command for all elements of national power in order to alleviate bifurcated direction and guidance that currently plagues PRTs in Iraq and Afghanistan. AFRICOM must make bold recommendations to solicit unity of command that will establish trust within supporting USG-D/A’s as well as with African nations. AFRICOM itself cannot mandate unity of command. However, it must be cognizant of previous successes such as CORDS in Vietnam and historical challenges as recent as the current PRT...
concept in Iraq and Afghanistan. Cognizant of these issues, AFRICOM should leverage appropriate lessons learned from each as it articulates an argument to national level leadership to mandate unity of command in an effort to embolden the command as the USG’s premier organization with overall responsibility for US efforts in Africa. Simply relying on coordination between significant numbers of ambassadors, each likely to have their own vision for their particular piece of the African continent, and the various USG-D/A’s, each with its own organizational priorities and mandates, will not suffice. This is not to say that AFRICOM should have autonomy in executing US strategy relevant to Africa. Regarding Ambassadors, they must remain as a distinct resource to the President and should not subordinate their function to that of the combatant commander. Reality is that the USG requires independent and separate lines of authority to the President to ensure a system of checks and balances. These lines of authority can be constructively reduced, yet still provide independent evaluation of a situation. Differences between the leaders, ambassadors and the COCOM can be minimized through effective coordination.

Recommendations

Historical successes and failures with regard to reconstruction and stability operations were significantly determined by the command and control relationships between the various contributing agencies providing personnel and resources to each particular situation.

AFRICOM Headquarters Organization

Source: Haynesly Blake, LtCol, USMC, AFRICOM OPLOG Current Operations Department
The chart above depicts the current organizational structure of AFRICOM’s headquarters. What makes AFRICOM unique among its GCC peer commands is its inherent interagency flavored staff. By the very nature of its staff composition, significantly weighted with representatives from the interagency and its co-equal civilian and military deputies, AFRICOM possesses an innate ability to plan and execute its national level tasks and regional strategy in a holistic manner inclusive of all elements of national power. Unfortunately, for AFRICOM, they are not empowered with unity of command of all elements of US national power. Relying on coordination with other USG-D/A’s to accomplish national objectives; AFRICOM will struggle to adequately and efficiently accomplish its strategic and regional objectives. History has demonstrated that even under the best of circumstances the clash in personalities and organizational priorities create significant obstacles to implement effectively strategic and regional initiatives.

**Recommendation 1:** Articulate the necessity of unity of command over all elements of US national power and create the office for the Director of Reconstruction and Stability. The graphic below illustrates the recommended addition of the office for the “Director for Reconstruction and Stability” to AFRICOM’s organizational structure. This addition will provide AFRICOM the ability to serve as the preeminent representative organization for the US. It will enable AFRICOM, through unity of command, to apply holistically all elements of national power to achieve US national objectives within the continent. It also allows for appropriate checks and balances through the ambassadorial structure currently in place. Additionally, it capitalizes on the IMS through which all USG-D/A’s can leverage their capabilities simultaneously through an integrated command and control structure.
**Recommended Addition to the AFRICOM Command and Control Structure of the “Office for the Director for Reconstruction & Stability”**

**Recommendation 2:** Recognizing the applicability of the PRT concept as a key means through which to accomplish US strategic and regional objectives, The graphic below is the recommended organizational structure for the PRT-E. Considering applicable successes and failures of the current PRT structure, the PRT-E is organized and staffed to ensure unity of effort at the tactical (or team) level. Enabled through unity of command at the COCOM level, the PRT-E is designed to operate throughout permissive to non-permissive environments. Based on a preliminary assessment of a specific operating environment, conducted in collaboration with the host nation, the PRT-E leadership will have the ability to determine manpower requirements based on validated short, mid, and long term goals / projects that are coordinated by the COCOM, embassy country team, and the host nation government.
**Recommmended Organization Structure for the PRT-Enhanced**

**Recommendation 3:** Aligning with AFRICOM’s Theater Strategy that notes its desire to seek “willing and capable states to address African security challenges” and to reinforce success in liberalization and improved governance in “designated” African states, the following countries (chart below) are recommended as initial countries that AFRICOM should consider to invest time and resources in based on both US and African national security interests (Ward 2008, 15):
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nation</th>
<th>Nation Interest</th>
<th>US Interest</th>
<th>African Interest</th>
<th>Focus Area for US Involvement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Kenya            | • Maritime security  
• Trade  
• Combating terrorism  
• Fostering democracy  
• Domestic stability | • Maritime security  
• Trade  
• Natural resources  
• Combating terrorism  
• Fostering democracy  
• Domestic stability | • Anti-terrorism  
• Trade  
• Combating terrorism  
• Border security  
• Democratic nation  
• HIV/AIDS reduction  
• Economic integration  
• Regional Stability | • Anti-terrorism  
• MD-to-md TSC  
• Infrastructure improvement  
• Foreign Direct Investment  
• Humanitarian Aid  
• Governance/Rule of Law  
• HIV/AIDS reduction |
| Gulf of Guinea Nations  
• Ghana  
• Côte d’Ivoire  
• Togo | • Energy expansion  
• Trade  
• Maritime security | • Energy/natural resources  
• Trade  
• Maritime security | • Energy resource infrastructure development  
• Security of energy resource infrastructure  
• Development/protection of natural resource capacity  
• Wildlife management  
• HIV/AIDS reduction  
• National border security | • Maritime TSC  
• MD-to-md TSC  
• Infrastructure improvement  
• Governance/Rule of Law  
• Foreign Direct Investment  
• Humanitarian Aid  
• Wildlife/ecodevelopment & protection  
• Drug eradication |
| Botswana         | • Partnership w/US  
• Natural resource trade  
• Promote Botswana’s successful democracy w/in Africa | • Partnership w/in southern portion of continent  
• Natural resource access (diamonds)  
• Promote Botswana’s successful democracy w/in Africa | • Development assistance with its successful/growing economy (pillar w/in Africa)  
• HIV/AIDS reduction  
• Agricultural capacity  
• Tourism | • MD-to-md TSC  
• HIV/AIDS reduction  
• Infrastructure development  
• Foreign Direct Investment |
| Nigeria          | • Maritime security  
• Trade  
• Energy expansion  
• Facilitate continuing civilian rule  
• develop democracy | • Maritime security  
• Trade  
• Energy/natural resources  
• Facilitate continuing civilian rule  
• develop democracy | • Security of energy/natural resources in Niger Delta region / underways  
• Trade  
• Border security  
• Spread of democracy | • Maritime TSC  
• MD-to-md TSC  
• Infrastructure improvement  
• Governance/Rule of Law  
• Foreign Direct Investment  
• Humanitarian Aid  
• Wildlife/ecodevelopment & protection  
• Agricultural development |

**Recommended African Nations for Initial AFRICOM Partnership**


**Recommendation 4:** The following chart is a general set of lines of operation (LOO) recommended providing a starting point for AFRICOM to establish LOO’s for each of the African nations it chooses to collaborate with a PRT-E. The ultimate focus of these LOO’s is improving the confidence of the people, for without their confidence achieving endearing stability and legitimate governance is impossible.
General Logical Lines of Operation for AFRICOM

**Enabling Recommendations**

In order for AFRICOM to be successful in their application of the aforementioned recommendations, a number of enabling recommendations must be addressed. First, S/CRS must be fully funded and staffed in order to ensure appropriate lines of financing and personnel with required subject matter expertise are available for the AFRICOM commander and his staff to employ.

Secondly, PRT-E’s should be civilian led and supported by the military, if required, based on an assessment of the operational environment. There are specific tasks that the military is well suited to perform, however to overcome any perception that AFRICOM is an attempt to “militarize” Africa, civilians should lead the PRT-E with military objectives nested within overall PRT-E objectives.

Thirdly, interagency training must be institutionalized and mandatory for PRT-E members prior to deploying to the AFRICOM AOR. This training must focus on educating the PRT-E regarding capabilities and limitations of each contributing USG-D/A, expectations of NGO’s and how their capabilities may be incorporated and leveraged to facilitate overall PRT-E objectives, and provide enough time for adequate training to support rotations in staff members. Additionally, PRT-E pre-deployment training must address the culture and language of its specific operating environment. The most important focus of PRT-E training should be
eliminating interagency parochialisms and to foster interpersonal relationships that emphasize the whole of government approach to resolving issues within Africa, highlighting that no one USG-D/A can do it alone.

Finally, development of measures of performance (MOP) and measures of effectiveness (MOE) to ensure the PRT-E’s long-term goals and objectives are being accomplished must be identified and promulgated. Reporting mechanisms must be developed and executed in an integrated manner with established timelines for reporting in order to assess adequately the teams’ accomplishment of its objectives.

**Conclusion**

The US has considerable national security interests in Africa. As a result, the US Government cannot allow the same mistakes with regard to SSTR operations as they have in Iraq and Afghanistan. AFRICOM has the potential to synergize a cohesive whole of government approach within Africa, but faces significant challenges the US must adequately address to ensure the commands success. Assisting willing African nations in the establishment of security must be priority one for AFRICOM. This will ensure legitimacy of subsequent efforts and will begin to improve the confidence of the people of Africa and their governments. Addressing development challenges within Africa must be linked with security sector reform in order to ensure endearing success. Additionally, AFRICOM will have to bridge the divide that exists between NGO’s and PVO’s in an effort to incorporate their capabilities and funding and to coordinate their activities to better respond to African challenges and eliminate unnecessary duplication in effort.

AFRICOM will also have to deal with international competition for legitimacy and cooperation within Africa. For example, the Peoples Republic of China (PRC) is emerging as a significant peer competitor of the US with regard to investment, development, and trade within Africa. Currently, there are over 700 Chinese state companies conducting business within Africa, making them the third largest source of foreign trade with Africa behind the US and France, but ahead of the UK (McFate 2008, 14). The US must effectively mitigate and counter the PRC as they continue to expand their influence within Africa. This is another reason for AFRICOM to have unity of command and to serve as the focal point of US involvement within the continent. Working to overcome African perceptions that AFRICOM is an attempt at US militarization in Africa is yet another obstacle that must be cleared in order to accomplish strategic and regional objectives. The US must be sensitive to the colonial legacy within Africa and how it may create suspicions about AFRICOM and US intentions. Colonial governments established within Africa did very little to establish African governance and to develop civil societies (Putman 2008, 6). Education was neglected; manufacturing and agricultural capacity was under-developed as colonists selfishly exploited the continent without consideration for its future (Putman 2008, 16). PRT-Es must have a clear, unified chain of command in order to achieve unity of effort. They must have access to the appropriate subject matter experts and have ready access to funding, preferably controlled and managed by their higher headquarters, vice control by various parent departments and agencies. The AFRICOM COCOM must be empowered to conduct joint / interagency planning with the ability to direct and oversee the joint / interagency plan inclusive of all contributing agencies. This will strengthen the planning efforts at the COCOM level, with
the COCOM in charge, to ensure unity of effort through unity of command. Success at the COCOM level may provide an adequate example and impetus for a Goldwater-Nichols like measure of reform for the entire interagency system.

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Bibliography


