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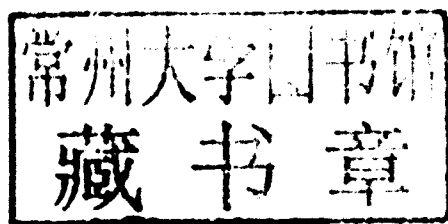


PROTECTING OUR PORTS

DOMESTIC AND INTERNATIONAL POLITICS
OF CONTAINERIZED FREIGHT SECURITY

SUZETTE R. GRILLOT
REBECCA J. CRUISE
WITH
VALERIE J. D'ERMAN

PROTECTING OUR PORTS



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Protecting Our Ports

Domestic and International Politics of Containerized
Freight Security

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and

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ASHGATE

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List of Acronyms

| | |
|---------|---|
| AAPA | American Association of Port Authorities |
| ACE | Automated Commercial Environment |
| AEO | Authorized Economic Operator |
| AIS | Automatic Identification System |
| ANOA | Advance Notice of Arrival |
| APEC | Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation |
| ASEAN | Association of Southeast Asian Nations |
| ATA | American Trucking Association |
| ATS | Automated Targeting System |
| BEET | Business Executives Enforcement Team |
| CARICOM | Caribbean Community |
| CBP | Customs and Border Protection |
| CBSA | Canadian Border Services Agency |
| CIA | Central Intelligence Agency |
| CITS | Center for International Trade and Security |
| COCOM | Coordinating Committee for Multilateral Export Controls |
| CSI | Container Security Initiative |
| C-TPAT | Customs-Trade Partnership Against Terrorism |
| DHS | Department of Homeland Security |
| DPW | Dubai Ports World |
| DNDO | Domestic Nuclear Defense Office |
| DOC | Department of Commerce |
| DOD | Department of Defense |
| DOE | Department of Energy |
| DOS | Department of State |
| DOT | Department of Transportation |
| EU | European Union |
| EXCOMM | President's Executive Committee |
| FAA | Federal Aviation Administration |
| FAST | Free and Secure Trade Program (Canada-US) |
| FBI | Federal Bureau of Investigation |
| FDA | Food and Drug Administration |
| FEMA | Federal Emergency Management Agency |
| GAO | Government Accountability Office |
| GDP | Gross Domestic Product |
| HEU | Highly Enriched Uranium |
| IATA | International Air Transport Association |

| | |
|----------|--|
| ICE | Immigration and Customs Enforcement |
| ICMTS | Interagency Committee on Marine Transportation System |
| ILWU | International Longshore and Warehouse Union |
| IMO | International Maritime Organization |
| IMPACS | Implementation Agency for Crime and Security |
| IMSR | International Maritime Security Regime |
| IOs | International Organizations |
| IPSLO | International Port Security Liaison Officers |
| ISF | Importer Security Filing |
| ISPS | International Ship and Port Security |
| IR | International Relations |
| MA | Maritime Administration |
| MDA | Maritime Domain Awareness program |
| MERCOSUR | Southern Common Market |
| MTS | Marine Transportation System |
| MTSA | Maritime Transportation Security Act |
| MTSNAC | Marine Transportation System National Advisory Council |
| NAFTA | North American Free Trade Agreement |
| NATO | North Atlantic Treaty Organization |
| OPEC | Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries |
| PIP | Partners in Protection |
| PSI | Proliferation Security Initiative |
| RFID | Radio Frequency Identification Devices |
| RPM | Radiation Portal Monitors |
| SAFE | Security and Accountability For Every Port |
| SBI | Secure Border Initiative |
| SFI | Secure Freight Initiative |
| SOLAS | International Convention for the Safety of Life at Sea |
| TSA | Transportation Security Administration |
| TWIC | Transportation Worker Identification Credential |
| UAE | United Arab Emirates |
| UNASUR | Union of South American Nations |
| UNCLOS | United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea |
| UPS | United Parcel Service |
| USCG | United States Coast Guard |
| VACIS | Vehicle and Cargo Inspection System machine |
| WCO | World Customs Organization |
| XLA | Express Delivery and Logistics Association |

Chapter 1

Introduction

The sea is a place where many go to enjoy sun, sand and surf, but it is also the location of much commerce and occasional crime, death and destruction. In November 2008, for example, Indian and other citizens and tourists in Mumbai became the target of terrorists who entered the city by sea. After sailing from Pakistan on a cargo vessel, the terrorists overtook an Indian fishing boat and murdered its crew before boarding small inflatable boats and landing in two different places south of Mumbai. Entering the city by sea meant the terrorists could avoid encountering Indian security officers stationed at border points and air ports of entry. And because they entered Indian waters on an Indian fishing vessel, the terrorists did not raise any concern with the Indian coast guard. The armed gunmen proceeded to kill approximately 200 people and held the city of Mumbai hostage for nearly 60 hours before Indian commandos were able to bring the deadly event to an end (Rabasa, Blackwil, et al. 2009). Fearing similar attacks in the United States, port and police authorities from New York City traveled to Mumbai in December 2008 to study the terrorist attacks and strategize on how to prevent such incidents (“Lessons from the Mumbai Terrorist Attacks” 2009; Lubold 2009).

India is not alone in its experience with maritime or seaport centered violence. The possibility of a seaport attack became a reality at Israel’s Ashdod port in the spring of 2004. On March 14, two suicide bombers breached port security by hiding behind fake walls placed in freight containers. While the terrorists’ explosions missed the fuel and chemical tanks held at the port, ten people were killed and 16 injured. In fact, Israel has experienced numerous maritime terrorist attacks and has detected and prevented many terrorist plots involving its coastline (Lorenz 2007). Additional examples abound. Rebels in Somalia, for example, have targeted ships – particularly fuel tankers – with mortar attacks at Mogadishu’s seaport, leaving port authorities and police forces scrambling to enhance security in and around the port area (“At Least Six Rockets Fired” 2007). Moreover, cargo containers have been used to traffic not only weapons and explosives, but drugs, humans, including terrorists themselves, and contraband of all sorts (Turnbull et al. 2006; “Stowaway Terrorists Steal Into America” 2002; “Colombian Coffee Comes with Smuggled Cocaine” 2009). While these types of attacks and misuses of cargo containers are really nothing new, they have seemingly increased in recent years and are leading to more significant concern and more targeted action.

Greatest attention has been focused on the use of seaports and cargo containers to transport, deliver, and even detonate nuclear or other weapons of mass destruction. Terrorist and other violent groups have certainly tried to acquire weapons of

mass destruction, and certainly could use the global system of international trade and the ubiquitous cargo container to transfer and ultimately explode such dangerous weapons. Such an incident could be catastrophic. If a 10- to 20-kiloton nuclear weapon – about the size of the bomb used in Hiroshima, Japan in 1945 and approximately the equivalent of 15,000 tons of TNT – were exploded in a large seaport, one organization estimates that somewhere between 50,000 and 1 million people would die, approximately \$50 to \$500 billion of property would be damaged, trade losses would add up to about \$100 to \$200 billion, and the overall “indirect costs” of the incident would be around \$300 billion to \$1.2 trillion (ABT Associates as cited in Medalia 2003, 7). With such large and varied damage estimates being offered, it is no surprise that government authorities in particular, but the general public as well, have become concerned.

Cargo Containers, International Trade and Global Security

To be sure, cargo containers and seaports, in particular, are essential to global commerce. Although maritime merchants have traversed the world’s waterways for centuries, trading goods at ports of call on nearly every continent, the shipping container is a much more recent addition to global trade – and has contributed significantly to its tremendous growth. Before the 1960s when the 20- and 40-foot standard cargo containers and trans-Atlantic container ships were introduced to international trade, intermodal transportation of cargo was far more difficult. Although improvements in intermodal transshipments were evident in the late 19th and early 20th centuries – particularly between rail and road transportation – the time it took to successfully transfer goods was significantly longer than what could be accomplished after the container was introduced (Rodrigue and Notteboom 2009, 2). In the early 20th century, the pallet was considered the first important unit contributing to the enhanced intermodal transportation of goods. Primarily made of wood, a pallet or skid is a flat set of planks on which boxed or otherwise packaged goods can be stably placed and moved using a forklift or some other lifting device. Before the pallet it would take approximately three days to unload more than 10,000 cases of canned goods from a railcar. Once pallets and forklifts were introduced, the same 10,000 cases could be transferred in only four hours (Leblanc 2002). The development of the pallet, therefore, was a revolution in intermodal transportation itself, but nowhere near as revolutionary as the creation of the cargo container where goods could easily be transferred between ship, rail and truck for quick transport between producers, exporters, importers and consumers. The lack of standardization in container sizes and ships specifications hampered the fast flow of goods initially – particularly inland transfers – but by the 1970s maritime and inland transportation standards were set and the smooth and seamless movement of goods around the world has sailed forward ever since (Rodrigue and Notteboom 2009, 3-4).

With this transportation revolution in mind, it is clear that global ties – both economic and political – widened and deepened, allowing commercial relationships and related governmental regulations to expand and solidify. In fact, this revolution in transportation significantly affected what many refer to as “globalization,” particularly as markets opened and American and European companies continued their search for cheaper labor, raw materials and finished goods (Schulte 2005; Bryan and Farrell 1996). However, due to the end of the Cold War, the development of East European and Asian markets, and the resulting expansion of the free flow of goods, capital, labor and knowledge, a subsequent rise in transnational crime became evident (Kaplan 1994; Shelley 1995, 463-489; Williams 1994, 96-113). Difficulties in monitoring, policing, prosecuting and punishing global criminals that operate across borders provide significant challenges to US and international security environments. The primary concern prior to September 11, 2001, however, was with corruption, fraud, theft, and illegal trafficking of illicit goods and materials most likely to be used for personal gain. In the post-9/11 environment, authorities and citizens alike have become more concerned with terrorist exploitation of the globalized environment to perpetrate transnational terrorist violence. Concerns with corruption and the trafficking of dangerous and illegal goods, such as drugs, weapons, stolen property, and laundered money, as well as the trafficking of people – whether they are immigrants, slaves or terrorists – continue (Naim 2003). However, many public officials and private individuals in the United States consider international terrorism to be most problematic.

Even before September 11, 2001 authorities in the United States were concerned with security at ports of entry and exit and the misuse of or interference with cargo containers. In April of 1999, for example, President Bill Clinton established the Interagency Commission on Crime and Security in US Seaports and tasked the Commission with conducting “a comprehensive review of the nature and extent of seaport crime and the overall state of security in seaports” (Report of the Interagency Commission on Crime and Security in US Seaports 2000, iii). In its September 2000 report to the President, the Commission found that seaport security in the United States ranged from poor to fair at best, and only in a few cases was the state of seaport security considered good (Report of the Interagency Commission on Crime and Security in US Seaports 2000, v). This may be the case because prior to 9/11 aviation security was typically the only mode of transportation that received attention to any significant degree – and even then the attention was “sporadic” and “reactive” (Szyliowicz 2004, 355-356). After airplane hijackings, the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) would employ additional screeners to prevent weapons from being carried on board – and after a bomb destroyed Pan Am 103 in 1988 killing 270 people, the FAA focused its attention on screening suitcases and checked baggage (Ibid. 2004, 355-356).

In 1995 the US Department of Transportation (DOT) did state that they should undertake a review of maritime vulnerabilities and threats to both passengers and cargo, but nothing of significance emerged. Moreover, prior to 9/11, concerns with transportation security focused primarily on one form of transportation at a time

– air, sea or land, and most often on air – rather than concentrating on intermodal security and the real possibility that terrorists could exploit the global system of containerized freight movements to wreak havoc and cause damage, destruction and death (Ibid. 2004, 356-357). It was not until after the terrorist attacks in New York City and Washington, DC in 2001 that the vulnerabilities of global intermodal forms of transportation were highlighted. Since that time a number of measures have been developed, agencies have been created, agreements have been signed, programs have been implemented, and resources have been spent worldwide to minimize the economic, political and human impact of terrorist activity using the world's containerized freight chain.

September 11 and the Heightened Port Security Concern in the United States

In the United States there are approximately 7,000 miles of land border and 95,000 miles of shoreline. The country is therefore particularly concerned about the potential movement of dangerous weaponry into and throughout the country. With approximately 15 million cargo containers moving via sea vessel, train and truck each day – and with additional cargo entering the country by air – the probability that cargo containers may be used to transport and even detonate explosives, dirty bombs, or some other kind of weapon of mass destruction is very real. Ports of entry, particularly seaports, are viewed by some as one of the most vulnerable targets for a terrorist attack. A large percentage of cargo entering the United States flows through the nation's seaports (Hillyard 2005). Between 1999 and 2004, container traffic at the ten busiest seaports in the United States grew from 10% to 110%. Overall during that period, imports of containerized freight increased nearly 50% while exports grew at a rate of around 20% – and much of this growth has occurred since September 11, 2001 (Christopher 2009, 13).

Because of the significant threat that hidden bombs or explosives in cargo containers poses to the United States, the country has taken the lead in developing a number of port security initiatives and policies. For example, the United States government created the Department of Homeland Security (DHS) after the 9/11 terrorist attacks to bring together and centralize a number of agencies working on domestic or homeland security issues. Regarding port and container security, the basic US approach has been to employ “a layered defense” (Regenold 2007). A layered defense requires that multiple policies, programs, and actors function together to provide the most secure ports possible – the purpose being to identify, neutralize and eliminate breaches of security as containers are monitored from one layer to the next. The more overlapping, effective and consistent security layers are, the more protected US ports will be. In an effort to enhance policy and agency cooperation and to minimize inconsistencies in security programs and their implementation, the Department of Homeland Security was created to provide a framework and structure to share intelligence and enhance security