FM 7-98

OPERATIONS IN A LOW-INTENSITY CONFLICT

HEADQUARTERS
DEPARTMENT OF THE ARMY

DISTRIBUTION RESTRICTION: Approved for public release; distribution is unlimited.

FIELD MANUAL
NO. 7-98

*FM 7-98
Headquarters
Department Of The Army
Washington, DC, 19 October 1992

Operations In A Low-Intensity Conflict

Table Of Contents

Page

Preface viii

Chapter 1. Introduction 1-1
Section I. Background 1-1
1-1. Nature Of Low-Intensity Conflict 1-1
1-2. Environmental Considerations 1-1
1-3. Military Role In Low-Intensity Conflict 1-1
Section II Imperatives 1-2
1-4. Political Dominance 1-2
1-5. Unity Of Effort 1-2
1-6. Adaptability 1-2
1-7. Legitimacy 1-3
1-8. Perseverance 1-3
Section III. Operational Categories 1-3
1-9. Support For Insurgency And Counterinsurgency 1-3
1-10. Combatting Terrorism 1-3
1-11. Peacekeeping Operations 1-3
1-12. Peacetime Contingency Operations 1-4
Section IV. Leadership Challenges 1-4
1-13. Force Protection 1-4
1-14. Force Sustainment 1-4
1-15. Discipline Maintenance 1-5
1-16. Fratricide Prevention 1-6

Chapter 2. Support For Insurgency And Counterinsurgency 2-1
Section I. The Nature Of Insurgency 2-1
2-1. Goals 2-1
2-2. Environment 2-2
2-3. Characteristics 2-3
2-4. Popular And Logistic Support 2-4
2-5. Guerrilla Tactics 2-5

DISTRIBUTION RESTRICTION: Approved for public release; distribution is unlimited.

2-6. Development Phases 2-6
Section II. Brigade And Battalion Task Force In Counterinsurgency 2-7
2-7. Foreign Internal Defense Augmentation Force Operations 2-7
2-8. Conduct Of Tactical Operations 2-8
2-9. Planning 2-8
2-10. Operation Principles 2-10
2-11. Task Organization 2-12
Section III. Offensive Operations 2-13
2-12. Phase I - Latent And Incipient Insurgency 2-13
2-13. Phase II - Guerrilla Warfare 2-17
2-14. Phase III - War Of Movement 2-19
Section IV. Defensive Operations 2-19
2-15. Base Defense 2-20
2-16. Fundamentals Of Base Defense 2-21
2-17. Patrols 2-25
2-18. Security Of Lines Of Communication 2-26
2-19. Defense Against Guerrilla Offensive 2-27
Section V. Common Operations 2-27
2-20. Movement Security 2-27
2-21. Motor Movement 2-29
2-22. Rail Movement 2-30
2-23. Water Movement And Riverine Operations 2-30
2-24. Foot Movement 2-32
2-25. Air Movement 2-32
2-26. Border Operations 2-32
2-27. Urban Operations 2-34

Chapter 3. Combatting Terrorism 3-1
Section I. Terrorism 3-1
3-1. Definition 3-1
3-2. Nature Of Terrorism 3-1
3-3. Common Strategies And Tactics 3-1
3-4. International Network 3-3
3-5. Categories Of Terrorist Groups 3-4
3-6. Terrorist Objectives 3-4
3-7. Terrorist Targets 3-5
Section II. Antiterrorism And Counterterrorism 3-5
3-8. Antiterrorism 3-5
3-9. Terrorist Threat Conditions 3-9
3-10. Counterterrorism 3-12
Section III. Combatting Terrorism In LIC 3-13
3-11. Deployment In Contingencies 3-13
3-12. Priority Intelligence Requirements And Local Terrorism Indicators 3-17
3-13. Operations Security Measures 3-19

Chapter 4. Peacekeeping 4-1
Section I. Establishment Of A Peacekeeping Operation 4-1
4-1. Environment 4-1
4-2. Principles 4-2
4-3. Organization 4-3
4-4. Legal Status 4-4
4-5. Use Of Force 4-6
4-6. United States Response 4-7
4-7. Coordination Steps 4-9
4-8. Command And Control 4-11
Section II. Missions Of A Peacekeeping Force 4-13
4-9. Types Of Peacekeeping Operations 4-13
4-10. Peacekeeping Tasks 4-14
Section III. Tactics, Techniques, And Procedures 4-14
4-11. Observation 4-14
4-12. Patrolling 4-17
4-13. Traffic Control 4-19
4-14. Surveillance And Supervision 4-19
4-15. Prohibited Demonstrations 4-20
4-16. Negotiation And Mediation 4-20
4-17. Handover Of Prisoners Of War 4-21
4-18. Receipt Of Remains 4-21
4-19. Humanitarian Assistance 4-22
4-20. Information Gathering 4-22
4-21. Minefield Clearing 4-23
4-22. Investigation Of Complaints 4-23
4-23. Observer Techniques 4-24
4-24. Manning Of Checkpoints 4-25
Section IV. Planning 4-26
4-25. Political Factors 4-26
4-26. Guidelines 4-26
4-27. Technology 4-27
4-28. Estimate Of The Mission Area 4-28
4-29. Force Structure 4-28
4-30. Force Protection 4-29
4-31. Deployment Of Peacekeeping Force 4-30
Section V. Training 4-31
4-32. Personnel Selection 4-31
4-33. Predeployment Training 4-32
4-34. Tactical Skills Enhancement 4-33
4-35. Observation And Reporting 4-34
4-36. Communications Procedures 4-35
4-37. Language Instruction 4-35
4-38. Explosive Ordnance Training 4-35
4-39. Nuclear, Biological, Chemical Training Methods 4-35

4-40. Mission Sustainment Training 4-35
4-41. Morale, Discipline, And Administration 4-36
4-42. Post-Peacekeeping Mission Training 4-37

Chapter 5. Peacetime Contingency Operations 5-1
Section I. Conduct Of Peacetime Contingency Operations 5-1
5-1. Characteristics 5-1
5-2. Requirement For Rapid Response 5-2
5-3. Importance Of A Credible Response 5-2
5-4. Phases Of Contingency Operations 5-2
Section II. Planning 5-4
5-5. Coordination 5-4
5-6. Balance Of Forces 5-5
5-7. Planning For Uncertainty 5-6
Section III. Types Of Operations 5-7
5-8. Show Of Force/Demonstration 5-7
5-9. Offensive Operations 5-8
5-10. Noncombatant Evacuation Operations 5-9
5-11. Peacemaking Operations 5-10
5-12. Unconventional Warfare Support 5-11
5-13. Rescue And Recovery Operations 5-11
5-14. Support To Us Civil Authority 5-12
5-15. Disaster Relief Operations 5-13
Section IV. Operational Considerations 5-14
5-16. Execution By Planners 5-14
5-17. Psychological Operations 5-14
5-18. Logistics 5-14
5-19. Deception Plan 5-14
5-20. Command And Control 5-15
5-21. Operational Constraints 5-15
5-22. Principles 5-15
Section V. Introduction Of Forces Into A High-Threat Environment 5-16
5-23. Initial Assault 5-16
5-24. Development Of The Airhead 5-17
5-25. Defensive Operations 5-18

Chapter 6. Command, Control, Communications, And Intelligence 6-1
Section I. Command And Control System 6-1
6-1. Elements Of Command And Control 6-1
6-2. Command 6-2
6-3. Control 6-2
6-4. Commander's Authority 6-2
6-5. Commander's Presence 6-2
6-6. Commander's Leadership 6-3
6-7. Commander's Intent 6-3
6-8. Mission Tactics 6-4

6-9. Mission Orders 6-4
6-10. Command Relationships 6-5
Section II. Task Force Organization 6-6
6-11. Planning A Task Force 6-6
6-12. Brigade Task Force Organization 6-7
Section III. Communications 6-11
6-13. Communication Priority 6-11
6-14. Planning 6-11
6-15. Communications Means And Characteristics 6-13
6-16. Frequency Support 6-14
6-17. Predeployment Communications 6-15
6-18. Deployment Communications 6-15
6-19. Employment Communications 6-16
6-20. Sustainment Of Operations Communication 6-16
Section IV. Intelligence Preparation Of The Battlefield 6-17
6-21. Critical Factors 6-17
6-22. Requirements 6-18
6-23. Battlefield Area Evaluation 6-18
6-24. Terrain Analysis 6-18
6-25. Weather Analysis 6-20
6-26. Threat Evaluation 6-21
6-27. Threat Integration 6-23

Chapter 7. Combat Support 7-1
Section I. Fire Support 7-1
7-1. Planning 7-1
7-2. Artillery Units 7-4
7-3. Mortar Platoons/Sections 7-5
7-4. Antitank Companies/Platoons 7-5
7-5. Air Defense Units 7-6
7-6. Attack Helicopter Units 7-6
7-7. Tactical Air Support 7-6
7-8. Naval Gunfire Support 7-7
Section II. Engineer Support 7-8
7-9. Missions 7-8
7-10. Organization 7-8
7-11. Security 7-8
7-12. Engineers Used As Infantry 7-8
Section III. Army Aviation Support 7-8
7-13. Missions 7-10
7-14. Organization 7-10
Section IV. Military Intelligence 7-11
7-15. Missions 7-11
7-16. Organization 7-11
7-17. Categories Of Information 7-11
7-18. Data Disciplines 7-12

7-19. Synchronization Of Intelligence Information 7-12
7-20. Intelligence And Electronic Warfare 7-12
7-21. Intelligence Interaction..... 7-13
Section V. Special Environments..... 7-14
7-22. Jungles 7-14
7-23. Deserts 7-14
7-24. Mountains..... 7-14
7-25. Arctic Conditions..... 7-15
Section VI. Military Police Support..... 7-15
7-26. Missions..... 7-15
7-27. Organization 7-16
7-28. Military Working Dogs 7-17
Section VII. Psychological Operations..... 7-19
7-29. Integration..... 7-19
7-30. Unit Responsibilities 7-19
Section VIII. Civil Affairs Operations..... 7-20
7-31. Civil Affairs Support 7-21
7-32. Mission Accomplishment 7-21
Section IX. Nuclear, Biological, Chemical Operations 7-22
7-33. Smoke And Riot-Control Munitions..... 7-22
7-34. Organization 7-23
7-35. Operations 7-23
7-36. Decontamination..... 7-24

Chapter 8. Combat Service Support 8-1
Section I. Combat Service Support Guidelines..... 8-1
8-1. Fundamental Principles Of Support..... 8-1
8-2. Support Planning 8-2
8-3. Logistics Intelligence 8-2
8-4. Security 8-2
8-5. Combat Service Support Tailoring 8-3
8-6. Requirements 8-3
8-7. Categories Of Support 8-4
Section II. Support For Insurgency And Counterinsurgency Operations 8-5
8-8. Support Levels..... 8-5
8-9. Combat Service Support Units 8-5
8-10. Operational Bases 8-6
8-11. Maintenance..... 8-7
8-12. Transportation Planning 8-7
8-13. Medical Units 8-8
8-14. Personnel Service Support 8-8
Section III. Peacekeeping Operations 8-9
8-15. Logistical Civil Augmentation Program 8-10
8-16. Planning 8-10
Section IV. Peacetime Contingency Operations..... 8-11
8-17. Planning 8-11

8-18 Critical Tasks 8-11

Appendix A. The Urban Insurgent A-1

Appendix B. Smoke, Flame, Herbicides, And Riot Control Agents B-1

Appendix C. Operations And Techniques C-1

Appendix D. Related Operations D-1

Appendix E. Combined Operations E-1

Appendix F. Uses Of Mission-Oriented Protective Posture F-1

Glossary Glossary-1

References References-1

Authorization Letter ..... Authorization Letter

US NATIONAL POLICY
ON
ANTIPERSONNEL LAND MINES

On 16 May 96, The President of the United States announced a national policy that eliminates or restricts the use of antipersonnel land mines, beginning with those that do not self-destruct but eventually including all types. This policy is in effect now. It applies to all Infantry units either engaged in, or training for, operations worldwide.

Current US policy allows the use of non-self-destructing antipersonnel land mines only along internationally recognized national borders or in established demilitarized zones, specifically for the defense of Korea. Such mines must be within an area having a clearly marked perimeter. They must be monitored by military personnel and protected by adequate means to ensure the exclusion of civilians.

US national policy also forbids US forces from using standard or improvised explosive devices as booby traps.

Except for units in Korea or units going there for a designated exercise, this policy specifically forbids all training on or actual employment of inert M14 and M16 antipersonnel land mines either at the unit's home station or at a Combat Training Center except in the context of countermine or de-mining training. No training with live M14 mines is authorized, and training with live M16 mines is authorized only for soldiers actually on Korean soil.

This policy does not affect the standard use of antivehicular mines. It does not affect training and use of the M18 Claymore mine in the command detonated mode.

For the immediate future, units may still use self-destructing antipersonnel mines, such as the ADAM, when authorized by the appropriate commander. Under proper command authority, units may still emplace mixed minefields containing self-destructing antipersonnel land mines used to protect antivehicular land mines, for example, MOPMS or Volcano.

Users of this manual should consider all references to antipersonnel mines and the employment of minefields in the light of the national policy limiting the use of non-self-destructing antipersonnel land mines.

Readers should not construe any uses of the terms mines, antipersonnel obstacle, protective minefield, or minefield contained in this manual to mean an obstacle that contains non-self-destructing antipersonnel land mines, or booby traps.

PREFACE

This manual provides tactical-level guidance to brigade and battalion commanders and staff officers for planning, controlling, and coordinating combined arms operations in a low-intensity environment. This doctrine was derived from approved operational concepts. It contains tactics, techniques, and procedures for conducting brigade and battalion operations within each category of LIC.

This manual is for use by training developers as a source document for the combat critical tasks and missions of units operating in a low-intensity environment. It serves as a primary reference for both resident and nonresident LIC instruction presented to precommissioned, commissioned, and noncommissioned officers.

The proponent for this publication is US Army Infantry School. Send comments and recommendations on DA Form 2028 (Recommended Changes to Publications and Blank Forms) directly to the Commander, US Army Infantry School, ATTN: ATSH-ATD, Fort Benning, GA 31905-5410.

Unless this publication states otherwise, masculine nouns and pronouns do not refer exclusively to men.

DISTRIBUTION RESTRICTION: Approved for public release; distribution is unlimited.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"For to win one hundred victories in one hundred battles is not the acme of skill. To subdue the enemy without fighting is the acme of skill."

Sun Tzu

The possibility of US troops becoming involved in a low-intensity conflict (LIC) is ever increasing. This manual provides the framework for understanding LIC at the battalion and brigade levels to include the definition and nature of LIC, the military's role, imperatives, and operational categories.
It also provides leadership considerations that affect low-intensity operations.

Section I.
BACKGROUND

LIC is a politico-military confrontation between contending states or groups. It is below general war and above routine peaceful competition. It often involves protracted struggles of competing principles and ideologies. LIC ranges from subversion to the use of armed force. It is waged by a combination of means, employing political, economical, informational, and military instruments. LICs are often localized, usually in the Third World, but they contain regional and global security implications.

1-1. NATURE OF LOW-INTENSITY CONFLICT

The four instruments of national power are political, economical, informational, and military. LICs are politically dominated. Within the operational continuum, LIC overlaps peacetime competition, conflict, and war. The US goal is to maintain or return to routine peaceful competition and to allow for the development of democracy within the free world. This manual focuses on tactical units' tasks and missions across the operational continuum just short of declared war.

1-2. ENVIRONMENTAL CONSIDERATIONS

LIC is an environment that is characterized by the pursuit of national objectives in a political dimension. The military supports the political, economical, and informational instruments of national power. Military operations conducted in the LIC environment are also influenced by the physical and social environments in which they occur.

1-3. MILITARY ROLE IN LOW-INTENSITY CONFLICT

Military operations in LIC are normally joint in nature and are characterized by the indirect versus direct

application of force.

a. The Army role in LIC is identified in JCS Pub 3-07 and FM 100-20. The president sets policy, the CINC establishes how to implement those policies operationally, and the commanders on the ground establish how to execute them tactically. Unit contingency plans call for units to deploy to various locations and to conduct tactical operations, which have the potential to change from peace or conflict to war. However, the US intent in LIC is toprotect and advance its national interests without recourse of war.

b. The role of brigades and battalions across the operational continuum presents a unique challenge. No matter what parameters have been established for the use of force, a disciplined unit, with soldiers proficient at individual skills who are operating under a clear expression of the commander's intent, can perform successfully at the tactical level in this environment.

c. Soldiers must be prepared to operate in a variety of geographical conditions--from jungles and mountains to deserts and cities. These conditions, coupled with extremes in weather, can have a significant affect on operations. The language, religious, and cultural differences between our society and those that soldiers may come in contact with pose additional challenges. The basic values and beliefs that are common to US soldiers are not universally embraced. Also, the continuing growth of urban environments throughout the world makes operations in built-up areas significant in all types of human conflicts.

Section II.
IMPERATIVES

The tenets of AirLand Battle doctrine characterize successful conventional military operations and apply equally in LIC. Success in LIC requires planning and conduct of operations based on the following imperatives.

1-4. POLITICAL DOMINANCE

Political objectives affect military operations in conventional war. In LIC operations, they drive military decisions at every level--from the strategic to the tactical. All commanders and staff officers must understand these political objectives and the effect of military operations on them. They must adopt courses of action that legally support those objectives even if the courses of action are beyond traditional doctrine. For this reason, the planning and mission data analysis process in LIC should use the factors of METT-T with considerations to political factors.

1-5. UNITY OF EFFORT

Military leaders must integrate their efforts with both military and civilian organizations of the US and of countries we support to gain a mutual advantage in LIC. Military planners must consider how their actions contribute to initiatives that are also political, economical, and psychological in nature. Unity of effort calls for interagency, integration and cooperation. This permits effective action within our governmental system. Commanders may answer to civilian chiefs or may employ the resources of civilian agencies.

1-6. ADAPTABILITY

Adaptability is the ability and willingness to change or modify structures or methods to accommodate different situations. It requires careful mission analysis, comprehensive intelligence, and regional expertise. Adaptability is more than just tailoring or flexibility, which implies use of the same techniques in different situations. Successful military operations in LIC require the Armed Forces to use adaptability, not only to modify existing methods and structures but also to develop new ones for each situation.

1-7. LEGITIMACY

Legitimacy is the acceptance of the government's right to govern or of a group or agency to enforce decisions. It is neither tangible nor easily quantifiable. Popular votes do not always confer or reflect legitimacy. Legitimacy comes from the idea that authority is genuine and effective, and it uses proper agencies for good purposes. No group or force can create legitimacy itself, but it can encourage and sustain legitimacy by its actions. Legitimacy is the central concern of all parties directly involved in a conflict.

1-8. PERSEVERANCE

LICs rarely have a clear beginning or ending marked by decisive actions that end in victory. They are, by nature, protracted struggles. Even those short, sharp contingency encounters that do occur are better assessed in the context of their contribution to long-term objectives. Perseverance is critical to success but does not preclude taking decisive action. It requires careful, informed analysis to select the right time and place for action. Perseverance helps commanders reject minor, short-term successes in favor of actions in pursuit of long-term goals. These imperatives apply in all four LIC operational categories (see Section III).

Section III.
OPERATIONAL CATEGORIES

Military operations in LIC are divided into four operational categories. This section identifies the types of operations and roles of maneuver units within each category.

1-9. SUPPORT FOR INSURGENCY AND COUNTERINSURGENCY

US security interests may lie with an incumbent government or with an insurgency. The objective in insurgency is to overthrow the legally constituted government through subversion and armed conflict. In counterinsurgency (COIN), the objective is for the host government to defeat an insurgency through military, paramilitary, political, economic, psychological, and civic action. (See Chapter 2.)

1-10. COMBATTING TERRORISM

The aim of combatting terrorism is to protect installations, units, and individuals from the threat of terrorism. Combatting terrorism includes both antiterrorism and counterterrorism actions throughout the operational continuum (see Chapter 3). The program provides coordinated action before, during, and after terrorist incidents.

1-11. PEACEKEEPING OPERATIONS

PKOs are military operations that maintain peace already obtained through diplomatic efforts. A peacekeeping force supervises and implements a negotiated truce to which belligerent parties have agreed. The force operates strictly within the parameters of its terms of reference (TORs). Normally, the peacekeeping force is forbidden to use force, except for self-defense. (See Chapter 4.)

1-12. PEACETIME CONTINGENCY OPERATIONS

PCOs include such diverse actions as disaster relief; counter-narcotic operations; and land, sea, and air strikes. The unifying feature of these actions is the rapid mobilization of effort to focus on a specific problem, usually in a crisis. PCOs are guided at the national level by the crisis action system. (See JCS Pub 5-02.4). Often, these operations take place away from customary facilities. They require deep penetration and temporary establishment of long lines of communication (LOC) in a hostile environment. PCOs may require restraint in the use of force or concentrated violent actions. (See Chapter 5.)

Section IV.
LEADERSHIP CHALLENGES

Leaders must contend with disorientation caused by different cultures and values, unfamiliar and discomforting levels of poverty, uncertainty of purpose, and problems in identifying the enemy. The nature of the conflict requires restraint in the use of force. However, soldiers may be subject to severe provocation or the threat of death from the most unlikely sources at the most unlikely times. Leaders must also exert a positive influence when they do not have formal authority --for example, the need to rely on persuasion in dealing with foreign forces, other US Government agencies, or nongovernmental organizations and individuals.

1-13. FORCE PROTECTION

Force protection is a critical issue that is further complicated in the LIC environment.

a. Restrictions on the conduct of operations and the use of force must be clearly explained and understood by all echelons. Soldiers must understand that their actions, no matter how minor, may have far-reaching effects. Reasons for this may include treating the population with respect and courtesy, which is an important part of the intercultural preparation. Any action can be exploited rapidly, by both friendly and enemy media and PSYOP efforts. Commanders must always consider the aspects of force protection and how it relates to established ROE.

b. Winning the information fight is often an overlooked aspect. Language is a special consideration for all operations, whether interfacing with the established governmental agencies or with the populace. Considerations for the exchange of information in combined or unilateral operations must be examined. During decentralized operations, the ability to communicate with different agencies and the local populace helps in protecting the force.

1-14. FORCE SUSTAINMENT

The ability of friendly forces to sustain themselves in undeveloped areas and the support provided to and received from a host country are unique. Familiar support bases may not always be available. Locally procured support may not be suitable for US forces, and its provision may deprive the host country of

scarce resources needed for its own use. Small US units often operate independently. To provide a logistic base on the scene would elevate total US military presence; however, this may not be acceptable.

1-15. DISCIPLINE MAINTENANCE

Disciplined soldiers are vital to the successful performance of US forces in LIC. They must observe the ROE while coping with the stress of daily operations. Soldiers must adjust psychologically to enemy operations, which may include acts of terrorism, and must display acceptable practices to the local populace.

1-16. FRATRICIDE PREVENTION

The overriding consideration in any tactical operation is the accomplishment of the mission. Commanders must consider fratricide in their planning process because of the decentralized nature of execution in the LIC environment. However, they must weigh the risk of fratricide against losses to enemy fire when considering a given course of action. Fratricide is prevented by adhering to the following:

a. **Doctrine.** Doctrine provides the basic framework for accomplishment of the mission. Commanders must have a thorough understanding of US, joint, and host nation doctrine.

b. **Tactics, Techniques, and Procedures.** TTPs provide a "how to" that personnel at all levels understand. They are disseminated in doctrinal manuals and SOPs.

(1) *Planning.* A simple, flexible maneuver plan that is disseminated to the lowest level of command aids in the prevention of fratricide. Plans should include the maximum use of SOPs and battle drills at the user level. They should incorporate adequate control measures, and fire support planning and coordination to ensure the safety of friendly troops.

(2) *Execution.* The execution of the plan must be monitored with regard to the location of friendly troops and their relationship to friendly fires. Subordinate units must understand the importance of reporting their positions. Company and battalion commanders must know the location of their troops at all times. They must exercise positive control, particularly when employing artillery, mortars, and helicopter and air strikes.

c. **Training.** Individual and collective training contain many tasks that support operations in LIC. Well-trained soldiers know their capabilities and limitations. Training is the most important sector in preventing fratricide. Training is supported by--

(1) *Situational awareness.* Well-trained soldiers can accomplish routine tasks instinctively. This allows them to focus on what is happening around them; they can "see" the battlefield. They maintain an awareness of the relative location of enemy and friendly personnel.

(2) *Rehearsal.* Rehearsal is training for the mission at hand. Commanders at every level must plan time for this critical task.

CHAPTER 2

SUPPORT FOR INSURGENCY AND COUNTERINSURGENCY

"I have sworn eternal hostility against every form of tyranny over the mind of man."

Thomas Jefferson

The US may assist either a government or an insurgent force that is operating against a government. Once committed, brigades and battalion task forces (both heavy and light) augmented by SOF serve as the "cutting edge" of the joint task force (JTF) in both insurgency and COIN operations. To be successful, the commander must understand the insurgent as well as his specific role in COIN. This chapter discusses insurgency operations; the tactical maneuver commander's role in COIN operations in both offensive and defensive roles; and tactics, techniques and procedures for conducting COIN operations in all three phases of an insurgency. Normally, US forces will not be committed until Phase III of the insurgency. (See paragraph 2-6.)

Section I.
THE NATURE OF INSURGENCY

Insurgents must be understood before they can be defeated. This section discusses the characteristics, tactics, and environment of insurgency operations. An insurgency is an organized movement aimed at the overthrow of a constituted government through use of subversion and armed conflict. The members of the insurgent force are organized along political lines to support political, economic, social, military, psychological, and covert operations. The military or paramilitary arm of insurgencies normally use guerrilla warfare tactics. This is characterized by offensive action at the time and place of the guerrilla's choosing. This happens when the guerrilla can develop local superiority, relying on evasion rather than defensive combat for protection. Along with overt actions, an insurgency can be characterized by strikes, demonstrations, propaganda, political organization, and diplomacy.

2-1. GOALS

The initial goal of the insurgent movement is to replace the established government. The insurgent accomplishes this by--

a. Gaining support for the insurgent movement through humanitarian aid programs, propaganda, coercion, and terror. If he cannot gain active support, then he seeks passive support. Silence on the part of the populace, concerning insurgent activities, is passive support for the insurgent.

b. Using guerrilla warfare--

(1) To increase the population's vulnerability through the use of selective terrorism. The guerrilla attacks or destroys economic and political symbols upon which the government is founded. Overreaction by government forces or other authorities adds to the population's resentment toward the government and its support to the insurgency.

(2) To reduce government control. The guerrilla defeats small government forces and strikes where government forces are not located. This adds to the perception that the government cannot or will not provide security for the population and its property. In turn, this adds to the perception that the government cannot control the insurgents.

(3) To provide psychological victories. The guerrilla wants victories that psychologically benefit the insurgent movement. These victories may not be key in terms of material damage to the government or its armed forces. What the guerrilla seeks is a psychological advantage.

(4) To block government resources. The guerrillas seek to block or redirect resources that the government is trying to use in development programs.

(5) To weaken the resolve of government military forces. By defeating smaller elements of the government's military forces, the guerrilla further weakens limited assets. He also psychologically weakens the government forces' resolve to continue waging war.

2-2. ENVIRONMENT

The environment in which the insurgent operates must be examined from more than a geographical point of view. While terrain and climate are important factors, the political, economical, and sociological environments are vital.

a. Terrain. The guerrilla prefers to continue to live in his own home. He lives in camps if security does not permit him to live at home. The preferred camps are chosen for easy access to the target population, access to a friendly or neutral border, good escape routes, and good observation of approach routes used by government COIN forces. When COIN operations force the guerrilla out of his base camps, he sets up camps in rugged, unfriendly areas that are not easily penetrated by government forces.

b. Climate. The insurgent has an advantage since he is usually a native to the area and is accustomed to the climate. If government forces are familiar with the same climate, then the advantage is reduced.

c. Political Factors. The amount of government control in an area directly affects the ability of the insurgent to operate. The more government control, the less successful are insurgent activities. The insurgent will attempt to establish a shadow government, to disrupt normal government functions, and to destroy key government facilities and personnel. The level of government control in an area is reduced as the shadow government assumes those functions previously held by the legitimate government.

d. Economic Factors. Low standards of living and desires for economic reforms may be popular causes of resentment toward the government's economic policies. This enhances the insurgent's chances for success. The insurgent seeks to exploit this situation through the use of PSYOP. The insurgent obtains most of his logistic support from the local economy, which he normally will not disrupt. Insurgent forces can destroy a local economy as a "lesson" to the populace for obtaining support or obedience.

e. Sociological Factors. The more fragmented a society, the greater the chance for resentment by the

populace. The insurgent attempts to increase friction between different groups in society. These groups may be aligned along racial, ethnic, religious, or social lines. Language differences or tradition can also be a reason for alignment. Religious influences can play a major role in the sociological factors that affect the insurgent. The effect each factor has on the insurgent and his ability to operate changes with each situation. The commander's analysis of each factor helps determine what the effect will be before conducting COIN operations. Therefore, all factors must be analyzed to determine their weaknesses and strengths in relation to the insurgent. In planning for COIN operations, the commander exploits disclosed insurgent weaknesses and deprives the insurgent of any opportunity to exploit government weaknesses.

2-3. CHARACTERISTICS

By understanding the characteristics of the insurgent, the commander can determine strengths that must be reduced or avoided and weaknesses that can be exploited. The characteristics discussed in this paragraph provide a base to analyze the specific threat. No two insurgencies are the same; therefore, the commander planning COIN operations must analyze a specific situation to discover how characteristics apply.

a. Insurgent Strengths. Insurgents typically have many strengths that must be reduced.

(1) *Intelligence.* The intelligence networks in the insurgent infrastructure usually provide continuous and current information on government force dispositions, strengths, weaknesses, and abilities. The need for secrecy as an element of survival for the insurgent organization makes it hard for the government to penetrate and disrupt its forces. Early intelligence collection and analysis must be aggressive to build an effective data base. Pattern analysis and other techniques can remove such an advantage from the insurgent. COIN forces can also overcome this intelligence advantage through the use of deception, OPSEC, and COMSEC.

(2) *Indigenous characteristics.* Insurgents can blend with the local populace since they are usually part of it. This enhances their ability to operate with secrecy. The COIN force must identify the insurgent and remove him from the civilian populace. This is best accomplished through the use of population and resources controls. Civilians must not be injured or mistreated due to COIN operations.

(3) *Knowledge.* The insurgent's knowledge of the local populace and terrain is an advantage. It gives him the ability to employ PSYOP effectively through coercion of the local population. The COIN force must overcome this advantage by fostering a strong relationship between the government forces and the populace. The insurgent's advantage can be overcome by continuous COIN operations from a permanently stationed native COIN force and by skillful employment of these assets. This force consists of personnel from the local populace.

(4) *Motivation and discipline.* The insurgent leaders are trained and motivated. They reinforce motivation within the insurgent force by applying discipline. Usually, the insurgent is strongly devoted to a cause.

(5) *Limited responsibilities.* The insurgent is not usually responsible for maintaining normal governmental obligations toward society. This frees all his efforts to conduct operations in support of the insurgency goals. However, he may be tasked to perform certain political services (such as tax collection) by the insurgency shadow government.

(6) *Tactics.* The insurgent can employ a broad range of tactics--from terror and sabotage through conventional warfare. This enables him to escalate or deescalate antigovernment activity almost at will. Time is not a factor for the insurgent; he will take all the time necessary to do a thorough reconnaissance before any action.

(7) *Physical condition.* One of the major advantages the insurgent has is his ability to endure hardship. Due to the situation, he must survive with less, forcing him to adapt and be innovative.

b. Insurgent Weaknesses. Insurgents have some weaknesses that can be exploited.

(1) *Limited personnel and resource.* Difficulty in personnel recruitment and resupply of material can limit his operations. The COIN force should exploit these weaknesses by interdicting supply routes and facilities, by forcing desertion due to hardships, and by inflicting combat losses.

(2) *Individual factors.* The insurgent often endures a life of physical danger and privation. These stresses can be exploited by COIN forces. Stress factors include numerical inferiority to government forces, fear of being treated as a criminal if captured, and fear of violence to himself and his family. Other stress factors are combat and a hostile environment that weaken insurgent resolve. In some societies, good treatment, pardon, protection, food, shelter, and participation in the government may be stronger incentives than the fear of criminal punishment to induce desertions.

(3) *Operational factors.* Operational weaknesses may include security, which requires many resources and slows responsiveness. The insurgent's dependence on popular support is also a weakness. If support waivers or is withdrawn, the insurgent cannot operate effectively. Another potential operational weakness is the lack of sophisticated communications. This requires the insurgent to spend much time in preparing an operation. Political, religious, and ethnic differences among insurgent groups can be major exploitable weaknesses.

2-4. POPULAR AND LOGISTIC SUPPORT

Support is a major concern common to all insurgents. It can be divided into two categories: *popular* and *logistic.*

a. Popular Support. As discussed, the insurgent must have either the active or passive support of the populace to succeed. Popular support alone will not ensure the success of insurgent operations. Ineffective operations, unwise decisions, and poor leadership could preclude his success.

(1) Some form of popular support should exist for the insurgent to initiate and conduct operations. If popular support does not exist or is withdrawn, the insurgent cannot conduct operations with any hope of success. Therefore, one of the prime considerations for the COIN force is to gain and maintain the support of the populace. Areas where active support is given to the insurgent are good targets for PSYOP. Populace and resource control operations are major factors in removing support for the insurgent.

(2) In areas where only passive support is given to the insurgent, government efforts through PSYOP and CA, as well as security provisions, must be initiated to gain active support and trust of the government. In areas that the government controls and where the populace supports the government, the government emphasizes the four major operations in IDAD (balanced development, security, neutrality, and mobilization) to maintain that support.

b. Logistic Support. This support is one of the insurgent's greatest weaknesses. In early operations, he relies on his base of popular support for logistic requirements. As the insurgent force develops and expands, its logistic needs may increase beyond the abilities of the internal support base. If overall goals for the insurgent movement are not imminent, the insurgent may need extra logistic support from another source.

(1) If the insurgent receives support from external sources, the problem of security exists for supply lines, transport means, and storage facilities. External support should not be considered a prerequisite to begin COIN operations. It is an added factor that enhances the abilities of the insurgent. The COIN force should seek to interdict the logistic support network of the insurgent force, whether it is internal or external.

(2) Since insurgent tactics operate along military lines, insurgents usually have temporary sites for headquarters, installations, facilities, and operational units. These temporary sites are called *base camps*. In these camps, the insurgent has his command posts, training areas, communications facilities, medical stations, and logistics centers. He may also use these camps for rest, retraining, and reequipping.

(3) The base camps are not the same as conventional force operational bases. These bases are kept small, and usually there is more than one base in the insurgent's area of operation. Characteristics of a base camp area are as follows:

(a) Cover and concealment. The insurgent tries to locate base camps in areas where cover and concealment provide security against detection.

(b) Rough, inaccessible terrain. The insurgent chooses terrain that may restrict the government's mobility and employment of heavy weapons. While the insurgent avoids defensive combat, he emphasizes short-term defensive action in the base camp area to aid evacuation. To preclude accidental discovery, the insurgent is not near inhabited areas. However, because he must fulfill his logistic needs, his base camp should be no more than one day's march from a village or town. The COIN force must locate and disrupt these camps to keep the insurgent off balance, allowing the COIN force to gain the initiative.

(c) Suitable for bivouac. The insurgent chooses an area suitable for bivouac. He must consider food and water supply, grade or slope of terrain, access to trails, and protective environment.

2-5. GUERRILLA TACTICS

Guerrilla warfare is one characteristic of an insurgency. The guerrilla is the combat element to the insurgency. When guerrilla forces first become operational, they usually engage in limited or small-scale operations. If they reach more sophisticated levels of organization, equipment, and training, larger operations using more conventional tactics may be expected. Insurgent tactics are characterized by elusiveness, surprise, and brief, violent action. These tactics in the early phases can be divided into two areas: *terrorism* and *harassment*.

a. Terrorism. The guerrilla can use terrorism to accomplish his goals. Terrorist techniques include bombings, assassinations, kidnappings, threats, mutilation, murder, torture, and blackmail. Not all guerrillas use terrorism as a tool. If terrorism is used, it is usually for coercion or intimidation. Terrorism

may also be used to discredit the government by provoking the government into overreactions that alienate the populace or demonstrate its inability to protect them.

(1) *Coercion.* This persuades individuals to act favorably in given situations toward the guerrilla or insurgent movement--for example, to persuade a local mayor to revise policy concerning the guerrilla or to gain passive support while at the same time redirecting resources to the insurgent movement.

(2) *Intimidation.* This modifies behavior. Usually, threats or fear of harm are used either toward the individual or his family and friends. Intimidation induces the populace to silence or noncooperation with government forces. It discourages competent citizens from accepting vital low-level government positions--for example, the killing of servicemen to encourage draft evasion.

b. Harassment. Harassment keeps government forces on the defensive. If successful, it causes government forces react to guerrilla operations. As a result, the government cannot conduct offensive operations that would prevent successful guerrilla operations. Harassment also weakens the government's resources and disrupts lines of communication. One advantage of harassment is the image it presents of the guerrilla being able to strike anywhere. Also, the government appears ineffective and incompetent by constantly losing small battles. This affects the morale of the government force.

(1) Most guerrilla operations are offensive, not defensive. There is seldom an attempt to seize and defend objectives.

(2) The guerrilla uses infiltration during movements. However, near the target area, small guerrilla elements mass and then conduct operations. The most common techniques employed by the guerrilla are the ambush, raid, and small-scale attacks. These are usually targeted against security posts, small forces, facilities, and LOC.

(3) While government forces outnumber the guerrilla, the guerrilla seeks to attain local numerical superiority. Then, he can attain victory over small elements of the government forces. These tactics, if successful, compel government forces to commit larger elements to defensive tasks. Once government forces move to the defensive, they lose the initiative and become reactive. This allows the guerrilla time and space to develop so that he can engage larger government forces with more conventional tactics.

2-6. DEVELOPMENT PHASES

Once an insurgent organization is established and starts its activities, it progresses through phases in its effort to overthrow the government. The "mass-oriented" or Maoist organizational and operational pattern consists of three phases. A distinguishing characteristic of other patterns is that they forego one or more of these phases. The defending government cannot easily determine when the insurgency will move from one phase to another. The activities performed in the earlier phases continue through the later phases. These phases range from the weak insurgent movement to when the insurgent can directly confront government forces. Also, depending on the lack of success of the movement, a reversion may occur from Phase III to Phase II or even back to Phase I.

a. PHASE I: Latent and Incipient Insurgency. Activity in this phase ranges from subversive activity, which is only a potential threat, to situations where frequent subversive incidents and activities occur in a pattern. It involves no major outbreak of violence or uncontrolled insurgent activity. The insurgent force

does not conduct continuous operations but rather selected acts of terrorism. An insurgency could achieve victory during this phase.

b. PHASE II: Guerrilla Warfare. This phase is reached when the insurgent movement, having gained enough local external support, initiates organized continuous guerrilla warfare or related forms of violence against the government. This is an attempt to force government forces into a defensive role. As the insurgent becomes stronger, he begins to conduct larger operations.

c. PHASE III: War of Movement. When the insurgent attains the force structure and ability to directly engage government forces in decisive combat, he begins to use more conventional tactics. He may also obtain combat forces from an external source. Also, the insurgent can begin conducting more extensive defensive operations to protect the areas he controls. The host nation's military plan and the US military support plan must be combined to govern US tactical operations. When the US employs combat forces, they are normally assigned missions that support the security component of the IDAD strategy. This allows the host nation to establish a secure base for mobilization and balanced development programs, and to form and train effective security forces. US forces may conduct offensive operations to disrupt and destroy the insurgents' combat formations or to interdict their external support. These operations can prevent the insurgents from undertaking actions against government-controlled areas. They can also disrupt the insurgents' efforts to consolidate and expand areas already under their control.

Section II.
BRIGADE AND BATTALION TASK FORCE IN COUNTERINSURGENCY

The COIN commander faces an enemy whose objectives, tactics, and concepts usually differ from his own. This section examines the role of tactical COIN operations in relation to the COIN program. Also, it discusses planning and principles for the successful conduct of COIN operations, as well as related operations that the COIN force must know.

2-7. FOREIGN INTERNAL DEFENSE AUGMENTATION FORCE OPERATIONS

FIDAF is the most common role in which US forces conduct COIN operations. It supports the host country's national objectives and COIN plan. The FIDAF commander must consider the final goals of the host country COIN program and how to coordinate his operations to support those goals. (For additional information on FIDAF, see FM 100-20.)

a. Planning. Most US forces conducting COIN operations are part of a FIDAF. The commander must understand how FIDAF operations support the host country COIN plan. In this sense, the goals of the host country COIN plan become the goals for the FIDAF and the COIN commander. A major consideration when planning COIN operations is the effect operations will have on the populace. Commanders must try to win the active support of the population for the government. COIN activities must avoid incidents that the insurgent can exploit in his PSYOP.

b. Support of COIN. US forces committed to the FIDAF in the host country have a dual mission. They must assist the host nation forces to defeat or neutralize the insurgent militarily. This allows the host country government to start or resume functioning in once contested or insurgent-controlled areas. Also, US forces must support the overall COIN program by conducting noncombat operations such as training,

security assistance, intelligence, and tactical support. This provides an environment where the host country government can win the trust and support of its people and become self-sustaining. Both aspects ofthe COIN mission are of equal importance and must be conducted at the same time. A common mistake made by the FIDAF when trying to gain popular support is that the FIDAF sometimes wins popular support only for itself. The commander must ensure that popular support is for the host country government. Credit for successful campaigns against the insurgents, or programs to help the people, should go to the host country government.

2-8. CONDUCT OF TACTICAL OPERATIONS

Tactical COIN operations reduce the insurgent threat or activity in the area and provide a favorable environment for the host country's development program. These purposes are complementary. When the insurgent threat is reduced, internal development can begin. When internal development works, the causes of dissatisfaction, which gave rise to the insurgency, are reduced. This deprives the insurgent of both popular support and a reason for fighting (which he needs to survive).

2-9. PLANNING

In COIN, the METT-T and political factors are considered in planning.

a. Mission. In mission analysis the commander considers the following elements.

(1) FIDAF operations include the following areas.

- Joint-combined exercises
- Intelligence operations.
- Populace and resources control operations.
- Civil-military operations (including CA and PSYOP).
- Humanitarian or civic assistance.
- Logistic support operations.
- Counter-drug operations.
- Tactical operations
- Advisory assistance.

(2) The brigade is most concerned with tactical operations. Due to the nature of counterguerrilla warfare, a specific tactical operation or campaign usually involves all elements of FIDAF.

(3) The commander's guidance and subsequent planning are based on all probable missions. After the brigade receives the mission, the commander's guidance becomes more specific. This includes the extent to which the brigade becomes involved in each of the areas of FIDAF.

b. Enemy. When evaluating the insurgent abilities and limitations, the commander considers--

- Ethnic origin and cultural history.
- Political organization, dogma, and goals.
- Strength, morale, and status of training.
- Tactics being employed and tactical proficiency.

- Ability to attack, defend, and reinforce.
- Resources available.
- Leaders and their personalities.
- Relationship with the civilian population.
- Status of supplies.
- Effectiveness of communications.
- Effectiveness of intelligence and counterintelligence.
- Lines of communications.
- Vulnerabilities.
- External support.
- Mine/countermine ability.
- Population control.
- Recruiting procedures.
- Tax collection.

c. Terrain and Weather. When evaluating the effects of terrain and weather on COIN operations, the commander considers those factors normally considered on any operation along with--

(1) Effects of seasons of the year (to include planting and harvesting periods), phases of the moon, and coastal tides.

(2) Suitability of terrain (to include landing zones and pickup zones, ports, and airfields) and road networks for tactical and logistic operations.

(3) Urban areas that may be of vital importance. The commander evaluates the type and number of structures, and determines their effect on military operations. He should specifically consider the location of hospitals, utilities, police stations, military barracks, airfields, radio/TV stations, communications centers, bridges, tunnels, overpasses, and railroad tracks.

d. Troops and Resources Available. The commander has a variety of combat, CS, and CSS assets at his disposal. These assets may be from US forces and civilian agencies, from host country forces and civilian agencies, or from a combination of these. The circumstances of counterguerrilla warfare require that senior commanders allow subordinate leaders much flexibility in accomplishing their missions. Successful COIN operations depend on the commander using his available assets to maximize strengths and minimize weaknesses. To do so, the commander appraises the abilities and limitations of his assets. He organizes and employs them on suitable missions.

e. Time. Commanders at all levels must plan and prepare to execute contingency operations. When a contingency mission arises, the basic plan can be used as the basis for the detailed planning process. Routine tasks should be identified in SOPs and understood by all.

(1) Planning time may be limited. Warning orders and OPORDs may be issued orally. In these instances, the one-third, two-thirds rule applies: the commander uses one-third of the available time for his own planning and allows two-thirds of the available time for his subordinates to develop their plans and to issue their orders. Planning time can be so limited that the formal planning process may not be feasible. Therefore, commanders direct their subordinates by using

FRAGOs. The ability to execute quickly, based on real-time intelligence, is critical to success.

(2) US forces involved in FIDAF operations should expect to stay in the host country only until the host country forces can assume missions the COIN force is accomplishing. No matter how successful the FIDAF, the insurgency is not defeated until the political, economic, and social problems are corrected or removed.

f. Political. The commander must face various political considerations. The military, normally working with the host nation's forces, supports US political objectives. Success is based on the achievement of those political objectives.

(1) US forces engaged in COIN operations function under restrictions not encountered in other types of warfare. Some of these restrictions are treaties, limitations on movement, and ROE. These restrictions may hamper efforts to find and destroy the insurgent.

(2) The insurgent is aware of the limitations placed on the COIN force. To capitalize on the situation, he tries to engage US forces where US fire could cause collateral damage or fratricide. The safety of noncombatants and their property is vital to maintaining the legitimacy of the host government.

(3) Political factors influence the conduct of COIN operations. These operations become a contest between the host government and insurgents concerning political, social, religious, or economic issues. The government and its representatives must present themselves and their program as the better choice.

(4) Commanders must prepare to operate in a broad range of political atmospheres. The host country's form of government may be an autocracy, a struggling democracy, and so on.

(5) Regardless of the political atmosphere in the host country, the brigade commander must effectively engage the insurgent. However, he should act within the limits of his authority to improve the conditions of the government he was sent to support. Any incidents of corruption, gross incompetence, or infringement on human rights should be reported to higher headquarters. The commander can also offer ways to accomplish the same objective. The US government is responsible for influencing the host government's attitude toward democratic principles--it is not the commander's responsibility.

(6) Situations may arise where specific authority in a local area is not apparent. The higher headquarters determines who is in authority before inserting US forces. However, the COIN force commander may need to coordinate directly with local government officials to locate sources of authority and decision. When the commander meets government officials who hinder operations against the insurgents, he should document the incident and forward the documentation to the next higher commander for action.

2-10. OPERATION PRINCIPLES

The commander uses several principles for determining how to organize and conduct operations within the area of responsibility (AOR).

a. Tactical Intelligence. Tactical intelligence is the key to defeating the insurgent. It provides the commander information on insurgent locations, activities, strengths, weaknesses, and plans. These help

the commander seize the initiative. Without timely intelligence, the commander's chances of success are limited, mainly in offensive operations. All relevant sources of information in the commander's AOR should be exploited and include counterintelligence agents (from division to corps) and host government civilian agencies.

b. Tactical Situation. The organization for, and conduct of, COIN operations depends on METT-T and the LIC imperatives. Commanders organize and employ units to counter the insurgent threat. These units conduct independent operations, such as patrols, raids, and ambushes, under centralized control (battalion or brigade). This enables the task force commander to find the enemy with the smallest element and to mass his forces rapidly.

c. Flexibility. Forces engaged in COIN operations must be flexible and able to adapt to a rapidly changing tactical situations. COIN warfare requires that units make swift transitions from large-unit to small-unit operations; adjust to extremes of terrain, weather, and visibility; move on foot, by vehicle, or by aircraft; and function in offensive or defensive modes.

d. Mobility. COIN forces must possess mobility equal to or greater than that of the insurgent. The use of rotary-wing aircraft, and armored and motorized vehicles to support infantry results in a tactical mobility advantage. Also, commanders should not overburden soldiers; the soldier's load must be tailored to METT-T factors. Resupply is executed by ground or air. Armor, cavalry, and mechanized vehicles are good for securing key points such as major road junctions, bridges, tunnels, canal locks, dams, and power plants.

e. Use of Force. Only the minimum required firepower is employed to accomplish the mission. Snipers are useful when US forces come under insurgent fire. They allow the commander to fix the insurgent and move his forces to positions from which he can engage the insurgent without endangering civilian lives or property. The commander can employ smoke and, if authorized, riot-control agents to aid maneuver. If the insurgents cannot be engaged without endangering civilian life or property, the commander tries to disengage his forces and to move them to positions that block escape routes. However, the commander uses whatever means are available to protect his forces, even though civilians may be placed at risk.

(1) The unlimited use of firepower directed against civilians or their property may cause them to embrace the insurgent's cause. US soldiers must understand this and follow strict ROE. The right to self-defense is never denied but may be limited.

(2) All available firepower may be brought to bear on insurgents when it does not endanger civilian life or property.

f. Patience. COIN forces must be ready for long periods without contact. The insurgent knows he is overmatched, and he avoids engagement unless it is on his terms. COIN forces should not develop a false sense of security even if the insurgent appears to have ceased operations. The commander must assume that the insurgent is observing their operations and is seeking routines, weak points, and lax security to strike with minimum risk. An insurgent attack must be expected at any time.

g. Reserves. The commander maintains a reserve to take advantage of opportunities that occur on the battlefield and to counter insurgent initiatives. The size of the reserve depends on the size of its parent unit and the tactical situation. The reserve force is not given other specific missions.

(1) In offensive operations, a company might keep a squad or platoon in reserve; battalions might keep a platoon; and a brigade might keep a company.

(2) In defensive operations, due to the need for all-round security, a reserve at company and battalion is complicated by the reduced on-line strength of the perimeter. The commander has the following options:

- To establish a small, centrally located reserve at the expense of on-line strength.
- To establish no reserve but to specify units on-line to be ready to shift part of their strength to other sections of the perimeter.
- To consider reducing the size of the perimeter.

(3) Brigades should also maintain a company in reserve in defensive operations. This mission should be rotated among companies, with the company that has spent the most time in the field (or that has seen the heaviest action) chosen as the reserve. The reserve company can rest, reconstitute, rearm, and train during the time it has the reserve mission.

(4) The reserve unit should be highly mobile. Air transport is the preferred method for moving the reserve. It is fast and does not depend on open ground routes as motorized or mechanized modes of transport. Whatever its mode of transportation, the reserve's vehicles are dedicated to the reserve and always available for employment. The reserve unit is prepared for contingency missions. If the reserve is committed, the commander selects a new reserve. Normally, his least committed unit is the first choice.

(5) Armor, cavalry, and mechanized infantry forces provide a good reaction force for both offensive and defensive operations.

2-11. TASK ORGANIZATION

Brigades and battalion task forces, as part of the JTF; are task-organized to fight as combined arms. The combined arms organization in LIC is equally as important as in conventional war. This organization is based on METT-T and the LIC imperatives.

a. Infantry Battalions. Battalions, whether heavy or light, provide the basic building block for the COIN organization.

b. Infantry Brigades. Brigades provide the required command and control apparatus to conduct sustained tactical operations in COIN. Also, they allocate resources to their subordinate battalions. Brigades coordinate with their divisional headquarters or directly with members of the country team or the host nation.

c. Augmentation. Because of the diverse nature of operations in a LIC environment, brigades should expect to be augmented with--

- Military police with working dogs.
- Civil affairs units.
- Public affairs units.
- Engineers.
- Air defense artillery.
- Intelligence and electronic warfare units.
- Army aviation.

- Psychological operations units.
- Medical units.
- Field artillery.
- Special operations forces.
- Communications units.
- Armor units.
- Transportation units.
- Quartermaster units.

d. Special Operations Forces. During COIN operations, SOF can support an allied or friendly government against an insurgent threat. SOF capabilities make these forces ideally suited to support FID programs in a COIN environment. The primary SOF mission in FID is to advise, train, and assist host nation military and paramilitary forces. However, SOF may conduct MOUT operations for the release of hostages or may recover stolen equipment or weapons. Battalion and brigade commanders must be prepared to support these operations or to conduct MOUT operations of their own. (See FM 90 10-1.)

e. Other Joint Task Force Assets. The brigades and battalions are supported by other assets belonging to the JTF. They include USAF and US Navy aviation of all types, NGF support, and support from the host nation.

Section III.
OFFENSIVE OPERATIONS

The battalion or brigade task force is the Army component of the JTF. Battalions and brigades are task-organized to conduct offensive operations. For purposes of organization and clarity, operations are discussed under those phases of an insurgency in which they are most often conducted. US forces will most likely be committed during Phase III of a counterinsurgency. However, depending on the tactical situation, these operations, or combinations and variations of them, may be conducted during any of the three phases of insurgent activity: latent and incipient insurgency, guerrilla warfare, and war of movement.

2-12. PHASE I - LATENT AND INCIPIENT INSURGENCY

Phase I ranges from subversive activity with only a potential threat (latent or incipient) to situations in which frequent subversive incidents and activities occur in an organized pattern. It involves no major outbreak of violence. Insurgent activities during Phase I may include attacks on police forces, other terrorist activities, and minor military operations. These operations are conducted to gain influence over the population or to provide arms for the movement and to challenge the government's ability to maintain law and order. Also, they lay the groundwork for extensive external materiel support. This support is vital for expanding the insurgency and its eventual success. Operations that may be conducted are as follows:

a. Police-Type Operations. These operations control the movement of insurgents or insurgents and their material. They are executed by host country police, paramilitary, or military forces. This is not always possible, and US forces may need to conduct police-type operations until host country forces are

available. (Under US law, the military cannot advise or train foreign police forces unless directed to do so by the Department of State.)

(1) The joint patrol is the preferred technique. This type of operation involves both US and host nation forces operating together.

(2) If US forces must conduct this type of operation unilaterally, MP units are best suited. When MP units are not available, combat forces are used.

(3) When conducting police operations, host government representatives with US troops serve as interpreters and advise on local customs and courtesies. When performing these duties, US troops treat passive civilians and their property with courtesy and respect.

b. Search Operations. The need for a COIN force to conduct search operations or to employ search procedures is continuous. They force normally conducts search operations in support of offensive operations, but they may conduct searches as the main effort in populace and resource control operations. A search may be oriented toward people, materiel, buildings, or terrain. It usually involves both civil police and military personnel.

(1) Since misuse of search authority can adversely affect the outcome of operations, searches must be lawful and properly recorded to be of legal value. Proper use of authority gains the respect and support of the people. Abusive, excessive, or inconsiderate search methods may temporarily suppress the insurgent force or expose elements of it. However, such methods may increase the civilian population's sympathy for and support of the insurgent.

(2) Authority for search operations is carefully reviewed. Military personnel must perform searches only in areas within military jurisdiction (or where otherwise lawful). Their purpose is to apprehend suspects or to secure evidence that proves an offense has been committed. Usually, special laws regulate the search powers of the military forces. These laws are given wide dissemination.

(3) Search teams have detailed instructions on controlled items. Lists of prohibited or controlled-distribution items, such as chemicals, medicines, and machine tools, should be distributed. The military or civil police who administer the populace and resources control program are contacted before the conduct of search operations. They may also be contacted again if search operations are continuous.

(4) Search operations that involve US forces may not be effective when language problems prevent communication with the local population. US units on a search mission must be augmented with interrogators or host nation interpreters. Also, the distribution of leaflets before the search and the use of loudspeaker teams during the search aid the effort by informing the populace.

(5) The pace at which a search operation is conducted is slow enough to allow for an effective search. It must not be so slow that it allows the insurgent force time to react to the threat of the search. If active resistance develops to the search operation, offensive operations are conducted to counter the resistance. (See FM 7-10, Appendix A.)

(6) Search teams must consider the return to an area after the initial search. This can surprise and remove insurgents or their infrastructure, which may not have been detected or may have returned.

c. Search of Individuals. Any individual can be an insurgent or sympathizer. However, searchers must avoid mistaking all suspects for the enemy. They may, in fact, support the host country government. It is during the initial handling of individuals about to be searched that the greatest caution is required. During the search, one member of a search team always covers the other member who makes the actual search. (See Appendix C.)

d. Checkpoints and roadblocks. Roadblocks, checkpoints, and searches help control the movement of vehicles, personnel, and material along a specific route. Established infantry doctrine, tactics, techniques, and procedures still apply in a LIC environment, but they are employed based on METT-T and the LIC imperatives.

(1) A roadblock limits the movement of vehicles along a route or closes access to certain areas or roads. Checkpoints are manned locations used to control movement. With a checkpoint, a roadblock channels vehicles and personnel to the search area. Roadblocks may be set up on a temporary, surprise basis or may be semipermanent in nature. They are used--

- To maintain a continuous check on road movement, to apprehend suspects, and to prevent smuggling of controlled items.
- To prevent infiltration of unauthorized civilians into or through a controlled area.
- To check vehicles for explosive devices.
- To ensure proper use of routes by both civilian and military vehicles.

(2) Checkpoints can be called deliberate or hasty. The *deliberate checkpoint* is positioned in a town or in the open country, often on a main road. It acts as a useful deterrent to unlawful movement. The *hasty checkpoint* is highly mobile and is quickly positioned in a town or in the open country. The actual location of the hasty checkpoint is critical for achieving success.

(a) Concealment of a checkpoint is best but often not possible. The location should hinder turning back or reversing a vehicle without being observed. Culverts, bridges, or deep cuts may be good locations. Positions beyond sharp curves have the advantage. Drivers do not see the checkpoint soon enough to avoid inspection. Safety disadvantages may outweigh the advantages of such positions. Lack of good roads increases the effect of a well-placed checkpoint.

(b) A checkpoint requires adequate troops to prevent ambush and surprise by an insurgent force. An element of the checkpoint force is positioned and concealed 100 meters or more from the checkpoint. This prevents the escape of any vehicle or person trying to turn back when sighting the checkpoint. The vehicle, driver, and passengers are searched. If the checkpoint is manned for a long time, part of the force is allowed to rest. The rest area is located near the search area so that soldiers can be assembled quickly as a reserve force. (See FM 7-10.)

e. Search of Built-Up Areas--Cordon and Search Operations. Searches of built-up areas require unique techniques, principles, and command and control. These operations involve dividing built-up areas into zones and assigning a search party to each. The search party is subdivided into a search element to conduct the search and a cordon element to surround the area. (See FM 7-10, Appendix A)

(1) *Techniques.* Police and military forces who operate in built-up areas practice search techniques in built-up areas. These techniques are required for searching either a few isolated huts or buildings, or for searching well-developed urban sections. Search operations in built-up areas

require thorough planning and rehearsing. Emphasis should be on the following:

(a) Divide the area to be searched into zones (buildings should be numbered), and assign a search party to each. A search party consists of a search element (to conduct the search), a security element (to encircle the area to prevent entrance and exit, and to secure open areas), and a reserve element (to assist).

- The *search element* conducts the mission assigned for the operation. Normally it is organized into teams based on METT-T.
- The *security element* surrounds the area while the search element moves in. Members of the security element focus on evaders from the populated area. However, they can stop insurgents trying to reinforce. Checkpoints and roadblocks are set up. Subsurface routes of escape, such as subways and sewers, must be considered when operating in cities.
- The *reserve element* is a mobile force within a nearby area. It assists the other two elements if they meet strong resistance. Also, this element can replace or reinforce either of the other two elements.

(b) Consider all enemy materials boobytrapped until inspection proves them safe. This includes propaganda signs and leaflets.

(c) Search underground and underwater areas. All freshly excavated ground can be a hiding place. Use mine detectors to locate metal objects underground and underwater.

(d) Deploy rapidly, especially when an insurgent force is still in the area to be searched. Surround the entire area to be searched at the same time. If this is not possible, use observed fire to cover that portion not covered by soldiers.

(2) *Principles.* A principle when searching a built-up area is to conduct the search with little inconvenience to the populace. The populace may be inconvenienced to the point where it discourages insurgents and insurgent sympathizers from remaining in the locale, but not to the point that it would collaborate with the insurgent force. The large-scale search of a built-up area is normally a combined civil police and military operation. The COIN force plans it in detail and rehearses when possible. It avoids a physical reconnaissance of the area just before a search. Information needed about the terrain may be obtained from aerial photographs. In larger towns or cities, the local police may have detailed maps that show relative size and location of buildings. For success, the search plan must be simple and be executed swiftly.

(3) *Command and control.* Normally, a search involving a battalion or larger force is best controlled by the military commander with the civil police in support. A search involving a smaller force is best controlled by the civil police with the military in support. Regardless, host country police perform the actual search when available in adequate numbers and when trained in search operations. (See Appendix C.)

f. Aerial Search Operations. Search units mounted in armed helicopters use the mobility and firepower of these aircraft to the fullest. (This may affect the morale of the insurgent force.)

(1) Air assault combat patrols, conducting an aerial search, reconnoiter an assigned area or route in search of insurgent forces. When an insurgent force is located, the air assault combat patrol may engage it from the air or may land and engage it on the ground. This technique has little value in areas of dense vegetation. Use of air assault combat patrols should be limited to those operations in which enough intelligence exists and in conjunction with ground operations.

(2) In ground search operations, helicopters insert troops in an area suspected of containing insurgent elements. With helicopters overwatching from the air, troops search the area. Troops are then picked up and the process is repeated in other areas.

(3) Members of air assault combat patrols should be trained in tracking procedures or be accompanied by trackers from the host nation. This enables the patrol to follow the insurgents to their base. If the patrol encounters a large insurgent force, the reserves (ready forces) are committed. Plans must provide for evacuation of prisoners, casualties, and material.

g. Civil Disturbance and Riot Control. US forces involved in COIN operations may be tasked to assist host country police and military forces in restoring order disrupted by civil disturbance or riot. If so, US force involvement should be limited to containing the disturbance and protecting US lives and property. Suppressing demonstrators or riots should be left entirely to host country forces. Direct action by US troops against demonstrators or rioters can be used by the insurgents and their sympathizers. Such action may be misconstrued as brutal suppression of legitimate dissent and used as a propaganda weapon. (See FM 19-15 for further information on specific techniques.)

2-13. PHASE II - GUERRILLA WARFARE

In Phase II, having gained enough local or external support, the insurgent initiates organized guerrilla warfare or related forms of violence against the government. The major military goal is to gain control of resources and the population in new areas. The government is forced to overtax limited assets, trying to protect everything at the same time. Insurgent forces try to hold government troops in static defenses, to interdict and destroy LOC, and to capture or destroy supplies and other government resources. Small-unit operations are used against insurgent activities in Phase II of an insurgency. The search-and-attack technique is most effective since a small unit can cover more territory than a large unit. The small unit keeps the insurgent off balance, and friendly firepower can provide a favorable ratio in meeting engagements. US operations include all those conducted in Phase I plus raids and ambushes. Forces conduct extensive reconnaissance patrolling to find raid and ambush targets and sites.

a. AirLand Battle Doctrine and LIC. AirLand Battle doctrine describes the Army's approach to generating and applying combat power at the operational and tactical levels. This doctrine applies to LIC as in the remainder of the operational continuum. It is based on security and retaining the initiative and exercising it to accomplish the mission. The commander accomplishes this with operations that are rapid, unpredictable, violent, and disorienting to the insurgent. At the tactical level, the planning must be flexible enough to capitalize on fleeting opportunities and to respond to changes, yet precise enough to preserve synchronization throughout the battle. Success in LIC depends on the ability of battalion and brigade commanders to carry the fight to the enemy in accordance with the tenets of AirLand Battle.

(1) *Agility.* The ability of friendly forces to act faster than the enemy is agility. Agility is the first prerequisite for seizing and holding the initiative by the COIN force commander. It permits the rapid and repeated concentration of friendly strength against an enemy that is increasingly vulnerable. It also allows commanders to fix with one force while attacking with another. To achieve agility, leaders at all levels must overcome friction and "read the battlefield." Battalion and brigade commanders must decide quickly and act without hesitation. In the LIC environment, commanders are responsible for large areas; contacts begin with small forces. Battalion and brigade commanders must be prepared to risk commitment without complete information. They

must not forfeit the opportunity to act.

(2) *Initiative.* Setting or changing the terms of battle by action is initiative. Initiative implies an offensive spirit in the conduct of all operations. The commander's goal is to force the enemy to conform to the commander's operational purpose and tempo, while retaining freedom of action. Initiative requires soldiers and leaders to act independently and audaciously within the framework of the commander's intent. In the LIC environment, the insurgents must never be allowed to recover from the initial shock of the attack. This is accomplished by a thorough and ongoing IPB supported by aggressive patrolling. More importantly, continuous joint operations, especially during limited visibility that targets both combat forces and logistics operations, create a rapidly changing and ambiguous situation that denies the insurgent bases, resources, and a safe haven. This prevents enemy commanders from massing their forces, because they lose the ability to anticipate key events on the battlefield.

(3) *Depth.* The extension of operations in space, time, and resources is depth Commanders obtain the needed space to maneuver, the needed time to plan, and the needed resources to win through depth. Momentum in the attack is achieved and maintained when resources and forces are concentrated to sustain operations over extended periods. In LIC, tactical commanders fight the insurgent throughout the depth of his dispositions to degrade the insurgent's freedom of action, to reduce his flexibility and endurance, and to upset his plans and coordination. Commanders must retain highly mobile reserves to exploit tactical opportunities. They must also guard their own freedom of action by protecting their rear areas and support forces.

(4) *Synchronization.* The arrangement of battlefield activities with regard to time, space, and purpose to produce maximum relative combat power at the decisive point is synchronization. Synchronization includes, but is not limited to, the concentration of forces and fires at the decisive point. Commanders must consider employing air, Army aviation, artillery, CS, and CSS assets while covering large areas and conducting continuous operations. Also, battalion and brigade commanders must evaluate both the capabilities and limitations of host nation forces, mainly their ability to interface doctrinally with US forces.

b. Combat Imperatives. The seven combat imperatives of AirLand Battle doctrine find their basis in the principles of war. These imperatives are--

(1) *Ensure unity of effort.* The principles for this imperative are the objective, unity of command, and simplicity. Unity of effort requires the commander to understand the overall US objective and how his operations support that objective. He applies the principles underlying this imperative in such a way that the effects of his operations are not a detriment to attaining the overall US objective.

(2) *Direct friendly strengths against enemy weaknesses.* The principles for this imperative are maneuver and surprise. The commander minimizes and protects his weaknesses, and uses his strengths against the guerrilla's weak points. To do this, he knows the enemy's organization, equipment, and tactics. In addition to knowing how the guerrilla fights, it is important for the commander to understand why the guerrilla fights.

(3) *Designate and sustain the main effort.* The principles for this imperative are mass and economy of force. The Army cannot be everywhere at once. It cannot do everything at once. Priorities are set at tactical and operational levels to determine where the main effort is to occur and what goal is

to be achieved.

(4) *Sustain the fight.* The force may have to operate for extended periods on limited logistics. To sustain momentum, the commander deploys forces in adequate depth and arranges for service support when needed. The commander is audacious and presses soldiers and systems to the limits of endurance.

(5) *Move fast, strike hard, and finish rapidly.* The principles for this imperative are maneuver and mass. Speed and mobility are essential. To avoid detection, US forces employ deception techniques, COMSEC, and OPSEC. While the overall conflict may be prolonged, the tactical operations are executed with speed to retain initiative and freedom of action. This is balanced against the need for patience.

(6) *Use terrain and weather.* The guerrilla force is familiar with the terrain and comfortable with the climate. Reconnaissance and intelligence (if accomplished effectively) give the commander a decisive edge in anticipating difficulties with terrain and weather. He uses both to his advantage.

(7) *Protect the force.* Successful commanders preserve the strength of their force. They do so through security, by keeping troops healthy and equipment ready, and by sustaining discipline and morale. The guerrilla seeks to degrade the morale of the force through the use of PSYOP and harassment. His tactics are geared to wear down his opponent's will to fight. The commander trains his soldiers and constantly reminds them of exactly what the mission is and why it is important to complete the mission.

2-14. PHASE III - WAR OF MOVEMENT

The situation moves from Phase II to Phase III when insurgency becomes a war of movement between organized insurgent forces and forces of the established government.

a. During Phase III insurgent activities conducted in Phases I and II are continued and expanded. As the insurgency enters Phase III, the insurgent masses his forces and openly challenges government forces. Larger insurgent units fight government forces and attempt to seize key geographical and political objectives. They may begin to use conventional warfare tactics to a greater extent. The insurgent may even elect to stand and fight in the defense of terrain if he feels that it is in his best interest to retain it. He may deal government forces a serious military or political defeat by defending successfully. This is the phase in which US combat forces would most likely be committed.

b. Also in this phase, conventional warfare begins. The operations that supported Phase I and Phase II continue. Commanders conduct offensive operations that maintain unremitting, direct pressure against the enemy while maneuvering to prevent his retreat or escape. They make full use of fire support, maneuver forces, and offensive EW. However, actions to prevent injury or death of innocent people and destruction of property still apply.

Section IV.
DEFENSIVE OPERATIONS

This section discusses defensive operations that brigades and subordinate units may conduct. It also provides guidance to commanders concerned with the defense of various types of temporary or

semipermanent bases. These include logistic installations, support bases, airfields, and airbases under varying conditions of security that may exist in an area of operations. This applies to the defense of civilian communities. Commanders responsible for bases, facilities, communities, and critical sites should exercise those principles and techniques discussed that apply to their situation.

2-15. BASE DEFENSE

Defense and security of tactical units and installations are integral parts of combat missions. (The term "base" is used to include all types of facilities to be defended.) The area commander executes base defense operations. His responsibilities include protecting the resources of his area from interruptions caused by enemy activities. This is a territorial responsibility in which base commanders provide for the local defense of their immediate base areas. Also, base commanders may provide resources for other activities, which may be classified as rear battle. Forces set up the base defense environment in a region controlled by friendly forces. However, the area is not secure enough to prevent insurgents from moving in small groups, establishing firing positions, or mounting small-scale attacks. The best technique is the perimeter defense. (See FM 7-20 and FM 7-30.)

a. Conditions that may characterize the environment for base defense are as follows:

(1) US forces are in a host country.

(2) Other nations in similar roles may be in the same host country.

(3) Unity of command or a combined headquarters may exist.

(4) Although there is organized armed conflict, there is no recognized state of war.

(5) External support may be provided to the insurgents, both overtly and covertly. Nations or groups supporting the insurgents may provide sanctuaries where insurgent forces may establish base areas.

(6) Paramilitary forces may assume increased responsibilities.

(7) The insurgents do not normally maintain contact.

(8) Insurgents usually do not hold territory. They may disperse and avoid combat at the appearance of a stronger force.

b. A base defense consists of both normal and emergency local military measures to nullify or reduce the effect of enemy attacks or sabotage. It ensures the continued effectiveness of its facilities and units to fulfill their missions.

c. The base commander is responsible for perimeter defense of his base. All forces, regardless of branch of service, that are assigned to the base are OPCON to the base commander for the purpose of its defense. Forces assigned to the base for other purposes also assist in local defense during an attack. Each commander of forces located at a base is responsible for--

(1) Participating in preparation of base defense plans, and training his forces for base defense.

(2) Providing facilities and personnel for the base defense operations center and the base defense force staff.

(3) Providing for internal security of his own command.

d. Command relationships for base defense operations provide unity of command. The urgency of base defense operations requires a chain of command, which is understood by all personnel.

2-16. FUNDAMENTALS OF BASE DEFENSE

Commanders establish a base defense with available forces to provide all-round security. This base defense includes detailed planning and centralized control. Security measures may also include provisions to protect adjacent civilian communities. Constant and aggressive action by friendly elements against enemy forces constitutes a major element of base defense. Vigilance and sound security measures reduce enemy interference with operations at the base. It also tends to cause enemy forces to divert their operations from the area. (For joint operations, see FM 90-12.)

a. Use of Terrain. Proper area evaluation and organization are vital to reduce the number of forces required for base defense. Factors are as follows:

(1) The natural defensive characteristics of the terrain.

(2) Existing roads and waterways for military LOC and civilian commerce.

(3) The control of land and water areas and avenues of approach surrounding the base complex to a range beyond that of enemy mortars and rockets.

(4) The control of airspace.

(5) The proximity to critical sites such as airfields, power generation plants, and civic buildings.

b. Security. Early warning of pending enemy actions provides the base commander time to react to any threat. Outposts, patrols, MP, ground surveillance and countermortar radar, military working dogs, and air R&S provide early warning. Civilian informants and actions of indigenous personnel near the base indicate pending enemy actions. Security measures vary with enemy threat, forces available, and other factors; all-round security is essential.

c. Mutual Support. Defending forces ensure mutual employment of defensive resources, which include fires, observation, and maneuver elements. Mutual support between defensive elements requires careful planning, positioning, and coordinating due to the circular aspects of the base area. To control gaps, forces employ surveillance, obstacles, prearranged fires, and maneuver. Defensive plans provide for the use of all available support, including attack helicopters, AC-130 and CAS. Fratricide must be avoided.

d. Perimeter Defense. A perimeter defense is oriented in all directions. The battalion can organize a perimeter defense to accomplish a specific mission or to provide immediate self-protection such as during resupply operations. A perimeter is established when the battalion or brigade must hold critical terrain in areas where the defense is not tied in with adjacent units. This can occur when the battalion or brigade is operating behind enemy lines or when it is securing an isolated objective such as a bridge, mountain pass, or airfield. The battalion or brigade may also form a perimeter when it has been bypassed and isolated by the enemy and must defend in place.

(1) The need to hold or protect features, such as bridges, airfields, or LZs, from enemy observation and fires may restrict the positioning of units within a perimeter. These factors, and an inability to achieve depth, also make a perimeter defense vulnerable to armor. The commander reduces these

vulnerabilities by doing the following:

(a) Positioning antiarmor weapons systems on armor-restrictive terrain to concentrate fires on armor approaches.

(b) Providing as much depth as the diameter of the perimeter allows through his location of security elements, the reserve, and secondary sectors of fire of antitank weapons.

(c) Constructing obstacles to fix or block the enemy so he can be effectively engaged.

(2) Perimeters vary in shape, depending on the terrain and situation. If the commander determines the most probable direction of enemy attack, he may weight that part of the perimeter to cover that approach. The perimeter shape conforms to the terrain feature that best uses friendly observation and fields of fire. The effectiveness of the perimeter may be enhanced by tying it in to a natural obstacle, such as a river, allowing combat power to be concentrated in more threatened sectors.

(3) Several methods may be used to organize a battalion or brigade perimeter. One method is to place all platoons or companies in the battalion in positions on the perimeter. This is least desirable since it facilitates an enemy penetration. However, certain positioning techniques can create some depth in the defense.

(a) The perimeter is divided into company sectors with boundaries and coordinating points, which are established based on the same considerations discussed earlier. When possible, two platoons (each with three squads abreast) are placed on the outer perimeter and one platoon is placed on the inner perimeter. This gives depth to the company position and facilitates control. It also gives one platoon from each rifle company the mission to support front-line platoons (just as in the defense). Also, it enables the company commander to locate his CP and his 60-mm mortars near the reserve platoon, enhancing control and security.

(b) The battalion commander may elect to assign two rifle companies to the outer perimeter and the third to an inner perimeter. Regardless of the method used, the inner perimeter should be far enough from the outer perimeter to prevent the enemy from suppressing both with the same fires. However, the inner perimeter must be close enough to support the outer perimeter with small-arms fire. Gaps on the outer perimeter that may exist between units in open terrain must be covered by fire. When units are in restrictive terrain with restricted fields of fire and observation, no gaps should be allowed, and a narrower frontage may be required. This may also require the company commander to deploy all his platoons on line.

(4) The commander ensures the outer perimeter positions have rearward protection from inner perimeter weapons, once the inner perimeter is established.

(5) Combat vehicles supporting the defense are normally assigned firing positions on the perimeter, covering the most likely mounted avenue of approach. Additional firing positions and routes to them should be selected and prepared. If the perimeter has several mounted approaches, combat vehicles may be held in a mobile position. Therefore, for all positions, units must prepare routes, firing positions, and range cards in advance. Also, commanders must ensure that vehicles do not destroy wire communications.

(6) Isolation may drive the battalion or brigade commander to form a perimeter. If so, combat and

combat support elements from other units may seek the battalion's protection. These units are given missions based on their support abilities. Any fire support provided from outside the perimeter is coordinated and integrated into the overall defensive plan. This extra fire support conserves the ammunition of units within the perimeter.

(7) Each battalion commander normally employs the scout platoon outside the perimeter for early warning. He may augment security with squad-sized or smaller elements, which are provided and controlled by units on the perimeter. The security elements are positioned to observe avenues of approach. Patrols cover areas that cannot be observed by stationary elements. If the scout platoon remains under battalion control, it must coordinate with units on the perimeter for a passage of lines.

(8) Reserve elements may consist of a designated unit or a provisional force organized from headquarters and support personnel. They form the second line of defense behind the perimeter elements. Ideally, reserves are mobile enough to react to enemy action in any portion of the perimeter. They are positioned to block the most dangerous avenue of approach and are assigned on-order positions on other critical avenues. If available, combat vehicles initially occupying firing positions on the perimeter may be tasked to reinforce the reserve on-order.

(9) The perimeter defense is conducted much like a forward defense. Mortars, FA, tanks, and TOW missile systems engage the enemy at long ranges. As the enemy comes within small-arms range, other weapons on the perimeter engage him. If the assault continues, FPFs are fired. If the perimeter is penetrated, the reserve blocks the penetration or counterattacks to restore the perimeter. After committing the initial reserve, the commander must reconstitute a reserve to meet other threats. This force normally comes from an unengaged unit in another portion of the perimeter. If an unengaged force is used to constitute a new reserve, sufficient forces must be retained to defend the vacated sector.

(10) CSS elements may support from within the perimeter or from another location, depending on the mission and status of the battalion, the type of transport available, the weather, and the terrain. Resupply is often by air. The availability of LZs and DZs protected from the enemy's observation and fire is a main consideration in selecting and organizing the position. Since aerial resupply is vulnerable to weather and enemy fires, commanders must emphasize supply economy and protection of available stocks.

e. Defense in Depth. Commanders in a LIC environment must recognize the possibility of tying their forces to installations. However, some critical sites may require added protection provided by defense in depth. This must be carefully balanced with the need for aggressive offensive action. Defense in depth will include developing alternate and supplementary positions, allocating more fire support, or simply emphasizing obstacles.

f. Responsiveness. Attacks against a base may range from long-range sniper, mortar, or rocket fire to attacks by suicide demolition squads or by air or major ground forces. The enemy has the advantage of deciding when, where, and with what force he will attack. The defender positions his forces and plans fire and movement so he can respond to the widest range of enemy actions. He prepares plans to include counterattack plans, and he rehearses, evaluates, and revises them as needed.

g. Maximum Use of Offensive Action. Since the objective of the base defense is to maintain a secure

base, the defender engages enemy forces with offensive action outside the base. On initial occupation of the base site, friendly forces take offensive actions to destroy enemy forces in the area. The area commander employs patrols, raids, ambushes, air attacks, and supporting fires to harass and destroy a remaining enemy force. Also, laser countermeasure systems are excellent means to defeat insurgent attempts to observe defensive preparations. Once the enemy has been cleared from the area, the base can be defended by a smaller force. The BDF commander maintains constant liaison with major tactical unit commanders in the area to stay abreast of efforts to remove the threat.

h. Use of Passive Defense. All units in the base area are responsible for implementing passive defense. Passive defense reduces the probability (and the effects) of damage caused by hostile action. Responsibility for the conduct of special passive defense measures is assigned to fire fighting units, chemical units, medical units, and other units that can meet passive defensive needs. Also, all units assigned to the base initiate passive defensive measures such as dispersion, camouflage, blackout, and use of shelters. These measures assist in preserving the operating integrity of the base and in ensuring decisive and effective action against enemy attack.

i. Defense Preparations. Implementing base defensive measures in a new base should start before base units arrive. Normally, combat units provide the initial defense in a new base area. These combat forces remain in the base area, conducting aggressive offensive actions, until base units can assume the mission. When base units arrive, they start organizing the base defense. They perform many of the tasks at the same time. However, some tasks require priority. The base commander specifies the sequence for preparing the defensive system. (See FMs 7-8, 7-10, and 7-20 for a recommended sequence for tactical defense.)

j. Reserves. The commander always maintains a reserve to take advantage of sudden opportunities and to counter guerrilla initiatives. The size of the reserve depends on the size of its parent unit and the tactical situation. In offensive operations, a company might keep a squad in reserve; battalions, a platoon; and brigade, a company. In defensive operations, because of the need for allround security, a reserve at company and battalion is complicated by the fact that the on-line strength of the perimeter is reduced.

(1) The company or battalion commander may have to spread his forces thin to protect his perimeter. In these instances, the commander has four options: establish a small, centrally located reserve at the expense of on-line strength; establish no reserve but specify units on-line to be prepared to shift a portion of their strength to other sections of the perimeter; establish no reserve but reinforce the most heavily contested section of the perimeter by fire; and consider reducing the size of the perimeter.

(2) Brigades should also maintain a company in reserve in defensive operations. This mission should be rotated among companies, with the company that has spent the most time in the field (or that has seen the heaviest action) being designated as the reserve. The reserve company can rest, rearm, and train during the time it has the reserve mission.

(3) The reserve unit should be highly mobile. Air transport is the preferred method for moving the reserve, because it is fast and does not depend on open ground routes as do motorized or mechanized modes of transport. Whatever its mode of transport, the reserve's vehicles are dedicated to the reserve and immediately available for employment.

(4) Reserve units are prepared for contingency missions. If the reserve is committed, the commander designates a new reserve. In this case, his least committed unit is the first choice.

2-17. PATROLS

Detailed reconnaissance and counterreconnaissance plans, based on IPB, greatly enhance the security of any base. Base defensive operations to counter small groups of enemy forces include aggressive, frequent patrolling by squad-size and platoon-size forces. Night patrols are particularly effective as they will keep the enemy off balance and ensure that US forces own the night. These forces detect and capture or destroy small groups of insurgents. Use of military working dogs adds security and detection ability to patrol operations.

a. Small, highly mobile units who move on foot or by vehicles conduct patrolling during daylight and darkness. The unit may use aircraft or boats. Armor, cavalry, and mechanized infantry forces can be used to patrol regions where the terrain is flat, rolling, and a mixture of open areas and small woods. The mobility and firepower of heavy forces allow for rapid traverse of large areas and the ability to quickly destroy insurgent units encountered. The unit searches populated areas near the base. Also, it establishes surprise checkpoints along known or suspected routes of insurgent communications and employs IEW assets to detect insurgent use of the electromagnetic spectrum.

b. Concealed night ambush sites are randomly manned outside the barrier system trace. Indigenous personnel should accompany ambushes near populated areas. Their knowledge of the local populace and terrain assists the ambush mission. Artillery and mortar targets are registered and plotted to provide rapid on-call support. The unit emplaces detectors and sensors to provide early warning.

c. BDF or other base unit reconnaissance patrols obtain target acquisition data. They may penetrate known insurgent-controlled territory to install sensors that report the enemy's presence along infiltration and supply routes. Also, such patrols observe known infiltration and supply routes, and report activity along these routes. They provide early warning of insurgent assembly of personnel; movement of weapons, ammunition, or other supplies; and preparation of mortar and rocket firing sites. Reconnaissance patrols may also locate suspected areas where other types of surveillance or acquisition systems may be employed to obtain information. Indigenous personnel are assets to reconnaissance patrols. Their knowledge of the terrain, ability to operate in the environment, knowledge of the language, and familiarity with local customs are essential.

d. Units employ combat patrols in difficult terrain far from the base but normally within range of supporting artillery. These patrols may operate out of artillery range when supported by attack helicopters, CAS aircraft, or AC-130 aircraft. They may be supplied by air and equipped to communicate with the base and supporting aircraft. Such patrols vary in size from squad to platoon and are conducted at random times so as not to set a pattern. They perform planned searches to locate areas used by insurgents to hide supplies, regroup, rest, train, or prepare for offensive actions. Small groups of insurgents are engaged and destroyed; large groups are reported and kept under surveillance until they are attacked. Augmentation in the form of local paramilitary guides or trackers increases the effect of combat patrols.

(1) *Reaction force operations.* When an insurgent unit is located, the reaction force is deployed rapidly to engage the unit, to disrupt its cohesion, and to destroy it. If the insurgent force cannot be contained and destroyed, patrols maintain contact; reinforcements are dispatched; and the insurgents are pursued. When escape routes have been blocked, the attack continues to destroy the enemy force. Ground and air vehicles and rapid foot movement provide the needed mobility. Wheeled and armored vehicles for reaction forces are also designated.

(a) Reaction operations are simple, planned, and rehearsed day and night. Primary and alternate points are designated for the release of reaction forces from centralized control. This eases movement against multiple targets. Such points are reconnoitered and photographed for use in planning and briefing. Within security limitations, actual RPs promote familiarity with the area during rehearsals.

(b) Immediate reaction to any type of attack is vital. It is attained through employing firepower and moving forces and their equipment. Immediate reaction to accurate and timely intelligence may permit destruction of the insurgent force before an attack. Immediate reaction to standoff mortar or rocket fire may permit destruction of the insurgent force during an assault on the base and facilitate blocking routes of withdrawal.

(2) *Host and third country forces.* The BDE commander normally considers integrating host and third country forces in the overall base defensive effort with the approval of the JTF commander. The commander emphasizes integration of host country forces in patrol and populace control activities. Both host and third country forces provide local security for their own units; however, to ensure maximum benefit, all local plans should be coordinated with, and integrated in, the base master defense plan. The extent of participation in base defense by host and third country forces depends on the orders and guidance of their governments.

2-18. SECURITY OF LINES OF COMMUNICATION

Insurgents may try to sever LOC by various methods. Roads, waterways, and railways can be mined; ambush sites can be located adjacent to LOC; or bridges and tunnels can be destroyed by demolitions. Long LOC cannot be fully secure; however, measures can be enforced to reduce the effect of insurgent activity against LOC.

a. Patrolling by COIN forces increases the chances of detecting insurgents before insurgents can emplace mines or demolitions, or establish ambushes or roadblocks. During Phases I and II of an insurgent action, MP can do some of the patrolling of ground LOC. However, the tactical situation may dictate that combat forces have to perform this mission. These patrols are most effective as combined arms operations that integrate armor, cavalry, and heavy mechanized forces. These forces augmented with engineers, light infantry, ADA, and Army aviation assets are ideal for patrolling and securing LOC.

b. Patrolling is performed regularly, but patrols should not establish a routine. This helps the insurgent to avoid or ambush them. Patrols must be aware of probable ambush sites and choke points where roadblocks or mines and demolitions would be effective.

c. Aerial patrols effectively cover a large area in a short time. Surface patrols are slower, but they can check routes in greater detail. Surface patrol members must be trained in detecting mines and booby traps. Mine detectors and military working dogs, if available, can aid in this task.

d. The main function of a patrol is to check the security of its routes. Usually, manpower constraints prohibit a patrol from being organized and equipped to counter a large insurgent force; however, reinforcement by artillery and attack helicopters increases a patrol's ability to deal with insurgents they encounter. Patrols are organized with enough combat power to survive an initial contact. Recent insurgent activity provides guidance on the organization of patrols. If the insurgent is found in strength, his destruction is a mission for the reaction force. Also, patrols try to make initial contact with the

smallest of their elements, which must be skilled in counterambush techniques.

e. Roadblocks, checkpoints, and guard posts at crucial choke points (such as bridges and tunnels) effectively prevent acts of sabotage. Forces stop and search vehicles and persons before they proceed. Forces do not allow vehicles to stop on or under bridges or in tunnels.

f. Personnel watch critical choke points carefully at night by use of night vision equipment and watch curves on railroads. GSR and sensors cover the immediate, surrounding area. Mining indirect approaches to sensitive areas may help lessen the chances of ground attack. The area is ringed with planned artillery fires. Also, personnel construct bunkers to protect guard personnel and to provide positions from which to fight until reinforced. They reinforce underwater approaches to bridges by using booby-trapped obstacles.

g. Engineers help keep LOC open. They can locate and clear mines, clear the terrain at potential ambush sites, and repair damage to roads and trails. They can also prepare defensive systems around choke points.

h. Armor, cavalry, and heavy mechanized units initially secure key points such as major road junctions, bridges, tunnels, canal locks, dams, and power plants.

2-19. DEFENSE AGAINST GUERRILLA OFFENSIVE

When insurgent action enters Phase III, the insurgent may begin to attack using conventional tactics. His intentions are to capture and hold facilities, installations, bases, communities, and territory. He also tries to permanently sever crucial LOC.

a. These attacks are similar to those conducted by conventional forces. The insurgent may strike from one or many directions at the same time. As host government and US forces react, enemy and friendly LOC may evolve; however, during the initial stages of the insurgent's offensive campaign, friendly bases, facilities, installations, and even cities may be surrounded and come under siege.

b. The organization of the defense and the construction of physical defenses must be partly completed before the insurgent's attack. This helps the defenders until a counterattack can begin. Once enemy and friendly LOC are established, both sides employ conventional tactics. Initially, however, US forces may need to conduct limited attacks to reopen LOC or to relieve besieged areas.

Section V.
COMMON OPERATIONS

Forces can conduct common operations to offensive and defensive COIN operations during any of the three phases of an insurgency. The extent to which these operations are used depends on the tactical situation.

2-20. MOVEMENT SECURITY

Commanders plan and conduct all movements of troops and supplies as tactical operations. Emphasis is on extensive security measures. Organization of the movement depends upon the type of movement and whether by ground, air, or water.

a. These security measures may include--

(1) Secrecy when planning and disseminating orders, strict noise and light discipline during movement, and varying routes and schedules of movement.

(2) Security forces organized and equipped to ensure effective front, flank, and rear security during movement and halts. Effective all-round security is critical during movement, especially at those points along the route where the formation is most vulnerable to ambush.

(3) Coordination with supporting air units to ensure an understanding of CAS used to assist the movement, both in enforcing preventive measures and in conducting close combat operations. The need for secrecy may preclude initial air cover, but it will not preclude use of CAS. The use of aerial photographs is crucial.

(4) Fire support elements that provide close and continuous fire support for the movement.

(5) Maneuver for counterambush actions. This includes contingency plans for immediate action against an ambush and use of formations, which allow part of the column to be in position to maneuver against an ambush force.

(6) Communications with supporting units, adjacent host country forces, and higher headquarters to include airborne radio relay.

(7) Various locations for leaders, communications, and automatic weapons within the movement formation.

(8) Questions asked of the local civilians along the movement route for intelligence information to include possible insurgent ambush sites.

(9) Movement by bounds with overwatching fire.

(10) Use of military working dogs and other ambush detection means.

b. Leaders coordinate planning for movement with military units along routes of movement and consider the following:

(1) *Communications.* Communications are vital to the success of movements. Leaders plan radio communication and ensure availability between convoy serials and march units, with artillery FOs and air controllers, and with units and population centers in the areas along the route of movement. Visual and sound signals are prearranged. These signals include colored smoke, identification panels, and whistle or horn signals. While limited, these communication means are effective when prearranged signals and responses are understood and rehearsed.

(2) *Artillery and mortar support.* Units may provide artillery and mortar support that is within range of the route of movement or within range of the proposed route. Movements requiring artillery and mortar support have FOs either with them or in supporting observation aircraft. Strip maps marked with planned targets enable personnel (other than FOs) to request fires. Coordination with FDCs that can provide fire along the route of movement ensures that FOs can enter the FDC net, send routine location reports, and request and adjust fires. Leaders must coordinate call signs, frequencies, authentications, areas of possible employment, schedules of movement, and target numbers.

(3) *Aircraft.* History shows that the presence of aircraft deters ambushes. Column movement covered by traveling overwatch or bounding overwatch attack helicopters may be requested. These are in conjunction with a route reconnaissance by scout helicopters or fixed-wing strike aircraft. Planning includes the type, number, and method of employment of aircraft. Methods of employment include column cover, air alert, and ground alert. Column cover by fighter aircraft is expensive in terms of crew fatigue and equipment maintenance. Therefore, light observation-type aircraft that can direct on-call air support are used for short movements over often-used routes in more secure areas. When air support is planned, communications information concerning radio frequencies, call signs, and identification procedures is provided units who may use them. Also, the supporting air unit knows the maneuver intentions of the ground element if an ambush occurs.

(4) *Route clearing.* This operation must be conducted before critical movements. Route-clearing operations are preceded by a reconnaissance and depend on METT-T considerations. Normally, the units responsible for the area through which the movement will pass are used in routeclearing operations. These route-clearing forces normally include both mounted and dismounted elements. Along with a thorough reconnaissance of the main route of movement, units secure critical terrain near the route by selectively placing tactical units. Engineers with the reconnaissance element identify mobility tasks along the route. Mobility tasks include mine and booby trap clearance, repair of bridges, preparation of fords and bypasses, and route maintenance.

(5) *Reserves.* Reserves (ready forces) are vital to countering ambushes. However, the insurgent must be convinced that ambushes produce a fast, relentless, hard-hitting response by COIN supporting forces. These include air strikes and ground pursuit. Before a movement, reserve force commanders and aviators are briefed on the general area of operations, landing zones, and known and suspected insurgent locations. The briefing emphasizes communications. Reserves may have to be moved forward in order to respond quickly if the convoy is moving a long distance.

2-21. MOTOR MOVEMENT

Special escort attachments may not be available to support all motor movements. Therefore, leaders must prepare convoys to secure themselves for part or all of the distance.

a. When leaders designate a maneuver unit to provide escort for a vehicle convoy, elements of the unit provide escort through their respective areas of responsibility. Armor or armored cavalry units are best suited to provide convoy escorts. Reconnaissance of the route just before the passage of the convoy is best. A single unit may provide escort through other units' areas of responsibility. Therefore, it coordinates closely with the other units to ensure adequate fire support and available reinforcements during passage. Since there is seldom time to issue orders during an ambush, leaders plan the security detachment's actions, which should be rehearsed by drills before movement.

b. Convoy command responsibility is clearly fixed throughout the chain of command (Figure 2-1). The commander and his subordinates are briefed on the latest information about the area through which they are to pass. The commander formulates his plans and issues his orders to include formation, intervals between echelons and vehicles, rate of travel, and detailed plans for action if an insurgent force attacks the convoy. All personnel board their vehicle for rapid dismount into predrilled formations. Arms and ammunition are readied for immediate action. Also, vehicle commanders assume responsibility for keeping personnel alert.

Figure 2-1. Convoy command responsibility.

c. Units must harden vehicles for protection against mines. They sandbag the floors and sides and place heavy rubber mats over the sandbag flooring to reduce secondary fragments.

2-22. RAIL MOVEMENT

The primary mission of train personnel and combat or security troops is to ensure the train reaches its destination.

a. Concept. As long as the train continues to move, control remains with the train crew. If an ambush or firefight develops and the train cannot disengage by movement forward or backward, the escort commander assumes command. He defends the train with all available personnel. If there is no escort, the senior military member aboard assumes command. Radio communications are used to call for assistance. Security detachments guarding the right of way have their own communication system, which may be tied into the railway communication system.

b. Organization. Railway installations and rail traffic are secured by establishing defined areas of responsibility. The highest level of command normally publishes SOPs on organization for rail movement. Leaders coordinate rail security with area and tactical commands that provide support.

c. Operations. Leaders use armored trains for patrolling track where insurgent activity is expected. They operate tactically under orders of the appropriate military commander. Since the operation of an armored train is different from that of other trains, the military transportation service assigns a specially selected train crew. This crew coordinates the train movement with that of other trains, considering the tactical situation. Railway flatcars can be prepared for defense by piling sandbags on the floor and at the sides, and by mounting machine guns, mortars, and rocket launchers. These cars must not be placed next to cars containing gasoline, ammunition, or other flammables. Locomotives should be preceded by two or more cars loaded with sandbags, rocks, or scrap material for protection against mines and obstructions. On a single-track rail division subject to insurgent attack, leaders employ the *positive-block method of operations.* In this method, a following train is not permitted to enter a block until the preceding train has cleared it. This permits the train in the block, if attacked, to back up and receive reinforcements by train from either direction.

2-23. WATER MOVEMENT AND RIVERINE OPERATIONS

Leaders can conduct COIN operations in large inundated areas (lakes, coastal waters, flooded delta areas, and inland water ways) that are inhabited by large population segments and have limited rail and road nets. The ability of the COIN force to operate in these areas is required for successful missions. (See FMs 31-11 and 31-12 for amphibious operations.)

a. Mission and Concept. Personnel may use boats to perform many tactical and logistic tasks. Waterway movement of troops and supplies is planned and conducted in much the same manner as mounted movements on land; however, special characteristics of water transportation must be considered. The COIN force may engage in riverine operations along with host country ground and naval forces, paramilitary forces, US Army waterborne transportation forces, and US Navy forces.

b. Organization. When a large waterborne force moves, it adopts a march formation similar to a ground

convoy. Advance and rear guards in boats are organized. Patrols in boats may provide flank security in adjacent streams or on foot on the banks. Unlike ground convoy procedures, movement is not always in file or column formation. The formation depends upon the purpose of the movement, the strength of the friendly force, and the width of the stream. It is based on the same considerations as those for combat formations on land. These include control, security, flexibility, speed of reaction, observation, and fields of fire.

c. Operations. Waterways afford little cover and concealment. Power-driven boats are noisy and attract attention, and they can be seen and fired on easily in daylight. However, this disadvantage can be reduced by night movement and by traveling close to the stream banks where shadow and overhead branches aid concealment. Boats must go to or near the shore to unload, thus affecting the reaction time if an ambush occurs. Crew-served weapons transported on water craft must be in position at all times to engage insurgent ambush forces.

(1) Landing operations may be difficult due to unfavorable formations along the banks. However, transported troops should be assigned firing positions on board their vessels for defense against ambush. The transportation units should position the maximum number of crew-served weapons on board to engage enemy on the near bank or both banks of the waterway.

(2) The COIN force can devise combinations of blocking, attacking, and screening tactical actions using the mobility of naval forces (river assault groups) and air assault units. Teamwork between ground forces moving along river banks and supporting naval craft firepower and floating artillery can result in successful operations against insurgent forces in water areas.

(3) The time required for planning increases with the size of the force involved. Planning should be as detailed as time permits, but quick reaction is needed to capitalize on current intelligence. Planning includes the following:

(a) Reducing all planning facets of embarking and debarking of troops and equipment to SOP.

(b) Integrating and combining plans for US, allied, and host country military forces and civilian agencies.

(c) Facilitating command and control means to unify command and coordination of fires and other support.

(d) Reducing rehearsals to a minimum, based on habitual employment; reducing activities to SOP; reducing equipment and logistic requirements.

(e) Obtaining detailed intelligence from the population and civilian police.

(f) Obtaining information on currents and tides at H-hour, beach conditions, and conditions of banks or shores for exit routes.

(g) Obtaining information on insurgent use of water mines.

(h) Analyzing the route to determine potential water mine sites. Ideal mining sites are in restrictions or bends in waterways that tend to channel traffic over definite routes.

(i) Conducting mine sweeping of the water way.

2-24. FOOT MOVEMENT

Small units plan and conduct dismounted movements using the principles for patrolling. For larger units, the principles for movement to contact apply. (See FMs 7-8, 7-10, 7-20, and 21-18.)

2-25. AIR MOVEMENT

Air movement is an integral part of COIN operations. The principles governing security of such movements are contained in FMs 7-10, 7-20, and 90-4. COIN forces are highly vulnerable during air movement due to the increase of MANPADS in Third World countries.

2-26. BORDER OPERATIONS

Operations to control borders are normally a civilian security agency mission. However, the brigade may engage in these operations by reinforcing or assuming responsibility for border surveillance and control. Brigades conducting offensive operations may become involved in border control activities. Sometimes, the scope and combat requirements of controlling a border may make border operations more of a tactical than a civilian security force problem. The brigade may need to conduct sustained operations in its area of operations to gain or regain control of the border.

a. Purpose. Border control operations require effective measures to secure extensive land border or seacoast areas. Measures may also involve preventing communication and supply operations (aerial resupply) between an external sponsoring power and insurgent forces.

(1) *Concept.* In Phase I of insurgency, operations in border areas are normally a function of police, customs, and other government organizations. Armed and paramilitary forces may assist these organizations, particularly in remote areas. In Phases Il and III, denial of external support for the insurgency may require combat operations in border areas. These operations require close coordination and cooperation between the armed forces, paramilitary forces, and all government agencies involved. Physically sealing the border may not be possible, since it could require the commitment of more government forces and materiel than overall national resources permit. Since placing forces and barriers at all crossings or entry sites may not be possible, commanders should establish priorities. However, natural barriers must be used where possible. Using patrols, sensors, and obstacles in selected areas increases the effect of natural barriers. Commanders establish barrier and denial operations after careful consideration of the threat, environment, and location of the infiltrator's probable targets and methods of operation.

(2) *Organization.* National border forces may consist of border police and guards. They may include paramilitary forces and regular armed forces with supporting or direct responsibility for parts of the international border.

(3) *Command and control.* Border operations are planned and directed from the national level. Authority to conduct these operations may be delegated to subnational and other area commanders.

(4) *Unit structure.* Border task forces are tailored units designed to meet requirements in their assigned areas. They should contain enough CS and CSS elements to support operations for extended periods. Light cavalry squadrons are well-designed for this mission due to their

combination of air and ground assets. They need infantry augmentation in restrictive terrain.

b. Surveillance. Continuous and detailed surveillance is required. Commanders should determine infiltration and exfiltration routes and support sites, frequency and volume of traffic, type of transportation, number and type of personnel, amount and type of materiel, terrain and traffic conditions, and the probable location of base areas and sanctuaries.

(1) Surveillance and control of extensive coastal areas normally require the use of coordinated ground patrols on the shoreline, coordinated offshore patrols, aerial surveillance, strategic OPs along the shoreline, and an effective system of licensing and identifying friendly military and civilian watercraft.

(2) Certain parts of an international land border or shoreline may be placed under effective surveillance and control by use of static security posts, reserve forces, ground and aerial observers, and patrols. However, the continuous surveillance and control of an extensive land border or shoreline are difficult. Since it may not be possible to place brigade forces at all crossings or landing sites, leaders establish a priority system for the sites requiring military forces.

c. Military Operations. Border units establish OSBs at battalion and company levels to direct operations. Aviation, signal, engineer, and fire support augmentations are usually required. These are normally found in the brigade support base if not augmenting subordinate units.

d. Border Control Methods. Two operational concepts for the control of extensive land borders are the restricted zone and friendly population buffer.

(1) *Restricted zone.* Leaders should use this method only when the situation demands it. The actions can mean disaster to the IDAD effort and must be considered before execution. Under this concept, an area of predetermined width along the border is declared a restricted zone.

(a) Leaders issue proclamations to the population so that everyone understands that any individual or group encountered in the zone will be considered an element of the insurgent force, paramilitary force, or similar organization. The restricted zone is cleared of vegetation and other obstacles to observation over the area. Earth-moving equipment may be used for this purpose. Defoliants, if authorized, may also be used but only when no other method is feasible.

(b) Since the clearance of the zone along the entire border is normally not feasible, a priority of areas for clearance is needed. The restricted zone is controlled by the use of ground and aerial observers, electronic sensor devices, patrols, mines, and obstacles. These activities are best conducted by host country civil police and paramilitary forces. This allows the available combat power to be used in tactical operations.

(2) *Friendly population buffer.* The civilian population-in the area of operations is redistributed. This ensures that all civilians residing near the border are sympathetic to the host country government. This may entail the screening of all persons settled along the border, relocation of those persons of doubtful sympathy, and supplementary resettlement of the border area with friendly civilians.

(a) This concept provides a potential informant net along the border. It provides friendly local civilians for employment in self-defense units to control the border area. It also denies potential civilian contacts and houses of refuge for use by the insurgents in border-crossing

activities. Relocation of civilians is a sensitive legal and political issue and should be undertaken with host country authority in compliance with host countrylaw. US personnel should not be actively involved. US relocation activities in an international conflict environment must comply with applicable provisions of Geneva Convention IV.

(b) Relocation operations must be preceded by detailed economic, social, psychological, and political preparation so the socio-economic stability of the area is not endangered by the shifts in population. The conduct of these operations without such preparation can result in political instability, extensive unemployment, unfair land distribution, poor public utilities, lack of good housing, and intermingling of the population with conflicting religious beliefs and social mores.

(3) *Planning and Implementation.* Leaders must carefully plan either of these operations, which could require relocating persons. Although armed forces may assist, civil authorities normally are responsible for planning and implementing a relocation program. Forced relocation is held to a minimum. The 1949 Geneva Convention prohibits forced population resettlement unless there is clear military need.

e. Waterline Borders. The surveillance and control of extensive coastal areas and shorelines normally require the use of--

(1) Coordinated ground patrols on the shoreline.

(2) Coordinated offshore sea patrols of the shoreline and river delta areas.

(3) Reinforced aerial, visual, and photographic surveillance of the offshore waters and the shoreline.

(4) OPs along the shoreline near river mouths, ground LOC, and accessible parts of the shoreline.

(5) An effective system of licensing and identifying all friendly military and civilian watercraft using the offshore waters.

(6) Effective, centralized control and coordination of all these activities.

f. Sanctuaries. Insurgents may establish base camps and conduct cross-border operations from countries adjacent to the host country. They take advantage of an international boundary to launch operations or to evade pursuit. Commanders operating in border areas must respect the sanctity of international boundaries. However, they can conduct combat operations against the insurgent force once the force crosses back over the border. Ambush patrols are an excellent means of dealing with insurgents who try to use an international border as a sanctuary.

2-27. URBAN OPERATIONS

As the center of gravity of most countries lies in urban areas, US forces can expect most COIN operations to involve urban operations. (See FM 90-10-1.)

a. Operations in an urban environment require different emphasis and different techniques than those in rural areas. The presence of many people and the characteristics of the area influence both insurgent and government operations. During Phases I and II, these areas are usually unfavorable for guerrilla warfare

operations. However, insurgent elements in the urban areas may incite rioting, use terrorist tactics, or seize portions of the city and key facilities. Armed forces may be required to reinforce police in combatting riots and disorders provoked by the insurgents. Tactical operations may be required if the insurgents take direct action to seize urban areas or crucial installations within them. (See FM 90-10-1 and FM 19-15.) b. The population density requires emphasis on the use of nonlethal weapons and the careful use of weapons of destruction. When applying minimum-essential force to minimize loss of life and destruction of property, leaders must consider detailed planning, coordination, and control.

c. Covert insurgent activity is extensive in urban areas. The government must emphasize intelligence and police operations to counter clandestine organizational, intelligence, logistic, and terrorist activities. IDAD operations in urban areas may be part of a consolidation campaign.

d. Urban areas are crucial and require a continuing IDAD effort whether they are included in a specific campaign. Military forces should be part of IDAD planning and operations in urban areas during all phases of insurgency. This prepares forces to assist other national security and law enforcement agencies.

(1) *Government activity.* Urban areas need more emphasis on government functions and services than rural areas. This requires more and possibly larger government organizations for operations. Commanders should consider the activities and abilities of all government agencies when planning and executing IDAD operations.

(2) *Subversive activities.* A subversive element intent on destroying the government may strain the abilities of local authorities. The insurgents try to exploit local civilian organizations by subverting their goals and objectives. They also try to place these organizations in opposition to the government. Terrorist activities and PSYOP occur along with covert insurgent organizational, intelligence, and logistic operations. Police, internal security, and other government organizations are high-priority targets to the insurgents.

(3) *Operations.* Operations require careful planning and coordination, mainly those that involve applying force. Military forces designated to provide assistance compose plans and prepare to implement them. Military forces must be able to communicate with police and other agencies involved in the operations. They must collect and have detailed information on area characteristics and vital installations.

(4) *Tactical operations.* Tactical operations may be required inside or near an urban area to defeat an insurgent attack. Any insurgent attempt to seize and hold an urban area probably involves operations in nearby areas as well. When the police and other internal security forces can cope with the attack inside the urban area, military forces can best participate by setting up security around the urban area and by denying the insurgent reinforcement or support.

(a) When military forces must reinforce police or defeat insurgent forces inside the urban area, leaders must closely control and coordinate operations. Military forces should be withdrawn as soon as police forces can manage the situation.

(b) When an urban area has been seized by insurgent forces, leaders must decide whether to recapture it using major military force or using other techniques, considering both a tactical and psychological perspective. The amount of force and the specific techniques to be used to recapture the area are decided based on the probable psychological effect on the enemy, civilians, and friendly troops; the safety of civilians and friendly troops; the destruction of

buildings; and the military forces available. The principle of minimum-essential force helps reduce casualties in the noncombatant civilian population.

(c) When authorized, commanders can use riot control munitions against targets so that military forces can close with and capture the enemy with minimum injury to the noncombatants. Operations may be in the form of assistance to civilian police. Regardless, commanders must coordinate military operations with the civilian police. (See Appendix A.)

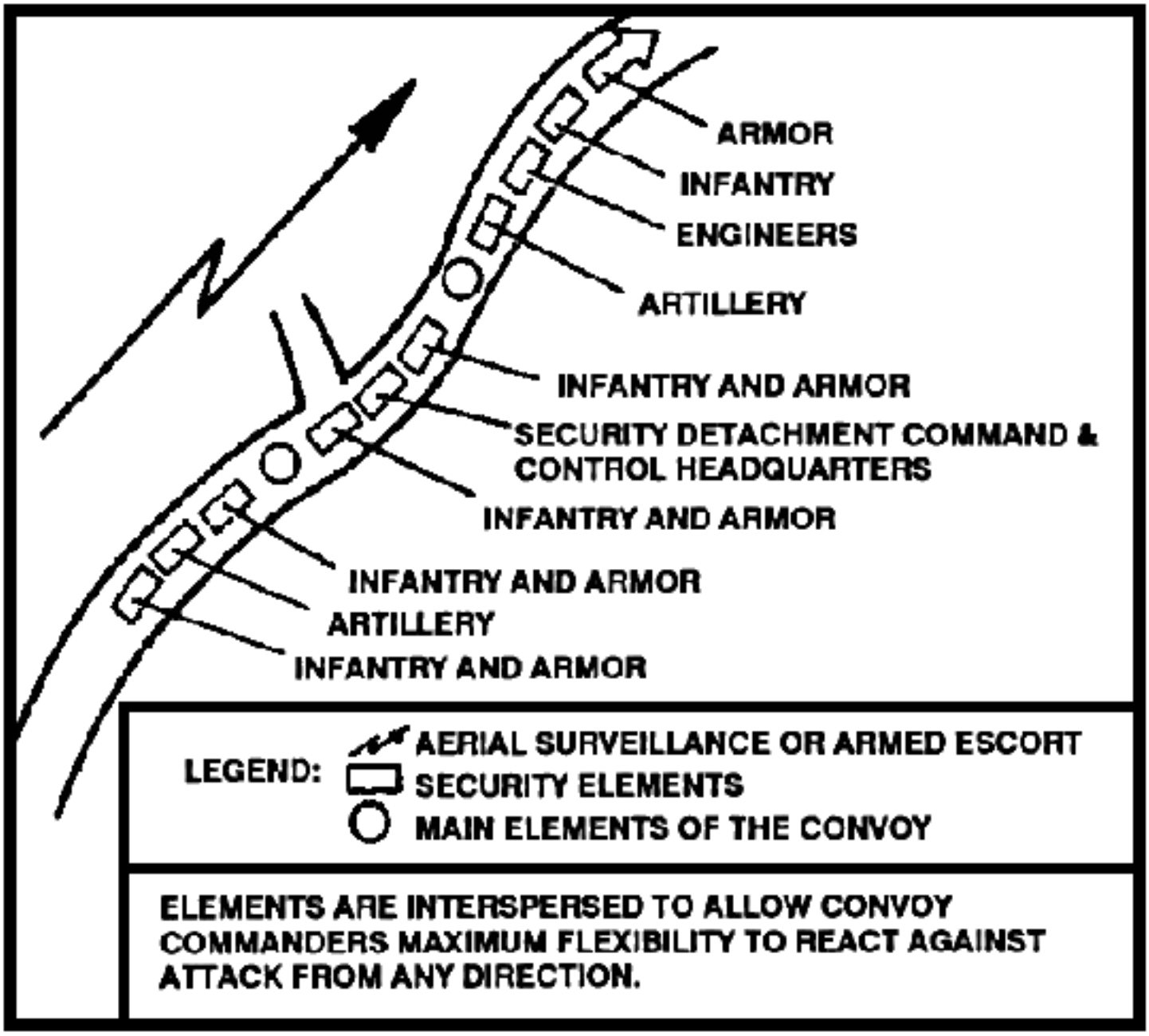

Figure 2-1. Convoy command responsibility.

CHAPTER 3

COMBATTING TERRORISM

"Kill one, frighten ten thousand."

Sun Tzu

This chapter discusses terrorism and efforts by the commander to deter the threat of terrorism. It also presents measures and precautions that should be enforced across the operational continuum. The major focus must be on stopping a terrorist act before it happens. Vulnerability must be reduced by providing conditions unfavorable to the terrorist. The commander achieves success by not having a loss of life, equipment, or material through an act of terrorism. (See FM 100-37.)

Section I.
TERRORISM

To counter terrorism, the commander must understand terrorism. Also, he must know the countermeasures that reduce the chance of a successful terrorist attack against installations, units, and personnel.

3-1. DEFINITION

The DOD defines terrorism as "the unlawful use--or threat--of force or violence against people or property to coerce or intimidate governments or societies, often to achieve political, religious, or ideological objectives." A terrorist's activities do not conform to rules or laws of warfare. His methods include hostage taking, hijacking, sabotage, assassination, arson, hoaxes, bombings, raids, seizures, use of NBC weapons, and so on. Victims are often noncombatants, symbolic persons and places, and political/military figures. Often the victims have no role in either causing or correcting a terrorist's grievance.

3-2. NATURE OF TERRORISM

The use of terrorism is not limited to the early stages of a conflict. It can and probably will occur in any level of conflict from peace through general war. Terrorist tactics are described as elusive, surprising, and brief violent actions.

3-3. COMMON STRATEGIES AND TACTICS

The common strategy of the terrorist is to commit acts of violence. These acts draw the attention of the people, the government, and the world to his cause. The media plays a crucial part in this strategy by

giving terrorists international recognition. The danger is that this kind of attention tends to incite acts of violence by other terrorist groups.

a. The victim of the terrorist is seldom his target. The target, or focal point, more often includes the general public, government, or perhaps the business sector.

b. Some common tactics terrorists use include the following:

(1) *Bombing.* The tactic common to most terrorist groups is bombing. Of all terrorist incidents recorded during the 1980s, 67 percent resulted from the terrorist bomb. The bomb is a popular weapon, because it is cheap to produce, easy to make, has variable uses, and is difficult to detect and trace after the event. The increase in bombing activity and the sophistication of devices used caused the NATO EOD Standardization Committee to classify all terrorist bombs as improvised explosive devices (IEDs). The term IED is now used by many law enforcement agencies as well as military forces. Some IED subclassifications include:

(a) Delivery means. Methods of getting the bomb to the target.

- Vehicle bombs--booby-trapped vehicles, attached devices, and car bombs (cars filled with explosives).
- Laid charges--bombs placed by hand.
- Projected bombs--bombs thrown by hand or projected by a mortar device.
- Postal bombs.
- Bicycle bombs.

(b) Activation means. Three ways to activate an IED.

- Command activation--by radio, electric leads, pull wire/mechanical strikers.
- Action by the subject/target--trip wire, pressure device, light sensitive device, electric.
- Time delay--clock, burning fuse, chemical delay, atmospheric pressure.

(c) Usage. Two broad classifications.

- Tactical improvised explosive devices (IED)--normally regarded as being those used against an individual. These include nail bombs, claymore devices, and covert bombs. In fact, any IED can be classified as a tactical IED.
- Strategic IEDs--considered to be those used indiscriminately to gain world attention--for example, in crowded shopping centers, on aircraft, and so on. They are those bombs designed to strike at society, the government, and the present system.

(d) Hoaxes. Whatever the type of IED, the terrorist often uses it to gain recognition and to show he is serious. Once he has established himself as a bomber, he can continue to disrupt, though not destroy, by using well-made and wellplaced hoax bombs. The use of hoaxes with live IEDs can keep security forces occupied and disrupt counterterrorist operations.

(2) *Arson.* Although not a popular tactic among terrorists, arson can destroy and disrupt such targets as public utilities, political headquarters, and, more commonly, economic/industrial targets (shops, factories, hotels). The most popular method of starting fires is with time-delay incendiary devices, often carried in a cigarette packet or cassette tape container. These devices are easy to conceal and difficult to detect. As with bombing, incendiary devices are cheap and easy to make.

(3) *Hijacking.* Hijacking and skyjacking were common during the 1960s, 1970s, and early 1980s. Hijacking of vehicles carrying staple foods was a favored tactic of the Supemaros and suited their style of armed propaganda. The hijacking would be followed quickly by the free distribution of the vehicle's cargo to the poor and needy along with terrorist propaganda that advertised the terrorists' cause. In any continuing terrorist activity, such as in Spain or Northern Ireland, the hijacking of a vehicle will likely be associated with a future atrocity. For example, a hijacked gasoline truck may appear later as a 50,000-pound benzine bomb wired with explosives. Also, hijacked "legitimate" vehicles give the terrorist an easy means to gain entry to a closed military post.

(4) *Ambush.* Well-planned ambushes seldom fail. Ambushes usually include the use of diversions and early-warning teams. Properly rehearsed, they are executed with precision. The terrorist has time on his side and spends weeks or months preparing for an operation and waiting for the right opportunity. The terrorist can chose his own time and place of operation and, if his intended victim habitually uses the same route, the terrorist can conduct countless rehearsals before execution.

(5) *Kidnapping.* Not all ambushes are designed to kill the principal. Kidnapping for ransom accounted for 7.9 percent of terrorist incidents in the last decade and must still be viewed as a serious option for terrorist groups. The kidnapper confines his victim in a secret hideaway and makes material demands (money, weapons, exchange of personnel, and so on). A failed kidnapping may result in hostage taking.

(6) *Hostage taking.* The difference between hostage taking and kidnapping is minimal. The hostage taker normally confronts authorities and openly holds his victims for ransom. The hostage taker demands more than just material things-- political concessions are often demanded in exchange for the lives of the hostages. Hostage taking is a new and popular terrorist tactic. By its nature, hostage taking attracts the media; the fact that live hostages are involved increases the drama of the event. The hostage is a tangible asset with which to bargain. Therefore, terrorists can apply pressure to force concessions that otherwise might not be made. Through kidnapping and hostage taking, terrorists can acquire large gains at minimal cost, although risks are involved.

(7) *Assassination.* Assassination is perhaps the oldest terrorist tactic and is still used today. Targets are often predictable, and terrorist groups claim them after the event. Targets include government officials, corporate executives, police, military personnel, and security officials.

(8) *Other tactics.* Whatever tactics terrorists use, they are simple to apply, dynamic in effect, hit-and-run by nature, and designed to strike their objective rather than the victim. Terrorists will always do a thorough reconnaissance and a detailed plan. Time is not a factor. Commanders must be aware of the tactics of potential terrorists in their AOR. Other possible tactics include the use of chemicals, harassment, raids, sabotage, seizures, and maimings.

3-4. INTERNATIONAL NETWORK

Terrorist groups today do not operate alone and ignorant of one another. An international network exists that provides great benefits for those who have paid their "membership fee." It is not suggested that some international headquarters plans terrorist acts across the globe. However, it is proven that a type of international terrorists' support network does exist. The benefits gained from such a network seem endless: arms, ammunition, money, intelligence, explosives, safe houses. Most important is the experience and assistance given in training and support facilities. Along with the resultant trained

manpower, the network grows.

3-5. CATEGORIES OF TERRORIST GROUPS

A terrorist group's choice of targets and tactics is also a function of the group's government affiliation. They are categorized by government affiliation. This helps security planners foresee terrorist targets, and his sophisticated intelligence and weaponry. Terrorist groups are divided into three categories:

a. Nonstate supported--a terrorist group that operates autonomously, receiving no support from any government.

b. State supported--a terrorist group that operates alone but receives support from one or more governments.

c. State directed--a terrorist group that operates as an agent of a government, receiving substantial intelligence, logistic, and operational support.

3-6. TERRORIST OBJECTIVES

The immediate objective of any terrorist attack normally complies with one or more categories. The goals may be either immediate or long range. Terrorists demonstrate group power, demand revenge, obtain logistic support, and cause a government to overreact. They are recognized by coercion, intimidation, and provocation. At the same time, terrorists gain support for themselves or an insurgency.

a. Immediate Goals.

(1) Obtain worldwide, national, or local recognition for their cause.

(2) Force government reaction, overreaction, and repression leading to immediate public dissension.

(3) Harass, weaken, or embarrass government, military, or other security forces.

(4) Obtain money or equipment.

(5) Show a government's inability to protect its citizens.

(6) Disrupt or destroy primary means of mobility or communications.

(7) Demonstrate power or threat credibility.

(8) Prevent or delay decisions or legislation.

(9) Cause strikes or work slowdowns.

(10) Discourage impending foreign investments or foreign government assistance programs.

(11) Free prisoners.

(12) Seek vengeance.

b. Long-Range Goals.

(1) Cause dramatic changes in government such as revolution, civil war, or war between nations.

(2) Disrupt and discredit an established infrastructure in support of an insurgency.

(3) Influence local, national, or international policy decision making.

(4) Gain political recognition as the legal body representing an ethnic or national group.

3-7. TERRORIST TARGETS

Anyone or anything can be a target or victim of a terrorist act. However, to the terrorist, the military represents a source of arms and material as well as a political or national body. This places the military at great risk. The list below contains some possible military targets of terrorists; it provides some areas of concern. Targets may change as security is increased.

- Sensitive night vision and communication items.
- Arms.
- Ammunition.
- Command and control facilities.
- Explosives.
- Military officer training facilities.
- Areas catering to personal needs (mess halls, barracks, post exchange, commissary, gyms, religious activities, bars, community centers).
- Hydroelectric plants, dams, gas pipelines, nuclear facility sites.
- Communication lines/facilities, computer facilities.
- Chemical storage sites.
- Equipment warehouses.
- Transportation centers, parking lots, airports, railheads, bus depots, rail lines, shipyards.
- Members of military force and their dependents.
- Key leaders of the military.
- Post offices and mail trucks.

Section II.
ANTITERRORISM AND COUNTERTERRORISM

Combatting terrorism consists of two major categories. The commander must develop a plan that includes the aspects of antiterrorism and counterterrorism. The plan should reduce the vulnerability of installations, units, and personnel during peacetime, predeployment, deployment, and redeployment. It should also include measures for preventing, deterring, and responding to terrorism.

3-8. ANTITERRORISM

Installations, units, and individuals employ antiterrorism measures to reduce the chance of falling victim to a terrorist act. These measures are considered both active and passive, designed to prevent a terrorist incident. They must involve each member of the military community-- military, civilian, and family members. The cornerstone for this program includes collecting and disseminating timely threat

information, conducting information awareness programs, and implementing sound defensive measures. Three types of security measures to consider are physical security, OPSEC, and personal security.

a. Physical Security. Physical security measures protect information, material, and persons, as well as prevent criminal acts. Although terrorist activities are criminal acts, there are some differences that must be considered when providing physical security against terrorists. Terrorists are likely to be more organized, better trained and educated, and more highly motivated than other criminals. They are heavily armed and sophisticated in their ability to defeat physical security measures. To provide physical security against terrorists, leaders must consider the terrorist whose goal may include his own self-destruction. This is different from security against other criminals or a conventional enemy. Several actions can help determine what physical security measures are needed.

(1) Review crime-prevention surveys/inspections. These surveys consider the entire installation as well as the effect on the surrounding civilian locale.

(2) Provide photos of known terrorists to key personnel. These photos can be obtained through local civilian and military authorities. The photos can also be prominently displayed in common areas so that all personnel have access to them.

(3) Review physical security surveys/inspections. This survey recommends action as a result of on-site inspection of barriers, guard forces, communications, transportation, contingency support, protective lighting, intrusion lighting, intrusion detection system, and other physical security measures. These actions protect installations from loss, theft, destruction, sabotage, or compromise.

(4) Review status of work orders; establish the priority of work based on threat assessment.

(5) Determine if the installation is closed or open. It is closed if ground and water access is limited by a perimeter fence, controlled entry points, or other physical barriers. If not, the commander must compensate by designating restricted areas, providing entry control, and maintaining contingency plans to secure or close all or part of the installation.

(6) Consider physical security aspects.

- Protective obstacles and barriers.
- Electro-optical and night vision equipment.
- Bomb threats.
- Closed-circuit television.
- Communications.
- Entry control.
- Intrusion detection systems.
- Lighting.
- Lock and key control.
- Package and mail control.
- Personnel reliability.
- Location of restricted areas.

- Inspection of water and food.
- Inspection of key personnel vehicles.

The physical security plan must be balanced in its orientation, with equal emphasis on preventing criminal acts as well as terrorist acts. The commander must update his plan continuously based on threat assessment.

b. Operational Security. Protecting information is the cornerstone of the OPSEC program. The OPSEC program coordinates all actions needed to prevent an enemy or terrorist from learning about plans and operations. Techniques of deception, physical security, SIGSEC, and information security are interrelated and occur at the same time. All planning must include measures to keep the potential terrorist from obtaining information that could aid in a terrorist incident. Four areas of information that terrorists can exploit are as follows:

(1) *Human intelligence*. HUMINT involves using people to gather information about military abilities and intentions to include installation day-to-day activities. HUMINT sources can include seemingly unimportant bar or restaurant conversations concerning operations, or the release of phone numbers and addresses of key personnel. This threat can be countered by adhering to physical security and information security practices, and by using countersurveillance and counterintelligence activities.

(2) *Signal intelligence*. SIGINT concerns all forms of communications and signal emission equipment. Terrorists may not be able to compromise sophisticated equipment, but they can affect routine day-to-day communications activities. For example, police or fire department frequencies are not changed when radios are stolen, or telephones in sensitive areas are not checked for bugging devices. This threat is countered by establishing communications security and information security.

(3) *Photo intelligence*. Terrorists use PHOTOINT to gain information through coverage from aircraft, high terrain features, automobiles, and so on. PHOTOINT can be countered through counterintelligence and countersurveillance programs.

(4) *Operational patterns*. Operational patterns of military organizations provide information to a terrorist. To counter this threat, leaders must eliminate patterns when possible. Otherwise, they should use deception measures to mask the established pattern.

c. **Personal Security.** No person is immune to the threat of terrorism. Representatives of the US Government are possible targets of terrorist activities. Terrorists may preselect offices, manufacturing plants, or other installation assets as targets for bombing, sabotage, demonstrations, abductions, and murders. Who occupies these buildings may be of little concern to the terrorists. Measures that may be useful in deterring such acts are as follows:

(1) Control access to sensitive areas and command offices, both day and night.

(a) Prevent direct access to sensitive areas most likely to be targets of terrorism. Do not locate command offices on the ground floor.

(b) Equip entrances to sensitive areas and command offices with an alarm.

(c) Have an access roster; escort visitors.

(d) Ensure direct-security force personnel check command areas in their after-hours tour.

(e) Lock all restrooms on floors where command offices are located (as well as others in a multistory office building) to deter public access.

(f) Lock doors to janitorial and other maintenance closets at all times.

(g) Lock doors to telephone and electrical equipment rooms. Give access to maintenance and telephone personnel only when they have such need.

(2) Select an interior safe room for use if terrorists attack; do not identify it as a safe room.

(3) Maintain emergency supplies such as first-aid equipment, bomb blankets, candles, rations, water, lanterns, and so on. Inform key personnel as to where supplies are kept, and the location of emergency exits and escape routes.

(4) Restrict the personal history data on key personnel since this information could be used by terrorists to select victims or to identify their homes and families.

(5) Recommend key personnel parking areas not be identified by name but rather by number.

(6) Limit information on travel agendas and plans of command or key personnel to only need-to-know personnel.

(7) Increase the effect of command and key personnel protective measures by encouraging them--

(a) To maintain a low profile.

(b) To be taught to recognize the signs of surveillance by strangers.

(c) To use simple, effective, verbal code signals to alert family or organizational members to a physical threat.

(d) To vary routes to and from work.

(e) To attend defensive and evasive driving school.

(f) To inspect vehicles before moving.

(g) To use protective vests.

(h) To avoid likely terrorist targeted areas.

(i) To drive with windows closed and doors locked.

(j) To know key phrases in the native language.

(k) To carefully screen all domestic help.

(l) To know terrorist techniques and methods of operation.

(m) To perform roadmap reconnaissance to avoid suspected terrorist concentrations when traveling to new destinations (restaurants, hotels, shopping, and so on).

3-9. TERRORIST THREAT CONDITIONS

The following terrorist threat conditions describe progressive levels of terrorist threat to US military facilities and personnel. As Joint Chiefs of Staff-approved terminology, these terms, definitions, and security measures implement a standardized terrorist alert system throughout the DOD. MACOMs and subordinate commands are not authorized to change the basic system; however, supplements to the system may be published. The selection of appropriate responses to terrorist threats remains the responsibility of the commander having jurisdiction or control over threatened facilities or personnel.

a. Threat Condition Alpha(Low).

(1) *Definition*. A general threat of possible terrorist activity against installations and personnel, of unpredictable nature and extent, when circumstances do not justify full implementation of measures contained in a higher threat condition. Selected measures from higher threat conditions may be implemented as needed.

(2) *Measures To Be Taken.*

(a) At regular intervals, remind all personnel, including dependents, to be suspicious and inquisitive about strangers, particularly those carrying suitcases or other containers; to be alert for unidentified vehicles on or near US installations; and to be alert for abandoned parcels or suitcases, or for any unusual activity.

(b) Keep the duty officer or other appointed personnel available to evacuate buildings and areas, and to seal off areas where an explosion or attack has occurred. Keep key personnel on call to implement security plans.

(c) Secure buildings, rooms, and storage areas not in regular use.

(d) Increase security spot checks of vehicles and persons entering installations and nonclassified areas under the jurisdiction of the US command and agency.

(e) Limit access points for vehicles and personnel.

(f) As a deterrent, apply one of the following measures from threat condition Bravo individually and randomly:

- Secure and regularly inspect all buildings, rooms, and storage areas not in regular use.
- At the beginning and the end of each workday, and at other regular and frequent intervals, inspect the interior and exterior of buildings in regular use for suspicious activity or packages.
- Check all deliveries to installation activities and advise dependents to check all home deliveries.
- As far as resources allow, increase surveillance of domestic accommodations (schools, messes, clubs, and other soft targets) to improve deterrence and defense, and to build confidence among the staff and dependents.

(g) Review all plans, orders, personnel details, and logistic requirements related to the introduction of the higher threat condition.

(h) Review and implement security measures for high-risk personnel.

b. Threat Condition Bravo (Medium).

(1) *Definition.* An increased and more predictable threat of terrorist activity even though no particular threat has been identified.

(2) *Measures to be Taken.*

(a) Remind all personnel to be cautious and inquisitive about suspicious persons, vehicles, and activities. Warn personnel of any form of attack to be used by terrorists.

(b) Keep all personnel on call who are involved in implementing antiterrorist contingency plans.

(c) Check plans for implementing measures contained in the next threat condition.

(d) Where possible, move cars and other objects at least 25 meters from buildings, particularly those buildings of a sensitive or prestigious nature. Consider the use of centralized parking.

(e) Secure and regularly inspect all buildings, rooms, and storage areas not in regular use.

(f) Make regular and frequent inspections of the interior and exterior of buildings for suspicious packages.

(g) Thoroughly examine all mail for letter or parcel bombs.

(h) Check all deliveries to installation activities and advise dependents to check all home deliveries.

(i) As far as resources allow, increase surveillance of domestic accommodations (schools, messes, clubs, and other soft targets) to improve deterrence and defense, and to build confidence among the staff and dependents.

(j) Keep the staff and dependents informed of the general situation to stop rumors and prevent unnecessary alarm.

(k) At an early stage, inform members of local security committees of any action being taken and why.

(l) Upon entry of visitors to the unit, physically inspect them and a percentage of their suitcases, parcels, and other containers.

(m) Wherever possible, operate random patrols to check vehicles, people, and buildings.

(n) Protect off-base military personnel and military transport in accordance with prepared plans. Remind drivers to lock parked vehicles and to institute a positive system of checking before they enter and drive a car.

(o) Implement additional security measures for high-risk personnel.

(p) Brief personnel who may augment the guard force on directives and regulations concerning the use of deadly force.

(q) Conduct a random search of vehicles entering the installation.

c. Threat Condition Charlie (High).

(1) *Definition*. A terrorist incident has occurred or intelligence has been received indicating that some form of terrorist action is imminent.

(2) *Measures to be Taken.*

(a) Continue all threat condition Bravo actions or introduce those not already implemented.

(b) Keep all personnel on duty who are responsible for implementing antiterrorist plans.

(c) Limit access points to absolute minimum.

(d) Strictly enforce control of entry and search all vehicles.

(e) Enforce centralized parking of vehicles away from sensitive buildings.

(f) Issue weapons to guards. (Local orders should include specific instructions on issue of ammunition.)

(g) Increase patrolling of the installation.

(h) Protect all designated vulnerable points and give special attention to vulnerable points outside military establishments.

(i) Erect barriers and obstacles to control traffic flow.

d. Threat Condition Delta (Imminent).

(1) *Definition*. Terrorist attack has occurred in the immediate area or intelligence has been received that terrorist action against a specific location is likely. Normally, this threat condition is declared as a localized warning.

(2) *Measures To Be Taken.*

(a) Continue or introduce measures listed for threat conditions Bravo and Charlie.

(b) Augment guards, as needed.

(c) Identify all vehicles already on the installation within operational or mission support areas.

(d) Search all vehicles entering the complex or installation as well as vehicle contents.

(e) Control all access and implement positive identification of all personnel.

(f) Search all suitcases, briefcases, and packages brought into the complex or on the installation.

(g) Enforce measures to control access to all areas under the jurisdiction of the US command or agency concerned.

(h) Check often the exterior of buildings and of parking areas.

(i) Minimize all administrative journeys and visits.

(j) Consult local authorities about closing public (and military) roads and facilities that might make sites more vulnerable to terrorist attack.

e. Threat Assessment Guidelines. The following general guidelines provide for uniform implementation of security alert conditions. Assessment factors are defined as--

(1) *Existence*. Applies when a terrorist group is present in an area of concern. The group need not have posed a threat to US or DOD interests in the past.

(2) *Capability*. Applies when a terrorist group has the ability to implement an operation against US interests in areas of concern. This includes resources such as intelligence, mobility, personnel, and equipment (explosives, arms, and ammunition).

(3) *History*. Applies when a group's history of terrorist acts and behavior reflects an anti-US stand or includes previous attacks against US interests.

(4) *Trends*. Applies if the group has, over the past year, displayed terrorist activity that appears to be continuing or increasing. Activity need not have been violent; terrorist attacks against US or DOD interests may be merely threatening statements.

(5) *Targeting*. Applies if there are known plans or confirmed intentions of a terrorist group to target US or DOD interests. Targeting can be either specific or nonspecific. If targeting is not against US or DOD interests, this factor should not be considered.

A combination of positive answers to any or all of the above assessment factors will produce a threat level of either low, medium, high, or imminent. These guidelines apply only to the assessment of terrorist threat against US or DOD interests.

f. Threat Condition Reporting Procedures. Department of the Army requires MACOMs that own installations to implement a reporting system within their respective commands. This system will provide DA and senior Army leaders current information on the antiterrorist posture so that resources are dedicated where they are most needed. (See applicableregulations for reporting procedures.)

3-10. COUNTERTERRORISM

Counterterrorism includes the full range of offensive measures to prevent, deter, and respond to terrorism. This is the final phase in combatting terrorism. It is reactive and validates the extensive preparation, planning, and response measures established in terrorism counteraction plans. The type of forces and command and control relations used in counterterrorism operations depend on the location, type of incident, and degree of force required. Force selection criteria are governed by legal and political constraints. Some military operations executed by US forces in response to terrorist acts may be carried out by conventional forces, However, usually these forces provide support to a specially organized, equipped, and trained counterterrorism unit. In executing counterterrorism actions, leaders should ensure organizational planning addresses the following tasks:

a. Intelligence. A well-planned, organized, all-source intelligence program is vital in order to identify the threat and to provide timely threat intelligence. (See Chapter 6.) This includes evaluating terrorist abilities, tactics, and strategy.

b. Hostage Negotiations. Due to jurisdictional considerations, hostage negotiations are normally the

responsibility of another US government agency or the host nation.

c. Hostage Rescue. Specially organized, trained, and equipped personnel and units are maintained to rescue and protect hostages.

d. Assault of Terrorist Positions. An objective of national policy is to deter the terrorist through the threat of retaliation. When this becomes necessary, US military personnel normally conduct the operation. This mission could be assigned to either special operations forces, conventional forces, or both. If SOFs are used, the US military commander must still plan to establish an inner security perimeter of MP units. He also establishes an outer security perimeter of soldiers and a special reaction element to respond to other isolated incidents within the AOR.

Section III.
COMBATTING TERRORISM IN LIC

Commanders must take action to counter terrorists. During peacetime, they must develop and employ antiterrorist plans. The measures to deter, prevent, and respond to threat are based on the terrorist threat conditions. The plan must correspond to and be included in the security plan. This includes physical security, OPSEC, and personal security. As the unit deploys for COIN operations, PKOs, or PCOs, the chances of a terrorist act increases. Based on the threat, commanders must guard unit personnel and equipment.

3-11. DEPLOYMENT IN CONTINGENCIES

A commander with a deployment mission must reduce the vulnerability of his unit to terrorist attack. These precautions must be included during predeployment, deployment, and redeployment.

a. Predeployment. The commander must develop his unit's security to complicate the terrorist's decision making. As he plans his concept of the operation, he assesses the threat. From this, the operational plans, equipment, and special skills can be chosen that increase risk to the terrorists.

(1) The concept should--

(a) Include security against terrorism in all orders, plans, and training.

(b) Include security in the commander's guidance.

(c) Deter or create risk for the terrorist through security programs.

(2) The planning process must include--

(a) Mission analysis.

- How can the mission be affected by a terrorist attack?
- What are the security aspects of both specified and implied tasks?
- Continue to review unit weaknesses throughout predeployment, deployment, and redeployment.

(b) Threat assessment.

- Identify terrorist groups operating in the deployment area.
- Develop a list of PIR: methods of operation, attack methodology, and preattack indication.

- Identify sources of information on terrorist groups; know how to access them quickly and routinely.
- Routinely include threat assessment in intelligence estimates.

(c) Combat service support considerations.

- Procurement of special security equipment (Table 3-1).
- Protection of storage and distribution areas.
- Maintenance of special equipment.
- Security of maintenance unit if separate from main body.
- Security during movement (based on threat).
- Security in staging areas.
- Liaison with security agencies that support the move or with controlling areas that move (host country).

(d) Combat support considerations.

- Engineering priority of work based on the mission and terrorist threat.
- Special engineer equipment for conducting countermine and EOD; protective obstacle emplacement; constructing roadblocks; critical site, asset, and troop protection.
- Special engineer equipment.
- Engineer training to maneuver units on visual detection/recognition of mines/booby traps.
- MP check/inspect/improve unit physical security.
- MP liaison with local police/security personnel.
- MP assist in security planning and training.
- Host nation security forces assisted by MP screen civilian and host nation employees.
- No hiring of civilian employees, if possible.
- If employed, special security procedures for screening and monitoring civilians.
- In many countries, a fee for information is expected. Coordinate with the State Department for a means to pay for information.

(e) Operational considerations.

- Unit plans. Include security in each plan, SOP, OPORD, and movement order.
- Security plans. Prepare, review, and update unit security plans (physical security, crime prevention, and so on), and individual security plans (guard orders).
- Security programs. Develop specific security programs such as threat awareness and OPSEC.
- Special teams. Due to the terrorist threat, consider a different task organization (search teams, special reaction teams, protective service teams).
- Special skills. To counter the terrorist threat, add special skills to units (interrogators, linguists, FAOs, EOD personnel, public affairs, SOF liaison, CA officer). Some may need to go with advanced parties.
- Command and support relationships. These may differ from the routine (State Department, host nation, country team, SOF teams). Resolve command and support relationships between the

advance party of the JTF and the brigade and other agencies before deployment.

(f) Specialized skills training. Institutional training for specialized skills (instructor qualification, evasive driving, special reaction teams, threat awareness, search techniques, hostage negotiation, roadblocks, sentry duties, joint police action with host country).

(g) Transit to deployment area.

- Consider overall security of the unit throughout the entire movement: emergency action procedures, alternative routes or diversions, and organic security teams with each movement element.
- Implement en route planning and training.
- Immediately update intelligence/threat assessment before arrival.

Table 3-1. Specialized equipment.

b. Deployment. Deployment is the second stage of the mission. As units move and establish operation bases, commanders must not create lucrative targets.

(1) *Advanced party considerations*.

(a) Composition. More personnel are needed for security and liaison with host nation security agencies, because a means for added intelligence on terrorism is required.

(b) Deployment. The primary security consideration for the advanced party is whether it should be standard or low profile (uniform or plain clothes, military or civilian transport).

(c) Validation. The advanced party must validate the mission and PIR. Required tasks include determining if the terrorist threat assessment tracks with actual threat and if the threat from in country affects the accomplishment of the mission; and, discovering the mission, if it is the same as the commander's.

(d) Rules of engagement. The advanced party must confirm planned rules of engagement. It must determine if they are the same as those during the predeployment phase. Problems must be resolved before the main body arrives.

(2) *OPSEC measures in deployment*.

(a) Avoid making known the time and place of arrival; otherwise, increase security.

(b) Avoid setting patterns of behavior/operation.

(c) Set up secure communications with main body and advanced party.

(3) *Pass policy*. On extended operations, the morale of soldiers must be considered. A pass policy may be established in the mission area. However, soldiers must keep a low profile. Commanders should do the following:

(a) Provide troop information briefings on the threat.

(b) Establish pass policies using the buddy system.

(c) Establish off-limits areas.

(4) *Force protection*. In setting up operating bases and in day-to-day operations, commanders must consider the security of his forces. This is a major concern when the rules of engagement are restrictive. Some considerations are as follows:

(a) Coordinate with security forces that protect forces (MP, host nation forces, directing staff). (b) Avoid providing lucrative targets (troop concentrations, motor pools, large static logistic installations).

(c) Transit within deployment area.

(d) Continue threat assessment along routes for each movement.

(e) Include security in all movement orders.

(f) Provide security at departure and arrival points.

(g) Employ security forces during transit.

(h) Establish liaison and coordinate with all security agencies along route.

(5) *Security enhancement*. Commanders should use TOE and specialized equipment to provide security based on threat assessment.

(a) Assign the provost marshal or a military police officer the responsibility for physical security.

(b) Ensure all personnel know the governing regulations (guard orders, rules of engagement, local restrictions).

(c) Stay aware of training and the troop information program.

(d) Include force/base protection when arranging unit positions (good defense/barrier plan, dispersion of high-value targets away from access roads, perimeter fences).

(e) Maintain a low profile (restrict passes).

(f) Restrict access of unassigned personnel to the unit's location. Restrict the number of vehicles within perimeters and keep parking away from buildings. Perform stringent identification checks.

(h) Constantly portray an image of professionalism and readiness.

(i) Continue to reassess the environment.

c. Redeployment. During the redeployment phase, preparing for a terrorist attack is as vital as during the other phases. In fact, units tend to relax after an operation. Redeployment depends on the mission, the publicity, and the international reaction. It may be the most vulnerable phase for aterrorist attack.

(1) The advance party must keep a security alert and awareness posture until all of the unit has returned. The advance party should develop PIR for return to home station.

(2) Stay-behind personnel are most open to terrorist attack since the armed presence is less. They must keep a security posture that reflects the chance of a greater threat. Actions include maintaining liaison with security forces, adding to security measures, and keeping tight controls on

personnel.

(3) The following should be considered for reverse deployment:

(a) The security of the port of entry and lines of communications for the return trip.

(b) If the mission has changed the situation at home. An unpopular political decision may expose the unit to a threat upon its return to the US.

(c) To adopt the security measures used during transit to, and movement within, the deployment area. Coordinate reaction ability with security agencies along the route.

(4) A coordinated PAO policy should be developed to incorporate the following:

(a) Control of information released to the media ensures accuracy and completeness.

(b) Troops should be briefed as to release of information to outside agencies. Only public affairs personnel have release authority.

(5) Debriefing should be conducted. The stress increase in soldiers during intense deployment operations must be allowed to subside. This helps to adjust back into a peacetime environment. These debriefings include:

(a) Briefing soldiers to change their orientation from LIC duty back to peacetime.

(b) Updating soldiers regarding new policies, incidents, or threats that developed since the deployment operation.

(c) Inspecting soldiers for maps, souvenirs, ordnance, and weapons.

(6) A thorough after-action report should be prepared. It provides two vital services for units that conduct future operations. It provides future commanders a benefit from lessons learned. Also, it serves as a resource for validating terrorism counteraction procedures for future operations.

3-12. PRIORITY INTELLIGENCE REQUIREMENTS AND LOCAL TERRORISM INDICATORS

Combatting terrorism, more than any other form of warfare, requires knowledge of the enemy's goals and abilities. Intelligence officers, supporting a deploying unit, must always consider the terrorist's concerns when developing EEIs and a list of local terrorism indicators.

a. Priority Intelligence Requirements. The following terrorist concerns can assist the intelligence officer in developing PIR:

- Organization, size, and composition of group.
- Motivation, long-range goals, and short-range goals.
- Religious, political, ethnic affiliation, or a combination of these.
- International and national support (moral, physical, financial).
- Recruiting methods, locations, and targets (students).
- Identities of group leaders, opportunist, and idealists.
- Group intelligence abilities.
- Sources of supply/support.

- Important dates (religious holidays, martyrdom anniversaries).
- Planning competence.
- Degree of discipline.
- Preferred tactics and operations.
- Willingness to kill.
- Willingness for self-sacrifice (professed or demonstrated).
- Group skills (sniping, demolitions, masquerade, forged documents, industrial sabotage, airplane/boat operations, tunneling, underwater electronic surveillance, poisons/contaminants).
- Equipment and weapons on hand and required.
- Transportation on hand and required.
- Medical support available.
- Freedom of access to media and skill in using it.

b. Local Terrorism Indicators. Some conditions that may indicate politically motivated violence in certain locations are as follows:

(1) Dissent for political, social, or ethnic reasons. Charges brought against local government.

(2) Formation of radical groups, branches of national subversive groups, or secret societies.

(3) Antigovernment, anti-US agitation; identification of government or US as the root of the problems.

(4) New spokesmen for the people's causes emerging; out-of-town organizers arriving.

(5) Meetings, rallies, and demonstrations being organized; grievances taking political overtones; inflammatory speeches and charges made; provocation of authorities to intervene, or overreact; police or military brutality charged.

(6) Appearance of antiestablishment posters, leaflets, underground press; taking people's concern into political arena; politicization of social causes.

(7) Use of known personalities as draws for rallies, especially those that have been identified with radical causes.

(8) Demonstrations, civil disobedience, or protest marches with causes overshadowed by political rhetorics.

(9) Increased recruiting, by known front groups and radical organizations; support sought among workers.

(10) Increased activism in political spheres at colleges and universities.

(11) Speeches and communications stating violence as the only means of solution.

(12) Identification of foreign influence or aid.

(13) Threats against public works, utilities, or transportation; threats of violence against prominent personalities.

(14) Agitation in refugee, minority, or foreign communities; polarization; arming segments of society.

(15) Reports of stolen firearms and explosives; raids on armories, and sporting goods stores.

(16) Violence against property, looting, destruction, and arson; mainly during demonstrations, marches, or mob actions.

(17) Violence against persons, murders, attempted murders, beatings, threats, abductions, or public targeting of people.

(18) Increased purchases of high-performance weapons; appearance of automatic weapons, mainly of foreign manufacture.

(19) Discovery of weapons, ammunition caches, and explosives; indication of terrorist training; increased terrorist surveillance.

(20) Open attacks on police, military, and other authorities.

(21) Reports of stolen identification cards, membership cards, and so on.

3-13. OPERATIONS SECURITY MEASURES

Commanders can implement certain measures to avoid stereotyping and to deny intelligence information to the enemy.

a. Commanders should adhere to the following OPSEC measures:

(1) Use EEFI to guide the OPSEC program. Develop EEFI--those items/activities of planning that terrorists can use.

(2) Present random action in unit operating procedures (change patrol schedules, routes, check points, sentry, or guard positions.

(3) Avoid any set pattern for commanders, meetings, meal schedules, resupply activity, religious services, or sentry or guard reliefs.

(4) Employ protective obstacles (perimeter and internal).

(5) Check identification of all personnel entering and leaving the perimeter or installation.

(6) Employ added security to restricted areas (communications posts, communication centers, motor parks, high-density troop areas).

(7) Control distribution of itineraries of VIPs/high-risk personnel.

(8) Establish dismount points and parking areas away from buildings. If possible, these should not be seen from outside the base.

b. The following are examples of intelligence indicators that might assist a terrorist in gathering intelligence on a unit. This is a sample listing and should not be construed as all inclusive.

(1) *Operation Indicators*.

(a) Troops restricted to the post before a move or operation.

(b) Increased patrolling/air reconnaissance.

(c) No patrolling at all.

(d) Increased movement between locations caused by task organizations before an operation.

(e) Special requisitions to increase rations, transport, and ammunitions.

(2) *HUMINT Indicators*.

(a) Newspaper or other media coverage.

(b) Farewells and last-minute visits by VIPs or senior officers.

(c) Church services the night before an operation.

(d) Bulletin notices stating that enforced rest is required; dispensary hours are changed.

(e) Public signs announcing changes in procedures (restricting civilian travel/access).

(f) Photography developed by local contractors showing in-camp scenes and preparations.

(3) *Communication Indicators.*

(a) Change in call signs and frequencies before an operation.

(b) Movement of auxiliary communication equipment (new aerials) to a new area.

GENERAL	ROADBLOCKS	SEARCHES	SPECIALISTS	ENGINEERS
Pyrotechnic pistols Riot guns Tear gas launchers Hand-held flashlights Antiriot helmets Shields 3ft 6in Shields 6ft Police batons Handcuffs Body armor Marshalling wands Telescopes and tripods Binoculars Infrared devices Loud speakers Fire extinguisher Cameras with flash attachments and tripods Telesopic sights Photographic filter Polaroid cameras Whistles Hand-held radios (for use in urban areas)	Portable lamps/lights Marker lights Traffic cones Traffic signs Visor sleeves Car punture chains Directional arrow Lightweight barriers Mirrors	Ladders Flashlights Picks,shovels Wrecking bars Hand tools, florescent (hammers, pliers, screwdrivers) Rope Magnets Telescopic mirror Axe Mine markers Hemets White tape Mine detectors Eye shields Measuring tape Metal cutting tools Chisels Knives Saws Mine probes Safety harness	Explosive detectors Remote light unit Remote-controlled EOD device Endoscope Engineer heavy equipment Concrete mixers Mobile lighting Portable compressor Hydraulic platform Engineer tractors Platform hoist Equipment in static defense column X-ray equipment Metal detectors	Portable sensors Portable alarms Portable lighting system Barriers (drop arm and swing arm) Roadblock equipment for exit/entry control Closed-circuit TV Shot direction indicator Barbed wire Wire netting Corrugated iron Fence materials Steel girders Scaffolding

Table 3-1. Specialized equipment.

CHAPTER 4

PEACEKEEPING

"Peacekeeping isn't a soldier's job, but only a soldier can do it."

Anonymous Member,

Peacekeeping Force

International peacekeeping efforts dominate today's conflict resolution. The US may enter into PKOs under the auspice of an international organization in cooperation with other countries or unilaterally. This chapter provides details on employing Army units for these operations. It explains how PKOs are established, controlled, planned, operated, and supported. Also, the possible mission of a peacekeeping force is discussed along with TTPs for conducting the specified and implied tasks of PKOs.

Section I.
ESTABLISHMENT OF A PEACEKEEPING OPERATION

This section discusses the principles of control of a PKO, the legal status, use of force, US reaction to PKO missions, political considerations, and command and control. Since many PKOs are under UN control, this section mainly discusses UN issues. However, the use of US forces in PKOs in other than UN roles is also included.

4-1. ENVIRONMENT

The importance of the peacekeeping force being entirely neutral cannot be overstated. These operations usually occur after negotiations that establish a mandate for the peacekeeping force.

a. US Participation. Peacekeeping operations may occur in ambiguous situations, requiring the peacekeeping force to deal with extreme tension and violence without becoming a participant. These operations usually occur after diplomatic negotiations (which include the belligerents) establish the mandate for the peacekeeping force. The mandate is the peacekeeping force's authority to act. It describes the force's scope of operations to include constraints and restrictions. It identifies the participating nations and determines the size and type of force each contributes. Therefore, each peacekeeping operation is unique. US participation may involve military units or individuals acting as observers.

b. Tasks. A clear, restricted, and realistic mission must be given. The Secretary-General's report explains the functions of a PKO as approved by a Security Council resolution. They are determined by the nature of the operation and try--

(1) To prevent the recurrence of fighting.

(2) To contribute to restoring law and order, and returning to normal conditions.

(3) To secure the withdrawal of unauthorized armed elements.

(4) To establish a security or buffer zone between the hostile forces and to avert the parties to the dispute.

(5) To replace the occupation of minority enclaves by the stronger side with UN protection.

(6) To allow a UN constabulary to police those villages with mixed populations that are located outside the buffer zone in potentially hostile territory.

(7) To effect liaison with UN military observers working alongside the force to verify arms limitation agreements in areas adjacent to the buffer zone.

c. Duration. Although there are exceptions, a peacekeeping force's existence is authorized for limited periods for the following reasons:

(1) The Security Council wishes to maintain a firm control for political reasons.

(2) Contributing and host countries are wary of accepting open-ended commitments.

(3) Contributing countries, and in cases where all members of the UN pay a share of the force, also wish to maintain financial control.

4-2. PRINCIPLES

Eight principles are fundamental to and form the doctrinal basis for PKOs.

a. Consent. The presence and degree of consent determine the success of a PKO. The disputing parties demonstrate their desire for or compliance with these operations. Nations participating in the peacekeeping force also consent to these operations for their own interests. They may limit the employment of their forces through ROE or terms of reference. Consent also applies to other interested states. They may support PKOs or at least agree to refrain from actions harmful to their success. The principle of consent also interacts with other principles.

b. Neutrality. Neutrality is closely linked with consent. Ideally, states contributing peacekeeping forces should be neutral in the crisis for which the force is created. However, any interested state may participate if the belligerents consent. To preserve neutrality, the peacekeeping force must maintain an atmosphere and an attitude of impartiality.

c. Balance. Balance refers to the geographic, political, and functional composition of the peacekeeping force. It is a function of consent. The belligerents may insist that the force include elements from mutually acceptable, geopolitically balanced countries.

d. Single-Manager Control. The appointment of an individual or agency to execute the policies of the parties to the agreement results in singlemanager control of the operations. Single-manager control is exercised at the interface point between the peacekeeping structure and the body that authorizes the operations and appoints the manager. For example, if the United Nations authorizes peacekeeping

operations, the Secretary General is the single manager.

e. Concurrent Action. Concurrent action refers to all other actions taken to achieve a permanent peace while the peacekeeping force stabilizes the situation. Any activity by the peacekeeping force that facilitates agreement between the contending parties aids in this long-term objective.

f. Unqualified Sponsor Support. Organizations or countries contributing to a PKO should give the peacekeeping force their full support IAW the terms of the mandate that established the force. This support may be financial, logistic, or political; it relies heavily on consent and neutrality. The contributing groups should permit the peacekeeping force to operate freely within policy guidance but without unnecessary interference.

g. Freedom of Movement. The entire peacekeeping force and all its components should have guaranteed freedom of movement. They should move unhindered in and around buffer zones, along demarcation lines, or throughout a host nation. The principle of consent affects this freedom.

h. Self-Defense. The use of force in self-defense is essential to the PKOs concept. The principle of self-defense is an inherent right; it is the one principle that cannot be affected by consent. The ROE describe the circumstances and the manner in which peacekeepers may use force to resist attempts to prevent them from performing their duties. The ROE normally allow peacekeepers to use force only in self-defense. They should be clearly stated in the mandate.

4-3. ORGANIZATION

PKOs have three levels, or tiers, of organization: the political council, the military peacekeeping command, and the military area command. The peacekeeping force includes all three of these tiers.

a. Political Council. The political council is the highest level of the peacekeeping organization. It provides a system to negotiate and coordinate with the leaders of the disputing parties. Through negotiation, the council encourages self-sustaining solutions that are acceptable to the disputing factions. The chief of the peacekeeping force may be a member of the political council. The political council receives the mandate for the PKO and coordinates status of forces agreements (SOFAs) with the belligerents.

b. Military Peacekeeping Command. Overall control of the peacekeeping forces exists at the military peacekeeping command level. Control and staffing at this level are normally multinational. The force commander exercises operational control of the combined forces, with command functions remaining within national channels. The military peacekeeping command may collocate with the political body established by the political council. This command rarely has the authority to negotiate political matters. However, it may have authority to maintain liaison with military or paramilitary headquarters and to mediate regional disputes and misunderstandings. Language-qualified personnel and communications equipment must be available. The missions of the command include--

(1) Deterring violent acts by the disputants.

(2) Protecting vital installations and critical facilities.

(3) Informing the political council of peacekeeping force requirements-- for example, operational requirements not covered in the agreements.

(4) Collecting and providing information to the political council.

(5) Ensuring impartiality of peacekeeping forces.

The command issues directive and instructions concerning operations and procedures to follow.

c. Military Area Command. The third operating level of peacekeeping is the military area command. This area command usually consists of forces from a single nation. It operates in a specific area of responsibility. It reports to the military peacekeeping command and receives logistic support from the command or through its own national channels. The military area command is normally composed of highly visible units with distinctive markings on all uniforms and equipment. These identifying marks increase the impact of their presence, increase the effects of reassurance, and imply confidence. Area command forces should have extensive redundant communications to support their missions. The military area command deters violent acts by its physical presence at violence-prone locations. It collects information through normal overt means such as OPs, patrols, visual sightings, aerial reconnaissance, conversations with local inhabitants, and routine reports. It collects, analyzes, and reports intelligence information to the military peacekeeping command.

4-4. LEGAL STATUS

The legal status of a peacekeeping force, its military/civilian personnel, and property are secured by a legal counsel with the host government. This is normally accomplished before the arrival of US forces.

a. The type of agreement depends on the present harmony between the states in the dispute and with the UN, or any non-UN controlling body. In Cyprus, a large measure of accord is reflected in a status of forces agreement (SOFA), which has the standing of a treaty. When close harmony cannot be reached, a memorandum of understanding or an exchange of letters may be required. An exchange of letters may be made directly between governments in the case of non-UN forces or unilaterally and parallel between the host governments and the UN. The agreement balances two fundamental factors: the independence of the UN forces versus the governmental authorities of the host government and freedom of movement. US military officers below the head of staff agency and MACOM level must refrain from entering into international agreements with one or more foreign governments.

b. The legal instrument between the UN and the host nation includes the peacekeeping force's rights, privileges, immunities, jurisdiction, and status to include the following:

- Authority over force premises.
- Display of the UN or force flag.
- Dress and uniform for the force.
- Carrying of arms.
- Freedom of movement in the area of operations.
- Peacekeeping operations.
- Identification of personnel, vehicles, ships, and aircraft.
- Marking of peacekeeping force positions and premises.
- Economic relations between the peacekeeping force and its individuals on the one hand, and the host state and its citizens on the other hand.

- Use of communications, postal service, roads, waterways, port facilities, and airfields.
- Use of public utilities (water, drainage, electricity, gas, and so on).
- Cooperation between peacekeeping force police and host nation police.
- Immunity from search and inspection of force documents.
- Provision of supplies and services from the host nation.
- Employment of local labor.
- Settlement of disputes and claims.
- Liaison.

c. The international agreement in force determines which country exercises primary jurisdiction for criminal offenses committed by military and civilian members of the peacekeeping force. The host country may share jurisdiction. However, military and civilian personnel of a peacekeeping force remain under the criminal jurisdiction of their own nations. The legal instrument should provide for the transfer of members of the force from the host government to their respective contingents for disciplinary action. The parties must have a plan for dealing with motor accidents, on or off duty. While members of a peacekeeping force enjoy much protection, even when off duty, they must respect the laws, regulations, and religion of the host nation, and must refrain from all political activity.

d. Identification markings must be established as follows:

(1) *UN Peacekeeping Forces*. All members, vehicles, and positions must be clearly marked.

(a) Personnel. Personnel must wear a blue helmet liner or blue beret with UN badge, blue brassard or armband, shoulder patch, blue scarf, and identity card. If time permits, the UN issues some of the items of dress before the contingent leaves home base. UN identity cards are issued upon arrival in the area of operations. Arrangements should be made to obtain four passport photographs for each contingent before departure.

(b) Vehicles. All vehicles must display a UN flag and have the organization's insignia painted on it LAW the force regulations. Vehicles are usually painted white.

(c) Patrolling Units. Dismounted patrolling parties must carry a UN flag. Force regulations may order that it should be lit at night.

(d) Positions. All headquarters, military and domestic installations, observation posts, checkpoints, road blocks and positions must be visible. They are usually painted white, fly the UN flag, and have an insignia painted on the walls. If there is an air threat, the insignia should be painted on roofs. Positions should also be lit at night.

(e) Demarcation Lines. Lines separating forces must be clearly and suitably marked.

(2) *Non-UN Peacekeeping Forces*. These forces conform broadly to UN practice, except that they use their own colors and insignia. Previous and current non-UN peacekeeping forces have used the following:

(a) Multinational Force and Observers (MFO), Sinai. Each contingent wore terracotta berets and used white helicopters or vehicles. Observers wore orange coveralls and hats.

(b) Multinational Force (MNF), Beirut. Each contingent displayed its national flag on its

vehicle.

4-5. USE OF FORCE

The use of needless or illegal force weakens the credibility and acceptability of a peacekeeping force to host nations, the participants in the dispute, and within the international community. It may raise the level of violence in the region and create a situation in which peacekeeping forces become part of the local problem. The use of force must be controlled and restricted. Peacekeeping forces have no mandate to prevent violations of an agreement by the active use of force.

a. The passive use of force employs physical means that do not harm individuals, installations, or equipment. Examples are the use of vehicles to block the passage of persons or vehicles, and the removal of unauthorized persons from peacekeeping force positions.

b. The active use of force employs means that can physically harm individuals, installations, or equipment. Examples are the use of batons, rifle butts, or weapons fire.

c. If force must be used, much depends on how well commanders and staffs have considered likely scenarios, and how well prepared they are and their troops to meet such a contingency. Planning should be guided by the following:

(1) *Firmness*. The will and ability to use force as the last resort are vital if a PKO is to survive hostile threats and the use of force.

(2) *Preliminary warning*. At an early stage of a force's deployment, the parties to the dispute should be informed if the peacekeepers need to use force and of their warning procedures. They should also be warned of the risks of escalation should either of the parties allow an incident to become uncontrolled.

(3) *Anticipation*. Intelligent anticipation based on good information often permits a timely deployment to a threatened area before the danger becomes serious. If a situation develops in which a force is likely to be employed, commanders should plan the use of the force thoroughly.

(4) *Passive force*. If the sector troops are deployed in sufficient strength and in control of the situation, the use of passive force to block movement may be adequate.

(5) *Combined action*. If the sector troops cannot contain the situation, the prompt arrival of a reserve who represents all the national contingents demonstrates collective effort and discourages further aggressive action. Speed is achieved by good planning and rehearsal as well as by anticipation.

(6) *Defensive positions*. Troops must reconnoiter positions, prepare positions for occupation, and cover them with obstacles. Positions must include shelters to protect troops from shell, mortar, and rocket fire. Their occupation must be rehearsed.

d. All troops must be briefed upon arrival in the area of operations on the following points and kept current on--

(1) The potential threat to include the various factions.

(2) Closing checkpoints to prevent entry into the buffer zone.

(3) Deployment to positions.

(4) How to act in foreseeable emergencies when force may be required.

e. The use of an active force is allowed only as a last resort in self-defense. As a guide, the following constitutes grounds for self-defense:

(1) When the safety of an individual member of the force or part of a force is in jeopardy.

(2) When one of the parties to the dispute attempts to use force to compel a withdrawal from a position occupied under orders from its commanders, or to infiltrate and envelop such positions for them to hold, thus jeopardizing their safety.

(3) When attempts are made to disarm members by force.

(4) When attempts are made to arrest or abduct peacekeeping force members, civil or military.

(5) When a violation by force against peacekeeping premises takes place.

(6) In the face of resistance to prevent, by forceful means, the peacekeeping force from discharging its duties.

f. Clear warning of the intention to use deadly force must be given (when time and circumstance permit) using the following procedure:

(1) Warn the party to halt or cease aggressive action by shouting the word "halt" in the local language.

(2) If necessary, repeat the warning and cock the weapon.

(3) Repeat the warning a third time.

(4) Fire warning shots, as long as innocent bystanders are not endangered.

(5) If the warnings are ignored and the aggression continues, open fire with single shots, using the minimum number required.

(6) Apply first aid to the casualties and evacuate them.

(7) Notify headquarters immediately by radio, collect the names of witnesses, recover the spent cartridge cases, and prepare a written report.

g. The peacekeeping force may use only the minimum amount of force to stop the threat to life or the aggressive violation. As soon as the attack or violation ceases, fire must cease. When a peacekeeping force is under attack, support weapons may be needed. The force commander may delegate authority to use such weapons to the commander on the ground. If a resort to force is needed, it must be an impartial application not only applied impartially but also seen used impartially.

4-6. UNITED STATES RESPONSE

As soon as US involvement in a peacekeeping force appears likely, an advance party, including communication and logistic elements, should be prepared to move to the area of operations. However, elements will not arrive until the mandate has been approved by the Security Council, the UN Secretariat

has officially requested a contingent, the US Government has approved, and appropriate coordination has been made with the designated UN or non-UN peacekeeping force commander and host nation authorities.

a. Before the mandate has been agreed to, the Secretariat normally acts as follows:

(1) Warn the force commander and arrange for the assembly of an ad hoc headquarters, probably from the UN military observers in the area.

(2) Establish communications between the area of operations and UN headquarters in New York before the force commander arrives.

(3) Establish communications and liaison between the force headquarters and the parties to the dispute.

(4) Convene a coordinating conference at UN headquarters under the chairmanship of the Office of the Under Secretaries-General for Special Political Affairs to be attended by representatives of the troop-contributing states. Ideally, the contingent commanders should be present, but this may not be practical. The information the US representative must provide at this conference includes the following:

(a) Proposed organization and strength of the contingent.

(b) List of supplies and equipment that the US cannot provide.

(c) Load details for the air and sea movement of the contingent if national resources are not to be used.

(d) Location to which UN clothing and insignia should be sent.

(e) Postal address in the US, or elsewhere, to which the contingent's mail should be sent.

(f) Copy of preferred ration issue.

(g) Size and earliest possible date of arrival of the contingent reconnaissance and advance parties at the host nations' airports and seaports, assuming that the force mandate will be approved.

b. If the US provides the airlift and sea lift for its contingent, the movement control staff and technical backing will be required to supplement the host nation's resources at the nominated airports and seaports.

(1) Force commander and headquarters elements.

(2) Reconnaissance and advance parties from combat arms and logistic units movement control detachment.

(3) Establishment of a transit camp from elements of the advance parties to assemble contingents as they arrive, to match them with transportation, and to dispatch them into the area of operations.

(4) Force commander's legal, political, and administrative advisors.

(5) Balanced buildup of contingent combat arms, combat support, and combat service support units.

c. Because contingency planning for PKOs is politically unacceptable, improvisation is common when a new mission is established. Contingency planning for other operations is useful; however, standard air movement tables may need review due to restrictions on the size of units and heavy weapons. The proper mix of combat, communications, and logistic units can only be decided under the UN's present need. Movement to the area is likely to be a national responsibility. The US Air Force may be asked to provide transportation for contingents from smaller nations. Because an international force may not complete deployment for weeks or months, a contingent should be logistically self-sufficient until the force maintenance area is built up.

4-7. COORDINATION STEPS

Depending on the political situation, a PKO may be sponsored by the UN. This paragraph discusses the coordination steps the US takes when sponsored by the UN. Also discussed are reasons for US participation out of UN channels.

a. UN Sponsored. Peacekeeping evolved out of a need to control conflict without incurring a veto in the Security Council rather than from any provisions in the Charter. However, peacekeeping operations involve military personnel, without powers of enforcement, established by the UN or some other group of states to restore and maintain peace in an area of conflict. The coordination steps within US channels are as follows:

(1) The United States Mission at the United Nations gathers requests for support and submits those requests to the Bureau of International Organizations at the US State Department. Those requests that involve DOD support, either logistic, individual observers, or units, are coordinated through the Assistant Secretary of Defense for International Security Affairs (ASD/ISA) to the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff (JCS). The Chairman of the JCS selects a joint staff directorate to organize support.

(2) The designated joint staff directorate forms a joint action cell. It develops written taskings and coordinates these taskings with the unified commanders in chief (CINCs), services, and other agencies.

(3) The DOD designates a CINC or service to be executive agent for the PKO. The executive agent provides administrative, personnel, operational, logistic, intelligence, and command, control, and communications support for committed US military forces. It may also assist forces of other nations when such support is in accord with diplomatic agreement.

(4) The executive agent also publishes terms of reference (TOR) to govern implementing US participation in the PKO. The executive agent develops TOR from an analysis of the mandate and the situation. The TOR may need approval by the parties to the dispute. They describe the mission, command relationships, organization, logistics, accounting procedures, coordination and liaison, and duties of the US military units and personnel assigned to or supporting the peacekeeping force. These TOR are often far less precise than desired from a military point of view. The belligerents agree on the mandate and truce, since it is politically expedient for them to do so. They will have different and hidden agendas, and they may use a PKO to achieve advantage. They may also interpret the TOR to suit their own purpose. The peacekeeping force may find itself deployed in an unclear situation. However, political reasons require the force to be there and to define the framework for operations.

(5) The CINC or services then coordinate support and inform the joint action cell of those actions. The JCS replies to ASD/ISA, which in turn notifies the US State Department. The CINC or services then implement the taskings.

(6) US military units designated to engage in a PKO are usually placed under the OPCON of the commander of the peacekeeping force upon entering his area of responsibility. OPCON of such US military units is retained by the unified command commander as recommended by the executive agent and approved by the JCS. Commanders of the US military units under the OPCON of the peacekeeping force commander retain command of their subordinate or attached elements.

b. Non-UN Sponsored. The US may engage in PKOs outside the UN with regional organizations or unilaterally. PKOs depend on the consent of the parties to the dispute, the host nation, and also on the agreement of other powers who perceive that their interests may be affected. Thus, the UN is not always an acceptable or practicable sponsor of PKOs. The appropriate political authorities decide to conduct these operations. Within the US State Department, the appropriate regional bureau coordinates desired support with ASD/ISA. The procedures used within DOD and JCS to develop specific tasks and to coordinate actions with the services would be the same as those of a unsponsored peacekeeping mission. Reasons for the US to engage in a PKO outside the UN are as follows:

(1) Lack of agreement in the UN Security Council could lead to one of the five permanent members to veto establishing the operation. Any one of the five permanent members may block action with a veto to protect its interests. After the Camp David Agreement and the White House Treaty sealed the peace between Israel and Egypt, other Arab states persuaded the Soviet Union to threaten a veto of any UN role in enforcing the Treaty when UN Emergency Force II's mandate expired in July 1979. On the initiative of the US, and with support of the British and French, the Multinational Force and Observers (MFO) was formed after Israeli withdrawal from the Sinai in April 1982. It replaced UNEF II with an organization outside the aegis of the UN. The multinational organization has succeeded largely because Israel and Egypt wanted peace; it was in the West's interests to preserve it.

(2) The attitude of Third World states toward a UN peacekeeping force would favor another international organization to sponsor the effort. While the emergent nations often find a UN peacekeeping force a useful means of controlling a dangerous local dispute, they also are cautious. Some African nations thought the UN operation in the Congo to be a thinly disguised western interference. They have favored the Organization of African Unity as a sponsor for peacekeeping.

(3) The UN charter recognizes the right of regional organizations to deal with such matters that maintain international peace and security. These arrangements or agencies and their activities must be consistent with the intentions and doctrine of the UN.

(4) To be successful, a PKO outside the UN must have--

(a) The support of a superpower, regional organization, or multinational group.

(b) A properly constituted political organization through which policy directives, finance, and administrative matters can be coordinated and channeled to the force commander. This may be a regional organization or a director-general such as the MFOs in Rome. A committee of ambassadors obtaining separate instructions from their own governments may be needed in an emergency to launch an operation. However, it should be replaced by an

organization tailored to the need as soon as possible.

(c) A designated military commander with an integrated headquarters. This can be a joint task force provided by a CINC.

(d) The consent of the parties to the dispute and of the host countries. It would be best to have wide international support or acceptance to avoid costly interference.

(e) Adequate guaranteed financial support.

4-8. COMMAND AND CONTROL

Effective command, control, and communication must be established in PKOs. The relation under UN control versus non-UN sponsored operations is different. However, both must be effective and understand the nature of PKO. This paragraph discusses the command relationships and special concerns in understanding PKOs.

a. The following command relationships are established:

(1) The most effective command relationship is one which has one commander and one force headquarters responsible for PKOs. National contingents report directly to the force commander. However, the US force commander supervises and coordinates completing his mission, communicating changes in the mission, and responding to committed units' needs. The best method is to let the unified commander, in whose area of responsibility the operation is to take place, plan and organize the operation, and provide the needed command and control.

(2) A contingent comprises a nation's entire contribution, units, and its staff officers on the force headquarters. On operational and logistic matters, the force commander has full command authority with the exception of assignments and discipline. The force commander is responsible for the good order and discipline of the force. He can perform investigations, conduct inquiries, and call for information, reports, and consultations. The national contingent commanders are responsible for disciplinary action within their own contingents IAW their national codes of military law. A major disciplinary breach could occur that brings a contingent into disrepute and detracts from its use as a peacekeeper. Therefore, the force commander discusses the case with the contingent commander. The force commander may refer the matter, through the Secretary-General, to the troop-contributing government concerned.

(3) The force commander and his staff deal directly with unit commanders. Contingent commanders are not always unit commanders. When they are not, they act in an advisory role and are not part of the operational chain of command. When large peacekeeping forces are spread over a wide area, a brigade or joint task force headquarters may be needed.

b. Non-UN sponsored operations may be set up in a number of ways. The choice largely depends on the time available and political factors, such as the attitude of the superpowers and the willingness or ability of the parties to agree. Operations may be set up as follows:

(1) A single headquarters set up for coordinating both political and military activities. This may be a joint task force set up by a CINC.

(2) A headquarters to control military operations with political aim, coming from a separate

political source.

(3) An ad hoc arrangement.

c. The force commander's directive makes it clear if anyone other than himself (deputy force commander or the chief of staff) is empowered to give orders to contingents and when. A unit commander must be assured that orders have the authority of the force commander and, through him, the sanction of the Secretary-General. As a result, a unit commander cannot accept orders from other sources, whether they come from the host nation, parties to the dispute, or from his own government. The only exception may occur in a non-UN force when national contingents are placed directly under their own governments or their ambassadors to the host nation.

d. Commanders of peacekeeping forces must understand the nature of PKOs and their effects on the members of the command. Some concerns include:

(1) Avoid escalating the rank of negotiation. This is a task for lieutenants and NCOs.

(2) Avoid spoiling troops with supplies not available to the other contingents as this could cause problems. Accept what the UN provides.

(3) If fighting starts, shift emphasis to humanitarian duties.

(4) Be careful in the selection of personnel for the force; not everyone is suited to peacekeeping duty.

(5) Immediately remove personnel who become too familiar with one of the parties to the dispute. Maintain contact equally between both sides.

e. Coordination is achieved by a system of conferences chaired by the force commander or his chief of staff. The conferences are not held by every peacekeeping force that exists. However, each has a way to disseminate information and policy.

f. Liaison between the peacekeeping force, the host nation, and the parties to a dispute is vital at all levels--from force headquarters down to company and even platoon. At force headquarters, there may be a formal liaison system. Such a system exists in the MFO, Sinai, where problems are discussed and violation reports are passed to the Egyptian and Israeli governments through their liaison systems.

g. PKOs have three levels of organizations:

(1) The political council is the highest level. It provides for negotiation and coordination with leaders of the disputing parties. The commander of the peacekeeping force may be a member.

(2) Military peacekeeping command has overall control of the peacekeeping forces. Control and staffing at this level is normally multinational. The force commander exercises OPCON of the combined forces, with command functions remaining within national channels.

(3) Military area command usually consists of forces from a single nation. It collects information through overt means such as OP, patrolling, visual sighting, aerial reconnaissance, conservations with local inhabitants, and reports. It collects, analyzes, and reports intelligence information to the military peacekeeping command.

Section II.
MISSIONS OF A PEACEKEEPING FORCE

Brigade-size units and below conduct most US peacekeeping operations. At times, personnel will conduct PKO as observers. The types of units that could be involved include headquarters units, combat arms, CS, and CSS. The basic force structure and augmentation are situation-dependent. The peacekeeping force can be assigned a variety of missions. This section discusses the types of PKOs and the inherent tasks that must be performed to accomplish missions.

4-9. TYPES OF PEACEKEEPING OPERATIONS

PKOs support diplomatic efforts to achieve, restore, or maintain peace in areas of potential or actual conflict. Each PKO is unique. However, PKOs may be either of the following or a combination thereof:

- Withdrawal and disengagement.
- Cease fire.
- Prisoner-of-war exchange.
- Arms control.
- Demilitarization and demobilization.

4-10. PEACEKEEPING TASKS

Accomplishment of the types of PKOs includes obscure situations. The peacekeeping force may have to deal with extreme tension and violence without becoming involved. US involvement may include military units or personnel with specific tasks that must be performed in a changing environment.

a. Tasks normally assigned to a peacekeeping force can be listed under the following:

(1) Separate the opposing sides and at the same time establish a buffer zone.

(2) Supervise a truce or cease-fire agreement.

(3) Prevent an armed conflict between nations or within a nation.

(4) Contribute to the maintenance of law and order, and a return to normal conditions.

b. To accomplish the tasks as outlined above, commanders establish and deploy military peacekeeping units and observer groups in a demilitarized zone or a buffer zone between the opposing forces. This would enable a force--

(1) To exercise control and surveillance of an area or boundary and demarcation line between the opposing parties.

(2) To prevent infiltration or a confrontation between the opposing forces.

(3) To complete the separation of the opposing sides so as to establish a buffer zone.

(4) To direct local negotiations between the parties concerned.

(5) To clear mines in the buffer zone, since the peacekeeping force requires freedom of movement.

c. The task may also involve a survey of the opposing forces' military and paramilitary units to ensure--

(1) Permitted units are not increased above the strength stated by the parties involved.

(2) Existing fortifications are not reinforced or enlarged.

(3) There is no increase of arms and supplies apart from those agreed upon.

(4) The armistice demarkation line (ADL) or the buffer zone are not overflown by aircraft from the opposing sides.

d. The methods used to accomplish a mission may include the following:

- Observing.
- Patrolling.
- Traffic controlling.
- Surveying of sensitive areas.
- Preventing or dispersing prohibited demonstrations.
- Checking on transportation of goods.
- Searching for missing persons.
- Negotiating with local authorities.
- Providing logistic support to isolated ethnic groups.
- Gathering information.
- Clearing mines.
- Marking forward limits of military forces.
- Receiving the remains of KIAs.

Section III.
TACTICS, TECHNIQUES, AND PROCEDURES

During all phases, the peacekeeper constantly demonstrates to the concerned parties that he is following the terms of agreement. Complaints by a belligerent party against a member of the peacekeeping force undermines the credibility of the mission. Also, it weakens the peacekeeping force's position. The control of violence in a PKO requires a combination of techniques. Some TTPs of executing the specified and implied tasks of a PKO are discussed in this section.

4-11. OBSERVATION

Observation is a technique common to all PKOs. It is the peacekeeper's main duty and requirement. The observer observes and reports what he is told to monitor within his area of observation. He provides timely and accurate reports on any suspicious occurrence.

a. Observation requires understanding both the facts and their implications. The observer should pass information to the next higher echelon without delay. Successful peacekeeping depends on impartial, factual reporting along with all pertinent data (maps, field sketches, diagrams, photographs) and references to specific agreements or instructions. The observer can gather such information by--

(1) Deploying observation posts in the confrontation areas.

(2) Deploying subunits in sensitive areas and potential trouble spots.

(3) Manning checkpoints on both major and minor access roads, and in towns and villages.

(4) Patrolling to include aerial reconnaissance.

(5) Conducting fact-finding exercises, inspections, and investigations.

(6) Using video cameras and cassette recorders, if permitted.

(7) Using aerial photography.

(8) Monitoring radio transmissions of belligerent forces.

(9) Employing acoustic, seismic, and magnetic sensors.

b. Military observers must be impartial and objective. They should avoid action that might give rise to doubts about their ability to remain so. For this reason, a military observer should have neither family ties nor other close ties with persons or organizations in the countries in the mission area.

c. When no observer group is under the OPCON of a peacekeeping force, the force must meet all its observation needs. These include both watching and reporting on the activities of the parties to the dispute in the buffer zone, the area of separation, or the area of operations. Force OPs are manned by a squad or less under the command of a junior NCO.

d. Observers must be discrete concerning all matters of official business. They must not inform anyone of information known to them due to their position. They must not use such information for personal advantage. Observers are usually not authorized to carry arms at any time.

e. In UN operations, observer missions are established separately from peacekeeping forces. However, when they operate in the same area, they function closely together. Observer missions are unarmed; OPs are manned only by officers. The force administration in the field is provided by the force under whom they are OPCON. A general officer, who is called the Chief of Staff, supervises the organization as a whole, including the command of observer groups not deployed under the OPCON of peacekeeping forces. Officers manning each OP are never of the same nationality. The military observer provides observation over an area of operations that requires UN surveillance. He also inspects regularly areas of limitation of forces and armaments. He ensures that the agreed troop strengths and the numbers and categories of weapons are not exceeded. He may also be given broad discretion in negotiating low-level problems between the opposing parties.

f. The following are the types of observation posts:

(1) The location and type of each OP are authorized by the peacekeeping force commander or by the chief of staff of an observer mission when the latter is operating on his own. Changes in status must also be authorized.

(2) OPs manned on a 24-hour basis are known as permanent OPs or observation points. Except when observer mission posts are located away from a force, they should be close to support and protection. Such posts have radio and landline installed permanently. They must be clearly marked with the force flag and insignia painted on the walls and roof A permanent post is abandoned only

with the force commander's authority or when the battalion sector commander considers the lives of the observers to be in jeopardy.

(3) A post is temporary when observers may be sent to provide coverage by day or night to meet some special need. It should have a telephone landline established. Radios and telephones are installed only when the post is manned. Temporary OPs are marked the same as permanent posts and should be protected by ready force positions.

(4) Former permanent and temporary OPs are those that are no longer required for the purpose established. However, they are retained either to maintain a peacekeeping presence or to meet an unforeseen contingency. The telephone line is removed. Therefore, if a reoccupation occurs, the party must rely on radio. The post is marked with the force's insignia, and the force flies its flag to maintain a presence.

(5) All OPs (permanent, temporary, or unmanned) are given a serial number or name. If the post is abandoned, the number or name is not used again to avoid confusion. If posts are numbered, the designation identifies the type, sector of location, and serial number. Observer mission posts are given names to distinguish them from neighboring peacekeeping force OPs.

g. The following are the duties in an observation post:

(1) In a peacekeeping force, a squad normally mans an OP. This provides enough manpower for observation, rest, recreation, and defense.

(2) OPs observe, verify, and report--

(a) Movements of the military forces of both sides. Should this involve unit identifications and other information of a sensitive nature, the OP commander records the time of the sighting. He sends the report by secure means--vehicle or helicopter.

(b) Shooting, hostile acts, or threats made against the peacekeeping force or civilians.

(c) Improvements to the defensive positions of the two parties.

(d) Overflight by service or civil aircraft when air movement in the buffer zone or area of separation has been restricted.

(e) Violations of the armistice agreement until the cause of the violation has been removed or rectified.

(f) All events recorded in the logs at the OP and its controllingheadquarters. The log provides the evidence for protests and reports.

h. When assuming watch duty in an OP, all personnel are--

(1) To obtain a thorough briefing from the soldier on watch on all recent activities.

(2) To read the OP logbook.

(3) To ensure that all items on the OP equipment checklist are accounted for and in working order.

(4) To conduct a radio and telephone line check before the watch is replaced.

(5) To count live ammunition carefully; the new observer should see each round. This check may provide vital evidence if a shooting incident occurs.

i. Force headquarters provides guidance on the extent to which OPs are to send a patrolling unit to investigate incidents or to move to an alternate position for a better view. The policy for the dispatch and control of patrolling parties sent from OPs to investigate incidents may be included in force SOPs. However, the commander may decide to retain patrols at the OP.

4-12. PATROLLING

Patrolling is a key factor in most PKOs. If it is well planned and executed, patrolling can achieve important tactical advantages for the peacekeeper. To be effective, patrolling parties need freedom of movement and observation. Restrictions on patrolling must be clarified when peacekeeping force agreements are drafted. Patrolling parties, either foot, ground vehicle, air, or naval, have a combination of four tasks: information gathering, investigating, supervising, and publicizing a presence.

a. Patrolling can be confined to daylight hours in areas in which armed confrontations continue to occur. When limited visibility hinders identification, the two opposing sides may be nervous and apt to fire without hesitation. Even so, the peacekeeping mandate may require the commander to employ patrols in these conditions. The procedures and ground rules under which patrolling parties operate must be clearly defined and known by all, including the opposing armed forces.

b. Patrolling parties are organized to supplement the information provided by OPs in a buffer zone or area of separation. In large areas of operation, routine patrolling may be needed to ensure that breaches of the agreement are discovered and rectified before they acquire a legitimate status by default. Supervisory patrolling parties ensure that action agreed upon among parties to a dispute is enforced and completed.

c. Patrolling parties are dispatched for a closer look at activity detected by an OP. Such activity may infringe on an armistice agreement.

d. Patrolling parties that are designed to separate the parties in an actual or potential confrontation are called *interposition patrols.* They are sometimes called *standing patrolling parties.* Such units cease to operate when the situation returns to normal.

e. Escort patrolling parties protect farmers and others on their way to and from work where the route passes dangerously close to a hostile party.

f. The mere presence of a peacekeeping patrolling unit, or the likelihood that one may appear at any moment, deters potential breakers of an armistice agreement. The presence of peacekeeping troops in a tense situation has a reassuring and calming effect in troubled areas.

g. Peacekeeping patrolling parties should enjoy complete freedom of movement. In practice, the contending parties sometimes impose restrictions that are written into the status of forces agreement and must be closely observed. Such caveats are concerned with threats to the security of one of the signatories.

h. Patrolling parties can be on foot, mounted in vehicles, or performed by light aircraft or helicopters. Patrolling must be overt and should be by day. A unit must be easily recognizable. Its members must

wear distinct items to indicate they are members of the peacekeeping force. Vehicles must be painted in the colors of the force and prominently show their insignias. The peacekeeping flag must be carried by a foot patrolling unit and displayed by all vehicles in a mounted patrolling unit. If operating at night is required, a unit must use lights, carry an illuminated peacekeeping flag, and move openly. Failure to do so can arouse suspicion, lead to misunderstandings, and risk a shooting incident.

i. Patrolling responsibilities are as follows:

(1) Check the methods of identification agreed to and used by both parties, and any police working with the peacekeeping force. Ensure patrolling unit members are carrying personal and force identity documents.

(2) Check any restrictions imposed by the status of forces agreement or other negotiations.

(3) Notify neighboring peacekeeping force units and OPs of the patrol plan. Check the need to notify the parties in the agreement.

(4) Mark all maps carried during a patrol. Memorize positions. Include a member of the patrolling party who knows the area well.

(5) Ensure that orders are understood, regarding procedures for dealing with intruders into the buffer zone.

(6) Log all observations and events. Memorize details for sketch maps. Do not make a map of a patrol if there is any chance of being stopped by one of the parties to the dispute.

(7) Maintain radio contact with the patrolling base and report progress.

(8) Record any violation of agreements, changes in deployment, or variations in civilian activity or attitudes.

(9) Do not alter the planned route without reference to a higher authority.

(10) Ensure actions on challenge by the contending parties halt, establish identity, and report the incident over the radio.

(11) Do not surrender weapons, maps, logs, or radio without the permission of higher authority.

(12) Be alert but avoid any display of aggression. If the forces or the population on either side wave, return the greeting.

(13) Be impartial.

(14) Immediately report or confirm any important observations to the debriefing officer.

(15) Mark maps or draw field sketches immediately upon return. Marked maps and logs provide the basis for the investigation of incidents and the lodgement of protests.

j. Members of a peacekeeping force performing operational tasks carry assigned weapons for the following:

(1) When manning OPs, checkpoints, liaison posts, defensive positions, and standing patrolling parties.

(2) When part of patrolling parties, mounted or on foot.

(3) During escort duties.

(4) As vehicle guards and convoy escorts.

(5) When charged with the safe custody of peacekeeping force property, supplies, cash, or documents.

(6) During inspection and liaison visits to the parties to the dispute.

k. Peacekeeping forces do not normally carry arms--

(1) When performing nonoperational duties such as staff officers and clerks.

(2) When civilian police are attached to a peacekeeping force.

(3) When peacekeeping troops are outside the buffer zone, area of separation, or area of operations.

(4) When off duty.

l. Each peacekeeping force sets the amount of ammunition to be carried by each soldier on vehicles and to be maintained on OPs and in positions. It also sets the amount to be held in reserve in accordance with the perceived threat.

4-13. TRAFFIC CONTROL

At checkpoints leading into a buffer zone, the peacekeeping force on duty observes civilians passing through. It watches for obvious attempts to smuggle arms, ammunition, and explosives. Normally, civilian traffic is stopped and searched only on order of the force commander. Regulations vary from force to force, but normally only an intruder or law breaker is searched.

a. In some PKOs, troops are not allowed to confiscate weapons and ammunition, only to turn the carrier back.

b. In some PKOs, peacekeeping vehicles and personnel are searched on entry and exit from the buffer zone. This convinces the host country that the force is observing the laws and discovers or deters criminal activity among its members.

4-14. SURVEILLANCE AND SUPERVISION

Surveillance and supervision are operationspecific techniques. They ensure implementation of agreements. Surveillance is the conduct of observation and is used to conduct observer missions. Supervision is the act of observing the compliance to the dispute with agreement by the parties. Surveillance and supervision require restraint, tact, and patience.

a. An observer mission is concerned with monitoring the following:

(1) Cease-fire and armistice agreements.

(2) The establishment and supervision of buffer and demilitarized zones.

(3) The supervision of armament control agreements when this is not the responsibility of an observer group.

(4) Military deployment limitations.

(5) Military withdrawals and disengagements, and the return of territory.

(6) Border infiltration and arms smuggling.

(7) Prisoner of war exchanges.

(8) Freedom of movement agreements for civilian farmers working in restricted zones.

(9) Refugee camps.

(10) Plebiscites and elections.

b. The following are aids to surveillance:

(1) During daylight, the entire line or zone should be observed.

(2) By night, the area should be surveyed as far as possible by NODs and radar. Sensitive areas may be covered by electronic and acoustic devices.

(3) When the presence of an intruder is detected, illumination confirms the sighting and warns the intruder that he has been spotted. This has a deterrent effect. Searchlight beams should not be directed across the buffer zone boundaries to illuminate the parties' cease-fire lines. Searchlights fitted with dispersion screens can floodlight areas up to 100 meters. This avoids risking an infringement of the agreement near the edge of the buffer zone.

4-15. PROHIBITED DEMONSTRATIONS

Political rallies may be held at a peacekeeping check point. The host nation's police are responsible for controlling these demonstrations. Sector commanders and force headquarters monitor plans for rallies in case the local police cannot prevent a crowd of demonstrators from entering the buffer zone. If police efforts fail, peacekeeping troops may be committed to disperse the crowd. Only minimum force should be used.

a. Whether a large number of troops are used in an unarmed role supported by armed troops or whether arms are used depends on the situation. The force commander must decide.

b. Most rallies are well publicized. Enough time is given to activate the force reserves and to move them to a nearby assembly area.

c. The local commander sets up stop lines along with wire and obstacles, which are used if the host nation's police lose control of the situation.

4-16. NEGOTIATION AND MEDIATION

Negotiation and mediation are diplomatic activities. They are the concern of governments and experienced diplomats. They demand a political rather than a military approach. In peacekeeping, however, situations arise that require military personnel to negotiate, mediate, and perhaps arbitrate

disputes. These involve minor points of contention between the belligerents or disagreements as to the daily routines of the peacekeeping force. The success of the effort depends on the peacekeeper's personality, power of reasoning, persuasiveness, common sense, tact, and patience. Of these, tact and patience are the most important. The new role of peacekeeper can be exhausting and frustrating.

a. Once the peacekeeper gains the confidence of the parties involved, he may act as a mediator. His good offices can then effect solutions.

b. The peacekeeper can prevent major issues from arising. Therefore, the purpose of the peacekeeping mission is served.

c. Peacekeeping force personnel must remain aware of their limitations. They must not hesitate to refer problems to the peacekeeping command when beyond their ability to resolve.

d. The peacekeeper's reputation for being objective and a having good relationship with all parties in the dispute are basics to his success as a negotiator.

4-17. HANDOVER OF PRISONERS OF WAR

The handover of PWs must be carefully coordinated and well organized to prevent confusion and delay. The peacekeeping force must avoid accommodating the overnight housing and feeding of several hundred PWs. The force chooses a narrow section of the buffer zone so that PWs can be transferred on foot. The peacekeeping force should--

a. Contact the intermediary to verify the number of prisoners. Ascertain if there are any sick or wounded prisoners who need an ambulance for transport.

b. Inform the force battalion commander of the number of escorts, ambulances, and vehicles required.

c. Ensure that the receiving party has the needed transportation marshalled just outside the buffer zone near the agreed checkpoint. The receiving party authority will be allowed inside the buffer zone to the handover point.

d. Secure the area with armed peacekeeping soldiers at a safe distance.

e. Close the checkpoints and roads to all unauthorized traffic and visitors.

f. Together with the intermediary, meet the PWs at the arrival checkpoint and divide them into groups of ten. Separate those requiring an ambulance or transport. Obtain the roster of PWs and sign a receipt for them.

g. Escort the marching PWs in groups of ten with unarmed peacekeeping soldiers across the buffer zone to the receiving party at the agreed handover point. Unarmed escorts accompany the ambulances and vehicles carrying the PWs who are not able to walk.

h. Hand over the PWs to the receiving party in the presence of the intermediary along with a copy of the roster. Obtain a receipt.

4-18. RECEIPT OF REMAINS

The recovery of remains is often a part of any disengagement mission. Soldiers should appreciate the

delicate nature of the operation and respect relevant religious customs and rites. Searches for remains require careful planning and discussion with all parties. The handover should occur quickly and efficiently. If PWs are due to be handed over in the same operation, KIAs should be transferred first. This avoids emotional scenes and possible demonstrations. The peacekeeping force ensures--

a. The receiving party has a suitable vehicle.

b. That checkpoints on either side of the buffer zone, where bodies are to be handed over, are clear of vehicles and visitors not involved with the handover.

c. A pall bearing party is available.

d. Along with an intermediary, the vehicle bringing the remains is met at the checkpoint.

e. When the intermediary has signed a receipt for the remains and completed any other documentation, the pall bearers transfer them to a force vehicle.

f. The force vehicle, accompanied by the supervisory staff and the intermediary, drives across the buffer zone and past the checkpoint to the waiting vehicle of the receiving party.

g. The pall bearers transfer the remains to the receiving party's vehicle, and the intermediary obtains a receipt.

h. The transfer is recorded on the logs at each checkpoint, along with the names of the supervising officer and intermediary.

4-19. HUMANITARIAN ASSISTANCE

The attitude of host governments varies from helpful cooperation to forbidding a peacekeeping force from providing aid to its citizens. However, a force within a buffer zone is justified in providing humanitarian assistance to individuals within the AOR. A special humanitarian staff can be established whose areas of concentration can include the following:

- Investigation of missing persons.
- Emergency medical treatment (for life-threatening illnesses or injuries).
- Resupply of minority communities separated by a buffer zone.
- Transfer of minority populations.
- Repatriation of prisoners of war.
- Repatriation of human remains.
- Return of property.

4-20. INFORMATION GATHERING

Belligerent parties may view information gathering as a hostile act. Intelligence operations may therefore destroy the trust that parties should have in the peacekeeping force. However, parties could pursue their diverse aims by exploiting the presence of the peacekeeping force. They may even try to deceive.

a. Circumstances can place the force under direct attack. Such attacks may come from one of the parties to the agreement or from extremist elements acting independently. This poses a serious problem. But

whatever the circumstances, the peacekeeper needs information. If the peacekeeper cannot use the full range of his national intelligence resources, he must have their products.

b. Each item of operational information becomes vital. The members of a peacekeeping force must be information-conscious at all times. The peacekeeper must be constantly alert to what occurs around him and to any change in behavior, attitude, and activities of the military and civilians.

4-21. MINEFIELD CLEARING

Minefield clearing becomes a priority for peacekeeping forces after the belligerents withdraw. Engineer requirements must be considered in the peacekeeping force structure. Soldiers serving with peacekeeping forces should understand the techniques involved in clearing minefields and handling mine clearing and detection equipment. (See FM 5-101.)

a. Large numbers of antitank and antipersonnel mines laid by both parties remain in the area when the belligerent parties withdraw after a conflict. It is rare that either party makes their minefield records available to the peacekeeping force. Too often minefields are badly marked or not marked at all.

b. The minefields still belong to the party who laid them. In theory, they remain as part of their obstacle plan should the peacekeeping force withdraw. The peacekeeping force does not release the positions of one party's minefields to the other, although it must ensure that minefields are well marked. The peacekeeping force is not normally permitted to clear the minefields. The exception is to destroy or remove mines and unexploded ammunition that is a hazard along roads and areas used by the force and local civilians.

c. All minefields must be recorded and fenced in by using standard minefield markers that are attached to a two-strand barbed wire fence. Members of a peacekeeping force should know the minefield marking methods used by the opposing parties.

d. Engineers record minefields in peacekeeping forces. They maintain the master minefield maps for the entire area and in each sector. They periodically inspect minefield maps, records, and the marking of minefields.

e. When a new minefield is discovered, a warning is immediately displayed in the area, and a report is made through the sector operations and the engineers to force headquarters. The force minefield recording officer activates a minefield recording team to reconnoiter and mark the area.

f. Current minefield maps are disseminated to force headquarters, sector headquarters, force reserve headquarters, MP, and civil police, if working with the peacekeeping forces. The minefield recording officer maintains current maps for the entire area. The sector minefield recording officers maintain current maps for their sectors.

g. Explosions in either the host nation's territory outside or inside the area are reported through sector headquarters to the operations staff at force headquarters. Explosive devices or mines discovered in the area outside marked minefields are reported to force headquarters for explosive demolition action. Meanwhile, they are marked and arrangements made to warn the force and local civilians.

4-22. INVESTIGATION OF COMPLAINTS

The peacekeeping force investigates complaints or allegations. The peacekeeper's ability to make a thorough and objective investigation and a fair assessment may determine whether fighting resumes and tensions increase. It enhances the impartial image of the peacekeeper to the antagonists. Usually, a decision that favors one side does not please the other. However, if the peacekeeper is fair, objective, and consistent, the antagonists may not agree, but they will respect and accept the peacekeeper's judgment. Since two or more sides are always involved, the peacekeeper must listen to all of them before deciding.

4-23. OBSERVER TECHNIQUES

The peacekeeper must cultivate a mental technique to ensure his vigilance and alertness do not diminish with time. He must maintain these qualities, both on and off duty, since his observation reports may determine if a crisis situation is avoided. These techniques can aid an observer in the accomplishment of his mission.

a. While on static duty, the peacekeeper--

(1) Keeps alert for the unusual, mainly for changes in the physical occupation of the area such as subjects/objects normally present but now missing or present where they were not before. He records anything that is different.

(2) When on duty in an OP, changes position so as to obtain a different angle of sight over his arc of observation.

(3) Divides his arc of observation into subarcs and alternates from one to another during the period of observer duty.

(4) Notes and responds to changes or differences in the behavioral patterns of people who work daily in the area.

(5) During his tour of duty, records the number of animals and people in the fields, and the number and type of vehicles that pass through or are parked in the arc of observation. In many cases of complaint and allegations of abduction, theft and interference information can be valuable.

(6) Draws a sketch of the area to include the whole arc. He records all that happens within the arc of observation during the tour of duty, including the smallest items. He uses the sketch as a diary of events.

(7) Instead of drawing a sketch, maintains a log of events and records everything.

(8) Avoids daydreaming or fretting over personal problems.

b. When traveling around the operational area, the peacekeeper--

(1) Is constantly observant.

(2) Records circumstances, incidents, or activities that seem unusual.

(3) Asks questions when deemed necessary always in a diplomatic and friendly manner--not aggressively. However, caution must be exercised for self-protection by unarmed observers.

(4) Varies the traveling route to sharpen interest and alertness, and to widen the area of observation.

(5) Observes and records remarks or comments that apply to the situation. He is overt in behavior, and he does not act as a spy.

(6) Records conversations immediately after they have occurred so the content can be easily recalled.

(7) Reports observations at the end of the journey or upon return to base or headquarters. He provides a copy to the duty officer.

4-24. MANNING OF CHECKPOINTS

A checkpoint is a self-contained position deployed on a road or track to observe and control movement into and out of a buffer zone. Permanent checkpoints are set up on the main access routes. They cannot be moved or closed without the authority of the force commander. Temporary checkpoints can be set up on minor routes, usually on the authority of the sector (battalion) commander, although authority may be reserved for the force commander. (Possible layouts for permanent and temporary checkpoints are shown in Figure 4-1.) Checkpoints should be well marked with the force's colors and insignia.

a. Tasks. Soldiers tasks include:

(1) Controlling movement and entrance to a buffer zone, mainly during a crisis.

(2) Preventing smuggling of arms, drugs, and contraband.

(3) Controlling refugees.

(4) Acting as an OP as part of the peacekeeping force's observation plan.

(5) Stopping and searching vehicles IAW TOR.

b. Conduct. Soldiers manning checkpoints must observe local customs to avoid offending the local population. (Guidelines for how soldiers perform their duties are shown in Table 4-1.)

c. Equipment. The required equipment at checkpoints includes:

- Barrels filled with sand or concrete to slow approaching vehicles.
- Barrier pole.
- Radio and telephone.
- Supporting weapons. (Whether a machine gun should be supplemented by an antitank weapon depends on the nature of the threat to the force. The decision to deploy antitank weapons is normally reserved for the force commander.)
- First-aid kit.
- Force flag.
- Floodlight (flashlights as stand-by).
- Log pad.

Figure 4-1. Layout of permanent and temporary checkpoints.

Table 4-1. Example of guidelines for the conduct of peacekeeping soldiers at checkpoints In Arab

countries.

Section IV.
PLANNING

The US may participate in PKO alone or as part of a multinational force. Most PKOs are under the control of the UN. They often involve ambiguous situations that require the peacekeeping force to deal with tensions and violence without participating. Commanders must consider planning and execution factors.

4-25. POLITICAL FACTORS

Commanders must understand how political factors influence the tactical execution of PKOs. For instance, ROE, freedom of movement, and area of operations are mandated by the political process. Often, political restrictions limit the military commander in the conduct of his mission. The tactical commander must comply with instructions. He must also inform the chain of command of the tactical implications of a political decision. Political and military leaders must be aware of each other's perceptions and problems.

a. The peacekeeping mission operates with a mandate that describes the scope of operations for the mission. The sponsoring bodies usually consist of several countries. Although these countries are supposed to be impartial, each may have its own idea of what the peacekeeping force should do. Also, the agreement should frame the mandate for the peacekeeping force so as not to allow for an advantage on either side. For these reasons, the agreement can be imprecise and subject to other interpretations by the belligerent parties and other contributing countries.

b. Another political factor involves the ROE. The ROE must be clearly stated in simple language. The two main rules are: minimum use of force and complete impartiality. The use of deadly force is justified only under extreme conditions (self-defense) or as a last resort when all lesser means have failed.

c. The commander should consider the fiscal responsibility. The UN depends on voluntary or member nation contributions to meet its fiscal needs. The US has provided supplies and transportation at no cost to the UN, but it may not do so in the future. The policy implication must be considered if the US does not support a UN PKO due to fiscal constraints.

d. The initial set of facts and assumptions may change. If they do, changes must be made that may lead to the withdrawal of the peacekeeping force.

4-26. GUIDELINES

To plan a PKO, a planner should consider several elements. These include political factors, force structure, command and control, reinforcement/ rotation, maintenance and supply of equipment, emergency withdrawal plan, weapons policy and ROE, public affairs policy, morale, and welfare support, the use of technology, and force protection.

a. The problems of joining a multinational force in a strange and hostile environment, and with restrictions on one's freedom of action can be conquered. Commanders should study the history and lessons of previous PKOs. They should expect problems when starting a new operation. Force mandates,

which lay down the principles governing the conduct of operations, can vary to meet the needs of each operation. Guidelines that apply to the conduct of a peacekeeping force in all situations are as follows:

(1) All members must know the mission of the peacekeeping force.

(2) All members must be briefed on the political and military situation, the customs and religions of the people, and be kept current on changes.

(3) All members should become familiar with the local civilians and understand their problems. This helps achieve a reputation for sympathy and fairness.

(4) All members keep a high profile, which puts their lives at great risk. Commanders must balance the need to maintain a confident presence with the safety of their troops.

(5) An officer should be present to make fast and crucial decisions when a detachment may face a difficult situation. These decisions may affect the reputation of the force, the success of the mission, and the safety of the peacekeeping troops.

(6) All units must enforce the policy on ROE and the action to be taken with regard to infringements and violations of agreements. In operations where units have used different standards to enforce the rules, there has been constant friction between the parties to the dispute. Also, retaliation has occurred among the national contingents of the peacekeeping force.

b. In peacekeeping, small incidents have major political impact. Seemingly minor events can increase quickly into major crises, which calls for emergency meetings of the Security Council. Although there are advantages in dealing with problems at the lowest level, senior commanders and force headquarters must keep abreast of the smallest incident. They may need to intervene at an earlier stage than is common to other military operations.

c. Centralized control ensures the same reaction to incidents by all units and may prevent action by less experienced peacekeepers. However, a senior commander cannot predict how incidents may develop nor their outcome. He must allow junior leaders to show their initiative within the framework of force policy directives and SOPs.

d. Subordinates must inform their commanders of situations as they develop. They can suggest possible courses of action early so the commander has time to evaluate and give direction. If a subordinate expects a crisis, a senior commander or force commander may go to the scene to lead. However, an incident can develop so quickly that the subordinate must decide on the most sensible course of action immediately rather than allow a situation to become uncontrolled. The subordinate must quickly report his actions and reasons to his commander.

4-27. TECHNOLOGY

Technology can greatly assist in the conduct of PKOs. The missions may involve extended distances or restrictions that can be reduced by technology. Some of the useful systems include:

- Intelligence systems.
- Effective countermine equipment.
- Effective night vision equipment.
- Communications systems.

- Surveillance systems.
- Lightweight body armor.
- 8-mm video and polaroid cameras.
- Accurate ground maps.

Early in the planning process, commanders must consider the use of such technology as sensors to provide better surveillance or to perform other key peacekeeping roles. For example, the Sinai Field Mission successfully incorporated a wide range of sensors that monitor key terrain.

4-28. ESTIMATE OF THE MISSION AREA

In planning a PKO, commanders modify the IPB process to include an analysis of the conflict and the parties to the dispute, the civilian population, the host nation, and the terrain and weather. DIA handbooks and country studies, both classified and unclassified, are useful for this purpose. (See FM 34-130.)

a. The analysis can assist the peacekeeping force to understand the nature of the conflict. The military abilities of the parties to the conflict also must be known.

b. An awareness of the population and its culture, language, politics, religion, and what the peacekeepers might expect (support, indifference, hostility) is helpful.

c. Knowledge of the situation and the host nation's government, military, and facilities available to support the peacekeeping force is vital.

d. A terrain analysis in the peacekeeper's area of operations is also vital to include the location of roads, railroads, ports, and airfields, the nature of the terrain, and the environment.

e. Knowledge of climate conditions and an evaluation of short-term weather forecasts are important. In regions of extreme seasonal change, intelligence produced during one season may be useless in another. Therefore, weather and terrain intelligence must be available and reviewed by the peacekeeping force to ensure it is current.

4-29. FORCE STRUCTURE

A review of the force structure of all UN PKOs shows mostly infantry-type units, augmented by support personnel. The standard size unit deployed is a battalion, since the battalion is the smallest, fully staffed, self-contained unit. Light infantry forces, with minimal augmentation, are organized, equipped, trained, and suited for the conduct of PKOs. The mission, as explained in the mandate, determines the exact augmentation and composition of an inserted unit. However, units should plan to deploy with all mortars or antitank weapons when conducting an observer mission.

a. The strength of the force depends upon its mandate and the size and nature of the area it must control. Battalions should deploy with all organic weapons to include AT and mortars. At one end of the scale, the United Nations Disengagement Observer Forces (UNDOF) has only two battalions and an authorized strength of 1,450. They supervise a narrow buffer zone in open country on the Golan Heights between two states. These states wish to maintain a cease-fire, even though one of them does not wish to conclude a peace treaty. At the other end of the scale, the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL)

requires seven battalions and an authorized strength of 7,000. The battalions try to control a large area of operations in broken, mountainous country among many warring factions.

b. The main combat arm component is the infantry battalion. The battalion can hold positions, provide a constant presence and observation, man checkpoints, interpose units, and enforce patrolling. Armored reconnaissance units, whose mobility, communications, and patrolling abilities are useful when the situation is fluid, involves a large region. Air detachments can provide proof of infringements of cease-fire and arms limitation agreements. Their presence deters major infringements, which enhances security. This, in turn, encourages an atmosphere of confidence that all parties will abide by the agreement.

c. The US can provide various personnel and equipment in support of PKOs. US contributions are likely to be limited to the provision of material, financial support, and observers. Military units and personnel may be available for missions or for providing functional support to an international force.

d. A peacekeeping force must be task-organized to accomplish the mission. The force structure must be the result of assessing the mission environment. This assessment must consider the politics of the country. Where clashes in urban areas may give rise to a revolt, the peacekeeping force must have a structure to meet such a need. It may be given broad police powers. If border clashes are the prime threat for renewed violence between regular forces of disputing parties, the peacekeeping force must have the structure, strength, and designated area of control for deterrence. Thus, the structure may be of greater military strength than can be defended. The basic force structure and correct augmentation depend on the situation. Also, language requirements and the use of liaison parties must be considered when task-organizing forces. Other force structure considerations include--

(1) Ensuring the force is large enough to defend itself and to set up a visible presence.

(2) Making the force flexible enough to concentrate forces in response to a local threat.

(3) Ensuring no one national element within the force dominates the others.

4-30. FORCE PROTECTION

Security in a peacekeeping mission is just as important as in any other military operation.

a. Terrorism poses problems for the peacekeeper. Suppressive action involves a political judgment since the man labeled a terrorist by one side may be hailed as a freedom-fighter by the other. The peacekeeper's tools of overt observation and the combining of forces are vital.

b. Peacekeepers must be neutral. If one side suspects that the peacekeeping force is informing the other, the peacekeeping force may be accused of espionage. One or both parties to the dispute may become uncooperative and jeopardize the success of the operation.

c. To prevent charges of espionage, commanders must control photographing in the areas of operations. Neither side should photograph the other's positions--cameras must not be displayed near them.

d. Commanders must show the same concern for the security of arms and ammunition as in any operation. Groups are always alerted to poorly guarded weapons.

e. Commanders should protect positions, headquarters, and other accommodations. They should guard

against spectacular attacks with mines, car bombs, and mortars. If possible, buildings that are easy to approach undetected should be avoided. The number of men billeted in any one building should not present a target to terrorists. The manifest neutrality and impartiality of a force ensure that it does not become a target of hostility, which in themselves affords protection. However, a force must always be prepared for an attack by extremist groups.

f. A peacekeeping force is subject to security risks through its own personnel.

(1) Peacekeeping forces have no means of checking local employees. Governments or illegal organizations may bribe or pressure their employees to obtain information on politically sensitive matters or on the opposite side's forces. Commanders must exercise great care when discussing peacekeeping force affairs and when handling documents in the presence of local nationals.

(2) Officers, secretaries, communications personnel, and other key personnel possess much sensitive information about the local political situation, host nation deployments, commercial contracts, and financial matters. These people are known to the host governments and to terrorists who may try to compromise them to obtain information.

(3) Commanders should ensure that personnel who visit the host nation on duty receive briefings on the risks. These personnel should be under the surveillance of a security element.

4-31. DEPLOYMENT OF PEACEKEEPING FORCE

This paragraph discusses several methods to deploy a peacekeeping force.

a. Permanent Allocation to Sectors.

(1) Units learn about the community and terrain in their respective sectors. Constant collecting and processing of information are advantages.

(2) Useful relationships develop with the local authorities of the host government, the police, and the leadership of the contending parties.

(3) Peacekeepers become well acquainted with the local forces. They can recognize belligerent military personnel who try to pass through checkpoints dressed as police or civilians.

(4) Soldiers must take pride in maintaining and improving positions and quarters.

(5) The disadvantage is that national contingents will interpret force policy in their sectors. Different approaches in the past have led to charges of inconsistency against the peacekeeping force. Also, habitual contact may lead to prolonged hostility with the belligerents.

(6) In a newly established force, there is enough activity to interest personnel (establishing positions and OPs, separating hostile forces, and supervising a withdrawal and the handover of territory). Boredom can occur when the force is well established, the opposing sides are quiet, and troops are watching a buffer zone in a quiet area.

b. Rotation Within the Force.

(1) All national contingents obtain a working knowledge in more than one area. This will be useful when reinforcing a threatened sector. It provides consistency in dealing with incidents and problems, and troops are kept on the alert.

(2) Should friction develop between a contingent and a party to the dispute, or should relations become too friendly, it may be best to switcha contingent to a different sector.

(3) One disadvantage is the lack of time. Forces cannot gain much knowledge of the area, of the local authorities, and of the contending parties and personalities. Much of this information may not be passed to the relieving units.

(4) A major upheaval can occur for units that are usually on short peacekeeping tours. Since there is no standard length of tour common to all peacekeeping forces, rotation might present problems.

(5) Less interest and care in maintaining and improving positions and quarters may occur.

(6) Rotation may also increase expenses. This is an important concern since funds for peacekeeping are hard to obtain.

c. Integration.

(1) When there is trouble, undue political and military pressure must be prevented from affecting any one national contingent. The burden for enforcing needed but unpopular action should evenly affect the force. This shows political solidarity and equal commitment, and it avoids victimizing any one contingent.

(2) To achieve this, a force mobile reserve is formed on a contingency basis. The reserve is often grouped around an armored reconnaissance squadron of two or three infantry platoons. Since it is best to represent all the national contingents contributing infantry to the force, the platoons may be a composite of sections from different contingents. The aviation, communications, and logistic support elements form in the same way from their contingents.

(3) So that a multinational and multilingual force can operate effectively, it must train together. While the mobile reserve commander and his subordinate officers must reconnoiter likely crisis points, they should train where it will not alarm the local population and the parties in dispute. The national elements of the mobile reserve normally live with their parent units.

Section V.
TRAINING

This section contains information for training personnel for all phases of PKOs. It provides guidance on training needs, techniques, and sustainment to include personnel selection, unit preparation, predeployment, patrolling, and so on.

4-32. PERSONNEL SELECTION

When selecting personnel for peacekeeping, commanders should consider the stress of this unique task. It is not without hazards or pressure, which can erode the required vigilance and alertness of a soldier.

a. The selection process should use units and personnel who can cope with a conflict environment. This produces a different reaction than normally derived from military training. These include the capacity for infinite patience and restraints. Personnel must be able to combine an approachable, understanding, and tactful manner with fairness and firmness. A professional demeanor, which stresses quiet diplomacy and

reasoning, gains more than arrogance, anger, disdain, coercion, or sarcasm. Personnel must cope with unpopularity. Each side seeks to press their position and then reacts vocally when stopped. To be unpopular with both sides at the same time is probably the best display of impartiality.

b. Leadership selection should focus on personnel who are credible and decisive, and who display high objectivity and a deep sense of impartiality. They should ease frustrations and humiliations but must also inspire confidence and sustain high morale among their men. They must be alert and stay current on all incidents in their areas of operations. They must learn quickly the politics at play in the mission area; and habits, characteristics, and customs of the local people.

c. A peacekeeping force requires a combination of both permanent and temporary units. Permanent units comprise the commander's staff and a logistic support element. The temporary units, which are the bulk of the force, comprise some type of infantry TF. Since establishing peacekeeping -only units is not likely, commanders should select units to enter into PKOs based on the organization, composition, abilities, and commitments of existing units. The logistic support element is a combination of civilian contractor and military personnel. The normal tour should be at least one year for the permanent units and 180 days for the temporary units. To maintain unit cohesion, the temporary units should be rotated as a unit and not as personnel replacements.

d. Peacekeeping requires personnel to change their attitudes and approaches to conform to different circumstances from those normally found on the battlefield. These adjustments must suit the needs of a peaceable intervention rather than of an enforcement action.

4-33. PREDEPLOYMENT TRAINING

To accomplish peacekeeping, personnel and units must be trained in many skills and techniques before deployment. The urgent need to deploy peacekeeping forces to establish a cease-fire often reduces the time for preparations, but training must always be conducted prior to deployment. Good leadership is vital at each level--from the unit commander to the junior leader. This requires skill, imagination, flexibility, adaptability, and patience. Training emphasizes individual military skills. A two-week refresher course should be conducted for personnel who have previously been involved in PKOs.

a. In preparing for a peacekeeping mission, the force requires specific, mission-oriented training before deployment. At the core of all training is the orientation of a unit to conduct operations in a multinational or as a unilateral peacekeeping force. The unit must understand its place in the force, its objectives, and the implications of its presence.

b. The entire unit leadership must understand the mission and provide clear guidance on what is to be accomplished. The unit should conduct training during the predeployment and in-country phases to ensure that each member understands the reasons for his presence. Unit leadership must develop and maintain the highest degree of unit discipline throughout the course of the mission.

c. Personnel training should try to impart patience, flexibility, discipline, professionalism, impartiality, tact, and inquisitiveness.

(1) *Patience*. Except in a crisis, nothing happens quickly. An overeagerness to force the pace in negotiations may prejudice mission success. This is not only true at the higher levels but also at the lower levels, where local problems are often resolved by company officers and senior NCOs.

(2) *Flexibility*. Personnel must review all the facets of a problem. They must use ingenuity to explore all feasible courses of action or solutions, which do not violate the mandate.

(3) *Discipline*. Smartness, alertness, a military bearing, good behavior on and off duty, and courtesy all help to promote the prestige of a force. If the force is held in high esteem by the parties to the dispute, they are likely to listen to its advice and to respect its authority in a crisis. Good discipline helps to ease a force's task.

(4) *Professionalism*. A strong sense of professionalism promotes efficiency in each activity. If a force's observations and actions are reputed for accuracy and competence, the parties are more likely to accept its protests about violations to avoid confrontations.

(5) *Impartiality*. In all its transactions and contacts, a force must guard its reputation for impartiality. Officers and enlisted personnel must be careful off duty, both in their actions as well as criticism of either side. Controversial, off-the-record remarks can reach an unintended audience to hinder the force's task. Such remarks may lead to the offender's removal or withdrawal if they reflect a prejudice believed to be widely held in a national contingent.

(6) *Tact*. The parties to a dispute are likely to be sensitive and offended by any imagined ridicule. Paramilitary forces are highly sensitive and unpredictable in their reactions, since they are not officially recognized. Tact is required in all dealings with all parties. However, this need not detract from an honesty of purpose and firmness when appropriate.

(7) *Inquisitiveness*. Commanders must question with caution all that occurs within their areas of responsibility. The normal routine of daily life should not become too familiar and comfortable. A seemingly minor event may go unnoticed, which could be important if compared to information from other observers.

d. An important aspect of training for a peacekeeping mission is to understand the force is the target of foreign intelligence activities. A good counterintelligence program is desired--one that emphasizes OPSEC and COMSEC.

4-34. TACTICAL SKILLS ENHANCEMENT

Training must enhance the tactical skills of a peacekeeping unit. Basic military skills must be stressed in a field environment, including small-unit collective training. Discipline is a prime concern because of the stress caused by the environment, the dullness of the routine, and the possibility of an incident occurring. A training program should include the following military skills:

- Operation of checkpoints and observation points.
- Patrolling
- Map reading.
- Identification of weapons and equipment.
- Culture, language, habits, religion, and characteristics of local people.
- Sniper training.
- Environment survival.
- First aid.

- Rules of engagement.
- Contingency drills.
- Civil disturbance techniques.
- Search and seizure techniques.
- Legal considerations.
- Air assault operations.
- Explosive ordnance recognition, detection, and clearing (land mines and booby traps).
- Field sanitation and hygiene.
- Communications.
- Civil-military operations.
- Nuclear, biological, chemical training.
- Night operations including night vision devices.
- MOUT training.
- Driver training.

(See FMs 7-8, 7-10, and 7-20 for more information.)

4-35. OBSERVATION AND REPORTING

The observation and reporting functions of the peacekeeping force are vital since these are the force's main functions.

a. Violations of the treaty may not be obvious. The importance of accurately reporting all that is observed must be emphasized. When gathered at force headquarters, all routine reports may form a pattern of activity within the zone or sector. To vary this activity may provide clues as to changes that may later prove to be treaty violations. Personnel should know the standard reporting formats to include situation reports, shooting reports, overflight reports, and aircraft sighting reports. They should learn to recognize armored vehicles and equipment. Training includes all available GTAs such as 35-mm slides, scale models, and flash cards.

b. Training personnel to operate an OP is essential. An OP is a small unit-sized installation. Small units must learn the typical layout of an OP and checkpoint, and the daily routine of duty on an OP. A unit may be required to live and work on the OP for many days at a time, isolated from the larger parent organization. It may be of mixed nationalities, which adds to the complexity of the situation.

(1) Security procedures at an OP include a stand-to at BMNT (just before sunrise) and EENT (just after sunset). Perimeter sweep patrols should be dispatched immediately after stand-to.

(2) Personnel who man checkpoints astride major roads must be taught to slow and observe traffic without stopping it. This allows time to observe and report traffic passing from one zone to another.

(3) Vehicles and personnel leaving and entering installations should be stopped and searched for contraband and explosives. Personnel must learn not only how to search but also how to search courteously without undue force.

4-36. COMMUNICATIONS PROCEDURES

Communications are an essential part of knowing what is happening to influence events. The problem of providing adequate communications for the force before deployment is hard to solve, since so much depends on the events of the operation. In one theater, the problem may be the great distances involved. In another situation or in a different part of the same one, the problem is screening in urban areas. Sometimes, military communications may not be adequate. Procedures are often changed, because they are designed for a completely different mission.

4-37. LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

All leaders should be instructed in the basic words and phrases of the languages of the host country assigned to the peacekeeping force. Commanders coordinate direct support language augmentation with the next highest headquarters that has an organic MI element. Support normally consists of interrogators skilled in the target language and area customs and history. PKO force commanders use interrogators for translating, interpreting, negotiating, and training. Force training activities include training the force in basic language and customs in the area of operation.

4-38. EXPLOSIVE ORDNANCE TRAINING

Training from the local EOD detachment or engineer unit before deployment can inform personnel of the different types of land mines and IEDs. This includes Soviet, French, British, German, Italian, and US mines. The main emphasis of this training is to enable personnel to recognize, mark, and report mines and to realize that land mines, no matter how old they appear, are NOT inert. Another important matter in this training is to inform personnel on how to safely leave a minefield.

4-39. NUCLEAR, BIOLOGICAL, CHEMICAL TRAINING METHODS

NBC training methods of identifying and handling the effects of the use of NBC weapons is important in all PKOs. The peacekeeper must recognize the different types of chemical agents that can be used. He must act accordingly to ensure not only his own safety but also the safety of civilians and the parties to the dispute.

4-40. MISSION SUSTAINMENT TRAINING

When a peacekeeping force is deployed in an emergency to interpose between combatants, following the conclusion of an armistice, there will be little warning. The units designated will have little time for training.

a. Once a force is established, the units comprising the force can be rotated regularly. Units chosen in advance are given time to learn the techniques unique to peacekeeping.

b. Once in the area of operations, the force may have time for only orientations and reinforcement training from the unit being relieved. Training should be organized, planned, and conducted before deployment, depending on the time and available resources. Training in the area of responsibility may be limited by the agreement between the parties in the dispute.

c. The commander must constantly emphasize the neutrality of the force. Forces and personnel of both sides in the dispute must avoid casual contact. This could result in one side accusing the force of favoritism. Once the force has lost its position of neutrality, its usefulness is degraded. However, contact between contingents of the force is useful in terms of cohesion and interoperability. This can be achieved through small-unit exchanges, intercontingent competitions, conferences, and social events.

d. Leaders at junior officer and NCO levels must be motivated. Only in extreme circumstances are leaders bypassed by senior leaders in the exercise of responsibility or of command. The highest standards of leadership must apply not only during operations but also during training. To assist in developing leadership qualities of section and subsection commanders, commanders' duties should be emphasized from the beginning of training. Also, their sections should train as a team throughout.

e. The unit commander must also conduct training that allows the unit to conduct its primary mission when not involved in a peacekeeping mission. Therefore, the unit must incorporate basic military skill training and small-unit tactical training into their daily routine. Because of political concerns, this training must be flexible and imaginative so as not to cause concern among the parties to the dispute.

4-41. MORALE, DISCIPLINE, AND ADMINISTRATION

The small-unit leader is responsible for the peacekeeping mission 24 hours a day, along with the health, morale, and training of his unit. During PKOs, he is responsible for all personnel who are under conditions that could become monotonous. The success of the mission, then, rests on the leadership and initiative of the small-unit leader to conduct operations along with maintaining the morale of his unit.

a. Although environmental and survival training is hard to conduct when not in the actual environment, this training must take place. It should introduce basic subjects that can be further trained after the force has deployed into its operational area.

b. Transportation of personnel and supplies is a challenge for a unit occupying a large sector. Air transportation by helicopter includes techniques in air assault (load planning, pathfinder techniques, and sling loading). Units often deploy by air into and out of OPs and must know how to stow equipment aboard the helicopter. Training in initial ground control procedures for incoming helicopters is also vital. Vehicle and aircraft maintenance must be emphasized. If transportation becomes inoperable due to poor maintenance, mission accomplishment can be jeopardized.

c. Personal hygiene, medical care, self-aid, and sanitation are of extreme importance. OPs and checkpoints can be far removed from medical facilities, and widespread illness could cause the force to fail in its mission. Human waste must be disposed of each day, and personnel must keep themselves clean to avoid disease, mainly gastrointestinal disease.

d. An SOP for the PKO is required. It must include reporting formats and procedures, ROE, OP and checkpoint routines, and resupply procedures. An SOP can also include vehicle and personnel search procedures, medical concerns, evacuation requests, lists of persons allowed to enter peacekeepinginstallations, and contact restrictions with local forces and personnel. This SOP should be based on area handbooks produced by the parent command.

e. A peacekeeping mission is meant to be visible to all concerned. Due to this fact, locals and other contingents scrutinize the force. The force must, therefore, reflect vigilance, readiness, and competence

in its duties. Personnel in isolated OPs and checkpoints can become bored with the daily routine. However, innovative leadership can take steps to enhance interest. Rotation of units between OPs and checkpoints, as well as out of sector, can help avoid boredom.

f. The nature of the mission demands a high standard of discipline and, mainly, self-discipline. Self-discipline is a state of mind that is vital to the efficient performance of duty. All commanders must be aware of the importance of good discipline during training. Special attention must be paid to the following:

(1) Proper briefing so that all personnel know what is happening.

(2) Issue of clear, concise, and simple orders.

(3) A high standard of cleanliness, care, and maintenance of all weapons, equipment, and uniforms.

(4) Motivation of all personnel to maintain a high standard of discipline.

(5) Regular inspection and supervision by leaders.

4-42. POST-PEACEKEEPING MISSION TRAINING

Peacekeeping requires a complete change in orientation for military personnel. Before the peacekeeping mission, training was provided to prepare the combat-ready soldier to one that is constrained in all his actions. After a peacekeeping mission, unit commanders must plan refresher training to return units to a combat-ready status. Such training strengthens skills that have been weakened by the nature of a PKO. Therefore, a training program must hone those skills needed to meet the standards of a combat-ready unit.

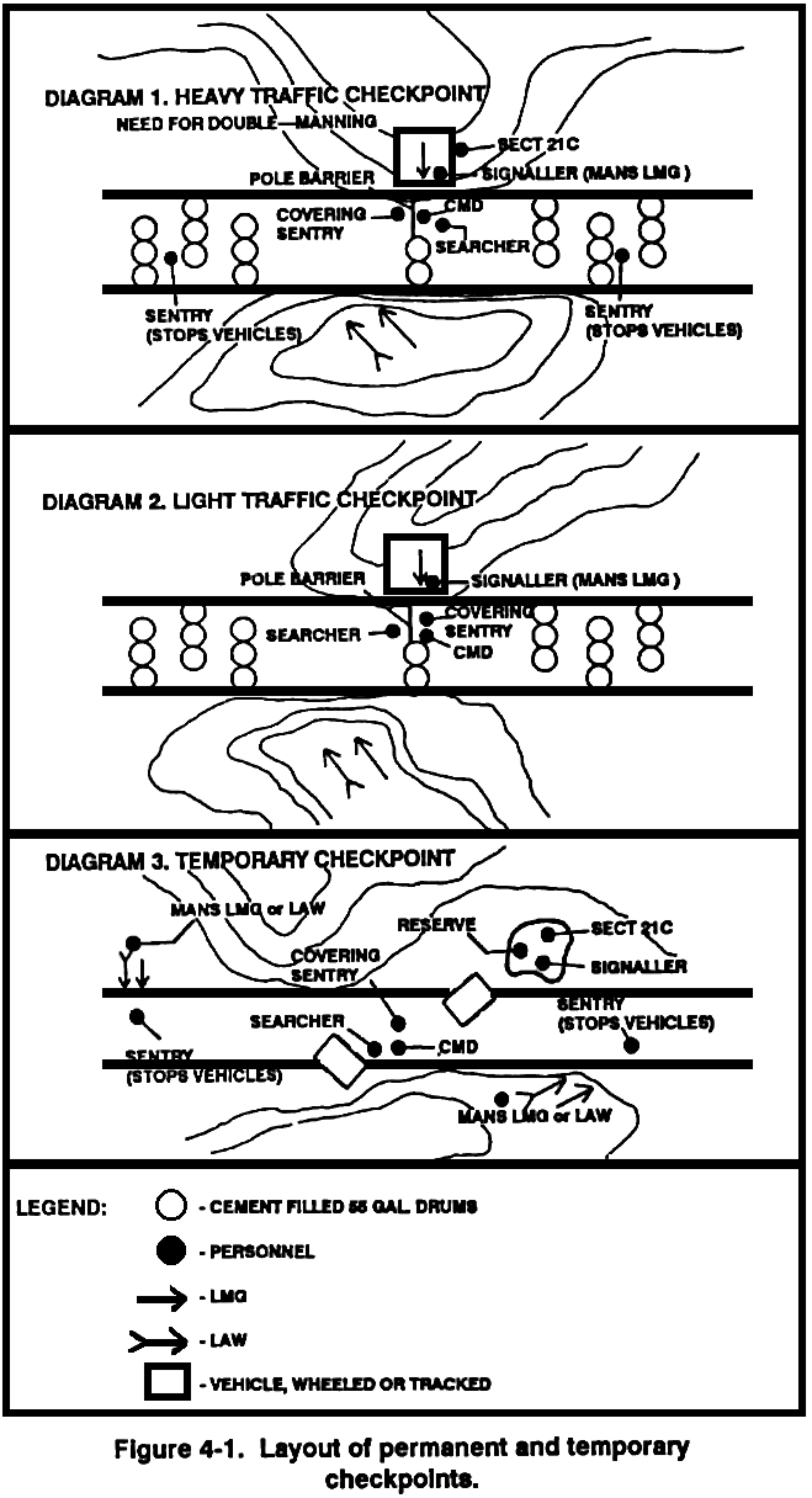

Figure 4-1. Layout of permanent and temporary checkpoints.

SERIAL	DO	DO NOT	REMARKS
1.	**Do** smile when approaching a vehicle and talk to the driver.	**Do not** be disrespectful or give any hint of dislike.	Arabs are proud. They dislike being ordered about and will react to your attitude. If you are friendly, they will be.
2.	**Do** speak to the driver and let him speak to the passengers.	**Do not** speak to women regardless of their age.	Speaking to a woman when a man is present is an offense to the man.
3.	**Do** ask the driver politely to do what you want him to do.	**Do not** put your head or arm in through the side window or open the door without permission.	If, even accidentally, you touch a woman or girl, you may be considered offending.
4.	**Do** speak naturally and no louder than needed.	**Do not** shout or show impatience.	If you shout, the driver may misunderstand you and think that you are swearing at him. If so, you may commit a grave social offense.
5.	When searching a person, **be** courteous. **Do** use scanners when possible.	**Do not** frisk women or tell them to put their hands up. **Do not** point a weapon directly at a woman unless essential for security reasons.	A Moslem does not like being touched. However, he understands the need for searching and, if done properly, he will normally not object.
6.	Whatever happens at the checkpoint, **stay** calm, and **do** make a special effort to be polite, regardless of your feelings.	**Do not** become involved in a heated arguement. **Do not** use force unless force is used against you and then use only the minimum required.	State that you are only following orders. Do not hesitate to call your checkpoint commander when the need arises.
7.	Always **maintain** a high standard of dress and military bearing.	**Do not** become careless or sloppy in appearance.	If you look smart and professional, people are more likely to accept your authority and be willing to cooperate.

Table 4-1. Example of guidelines for the conduct of peacekeeping soldiers at checkpoints in Arab countries.

CHAPTER 5

PEACETIME CONTINGENCY OPERATIONS

"Peace itself is war in masquerade."

John Dryden,

Absolm and Achitopel

Contingency operations are conducted in all categories of LIC. They range from deterrence operations, such as a show of force, to combat operations, which can be conducted under hostile or nonhostile conditions. Contingency operations also include civil military or peacekeeping activities, either as a deterrent or subsequent to combat operations. Usually the maneuver brigade is employed as a component of a JTF. However, brigade commanders must consider many factors as to the projection of CONUS-based combat power in response to global and regional contingencies. This chapter focuses on the operational requirements that affect the conduct of operations and the phases of contingency operations.

Section I.
CONDUCT OF PEACETIME CONTINGENCY OPERATIONS

Contingency operations are crisis situations often with complex political ramifications. They involve imminent or actual military conflict at the low to mid range of the operational continuum. Contingency operations are inherently joint--they involve the projection of CONUS-based forces into a CINC's AOR. This section focuses on the characteristics, political importance, and requirements for the conduct of contingency operations.

5-1. CHARACTERISTICS

Due to the many variables, most contingency operations are not conducted the same.

a. Some characteristics associated with contingency operations are as follows:

(1) US interests are at stake.

(2) Pressure is employed for a quick, clear victory.

(3) The mission, situation, and enemy are vague.

(4) The political realities impose centralized control with decentralized execution.

(5) The required airlift and sea lift are constrained due to the short time between decision and execution.

(6) The decision to refine and execute a military option is usually made under time-sensitive conditions.

b. The characteristics of contingency operation affect the conduct of operations. The brigade involved in deployment must be prepared--

(1) To task-organize or tailor a force quickly for rapid deployment and combat.

(2) To deploy a force directly into combat by forced entry into the area of operations.

(3) To provide an operational headquarters that can conduct rapid response, quick deployment, and fast, decisive, offensive operations.

(4) To move command and control elements early into the objective area in order to evaluate the situation and to make critical tactical/operational-level decisions.

5-2. REQUIREMENT FOR RAPID RESPONSE

Contingency operations translate to the brigade a requirement for rapid and decisive response to achieve success. This can be achieved by meeting the following requirements:

a. By formulating concise and timely intelligence on conditions in the objective area.

b. By developing, maintaining, and including a forced entry capability in contingency planning.

c. By ensuring the brigade planners understand joint capabilities and procedures.

d. By carefully managing the closure of forces into an objective.

e. By establishing and practicing proper procedures.

5-3. IMPORTANCE OF A CREDIBLE RESPONSE

A credible military response to any crises is most important. First, a known, credible response ability inspires the confidence of allies. Second, success in dealing with crises strengthens the impression of resolve and states that a contingency ability exists and will be used. Finally, a credible response positively influences the national and international needs, which in turn affects all of the above. The key to providing this credible response is the brigade establishing SOPs for the conduct of contingency operations. The SOPs must be practiced based on diverse operational options--for example, forced entry, NEO, peacekeeping, show of force, extended combat operations, and so forth.

5-4. PHASES OF CONTINGENCY OPERATIONS

The brigade conducts contingency operations as part of a joint or combined force, operating under the OPCOM of a CINC or JTF. The projection of brigade forces requires close cooperation with air and naval forces. Also, operations in a foreign territory require combined efforts with SOF and host-nation military forces. Contingency operations are phased to sequence major operations. Phases should begin with planning and preparation, and end with redeployment of the contingency force. This paragraph describes five phases that provide a broad structure for a contingency operation. Each phase can be adjusted to meet the needs of a specific contingency.

a. Phase I--Predeployment/Crisis Action. This is the critical phase of contingency operations. The brigade, within its assigned role(s), must anticipate the required military conditions for success, sequence activities to achieve those conditions, and apply resources. The objectives include selecting and tailoring a force, and quickly developing or refining operational concepts that set the needed conditions for subsequent phases of the campaign. The need to plan and prepare for strategic deployment in the compressed time frame of a crisis is a demanding aspect of this phase. This requires the brigade to rapidly provide the JTF commander several elements of critical analysis: the size and composition of the force, the time required to initiate and deploy the force, and the lift required to deploy it. Also, the brigade conducts IPB and determines additional combat, CS, and CSS requirements. It identifies and allocates airlift and naval transport, and considers OPSEC and deception from the beginning to retain the element of surprise. Also, the brigade establishes command and control facilities and organizations to support the concept of operation.

b. Phase II--Deployment/Initial Combat. This is the key execution phase that encompasses the occupation of the initial lodgments in the objective area. The strength and composition of the first elements of the brigade to arrive in the area of operations depends on METT-T with considerations to political factors. This includes friendly host-nation forces that could provide security, enemy strength and abilities, and availability of other US forces to provide support. Depending on the crisis, this may require forced entry into a hostile, chaotic, or seemingly benign environment. Airborne and air assault forces are best designed to achieve strategic surprise in this phase. Moreover, follow-on forces must be prepared not only to close into the objective area but also to reinforce the assault. If an armor threat is present, an antiarmor ability must accompany either the initial assault or immediate follow-on forces. Armor, aviation, and FA assets provide a combined arms ability. If a hostile air threat exists, an air defense umbrella must be established to protect vital assets. Engineers repair runways for the follow-on forces and provide mobility support to ground forces. Another aspect of this phase is the synchronization of joint combat power during assault operations. When combined with the need to control deployment and employment at the same time, synchronization places great stress on command and control.

c. Phase III--Force Buildup/Combat Operations. This phase focuses on quickly building up combat power and rapidly expanding combat operations. The objective is to place a force on the ground that can take the fight to the enemy while follow-on forces continue to arrive and prepare for subsequent operations. Principal tasks include: establishing a forward operating base, closing the remainder of the force, expanding the lodgment, linking up with the other joint forces, and striking out to engage the enemy in offensive operations. A combined arms ability and continued synchronization of joint combat power are vital. Speed is important since the success of decisive operations depends on the force's ability to build combat power without losing the initiative.

d. Phase IV--Decisive Combat Operations. The brigade attains tactical objectives through decisive combat that achieves the strategic purpose of the campaign. The first phases must set the conditions for this phase (each phase sets conditions for subsequent phases). The brigade must focus on destroying or neutralizing the enemy center of gravity. Though methods vary with the nature of the crisis, success depends on skillful prosecution of maneuver warfare. Incontingency operations, as in other military operations, this requires the synchronization of the operating systems and other functions.

e. Phase V--Redeployment. The objective in this phase is to rapidly redeploy the force to CONUS, to an intermediate staging base, or to another theater of operations. In conjunction with this effort, the force

must be reconstituted for other contingency missions. As in the initial phases, the brigade must organize command and control to provide flexibility in execution. It must quickly accomplish the coordination of the assumption of responsibility by the host nation or other forces without giving up the initiative. If redeployment is to the home station, the brigade must provide stress assistance to soldiers as they transition from combat to peacetime operations.

Section II.
PLANNING

PCOs are required when diplomatic initiatives are not effective in gaining US interests. They are time-sensitive, high-value objectives that require a fast response. Commanders tailor forces to quickly stabilize an unacceptable situation. They coordinate the military effort with diplomatic and economic actions to ensure unity of effort. FM 100-20 lists three principles of planning: coordination, balance of forces, and planning for uncertainty. This section expands on these principles.

5-5. COORDINATION

Other government agencies and information sources besides the military provide input and assistance. Therefore, the final objective of peacetime contingencies is not strictly military. The force employed should be chosen from units that have planned and trained to execute these type operations. The force structure of the JTF is based on the factors of METT-T. It consists of joint or combined forces under a single command and control element. A key for a successful operation is close coordination among all the sources.

a. The military coordinates with other government and private agencies to manage sensitive situations. The State Department is the lead agency while the military is in a supporting role, except during strike operations. The military objectives must be synchronized with the action of these agencies. If this coordination does not occur, the operation will fail.

b. Command relationships (service/joint/ combined) become more complex in peacetime contingency operations. This is due to their unique nature, unique force requirement, and political-military concerns. Clear lines of command, control, and communication must be defined from the start of an operation. This C3 agreement must avoid over-command and over-control. Combining constant monitoring with flexibility and initiative proves difficult; however, the success of the operation depends on it.

c. Brigade, battalion, and company commanders must be aware of the unique and complex traits of the coordination effort in PCO. These along with a constrained and structured environment add pressure to all concerned. The chance that all forces employed have trained and worked together before are remote. This demands that each person be oriented and motivated to US mission accomplishment.

(1) Leaders must execute Most peacetime contingencies without much time for planning. They write the execution OPORD by adapting an existing OPLAN, CONPLAN, or when no plan exists. The force array is most likely the result of a JDS force list. Since units have probably not trained together, they must be quickly brought together under a single command and control element.

(2) The NCA authorizes through a JCS executive order the execution of military operations. Table 5-1 lists the events, actions, and results during the planning phases.

(3) Military planners who face time-sensitive planning needs, must understand that the NCA reviews diplomatic, political, economic, and military options. The military option may be the least desirable option. A decision to execute may be made only after other less severe options have been deemed unsuitable. In deciding to develop a military solution, the NCA may consider the full range of military options (Table 5-2). Final responsibility and authority in a crisis rest with the President. He must authorize the conduct of military operations. This is why soldiers wait at deployment sites ready to be deployed. During Phase IV, military units are alerted. During Phase VI, the President decides whether to deploy or stand down.

(4) Of the options listed in Table 5-2, five of the seven can include the Army.

- Show of force/demonstration.
- Offensive operations.
- Noncombatant evacuation operations.
- Peacemaking operations.
- Forced entry.
- Unconventional warfare support.
- Rescue and recovery operations.
- Support to US civil authority.
- Disaster relief operations.

Table 5-1. Planning bases of a contingency operation.

Table 5-2. Range of military options.

5-6. BALANCE OF FORCES

The military commanders must balance the physical security of forces in regards to the mission and restrictive ROE. ROE for tactical forces come from the unified commander. They are based on NCA guidance, mission, threat, laws of war, and host nation or third country constraints on forces deployed. The political considerations that determine the ROE may conflict with the physical security needs of the mission force. Therefore, the commander must weigh the political needs against the risks to physical security of the force. Instead of accepting the mission and force composition, commanders should ask for clearly stated objectives with operational limits. These limits must allow mission accomplishment as well as protection of deployed forces.

a. The commander must develop a training program to ensure force protection. Some examples include--

(1) OJT programs for CSS personnel on use of weapons and communication.

(2) Physical security analysis and development of a local program based on METT-T.

(3) Base fortification training.

(a) Stress the use of obstacles and protective shelters.

(b) Discuss preparing weapons' position.

(c) Explain improvised types of mines and booby traps, and other explosive devices.

(4) Integrate first-aid training to include--

- Care of wounds.
- Snake/insect bites.
- Cardiopulmonary resuscitation.
- Manual evacuation carries.
- Improvised splints and litters.

(5) Emphasize concealment and camouflage.

(6) Stress the need for proper health measures such as field sanitation and personal hygiene.

b. Leaders must instill discipline in each soldier. It is the crucial element in the performance of US soldiers in peacetime contingency operations.

(1) Discipline helps a soldier endure sniper fire each night without firing back at shadows.

(2) Discipline prevents a soldier from overreacting in an angry outburst.

(3) In riot control, discipline causes a soldier to hold one's fire in the face of a hostile, often violent, mob.

(4) Most of all, disciplined soldiers can comply with increasingly complex ROE.

c. The ROE will create a problem for commanders. To obey the rules might further political objectives but at the cost of American lives. During peacetime contingency operations, the ROE could become more constricted as the operation continues. To live within the ROE, the commander must be enterprising. If artillery or mortar fire is not authorized, M203 gunners firing salvo might be a solution. However, his actions must be within the spirit of the ROE.

5-7. PLANNING FOR UNCERTAINTY

Because of the sensitivity and complexity of peacetime contingencies, commanders must conduct detailed estimates of the situation. In collecting and analyzing relevant information, commanders must consolidate the principles of coordination and balance into the planning process. At first, the planning process must be discussed as if it has a distinct start and end. However, the actual decision making, planning, and analysis of the conduct of the operation must be continuous. In LIC, the peacetime contingency mission has specified and implied tasks just as in any military operation. As the operation begins, commanders must be prepared and flexible for implementing and executing added tasks. These tasks could be a result of changes in the political environment of the US or host nation. To implement these changes, commanders must conduct additional detailed planning for logistic and intelligence support.

a. Logistic Support. In peacetime contingency operations, moving supplies and equipment is more time-consuming than moving personnel. If the need increases for logistic support, the slow movement of the support to the AOR might result in mission failure. Commanders must plan for an increase in logistic support by performing the following:

(1) Determine the added logistic support that may be required.

(2) Determine the source and location of this type of support (either US or host nation).

(3) Develop detailed transportation and movement plans to get the logistic support to the AOR as soon as possible.

(4) Identify the weight of material, cubic feet density, mode of transportation, and likely priority of movement.

(5) Choose seaports, aerial ports, and rail and road networks to aid movement. Plan security at these embarkation points into the AOR.

b. Intelligence Support. Intelligence support must be coordinated, complete, and continuous. This helps to identify and react to changes in the operation. Intelligence comes from many sources to include civilian agencies as well as military. The intelligence analysis must coordinate all the information and develop an IPB for the commander. The PIR must include possible changes in the political environment. These changes could affect the mission and required logistic support. Well-coordinated MI operations must start with early planning.

Section III.
TYPES OF OPERATIONS

Peacetime contingency operations are unique since they focus on specific problems. They require rapid and decisive solutions. PCOs are politically and time sensitive, and are managed at the highest levels of government. They are normally short in duration but may transition to long-term operations. Commanders tailor forces for these operations and employ them as joint, combined, or both. This section discusses some of the PCOs that brigade and battalion commanders can expect to conduct or support.

5-8. SHOW OF FORCE/DEMONSTRATION

Contingency forces lend credibility to a nation's promises and commitments. They influence other nations by displaying a viable military force. PCOs try to reassure a friend or ally. They also can influence another government or political-military organization to respect US interests. Operations develop by deploying forces forward, by using aircraft and ship visits, and by introducing forces as a show of force. The presence of a credible military force can highlight policy interests and commitment.

a. Deployment of strategic or rapid deployment forces provide show of force either in response to specific threats or as part of a routine exercise. Any force composition may be used and is based on METT-T.

b. As with all LIC operations, the political nature of the operation prevails, mainly in the use of military forces. Since the object is not the use of force, legal and political constraints may apply. The operation must be coordinated with the related-country teams. Forces must understand the objectives. Before commitment, the chain of command should ensure that the force understands the purpose, ROE, and inherent risks of the operation. Forces engaged in these operations must be prepared to fight and win if the demonstration alone cannot accomplish the national objective.

c. The first element vital to a show of force is the deployment of contingency forces. The availability of required logistics and infrastructure are crucial. The force must be sustainable. This requires--

(1) Appropriate intertheater and intratheater mobility assets.

(2) Sufficient interdepartmental and international liaison.

(3) Accurate intelligence.

(4) Clear lines of command and control.

(5) Adequate communications ability.

(6) Ready and responsive forces.

d. The mission must be well defined and clear, and be quickly executed.

5-9. OFFENSIVE OPERATIONS

In conditions short of war, offensive operations are the most overt use of force. Action may be conducted in support of political and diplomatic measures. Offensive and raid operations serve purposes other than gaining or holding terrain. They may be deliberate responses or quick reactions. They are either direct or indirect in nature. As such, they encompass interdiction of LOC, offensive operations against terrorist bases, or a combination of these. Multiple offensive operations can aid cooperation. They create situations that let friendly nations seize and maintain the political initiative.

a. Offensive operations can succeed if performed by organizations skilled in basic war fighting techniques. Such a force (rangers, special forces, or light infantry, airborne, or air assault) may act alone or with other special operations elements or allied forces. If conditions warrant, a light/heavy mixture of forces will be used. However, based on METT-T, the use of heavy forces may be planned as a follow-on. Elements may be inserted by ship or aircraft. They strike strategic objectives, targets of high psychological profile, time-sensitive targets, or key personnel and bases. When provided with the proper assets for insertion, offensive operations units can conduct deep penetration raids. Exfiltration from such raids is hard and is a force limiting factor that must be considered.

b. The NCA approves a strategic raid. A raid is conducted under the operational command of a unified or joint TF commander. Typical targets include--

(1) Insurgent command, control, communications, and intelligence centers.

(2) Nuclear and chemical weapons storage sites and delivery means held by irresponsible nations or factions.

(3) Key terrorist or insurgent facilities such as logistic depots, airstrips, buildings, bridges, dams, tunnels, or LOC.

(4) Known terrorist living, training, and staging areas.

c. Successful offensive operations are characterized by--

(1) A start time and location not known by the enemy.

(2) Undetection during planning, rehearsal, and deployment.

(3) Swift, violent, precise, and audacious actions that focus full combat power at the decisive time and place.

(4) Use of all available combat power assets.

(5) Precise timing of operations.

(6) Swift disengagement when mission is complete.

(7) Planned and swift withdrawal that includes deception plans.

d. Although their context may be highly political, execution of offensive operations is less subject to political control than other peacetime contingency operations. Such operations require awareness of the local political climate, which must be supported by a thorough public information initiative. Execution usually requires a limited-size force operating against limited objectives. The operation must be as short as possible. Planning and rehearsing of all phases should precede the effort. There must be precise, real-time intelligence; effective communications; an ability to augment the execution force; and clear lines of command and control. The logistic support system must know force requirements and should sustain it on short notice. Overall, the mission requires stringent OPSEC, which must be constantly measured against effective execution of the mission.

e. Instances do arise where the follow-on to offensive operations is peacemaking. The follow-on must include the deployment of PSYOP and CA assets as well as additional MP units. The handoff to state support forces must be accomplished as soon as possible.

5-10. NONCOMBATANT EVACUATION OPERATIONS

NEOs relocate civilian noncombatants from a foreign (host) nation when they are threatened by hostile action. These operations normally evacuate US citizens whose lives are in danger. They may also include evacuating natives of the host nation and third country aliens friendly to the United States. This type of operation involves swift insertion and temporary occupation of an objective, followed by a planned withdrawal. The operation normally includes a use of force required for protection of the evacuees and for self-defense. These operations are coordinated by the CINC and normally specify detailed plans that are executed by brigades and other military forces.

a. The situation may be impaired as a result of military, political, or other emergencies that could require evacuation of some personnel. The State Department requests military assistance and obtains US and allied government approval to include basing and overflight authorizations, and facilities for executing an evacuation operation. Before starting military operations, the chief of the diplomatic mission ensures that the number of evacuees are as few as possible. He directs the early withdrawal of dependents and nonessential personnel by ordinary transport.

b. The key in planning is to determine whether the evacuation will take place in a benign environment, will involve facing the threat of violent opposition, or will, in fact, be a combat operation.

c. The commander adjusts evacuation sites and timing of the operation based on the existing local situation. His ability to influence the local situation is minimal. The situation may be such that the commander must prepare to defend the evacuation from hostile forces. He does so without the authority to preempt hostile actions. Also, evacuation operations are politically sensitive and are probably monitored, if not controlled, from the highest level.

d. Brigade objectives are limited to those tactically needed to provide a suitable avenue of evacuation.

Care of civilians and the maintenance of order in and around the evacuation site are prime responsibilities. Because of the sensitive nature of the mission, political concerns and constraints apply.

e. Commanders should remember that NEO can quickly turn into peacemaking or peacekeeping operations. They must plan for these contingencies.

5-11. PEACEMAKING OPERATIONS

Contingency operations for peacemaking try to maintain civil law and order under the protection of a military force. Some aspects of peacemaking may occur due to a PKO or may precede a PKO. PKOs require the consent of all interested parties while a peacemaking operation is an act of compulsion.

a. Forces may conduct operations to maintain civil order or to support a threatened host government as part of a multinational force, alone, or with a host government. Although US intervention in the Dominican Republic in 1965 had broad, hemispheric policy goals, US military forces were used in a peacemaking role.

b. Peacemaking is hard to define due to the vague boundary line between it and other types of missions. There are, however, numerous key traits. Planning is vital. Commanders must deal with many doubts and constraints.

(1) Short notice for a response is likely, and the location may not be known in advance.

(2) Information on enemy forces and their composition, distribution, strength, and morale may be limited.

(3) The mission may be unclear, and the composition and size of force to be used may change without warning.

(4) Restraints are enforced on the use of deadly force.

(5) The duration of the operation may be unknown.

(6) There are much political effect, complex ROE, and insistence on the least use of force.

(7) The mission and military operations may be under major constraints that are subject to sudden change and demands.

(8) For the commander and his forces, the environment is likely to be stressful and dangerous.

(9) The prompt commitment of a force larger than a division, which may preclude violence, may not be a likely option.

c. The complex goal of peacemaking operations requires a flexible plan. It places demands on the commander and his staff for tact, innovation, and understanding of the environment and the political effects involved. The task also requires-- Constant mission analysis.

- Clear command and control relationships.
- Effective communications facilities.
- Joint and combined force liaison.
- An effective public diplomacy and PSYOP campaign.

- The gradual transition of responsibility back to the host nation.

d. The mission requires that forces adjust well to the environment. Forces are sustained, replaced, rotated, or reinforced to provide continuity of effort. The mission may also require adherence to local law and customs. Once the force commander is given the mission and is aware of his constraints, he may have some personal choices and needs. The political climate of the effort, however, may preclude this. Peacemaking missions are stressful and unique. The personality, training, and skills of the commander, and those of his organization, are crucial to success.

5-12. UNCONVENTIONAL WARFARE SUPPORT

UW is a broad spectrum of military and paramilitary operations. It is conducted in enemy-held, enemy-controlled, or politically sensitive territory.

a. UW includes, but is not limited to, guerrilla warfare, E & E, subversion, sabotage, and other operations of a low visibility, covert, or clandestine nature. The commander can execute interrelated aspects of UW singly or collectively with mostly local personnel. These personnel are supported by external sources during all conditions of war or peace. US Army support of UW can include the use of both SOF and general purpose forces such as CSS for insurgents in a third-world country. Techniques and tactics for certain UW operations are like those used in FID. Unlike most peacetime contingency operations, UW is usually a long-term effort.

b. This operation does not usually involve conventional maneuver forces. Conventional support comes from CS and CSS elements such as:

- Parachute rigging.
- Aerial resupply.
- Radio interception.
- Photo reconnaissance/topography.

5-13. RESCUE AND RECOVERY OPERATIONS

Rescue and recovery operations are quite sophisticated actions requiring precise execution. They may include the rescue of US or friendly foreign nationals, and the location, identification, and recovery of sensitive equipment vital to US national security.

a. Hostile forces may oppose these types of operations. Stealth, surprise, speed, and the threat of overwhelming US force are ways to defeat opposition. Rescue and recovery operations need timely intelligence, detailed planning, deception, swift execution, and firm security measures. They usually involve highly trained special units. Brigade forces may be tasked to provide security support. b. Rescue and recovery operations can be divided into three phases:

(1) *PHASE I - Movement.* During this phase security must be stressed. The use of deception and secrecy must be included in detailed planning.

(2) *PHASE II - Assault.* During this phase the following rules should be followed:

(a) Execute the method of assault (parachute, air assault, beach landing) with speed and maximum firepower.

(b) Secure the avenue of approach to and from the objective.

(c) Secure the extraction point.

(d) Rescue, recover, and protect items of interest.

(e) Evacuate items of interest to the extraction point.

(3) *PHASE III - Extraction and redeployment*.

c. The initial assault force normally consists of SOF personnel Brigade forces may be used once a lodgement is established. Some possible tasks for brigade forces include:

- Secure an airfield.
- Block routes into the objective area.
- Secure movement of items of interest to the extraction point.
- Protect items of interest.

5-14. SUPPORT TO US CIVIL AUTHORITY

Support to US civil authority includes those activities provided by military forces in support of federal and state officials under, and limited by, the Posse Comitatus Act and other laws and regulations. Congress and the courts view requirements for military support in civilian domestic affairs as situation-specific. They restrict military support to situations that involve disaster assistance, civil disorder, threats to federal property, and other emergencies. Congress has also defined drug trafficking, illegal immigration, and customs violations as threats to national security that warrant military support.

a. Disaster Assistance. Disaster assistance provides emergency aid to civilians and helps restore vital public activities and facilities. The military can become a rapidly deployed manpower base in response to crisis situations. Brigade assistance includes:

- Medical supplies, equipment, and emergency medical treatment.
- Food, water, and shelter.
- Rescue and fire fighting services.
- Police protection.
- Route clearance and traffic control.
- Prevention of panic.
- Communications.
- Restoration of facilities.
- Enforcement of curfews.

b. Civil Disorders. The mission of military forces during civil disorders is to assist local authorities in restoring and maintaining law and order. The brigade can conduct the following:

- Present a show of force.
- Establish road or area blocks.
- Disperse crowds.

- Release riot control agents.
- Patrol.
- Serve as security forces or reserves.

c. Threats to Federal Property. Installation commanders must maintain law and order at their posts. The US Supreme Court recognizes their duties.

d. Drug Interdiction. One of the missions the military is involved in is drug interdiction. Battalions and brigades may be involved in many actions taken to disrupt, interdict, or destroy illicit drugs and the infrastructure (personnel, material, and distribution system) of illicit drug entities.

(1) Such action is always in conjunction with another governmental agency. Some of these agencies are the Coast Guard, Customs Service, Border Patrol of the Immigration and Naturalization Service, Department of State's Bureau of International Narcotics Matters, the Drug Enforcement Administration, and so on.

(2) Military support to counter-drug operations can include mobile training teams, offshore training, advisory personnel, logistic support (material, maintenance, resupply, and transportation), and intelligence support. It may also include construction of LZ/PZs, assault landing strips, and roads or trails.

e. Counter-Drug Operation. Military activities in support of counter-drug operations are examples of support to civil authorities. Using special aircraft, ships, and personnel, military forces help the US Coast Guard and other US law enforcement agencies track and interdict illegal drug shipments. As directed by the NCA, US military forces also help foreign governments to stop the processing of illicit drugs. Often, military training activities have been adapted to support both combat readiness and the US counter-drug effort. Support to civil authorities in counter-drug operations employs the unique skills of the US military to perform such tasks.

5-15. DISASTER RELIEF OPERATIONS

Disaster relief operations provide emergency assistance abroad to victims of natural or man-made disasters. They respond to requests for immediate help from foreign governments or international agencies. In the LIC environment, disasters can weaken an already unstable situation. When well managed, US involvement in disaster relief can have positive effects. Brigade elements involved in disaster relief operations have various tasks. They can include refugee assistance, food programs, medical care, and other civilian welfare programs. Army CS and CSS units are key players in these operations. Also, combat arms units can provide added support. If the operation is conducted in a hostile area, the unit involved may have a force protection or security mission. The military can--

a. Provide the logistic support to move supplies to remote areas.

b. Extract or evacuate victims.

c. Provide emergency communications.

d. Conduct direct medical support operations.

e. Provide construction support to open LOCs, repair bridges and facilities.

The commander discontinues the operation when the host country gains enough control to continue on its own. The operation is reduced activity by activity. This process may be accomplished by phases until all military units have departed.

Section IV.
OPERATIONAL CONSIDERATIONS

Due to the many variables involved, no two PCOs are planned and executed alike. However, in executing PCOs, commanders should consider some operational factors that influence the nature and scope of the effort. These include planners executing their own plan, a well-developed PSYOP effort, the role of logistics, a believable deception plan, the complexity of command and control, and constraints. This section describes some techniques and principles that are inherent to PCO missions.

5-16. EXECUTION BY PLANNERS

Due to the sensitivity and complexity of peacetime contingencies, planners should execute missions. When standby contingency plans are enforced, commanders and staff must execute them. They are most familiar with these plans and the considerations used during preparation.

5-17. PSYCHOLOGICAL OPERATIONS

Peacetime contingencies are complex and unexpected, though they may require long-term involvement. Therefore, the environment must be prepared in advance of or in support of a commitment of force. Commanders use PSYOP, though time-consuming and better suited to longer-term operations, to exploit enemy weaknesses. They also use them to target forces or a population whose support is crucial to the success of the operation. This effort requires much preparation, regional sensitivity, and coordination between civilian and military authorities.

5-18. LOGISTICS

Logistic requirements are crucial to peacetime contingencies. They can dominate the mission and can present uncommon demands on service and joint support forces. The operations are likely to be of short-notice, unique, and in austere environments. Peacetime contingencies require developing a precrisis logistic baseline. This is for national contingency force structures and includes the needs of various force sizes and compositions.

5-19. DECEPTION PLAN

Speed and surprise are key elements in executing PCO. A believable deception plan targeted at the opposing leader provides the element of surprise. This improves the commander's opportunity for success. In PCOs, most deception plans are planned and executed at the operational level. At the tactical level, deception plans should be employed so that friendly routine actions are conducted with greater uncertainty. Deception can play a significant role in--

a. Masking the movement of tactical formations.

b. Inducing the enemy to miscalculate friendly objectives.

c. Inducing the enemy to miscalculate friendly weaknesses.

5-20. COMMAND AND CONTROL

Command relationships (service/joint/combined) become more complex in such operations due to their unique nature, form requirements, and the uncommon traits of political-military concerns. Also, there is a constant tension due to the need for sustained and coordinated command and control, and the need to avoid overcommand and overcontrol.

5-21. OPERATIONAL CONSTRAINTS

Commanders have difficulty in combining the physical security of forces with the restrictive ROE of LIC. RCE for tactical forces come from the unified commander. They are based on NCA guidance, mission, threat, laws of war, and host nation or third-world country constraints on force deployment. The political concerns used to develop ROE may conflict with the physical security needs of the force. Political needs should be weighed against the risks to the mission and force itself. They should be practical, realistic, and enforceable. Regardless of the situation, forces must operate in a highly constrained environment. This requires the patience, training, and dedication of the military force.

5-22. PRINCIPLES

Key functions inherent to PCOs include:

a. Military efforts must be closely coordinated with diplomatic, and public relations initiatives.

b. The State Department is the lead agency except when the military is performing offensive operations.

c. National policy determines military objectives and the composition of the military force. Policy makers must define clear objectives and be sensitive to military constraints.

d. Detailed and flexible planning is required in situations that are uncertain.

e. Clear lines of command, control, and communications must be established among civilian and military agencies.

f. Plans for logistic support must be complete.

g. Specialized training is required at all levels.

h. Minimum-essential force should be applied at the point of engagement. Although, rapid commitment of an overwhelming force to a target area reduces the chance of actual combat.

i. Military units must be aware of the importance of caring for the civilian population or refugees.

j. Security of the committed force is weighed against the unique ROE, and the tactical and political environment of each situation.

Section V.
INTRODUCTION OF FORCES INTO A HIGH-THREAT ENVIRONMENT

A joint task force normally conducts peacetime contingency operations. The size of the force, its mission, and its AOR vary with each deployment. In a worst-case scenario, forces would conduct a forced entry into a high-threat environment. The Army component can be a small specialized element or a battalion or brigade TF. PCOs are usually executed by airborne, air assault, or light infantry units and may be augmented by heavy forces.

5-23. INITIAL ASSAULT

The initial assault stresses the coordinated action of small units to seize initial objectives before the element of surprise has passed. As assault objectives are seized, the efforts of the force change to developing the airhead.

a. Tactical surprise, along with detailed planning, allow units to seize their assault objectives and to establish the airhead before the enemy has time to react in force. Missions of units are changed as needed by enemy defense of initial objectives. The enemy can be expected to quickly launch unplanned attacks along major avenues of approach using local forces. The degree of coordination and strength of these attacks may continue to increase. The PCO force must expand its defensive posture. Preparing for an early defense against an armored attack is a major concern if such a capability exists.

b. Units assigned to perform R & S missions land in early serials--

- To establish roadblocks.
- To locate enemy forces.
- To disrupt enemy communication facilities.
- To provide the commander with early warning, security, and information.

Since ground reconnaissance by unit commanders is seldom possible before the operation, it must begin as soon as the unit lands. The flow of information must be continuous. PIR/IR do not vary from those employed by other ground units. However, the unit's method of arrival in the area heightens the need for immediate and thorough reconnaissance. Also required is the transmission of tactical information to higher headquarters.

c. If the initial objectives are heavily defended, a battalion or brigade commander assigns the task of seizing key routes and airfields to the bulk of the force. Also, LZs/PZs are cleared of obstacles and hastily repaired to support follow-on operations. When initial objectives are lightly defended, the bulk of the force can be employed in clearing assigned sectors and preparing defensive positions in depth. Patrolling is started early between adjacent defensive positions within the airhead line, and between the airhead and the R&S line. Army aircraft are well suited for support of this effort. Forces establish early contact with any friendly SOF in the area.

d. Commanders brief personnel on unit plans, adjacent and higher units' plans, and alternate plans. This helps units or personnel landing in unplanned areas to focus on accomplishing the mission. Units or personnel delivered to the wrong place must contact their headquarters as soon as possible.

e. When communications and the tactical situation permit, commanders regain centralized control. Communications channels must be established before the arrival of aircraft in the AO. This is vital for effective control of ground operations. Units should quickly establish the following for effective command and control:

(1) Command and fire control channels within the forces.

(2) Communications with supporting air and naval forces.

(3) Communications with airlift forces concerned with buildup, air supply, and evacuation.

(4) Communications with bases in friendly territory.

(5) Communications between widely separated airborne or ground forces (such as linkup forces) with a common or coordinated mission.

Communications personnel and equipment must be moved into the airhead in advance of the CP they are to serve. This ensures the timely installation of vital communications.

f. The commander can effect action by shifting or allocating fire support means, moving forces, modifying missions, changing objectives and boundaries, and employing reserves. He can also move to a place where he can best exert his personal influence.

g. When initial objectives are secure, subordinate units can seize other objectives that aid setting up a coordinated brigade defense or conducting future operations. Defensive positions are organized, communications supplemented, and reserves reconstituted. Other measures prepare the force to repel enemy counterattacks, reduce effects of attack by nuclear weapons, or resume the offensive.

h. Reserves prepare and occupy blocking positions, pending commitment. Common tasks for reserves committed during the initial assault include assuming the missions of misdelivered units, dealing with unexpected opposition in seizing assault objectives, and securing the initial airhead.

5-24. DEVELOPMENT OF THE AIRHEAD

After the PCO forces have made the initial assault landings and have accomplished the initial ground missions, commanders must organize the airhead line. (See FM 90-26.)

a. Size of the Airhead. The airhead line extends enough distance beyond the landing areas to ensure continuous secure landings of personnel, equipment, and supplies. It secures the required terrain features and maneuver space for future operations.

b. Occupation and Organization of the Airhead. Occupation and organization of the airhead line varies depending on the situation. Commanders adjust the disposition of troops and installations to fit the terrain and situation. Units take R&S measures, which usually include reinforcing the R&S line. The degree to which the airhead line isoccupied and organized for defense depends mainly on the mission, enemy abilities, and defensive traits of the terrain.

c. Buildup of the Airhead. Buildup of the airhead proceeds along with seizing and organizing the airhead line. As more combat personnel arrive and commanders organize them by unit, frontline positions are reinforced, reserves are constituted, and preparations are made for offensive operations.

5-25. DEFENSIVE OPERATIONS

The time spent in the defense varies with the mission, the composition and size of the force, the enemy reaction, and the type of operation.

a. Defensive Phase. The need can often be removed for a defensive phase in short-duration missions in isolated objective areas. This can be done by destroying or dispersing enemy forces in the immediate objective area during the assault. Then the assault force is extracted before a coordinated enemy counterattack.

b. Defense of an Airhead. The force usually defends an airhead by dominating key and decisive terrain and likely avenues of approach within the airhead. Units deny the enemy the areas between the occupied positions with a combination of patrols, mines, fires, and obstacles. They reconnoiter between positions within the airhead, between the airhead and RSL, and forward of the RSL They stress reconnaissance forward of the RSL during limited visibility. The airhead configuration allows the commander to quickly shift forces, reserves, and supporting fires. This allows for reinforcing another sector of the airhead. The force also prepares positions in depth within its abilities.

c. Defense During a Withdrawal. If a withdrawal from initial positions is required, the final area must have space for maneuver, for the defense of crucial installations, and for planned airlanding or air evacuation operations.

d. Defense Against Armor. During the initial phases of an operation, one of the main defenses against enemy armor is tactical air support. Aircraft attack enemy armor targets far from the objective area. They continue to attack and observe targets as long as targets threaten the force. Strongpoints defending the airhead use existing and reinforcing obstacles. Units emplace antitank weapons in depth along mounted avenues of approach. They cover all dangerous avenues of approach with planned fires. Antitank weapons can be shifted to reinforce threatened sectors.

e. Defense Against an Airborne Attack, Guerrilla Action, and Infiltration. The defense must include plans for countering enemy airborne attacks, attacks by insurgent forces, or infiltrating forces. The basic defense is an extensive patrol and early warning system, an all-round defense with designated reserve units. Units must remain alert during limited visibility to prevent the enemy from infiltrating. If units build up forces in the airhead interior, they can adversely affect operations. During daylight, units must locate and destroy enemy that has infiltrated the airhead.

PHASE I SITUATION DEVELOPMENT	PHASE II CRISIS ASSESSMENT	PHASE III COURSE OF ACTION DEVELOPMENT	PHASE IV COURSE OF ACTION SELECTION	PHASE V EXECUTION PLANNING	PHASE VI EXECUTION
EVENT					
• Event occurs with possible national security implications	• CINC's report/assessment received	• CJCS publishes warning order	• CJCS presents refined and prioritized COAs to NCA	• CINC receives alert order or planning order	• NCA decides to execute OPORD
ACTION					
• Monitor world situation • Recognize problem • Submit CINC's assessment	• Increase awareness • Increase reporting • JCS assesses situation • JCS advises on possible military action	• Develop COAs • Evaluate COAs • Create/modify JDS database • CINC assigns tasks to subordinates by	• CJCS gives military advice to NCA • CJCS may publish planning order to begin execution planning before formal selection of COA by NCA	• Adjust JDS database • Identify movement requirements • Identify and assign tasks to units • Convert COA into OPORDs & supporting	• CJCS publishes execute order by authority & direction of SECDEF • CINC executes OPORD • JDS database maintained

Table 5-1

CHAPTER 6

COMMAND, CONTROL, COMMUNICATIONS, AND INTELLIGENCE

"Power is not revealed by striking hard or often, but by striking true. "

Honore De Balzac

Leadership is a vital element of the command and control system, which includes communications and intelligence. This is also true in a LIC environment. Performing assigned missions within the constraints of status of forces agreements and adhering to strict ROE require diplomatic leadership for success. The commander's leadership provides purpose, direction, and motivation. His intent must be detailed and complete. It includes the unit's level of involvement in tactical, intelligence, psychological, populace and resource control, civil affairs, counterterrorism, and advisory assistance operations. This chapter describes how units are organized for LIC, the command and control process, communications, and intelligence support.

Section I.
COMMAND AND CONTROL SYSTEM

The command and control system includes the facilities, equipment, communications, procedures, and personnel essential to a commander for planning, directing, and controlling operations of assigned forces pursuant to the missions assigned.

6-1. ELEMENTS OF COMMAND AND CONTROL

The five interrelated elements of command and control are as follows:

a. Facilities. Command and control facilities at battalion level are classified by echelon as main, combat trains, field trains, and alternate CPs. The command group is a temporary facility. It comprises the commander, the soldiers in the command group, and the equipment the commander has with him forward to help command and control the immediate battle. The main CP includes all soldiers, equipment, and facilities employed in commanding and controlling the battalion. The TOC is the operations cell within the main CP. Integration of CSS is vital to successful combat operations. The combat trains CP is the battalion's CSS planning facility. An alternate CP is needed in case either the tactical or main CP is destroyed.

b. Equipment. Command and control equipment is provided by the specific MTOEs for each unit.

c. Communications. Command and control communications are the means by which the command

transmits and receives information and orders. As such, having these means is vital to the commander and his staff in the execution of military operations. The commander and staff must understand the capabilities, limitations, and vulnerabilities of their communications systems. They must expect and plan for interference from friendly and enemy units where radar, radios, and lasers can operate in the same electromagnetic spectrum.

d. Procedure. Command and control procedure is a mode or course of action that describes how to perform a certain task.

e. Personnel. The battalion commander has a staff to aid him in the exercise of command. The staff consists of the personnel necessary to perform command and control and supporting functions. The commander cannot abdicate his command responsibilities to the staff. Rather, the commander's job is to achieve his goals by intelligently using the unique abilities of his staff and subordinate commanders.

6-2. COMMAND

Command is the authority that a commander in the military service lawfully exercises over subordinates by virtue of rank or assignment. Command includes the authority and responsibility for effectively using available resources and for planning, organizing, directing, coordinating, and controlling the employment of military forces for the accomplishment of assigned missions. It also includes responsibility for health, welfare, morale, and discipline of assigned personnel.

6-3. CONTROL

Control is the exercise of authority and is the counterpart of command. It means following up a decision and minimizing deviation from the commander's concept. Control refers to the supervision of the operation while ensuring all systems and activities are synchronized.

6-4. COMMANDER'S AUTHORITY

Commander's authority derives from law and regulation. It is accompanied by responsibilities that cannot be delegated. To accomplish specific functions, the commander can delegate his authority to his subordinates. However, the commander is solely responsible for his command. He meets this responsibility by leading, planning, making decisions, issuing orders, and supervising the execution of his orders.

6-5. COMMANDER'S PRESENCE

The commander must position himself on the battlefield where he can exert the greatest influence. This includes face-to-face orders in the operational area. At the same time, he must avoid sacrificing the ability to influence the battle by shifting the main effort or communicating orders without a loss of coordination, cohesion, and effectiveness. At times the commander may be forward with the foremost elements, while at other times he will be in the main command post. He must have equal ability to command and control his forces from either location. The commander establishes an environment of trust in his leaders--trust that gives them the freedom to operate within mission-type orders and to use initiative.

6-6. COMMANDER'S LEADERSHIP

Leadership is the key element of combat power. It is personal and intangible, and is a combination of example, persuasion, and influence. Leadership serves as an extension of the commander's self. Effective field commanders exhibit the following characteristics of leadership:

a. Supervision and Standards. The commander knows the standards that he wants to see on the ground. He communicates these standards clearly and with authority. He enforces them, holding soldiers accountable for their jobs and making rapid corrections. The commander enforces standards by supervising tasks after he gives the order; either he walks the line and inspects positions or he ensures this is done.

b. Technical and Tactical Proficiency. The commander knows the technical and tactical aspects of all assets that compose his battlefield operating systems. He understands and uses terrain well. He communicates this knowledge and his professionalism through his actions and through interactions with other officers and soldiers.

c. Time Management. The commander conducts his planning to allow subordinates the time to prepare for the next mission. He manages time well and sets work priorities.

d. Delegation. The commander trusts his subordinate leaders and delegates authority to them. He develops his leaders so the mission can continue when he is gone. This is leadership in depth throughout the chain of command.

e. Decisiveness. The commander adjusts quickly to difficult situations and makes quick, sound decisions.

f. Respect and Concern. The commander knows and cares about the people in his unit. He respects subordinates. He knows subordinate leaders' and soldiers' strengths, weaknesses, and motivations. He rewards good performers and counsels substandard performers.

6-7. COMMANDER'S INTENT

The commander's intent drives mission tactics. It is the commander's stated vision that defines the purpose of the operation and the end state with respect to the relationship among the force, the enemy, and the terrain. Intent should also include how this end state will support future operations.

a. The overall purpose of the mission is more important than the individual assigned tasks. Each subordinate commander must know why and how his assigned tasks relate to the overall concept of the operation. Then, if the situation changes and contact with higher headquarters is lost, the subordinate can use his initiative to achieve the desired end results.

b. The battalion commander has a dual responsibility. He must understand the intent of the brigade and division commanders (two levels up) and must ensure his intent is understood at company and platoon levels (two levels down). The commander's intent paragraph in the OPORD should begin with the words, "My intent is . . .," so it can be understood and relayed to subordinates easily.

c. A clear commander's intent enhances agility, timing, and initiative at all levels. It helps in shifting the main effort on a fluid battlefield.

6-8. MISSION TACTICS

The purpose of command and control is to allow the commander to generate and apply combat power at the decisive point on the battlefield. Mission tactics is a method of directing military operations; subordinates are encouraged and expected to act alone in executing assigned missions, consistent with the intent of senior commanders. The commander must--

a. Anticipate a free-willed opponent; expect uncertainty. The enemy does not always follow his doctrine or act as IPB indicates he will. The commander must be flexible. War games, contingency plans, employment in depth, well-developed and rehearsed SOPs, and a reserve all contribute to flexibility.

b. Organize and direct operations to require minimum intervention. When precise control is required for synchronization, such as an on-order task, the commander should provide the subordinate with the criteria for making the decision.

c. Allow time for subordinate planning. The one-third/ two-thirds rule applies not only to OPORDs but also to rehearsals, briefbacks, or any other centralized event that reduces subordinates' preparation time.

d. Assign resources with as few restrictions on employment as possible. The commander allocates assets and support priorities to subordinates, and he specifies only the desired results.

e. Allow maximum freedom of action within the scope of his intent. Because battles develop in unforeseen directions, leaders often must act with incomplete information or instructions. Failure to act quickly can result in a lack of superior combat power at critical times and places. Taking advantage of opportunities to accomplish the mission is allowed, encouraged, expected, and sometimes required. Higher commanders should be informed before action is taken, if feasible.

f. Structure communication to allow subordinates to command well forward. The commander must position himself on the battlefield where he can exert the greatest influence, both through subordinate leaders and directly. At the same time, he must retain the ability to shift the main effort of the battle. The commander can be forward with the lead elements in the command group, or he can be in the main CP. He must be able to command and control all organic and supporting elements equally from either location.

6-9. MISSION ORDERS

AirLand Battle doctrine requires mission tactics. This decentralization provides latitude to subordinates to make decisions rapidly within the framework of the commander's concept and intent.

a. Mission orders address only the required information. They provide the framework of what the commander wants done--not how it is to be done. Such orders need only three important things. First, they must clearly state what the issuing commander wants accomplished. Second, they must address limiting factors that must be observed for coordinating purposes. Third, they must state available resources for the subordinate commander and what support he can expect outside his command.

b. Execution of mission tactics requires initiative, resourcefulness, and imagination. Commanders must be ready to adapt to situations as they are, not as they were expected or desired to be.

c. Subordinate leader initiative is based on mission orders and on the commander's intent, which define

the limits of unit operations. They allow a subordinate to take advantage of opportunities on the battlefield. The subordinate leader is positively aggressive. He asks his commanding officer for information, resources, or revision of plans as needed and stands up for his position when he feels he is right.

d. Subordinate initiative and independence, though encouraged, is limited by the requirements for unity of command, unity of effort, and the commander's intent. Subordinates who feel they must disobey orders due to a perceived change in the situation must accept the responsibility for their actions. The commander's intent must be clearly stated and foremost in the minds of subordinate leaders. To win, subordinate leaders must display initiative, but their initiative must be driven by their understanding of the commander's intent, not by a desire for independent action. For best results, unit actions are synchronized. If independent action is required to meet the commander's intent for the operation, the action is taken--but subordinate leaders must carefully balance the need for synchronized unit action with the changing tactical situation. They must look at the "big picture." Thus initiative and freedom of action are more likely used during an exploitation or pursuit; an independent action during a delay or during a withdrawal under enemy pressure could produce disaster for the entire force.

e. Commanders normally use mission-type orders. However, due to the requirement for synchronization of the overall mission, they must occasionally give subordinates specific instructions on how to accomplish a mission.

6-10. COMMAND RELATIONSHIPS

LIC operations are the result of a plan developed with many US government agencies outside the US military. These agencies can include the Department of State, US Agency for International Development, and the Central Intelligence Agency. The operation has usually been coordinated with allies in the theater. When military force is applied, the CINC responsible for the area of operation directs it. The ground commander is not normally involved in interagency planning; however, he executes the military portion of the decision. For this reason, he must know and understand the relationship the military has with other agencies.

a. US and host nation policy and agreements determine command relationships between US and host nation forces. These relationships are established by government agencies and executed by the military. The interface of civilian and military agencies, and the level of military command responsible for this interface, are key to the on-ground commander in establishing liaison, communication, and intelligence.

b. The ambassador assumes responsibility for US operations, civilian and military, within a country during peace and conflict. He heads a country team that interfaces with civilian and military agencies. The term "country team" describes in-country interdepartmental coordination among the members of the US diplomatic mission. Members ensure US interests and regional and international objectives within a country are efficiently and economically administered. A sample country team organization is provided:

- Ambassador.
- Deputy Chief of Mission; State Department civilian.
- State Department economic representative.
- DAO who reports to the DIA
- Chief of Station with the CIA

- USIA Information Service/PAO.
- Security Assistance Office; CINC defense representative.

c. The JTF interfaces with the senior military defense representation on the country team, who is normally appointed by the CINC. If no JTF has been established, corps, division, or brigade headquarters may be responsible for interfacing with the country team and host nation. (See Figure 6-1. Country team.)

d. Command and control headquarters may be established with the host nation. This includes civilian and security forces such as police, paramilitary, and military. Operations must be coordinated with civilian agencies in a country to ensure no conflict of political and military objectives. Liaison is required with both military and civilian organizations.

e. A JTF is always established for the operation, but a command and control element from the division normally deploys to coordinate with the other services and to provide support to the deployed brigade. This allows the brigade to focus on the control of its assigned/attached forces.

f. PSYOP, Public Affairs, and CA initiatives, in and out of country, are coordinated through the JTF due to their political implications. The brigade performs detailed coordination to ensure that the purpose of current PSYOP and CA efforts are understood. However, PSYOP and CA may influence the planning, preparation, and execution of operations.

g. If a conventional force follows an SOF during a deployment, it should request a liaison before arriving in the operational area. Conventional forces coordinate with SOF through the JTF. However, if a JTF has not been created, SOF should be contacted through the Unified Command Special Operations Command. Before commitment, the brigade or commanding headquarters should send an advance party. If a deployment is in support of combat operations, a relief, passage of lines, or other operation must be planned and coordinated. Commanders can request direct support of SOF from the unified command's SOC, which forms a JSOTF. Also, rangers can be under OPCON with conditions for termination. They normally conduct a relief in place with conventional forces.

Section II.
TASK FORCE ORGANIZATION

Commanders establish their task organization after analyzing the political and METT-T factors. This task organization differs for each LIC category as well as for each mission within each category. Commanders must evaluate the mission against the abilities and limitations of their organic and supporting units. They must develop a clear command and control relationship that encompasses the personnel, equipment, communications, facilities, procedures for gathering and analyzing information, and planning for what must be done. Commanders must supervise the execution of operations and plan for the rapid changeover to combat operations.

6-11. PLANNING A TASK FORCE

The organization of a task force in LIC follows the pattern of a standard military force in terms of command and control. It includes staff support with augmented elements, logistics, and communications. While the command and control for LIC parallels that of a conventional war, there is a distinct difference

in the methods and principles for planning this type of operation.

a. A difference exists in the importance that both higher level commanders and the TF commander place on the political and economic situation they encounter. In conventional war, the military is the principal element of national power used to establish conditions for a political solution. The other elements of political, economic, and psychological power support military objectives. In LIC, the military does not have the lead role. Military power supports political, economic, and psychological objectives. Commanders must understand this basic difference. Therefore, success normally cannot be measured in terms of territory gained, objectives seized, or prisoners captured. This does not reflect progress in solving political, social, or economic problems. Therefore, the political and METT-T factors apply in LIC.

b. In a LIC, commanders emphasize indirect military power. The use of CS and CSS elements is often more effective in achieving political, economic, and psychological goals. This is true as far as engineer, medical service, and materials are concerned.

c. In a LIC campaign, the military does not have the lead role, and commanders coordinate tactical execution with many civilian agencies. However, the ground commander should be involved in interagency planning, because he executes the military portion of the decision. Therefore, he must know and understand the relationship between the military and the other agencies.

d. In a LIC environment, small-unit operations are common. Normally, the brigade, battalion, and company require some reorganizing due to the terrain, threat, and civil and military situations. Task organization should strive for tactical self-sufficiency. This can be done by attaching or placing in DS adequate combat, CS, and CSS elements so that units can perform semi-independent operations. Also, resources for dealing with the civilian population must be provided. This includes CA personnel, PSYOP personnel, interrogators, and other resources from supporting organizations.

6-12. BRIGADE TASK FORCE ORGANIZATION

A brigade task force, internally operating as part of a JTF, normally consists of light, heavy, SOF, or a combination thereof. The brigade can command and control up to five maneuver battalions. The force unit is based on the threat, environment, and type of operation to be conducted. The brigade can expect more CS and CSS units to be attached. Whether employed as a subordinate element of a division or as a separate task force, the brigade must be configured to operate as an independent or semi-independent force.

a. Combat, CS, and CSS units. These units are attached to or placed in support of the brigade, as required by the mission. In independent operations, the emphasis is on attachment. When combat arms, CS, and CSS elements are deployed as part of a light brigade, attachment is emphasized. These units must have enough CSS elements for attachment to be effective.

b. Heavy and Light Maneuver Forces. Both heavy and light maneuver forces have an important role in LIC operations. Normally, the use of a mix of light/heavy forces enhances the abilities of the task force. Each maneuver force has unique characteristics. Based on the threat and mission, a force can be employed to optimize inherent strengths.

c. Battalion Maneuver Elements. The battalion is the basic maneuver element of the brigade. The

command and staff structure is designed to accept augmentation. Due to the decentralized nature of LIC operations, CS and CSS may be attached to, or placed in DS of, the battalion. It can also receive support from host country military, paramilitary, or police units.

d. Maneuver Companies. Companies are the basic maneuver element of the battalion. They must maintain combat readiness regardless of their frequency of contact. This counters a false sense of security that could result from a lack of enemy contact. The leaders within the company must be able to conduct small-scale operations over great distances. They must instill within their soldiers a high level of discipline while maintaining a high state of morale. Soldiers must constantly train for possible contingencies that are based on the mission. They must be kept current on the threat, their relationship with the local government and civilian populace, US civilian personnel/agencies, the situation, their roles, and the reasons for the unit's actions. Maneuver companies require the same combat skills in LIC as in conventional war. However, these skills must be modified to comply with ROE. Other common skills that are required are as follows:

(1) Know how to identify, detect, and clear mines and booby traps.

(2) Know some basic words in the native language.

(3) Understand threat tactics, techniques, and procedures.

(4) Understand the rules of engagement.

(5) Know local inhabitants to include customs, religion, and food and drink habits.

(6) Be cross trained with foreign weapons, communications, and other equipment.

(7) Know how to use nonorganic equipment such as shotguns, boats, and demolitions.

e. Scouts. The scouts are organized, equipped, and trained to conduct reconnaissance, surveillance, and limited security. They can also assist in the control, movement, and positioning of units. The scout platoon is normally employed under battalion control. In addition to their standard missions, the scouts can be tasked--

(1) To man joint checkpoints with host nation personnel.

(2) To conduct combined operations with host nation personnel.

(3) To conduct combined operations with host nation military, paramilitary, and police.

(4) To observe individuals and their movements and actions.

f. Antitank Element. If no armor threat exists, the antitank element can be organized to accomplish other missions. Its employment depends on the transportation assets associated with it. Also, other weapons can be substituted for antitank weapons.

g. Mortar Section. The firing elements normally occupy positions within a fire base. If sections move to firing positions outside of the fire base, the need for security of firing positions must be emphasized. Maneuver elements may provide this security. Commanders should be aware that there will be no-fire areas, restricted fire lines, and restrictions on the type of ammunition.

h. Combat Support Units. The amount and type of support depends on the mission. Some of the types

of support available and techniques of employment are listed herein. (discusses the employment of CS assets.)

(1) *Field artillery*. FA is used to support tactical maneuver units. It also can provide training advice and operational assistance for the employment of artillery and associated functions such as survey meteorology and target acquisition. (See Chapter 7.)

(2) *Aviation units*. Aviation units provide the force with needed airlift to support its activities when deployed as an entity. The organization should include enough personnel and equipment to sustain organizational aircraft maintenance. Personnel, aircraft, and equipment can be employed to train indigenous units and to support PSYOP and military civil action projects. (See Chapter 7.)

(3) *Engineer units*. Engineer units provide needed support to the task force (Table 6-1). All missions of mobility, countermobility, and survivability can be included. Also, engineers can provide training, CS, and operational assistance to indigenous military and paramilitary forces. They can also support military civic action programs that involve construction efforts. When supporting a country's civic action program, engineer units are closely coordinated with USAID and host country personnel. Engineer augmentation from corps can include combat engineers, combat heavy construction elements, or special-purpose teams. These teams can provide well drilling, terrain analysis, construction, bridging, and civic action. (See Chapter 7.)

Table 6-1 Engineer battlefield functions.

(4) *Military police units.* MP units provide support and must be tailored to meet requirements of the task force. Military police units can perform the following tasks:

- Advisory training assistance.
- Combined police operations.
- Enforcement and investigations.
- Police-community relations.
- Police intelligence.
- Populace and resource control.
- Prisoners of war and civilian internees.
- Security.
- Operations security.
- Tactical operations.
- Military working dog operations.

(5) *Civil affairs and psychological operations elements.* US commanders should know that any military action may have psychological implications. Since most Army personnel do not have full knowledge of CA and PSYOP, CA and PSYOP units should be employed to support the operation of US forces.

(6) *Signal unit.* This element must be prepared to coordinate and provide communication means to accomplish the mission and any contingencies. This includes the use of many small-unit operations over a vast area.

- Communication with high levels of command.

- Communication with SOF personnel in the area.
- Communication with local military, paramilitary, and police.

(a) CA personnel and units engage in a variety of activities. Civil-military relations, military civic action, populace and resources control, and care of refugees are important areas for CA (FM 41-10 provides guidance on CA units.)

(b) PSYOP personnel and units support all aspects of nation-building programs. Military PSYOP provide the commander with methods he can use to accomplish his mission. All military operations in LIC should be evaluated in terms of their affect on national and regional PSYOP objectives. Both positive and negative factors must be evaluated to identify PSYOP tasks that contribute to mission accomplishment. (FM 33-1 provides guidance on psychological operations.)

(7) *Long-range surveillance units*. LRSUs can be employed in a LIC. Their ability is the same as conventional conflicts, but a few factors must be considered:

(a) More team movement may be needed to obtain information on the enemy.

(b) Teams may be less oriented toward the guerrilla order of battle and more toward insurgent activity.

(c) The deployment distance may be less and mission duration longer.

(d) Operations are more likely to be about restrictive terrain such as jungles, mountains, and urban areas.

(e) Foot movement may become the dominant method of infiltration.

i. Combat Service Support Units. The amount and type of support depends on the mission. Some of the types of support available and techniques of employment are listed below. (Chapter 8 describes the employment of CSS assets for each LIC category in greater detail.)

(1) *Medical unit*. The medical unit must be tailored to meet the needs of the task force. With some training, the medical unit can provide training and advice to indigenous military forces. It may also assist with military civic action programs.

(2) *Personnel section.* The personnel section operates the same as it does in other types of conflicts. However, it must make adjustments to provide service for units and small detachments in many locations. Morale support activities are of vital importance.

(3) *Chaplain*. The chaplain acts as advisor and consultant to the commander on all matters of religion, morals, and morale as affected by religion. He fosters understanding of the customs, practices, and people in the host country. He coordinates and maintains liaison with local churches, indigenous religious bodies, and religious groups throughout the communal area of responsibility. The chaplain provides unit, area, and denominational ministry for US personnel.

(4) *Finance unit.* The finance unit provides the means to sustain the force with supplies, services, and equipment through its commercial vendor services operation. It also provides support to soldiers through pay account maintenance, check cashing, and currency conversion. This element cooperates and coordinates with the S4, the CA unit and SJA.

(5) *Staff judge advocate*. The SJA is the commander's advisor on all issues of military and international law to include treaties and other international agreements such as SOFA and laws of war. He also advises on US domestic law as it applies to the deployment and activities of US forces abroad. SJA legal services are required when interpreting host country laws and procedures, and in matters relating to the US military relationship with the host country. They are most important in the area of claims, contracting, and construction.

(6) *Provost Marshal*. The provost marshal advises the commander on all aspects of MP capability and employment. He coordinates and maintains liaison with host nation national and paramilitary police forces.

(7) *Public Affairs*. The public affairs officer is a personal staff officer who advises the commander as to the command and public information programs within the command and media relations. Public affairs units are configured and tailored to accomplish various missions and to provide the supported unit with several abilities. They are most important in the areas of command information and media relations.

Section III.
COMMUNICATIONS

The command transmits and receives information and orders by a combination of combat net radio, area communication, and data communication. Commanders must understand the strengths, weaknesses, and limitations of his communications system. In LIC, the CE resources must be tailored to meet the wide operational dispersion and requirements of a unique force. The specific communications means available to a brigade are radio, wire, messenger, sound, and visual. This section discusses the planning considerations in developing a communication plan for predeployment, deployment, employment, and sustainment of a tactical force.

6-13. COMMUNICATION PRIORITY

Since communications are usually limited, failure to set priorities for information may result in a delay. The commander must set the communication priority for his command based on political and METT-T factors. Information can be divided into four distinct types for allocation priority, which are discussed in this paragraph.

a. Intelligence. Exchange of information on threat forces, terrain, and weather between levels and elements of command.

b. Command. Issuance of execution orders or guidance to subordinate commanders.

c. Control. Exchange of information between levels and elements of command to provide dynamic command of fires and maneuver forces.

d. Sustainment. Exchange of logistic information between levels and elements of command.

6-14. PLANNING

Overall mission requirements dictate the task force size and command relationships with other US, allied,

and host country commands. All of these factors influence the communications tasks and systems required to support and sustain operations. Communications planners must backward plan to determine the personnel and equipment needed for the mission. Any constraints, such as lift capability or range limitations, must be applied. Risks must be identified and stated clearly to the commander. In developing the communications plan, planners must consider the certain factors, which are discussed in this paragraph.

a. Due to wide operational dispersion and limitations on FM radio and wire lines, the organic communications ability of tactical units may be reduced. Operations may require that units establish communications with the armed forces of a host country, paramilitary units, and civilian agencies. Therefore, frequency coordination is vital to maintain effective communication. Consideration must also be given to FM retransmission, HF radio, and TAC-SAT to supplement organic communications.

b. Security of communications sites is paramount. They are prime targets for guerrilla, terrorists, and sabotage tactics, as well as coordinated attacks by an insurgent force.

c. In LIC, communications security is of prime importance. It is hard to distinguish the enemy from the ally or when and where the enemy is listening to task force communications. All forces must deny the enemy the opportunity to learn TF intent.

d. Maintenance and resupply of CE elements may present a problem because of unsecured road networks. The following should be considered:

(1) Aerial supply and decentralized maintenance can be accomplished by attaching personnel to the unit area of operations or by using air-transported contact teams.

(2) Adequate supplies, backup equipment, and repair parts should be maintained at the communications sites. If weather or enemy actions prevent air transportation for a few days, supplies are on hand.

e. Communication should be planned considering the following phases.

- Predeployment.
- Deployment.
- Employment.
- Sustainment operations.

f. The brigade or battalion deployed must be prepared to operate as an independent task force. When elements from a signal battalion are attached to a brigade or battalion task force, those elements come under the command and OPCON of the unit's signal officer. The task force signal officer must provide general communication planning, SOI, COMSEC, frequency management, and telephone system planning for the entire task force.

g. Manpack-type radios with long-range capability are main requirements of maneuver battalions. Wire communications are normally used only for internal communication within secure bases. It is vulnerable in nonsecure areas. The force will use MSE from the division signal battalion to provide a usable telephone and teletype area communication system.

h. All command levels should emphasize the use of visual communications. Planned visual signals are most effective for surface-to-surface communications between small units close to each other and for

surface-to-air communication. Panels, smoke, and light (infrared and visible) should be employed.

i. Motor messengers are open to snipers, mines, and roadblocks. They should be employed only in a relatively secure area. Air messengers should be employed. For economy, the force can use aircraft on resupply missions, medical evacuation, or transport missions to deliver messages.

j. Requirements for communications with SOF and host country forces/agencies will be satisfied by exchange of communications equipment, SOI, and liaison personnel.

k. Use of aircraft for many types of missions increases the need for a responsive and reliable air-ground communications system. Any ground unit operating alone must communicate directly with Army air support and tactical Air Force support.

l. Communications aspects of a LIC operation must complement the overall security plans for the operation.

(1) If a cover and deception plan is executed, the communications signature should be radiated with false traffic when nonsecure radio or telephone systems are used. If a cover and deception plan is not executed, preparation and execution of the operation should be employed under radio silence or normal secure radio operation.

(2) All operational communications means should be secure to include commercial telephones and radios. The administrative and logistic planning, routinely discussed as unclassified information, should be secured to avoid disclosure of sensitive plans. During the planning phase, commanders should use couriers. Local phone systems may be used when secured with Minterm, Vinson, or STU-III telephones.

(3) Multichannel and MSE system radios are secure. Total system security, allowing user-to-user security, is ensured only if every wire line and terminal instrument using the multichannel system are physically safeguarded with controlled access. Each commander must ensure his area of responsibility is secure, otherwise the entire system is declared nonsecure. A nonsecure system, such as a local telephone network or AUTOVON circuit, should not interface with the secure system without proper controls in place to ensure system security is not compromised.

m. Commanders use deception to mislead the enemy by manipulation, distortion, or falsification of information, which causes the enemy to act in a way prejudicial to his interests. (See FM 90-2 for a discussion on the use of deception.) In LIC, deception planning is integral to operational planning. However, it is difficult due to continual liaison with host nation elements. Detailed information on operations are always subject to compromise.

6-15. COMMUNICATIONS MEANS AND CHARACTERISTICS

Planners must include adequate redundant and multiple communications systems in unit movement plans to ensure reliable communications in the deployment area.

a. Table 6-2 shows a matrix of communications means and characteristics.

(1) The combat net radio (CNR) secure single-channel radio provides the most responsive means of communications on the battlefield. It allows direct voice communications between personnel using highly mobile communications terminals. Each system provides unique characteristics that

complement each other by including various combinations of range, threat ECM vulnerability, and inherent reliability. The types include UHF/TACSAT, VHF/FM, and HF/SSB. Also, these radios support data system operations such as TACFIRE The RATT systems support transmission of hard copy messages. Careful use of unsecured radios reduces the intelligence value of transmitted information. Handheld commercial radios are vulnerable to interception and exploitation; they must be secured if used to support any phase of an operation.

(2) The area communication system provides the user with high capacity, supporting a multitude of users with voice, data traffic, and facsimile. Secure line-of-sight radio links interconnect switching facilities that can also accommodate and integrate with single-channel CNR (net radio interface). Local and remote radio access units allow for mobile telephone use. The available systems are restricted to LOS operations, with a limited number of relays available to overcome terrain obstacles or to extend system range.

(3) Long wire lines are not practical when rapid and frequent CP movesare planned. However, local wire networks are required to install telephones and facsimiles in local CP areas.

(4) The courier is the most secure means of communication in a high-threat EW environment. If messenger service is required over long distances or for crucial messages, the commander requests an aircraft from division assets.

b. The choice of communications means depends on the available means that interconnects the desired locations, the urgency of the message, and the risk involved. One of the facets of the division is its ability to operate over vast distances and rugged terrain. This usually requires the use of NLOS communications. The only NLOS systems available are single-channel, multichannel TACSAT terminals, and HF/SSB radios. These systems are open to threat ECM activity. HF/SSB radios depend on favorable atmospheric conditions and sunspot activity level, combined with strict frequency management techniques. TACSAT systems are limited in both terminal and space segment.

c. The most available and commonly used tactical communications system is the VHF/FM radio. Although this system is constrained by distance, larger units have at least one retransmission system. A strategically located retransmission unit, either air or ground, can overcome terrain masks and extend the radio net operating range. Also, units may use communications windows or report by exception. A frequency-hopping operation provides ECCM capability.

d. Command and Control Console (AN/ASC-15B). This console contains three radios VHF/UHF-FM/AM satellite communication/ HAVEQUICK/Maritime band capability and one HF/SSB radio. The radios are securable with on-line encryption devices. The console is interoperable with Air Force, Navy, and Coast Guard radios and is installed on UH 60 and UH-1 helicopters. The system contains a map board, work table, generator, and ground antennas for operation when dismounted from the aircraft. At present, there is no SINCGARS frequency-hopping capability. For additional information see Table 6-3 (AN/ASC-15B console components.).

6-16. FREQUENCY SUPPORT

ITU regulations guide frequency support for US forces in a foreign host nation. The host nation, also guided by ITU regulations, assigns and controls frequencies.

a. US forces have no rights to any part of the frequency spectrum other than those authorized by host nation assignments. Frequency assignments contain authorizations as well as limitations. Misuse of such assignments or use of unassigned frequencies can cause interference to authorized users, danger to life and property, and embarrassment to the US government and the respective host nation.

b. The senior US military signal officer in a foreign country obtains frequency support from the host nation. The host nation usually provides a frequency assignment list. Requests for frequencies are submitted through the signal chain.

6-17. PREDEPLOYMENT COMMUNICATIONS

Deploying units and supporting organizations must take advantage of the existing CONUS TDA and commercial infrastructure (in-place systems). They must reduce exposure of tactical communications to intercept. At this phase, the use of AUTOSEVOCOM or locally secured telephones, teletypewriter/data (AUTODIN), and couriers must be emphasized. These combine to protect the security of the planned operation and to free tactical communications systems for deployment.

a. Table 6-4 contrasts predeployment missions and possible communications means.

b. TACSAT terminals should not be committed for administrative communications unless they can be quickly recovered and redeployed. These limited assets are vital in the initial deployment and employment phases. This is due to their high mobility and ease of operation in most worldwide locations.

c. Planners must consider provisions for external support. This support provides access into the DCS or DTS in the deployment area if elements of the division are deploying. The DTS interfaces with the DCS, allowing the exchange of both secure voice and teletype/data traffic. Also, the embassy or consulate can assist with the local telephone system in the deployment area. Existing tactical communications systems, with the exception of the UHF/TACSAT, do not have enough range to communicate out of many contingency deployment areas. Forces could deploy to an area where even the UHF/TACSAT radio cannot communicate directly back to CONUS.

6-18. DEPLOYMENT COMMUNICATIONS

Planners must identify mission capability packages as mission planning develops. Deployment by increments may be required based on mission needs and lift constraints (Table 6-5). The communications system packages must be complete for mission accomplishment. For example, the system must include the basic radio, prime mover, generator, and operators; otherwise, any isolated part is useless. Sustained operations include a maintenance package; a combination of replacement parts, repair parts, tools, and maintenance facility; and trained personnel.

Table 6-5. Deployment missions and communications means.

a. Combat forces are most vulnerable during the initial phase of tactical deployment. This phase is the process of assembling, uploading, and preparing for combat.

b. Commanders deploy communications equipment forward to ensure essential command, control, and intelligence communications are available upon arrival.

c. The existing infrastructure should continue to be exploited as much as possible. This frees the tactical

communications systems to deploy forward with the combat forces, aiding the changeover to tactical operations.

d. Secure en route communications packages (SECOMP) aboard MAC aircraft allow commanders to receive updates while the aircraft are en route to the objective area.

e. USAF ABCCC aircraft can provide initial command and control communications to a deployed task force. These scarce assets usually support joint headquarters deployments.

f. OPSEC is the key to survival as relays or any isolated signal elements are deployed. Where possible, deploying teams should move only during periods of limited visibility. They should have camouflage systems installed before direct or overhead observation occurs. Resupply vehicles and routes should be concealed. Failure to observe OPSEC leaves these small teams open to hostile action. This also simplifies hostile correlation of data on friendly force deployments.

6-19. EMPLOYMENT COMMUNICATIONS

US forces should continue the use of existing communication infrastructure to include both US and host nation assets. Division communications assets augment the task force as required. A task force deployed separately can expect to be supported by long-range communications systems from the division signal battalion, if available. However, each brigade and battalion must be prepared to provide long-range communications using organic HF radio systems. Host nation military and commercial interests in the contingency areas make constant and extensive use of HF radio systems (Table 6-6 Employment missions and communication means).

a. A separate battalion task force deploys with organic manpack VHF/FM and limited vehicular-mounted VHM/FM and HF/SSB radio sets. It is deployed as either the initial combat element of a larger force or as a small force tailored for a short duration and limited mission. If required by the mission, one or two TACSAT teams from the division signal battalion are attached to the task force.

b. Wire should be used to interconnect local elements within CP areas, but long wire lines should be avoided. Long wire lines may be monitored, and their installation is time-consuming. The resulting lines may be destroyed by vandals, track vehicles, or hostile forces. If any wire line is extended outside of a secure area, then the entire telephone network must be considered nonsecure.

c. Division CP supports deployment of a brigade task force to provide added communications and logistic and personnel support. If appropriate, the division CP controls base area operations. The division CP includes a task force signal officer. The signal officer provides signal planning and technical support either directly or through coordination with a supporting signal element. The division task force signal officer exercises command and OPCON of all deployed signal battalion elements.

6-20. SUSTAINMENT OF OPERATIONS COMMUNICATION

Communications and COMSEC DS maintenance facilities must be deployed in OSBs to ensure reliable operation of a secure communications system. Development is essential of supporting high-capacity communications for the logistics base and high-capacity systems linking that base and the deployed division. An expanded base communications system and DCS access are required to support sustaining operations. The communications system includes the use of the local infrastructure on a contract basis.

Section IV.
INTELLIGENCE PREPARATION OF THE BATTLEFIELD

IPB and the intelligence cycle are the cornerstones for successful LIC operations. It can help the commander determine who the enemy is, what his abilities are, and where he can be found. It also serves as the planning basis for creating the unit's concept of operations and for allocating combat power as reflected in the unit's organization for combat. The IPB process examines five areas (see FM 34-130). This section discusses these areas in relationship to each other and the estimates of the situation. The data to be developed and compiled vary with the intensity of the battlefield area evaluation and commander's intent. The types of overlays and categories of subjects plotted vary according to mission needs. Using a graphic keying system and color scheme on large-scale maps aids data analysis when using transparent overlays. A modified form of IPB can be used to graphically portray the intelligence estimate to the commander in a LIC situation. It stems from three crucial factors inherent to most LIC battlefields. The intelligence cycle includes the following:

- Directing: PIR, IR
- Collecting: Collection plans,IPB
- Processing: Transfer information into intelligence
- Disseminating: Aids in the tactical decision process
- The nature of the LIC threat.
- The importance and welfare of the civilian population.
- The role of the host nation government and military.

6-21. CRITICAL FACTORS

Critical factors that must be considered not only include the threat but also the civilian population and host nation.

a. Threat. The threat may blend with the population. He can also use a variety of tactics and levels of violence to accomplish his goals (propaganda, terrorism, guerrilla tactics, crime, and so forth). Building a threat model is key to the IPB process. In LIC, the threat model must be developed based on the situation and geographic area of concern. PIR/IR can include--

(1) The identity, location, and political predispositions of individuals.

(2) Those policies that can influence certain elements and individuals to support the US forces.

b. Civilian Population. The main focus of LIC operations is the control and support of the people. Constant awareness of the population factor is crucial to the long-term success of LIC operations. FID missions involve combat, CS, and CSS operations near host nation civilians. Main objectives of these operations are to protect and secure the population and to separate them from the insurgent. These efforts place heavy constraints on the careless use of weapons and require well-managed use of force. Key to effective application of force in LIC is a detailed analysis of the civilian population during IPB. Operations deemphasize support to indirect fire or air-delivered weapons. Intelligence operations and small-unit action are preferred. Political action is always the first option, then military.

c. Host Nation Government and Military. Success lies with the host nation. Host nation civil and

military authorities are mainly responsible for military operations, CA, PSYOP, and population/resource control. US forces avoid these tasks but may be required to provide advice or backup. Maintaining the legitimacy of the host nation government is vital. Also, knowledge of the host nation's military tactics, operations, and intelligence functions and their capabilities are crucial for effective integration of a US military effort.

6-22. REQUIREMENTS

Most intelligence requirements can be met with IPC, especially in the planning phase. The IPB process in low-intensity conflict is the same as in mid- or high-intensity conflict. It is still a five-function process whereby the S2 considers the METT-T factors to fulfill the commander's PIR/IRs (Figure 6-2.). However, each operational category consists of a unique combination of critical factors or data, which are included in the battlefield area evaluation function of IPB. The particular LIC operational category or mission also influences how the other four IPB functions process the data. The final product of the IPB process is an intelligence estimate in graphic form that meets the commander's PIR/IRs. The following paragraphs are detailed instructions on how to perform IPB in support of a LIC. (For additional information, see FM 34-130.)

Figure 6-2. Intelligence preparation battlefield process.

6-23. BATTLEFIELD AREA EVALUATION

During this function, the analyst begins to collect data to meet basic intelligence requirements in five areas: political, economic, social-geographic (demographic), military, and threat intelligence. Host nation and population tactics are developed along with the weather, enemy, and terrain data. This basic intelligence must be tailored to the specific battlefield area. During this function, specific areas of operations and interest are determined. As in mid- and high-intensity conflicts, the next-higher headquarters designates LIC areas of operations. These areas of operations represent where the commander has the authority and responsibility to conduct operations. The commander determines the areas of interest based upon the recommendation of the S2. Both areas are analyzed with respect to political and METT-T factors. However, in LIC, evaluation of both areas is also vital to host nation civilian or military activity.

6-24. TERRAIN ANALYSIS

Since enemy forces are normally fewer in number and lack sophisticated logistics backing, they avoid positional warfare. They also avoid seizing, controlling, or defending conventional key terrain. One of the enemies greatest assets is rapid foot movement across difficult terrain. Therefore, traditional combined obstacles overlays have limited bearing on the analysis of threat movement. The most important aspects of the terrain to the enemy are those that provide logistic support and security. Terrain analysis requires detailed analysis of historical and current aerial imagery, along with intelligence reports.

a. Cover and Concealment. An enemy cover and concealment overlay is prepared. It identifies areas the enemy can use for cover and concealment to protect them from aerial reconnaissance. Such areas offer rugged terrain or dense vegetation. Key terrain favors the defense and covers withdrawals. As with conventional IPB, the canopy closure overlay identifies areas that offer concealment from aerial

observation or from elevated points of terrain. The effectiveness of a canopy closure varies with the seasons.

b. Key Terrain. Although the definition of key terrain remains the same in LIC operations as in other military operations, selection criteria differ. In LIC operations, the selection of key terrain is influenced by the local populace and logistic resources in the area. The S2 must be aware of these matters and how they affect the use of the area of operations by both friendly and enemy forces.

(1) The population is the "key terrain" in LIC. It can provide both support and security to the enemy and can represent the only terrain feature that must be seized, controlled, or defended. With the proper data base and collection effort, the S2 can begin classifying the population in the battlefield area into logical groups (tribal, religious, ethnic, political, and so forth). Their affinities, loyalties, and susceptibilities to enemy and friendly propaganda can be evaluated, graphically portrayed, maintained, and updated using the population status overlay. The S2 normally relies on higher headquarters and host nation and US civilian agencies for this information.

(2) Enemy logistic sustainment includes not only availability of arms, ammunition, and demolition materials, but also other supplies. An overlay is prepared to identify areas that provide water and food to the enemy, that provide easy access to such supplies, or where no such supplies are available. Of special interest are the locations of all small settlements and farms in or near suspected enemy areas (within one day's journey) that may provide food and act as outposts. If guerrillas are known or suspected to have contact with regular enemy forces, units should plot locations of areas suitable for airdrops, or for boat or submarine rendezvous; and roads/trails leading into enemy-held areas or neutral countries friendly to the enemy. Medical supplies are often in demand by an enemy force. Therefore, the area or locality of such supplies may be key terrain. This is due to the advantages the seizure or control would provide to the enemy and that its denial to the enemy would provide the friendly force.

(3) Some localities may have no tactical significance. They may, however, have a psychological or political significance such as a provincial or district seat of government. These localities are considered key terrain. Other localities include the birthplace of a national hero or a religious shrine. The enemy may defend it, avoid military actions near it, or use US presence for PSYOP purposes.

c. Avenues of Approach. Avenues of approach are identified after considering other military aspects of terrain. This is the same as in conventional operations.

(1) The road/trail overlay highlights roads and trails in the operational area. Units should be aware of lines of communication that are in potential enemy areas, that support a potential enemy area, or that are new. Many times aerial imagery can find new trails by discovering destroyed vegetation or by comparing current with past imagery. Special consideration should be given to the following:

(a) Roads and trails approaching suspected or possible insurgent areas.

(b) Principal roads and trails traversing and passing along the outside of suspected insurgent areas.

(c) Principal routes connecting separate insurgent areas.

(d) Roads and trails near friendly installations and lines of communication.

(e) Location of fords, bridges, and ferries across rivers; seasons of the year when rivers are in the flood stage.

(f) Location of water points.

(g) Navigable waterways.

(h) Subterranean routes such as sewers and subways.

(2) The bulk of friendly operations is that of small-unit actions. Enemy actions involving company-size and larger units are the exception rather than the rule. Therefore, the citerion for identifying avenues of approach with adequate maneuver space is changed. Both the brigade and battalion S2s must be concerned with identifying and analyzing platoon-, section-, and squad-size avenues of approach (including subterranean) into areas and installations defended by their units, and into objective areas.

(3) Since the brigade or battalion may often conduct semi-independent or combined operations, S2s must identify, select, and recommend not only ground avenues of approach but also air and water avenues. In each case, the principles of terrain analysis apply, with emphasis on the details of terrain required for small-unit operations. All avenues of approach should be considered even if the terrain seems impassable. In fact, those avenues of approach over hard and impassable terrain normally offer the greatest opportunity for achieving surprise by friendly forces. General avenues of approach can be identified by studying the avenues of approach overlay. Usually, personnel or supplies may move through areas where the population is sympathetic to the enemy.

d. Named Areas of Interest. The combination of overlays for population, enemy cover and concealment, canopy closure, and logistic sustainability identifies those areas where enemy elements are likely to operate. Areas that provide cover and concealment, a friendly or neutral population, and ready access to supplies are likely to support the enemy. They can become NAIs to confirm or deny enemy presence in the area or, with other indicators, to determine his intentions. Where areas of population or logistic support are well separated from areas of cover and concealment, the enemy may move between the them. The next step is to identify potential enemy targets.

e. Trap Overlay. The trap overlay identifies those targets the enemy may find attractive to sabotage, mine, booby trap, or attack. These may include bridges, power stations, transmission lines, sites that favor ambushes, or likely kidnap targets. Such areas are marked on the map emphasizing possible enemy access and escape routes. The trap overlay may be combined with the logistic sustainability overlay to form a completed picture of the situation.

6-25. WEATHER ANALYSIS

The same weather considerations and overlays apply to LIC as to mid- and high-intensity conflict. For example, weather effects on observation and fields of fire, camouflage, helicopter LZs and LOS, and radio/radar equipment still apply.

a. The S2 must have knowledge of climatic conditions and short-duration weather forecasts. This is vital in his accurately determining weather effects on the unit mission. In the areas of extreme seasonal climatic change, terrain intelligence produced during one season may be useless in another. Therefore, climatic weather and terrain intelligence must be constantly produced and reviewed to ensure it is

current.

b. The nature of LIC tactics may involve frequent combat action at short ranges. Therefore, knowledge of the effects of the weather and natural illumination on visibility is crucial to planning and conducting operations. The S2 must try to determine the exact visibility conditions at certain times of the day in certain types of terrain.

c. Mobility is vital to both enemy and friendly force offensive operations. Therefore, knowledge of the effects of the weather on trafficability will have great bearing on the timing and nature of operations. Normally, the enemy will rely on foot movement, small watercraft, and animal transport. Therefore, the effects of the weather on wheel and track trafficability and on air and amphibious mobility are more significant to the counterinsurgent force. Adverse weather conditions often hinder the friendly forces more than their enemy; however, the flooding of rivers and streams, and the creation of swamps and marshes greatly reduce the enemy's ability to withdraw.

d. Other S2 weather considerations include the following:

(1) The enemy normally uses poor weather conditions or darkness to their tactical advantage. These conditions reduce the effect of government force observation, direct fire, air support, and artillery--all factors that a friendly force has to its advantage.

(2) Weather can affect the availability of food supplies such as crops and livestock. Growing seasons, crop life cycles, and harvesting constraints must all be considered.

(3) The enemy has problems in caching supplies in areas that flood often.

(4) Mass demonstrations are planned for periods of forecasted good weather to ensure maximum participation.

(5) CA projects and PSYOP media may be degraded by poor weather conditions. Poor weather can degrade already bad road networks, which are common in active enemy areas.

6-26. THREAT EVALUATION

Threat evaluation for LIC must start early and include a wide range of factors to build an accurate threat model. These factors involve all aspects of leadership, objectives, organization, tactics, external support, timing, and environment related to enemy involvement. Doctrinal templates normally developed during the threat evaluation function are not feasible in LIC. Therefore, doctrinal templates do not apply to enemy tactics. During the threat evaluation, units should try to identify the enemy's patterns of operation and tactics, and specific targets to exploit during threat integration.

a. Threat Database. The S2 collects information from all available sources, including host nation assets. The first step in collecting information on the enemy infrastructure is to study the enemy's organization and tactics. He should also study a specific element against which his unit could be engaged. The effect of the S2's planning and direction of the collection effort, his processing of information, and his use of intelligence in his estimate all depend on how familiar he is with enemy tactics and techniques. DIA country studies, both classified and unclassified, will help the G2/S2 find the information he needs to expand the database.

(1) *Enemy.* Enemy tactics are usually characterized by small-scale operations, although they retain

the ability to mass company- and battalionsize units. The enemy can conduct these operations over an extensive area with hit-and-run offensive techniques and with withdrawal and dispersion instead of terrain defense. He may be able to attack, defend, withdraw, and reinforce. Therefore, commanders must consider all enemy information and intelligence.

(2) *Strength.* Enemy forces may be accounted for in terms of military units (that is, cells, squads, sections, platoons). However, his organizational structure must be known. This structure provides useful information to guide the commander and other staff members. If not known, enemy strength can be accounted for in terms of total numbers or numbers of units in each location. All crew-served weapons, armor vehicles, artillery fires, and aircraft are accounted for individually.

(3) *Personality files.* Personality files should be maintained on enemy commanders and on members of the underground and civilian support. All names and data are collected on persons likely to be connected with the resistance movement. This includes persons known to adhere to the philosophy of the resistance movement, former members of the armed forces, and all persons with strong leadership abilities. The names and locations are obtained of sweethearts, relatives, and friends of insurgents and underground members. These persons are valuable as sources of information and as bait to trap visiting enemy personnel. In communities friendly to the enemy, certain persons are responsible for collecting food and other aid, and for furnishing message centers and safe houses. These persons must be discovered; however, they should not be arrested immediately but should be watched for their activities and contacts. Enemy couriers should be apprehended.

b. Evaluation of Threat Capabilities. After collecting the available enemy information, the S2 evaluates what the enemy can actually do. He must judge whether or not the enemy can--

- Conduct sabotage and, if so, to what extent.
- Collect intelligence.
- Use mines and booby traps.
- Attack defended positions.
- Directly engage government forces.
- Sponsor public demonstrations.
- Conduct large scale military operations.
- Conduct acts of terrorism.

c. Situation Map. The S2 prepares the enemy situation map during this portion of the IPB. This map includes all the permanent information available on the enemy. Information such as enemy camp locations, unit operating areas or boundaries, and trails. The map is modified as the enemy moves and his abilities change.

d. Incident Map. Much of the information used to prepare and update the enemy SITMAP is based on the incident map. Depending on the amount of activity in an area, the incident map overlay can be laid over the SITMAP for immediate comparison.

e. Population Database. The S2 reexamines the local civilian population. Although the population is not a threat, a clear understanding of it is needed beyond that of the population status overlay. The S2 gathers all the data available on local culture, customs, and economics. He can use other factors to evaluate how

to gain the confidence of the civilian population or the effects of operations in the area.

6-27. THREAT INTEGRATION

Threat integration relates enemy doctrine to the terrain, weather, and population. Commanders use it to determine what type of operation the enemy might conduct, and when and where it will occur.

a. Situational Templates. Since there is no doctrinal template for IPB in LIC, the situational template is based on types of activity, and when and where they will occur. This information is based on what is known about thelocal enemy's capabilities, and trends that indicate where and how he operates.

(1) The first step is to identify the key action or series of missions the enemy may want to conduct (sabotage, direct attack, disruption of the economy, and so forth). Each mission requires different types of weapons, training, and tactics. These prerequisites for and indicators of enemy actions are then templated.

(2) For example, a situational template to analyze a possible enemy attack against a defended point would require the following:

(a) Key terrain providing observation on the target area.

(b) Ambush points on friendly avenues of approach into the area.

(c) Possible assault positions.

(d) Possible locations for mortars within range of the target.

(e) Enemy routes into assault positions or near targets.

(f) Enemy escape routes after the attack.

(3) Activity indicators before the attack could include:

(a) Increased caching.

(b) Increased enemy movement.

(c) Increased sighting of enemy personnel in area.

(d) Reoccupation or reverification of established camps within one to two days' march of the target.

(4) In preparing a situational template for the enemy's abilities, the enemy often performs multiple types of activities within an area. Only through pattern analysis can the S2 identify the enemy's emphasis.

b. Event Template. Situational templating provides the basis for event templating. This involves identifying and analyzing major battlefield events and enemy activities that provide indicators of probable enemy courses of action. NAIs are identified through terrain analysis and situational templating. From the trap map, NAIs are potential ambush points the enemy may use. By combining the cover and concealment, logistic support, and population status overlays, potential enemy camps in the area can be identified that are also NAIs From the situational template, routes, terrain features, or enemy camps in the area become NAIs.

c. Target Areas of Interest. As with the doctrinal template, the decision support template will not be used. However, TAI, based on NAI, are important. For example, an S2 whose unit is moving along a road will already have potential ambush points identified as NAI. These points are targeted by collection assets before and during movement. They have also been coordinated as TAI with the FSO and S3. If potential enemy activity is identified with a TAI, the commander decides how to deal with it. The activity must be confirmed as enemy related--not civilian related.

d. Target Value Analysis. TVA is also accomplished during this phase. HVTs are identified, which can include CPs and logistic elements. An evaluation of specific enemy capabilities is directly related to identifying HVTs. For example, if the sabotage threat is high, HVTs would be locations of explosives or areas where sabotage training is conducted. Persons can also be HVTs. These include persons whose death or capture would degrade the enemy group's leadership, espionage, population control, or operational abilities.

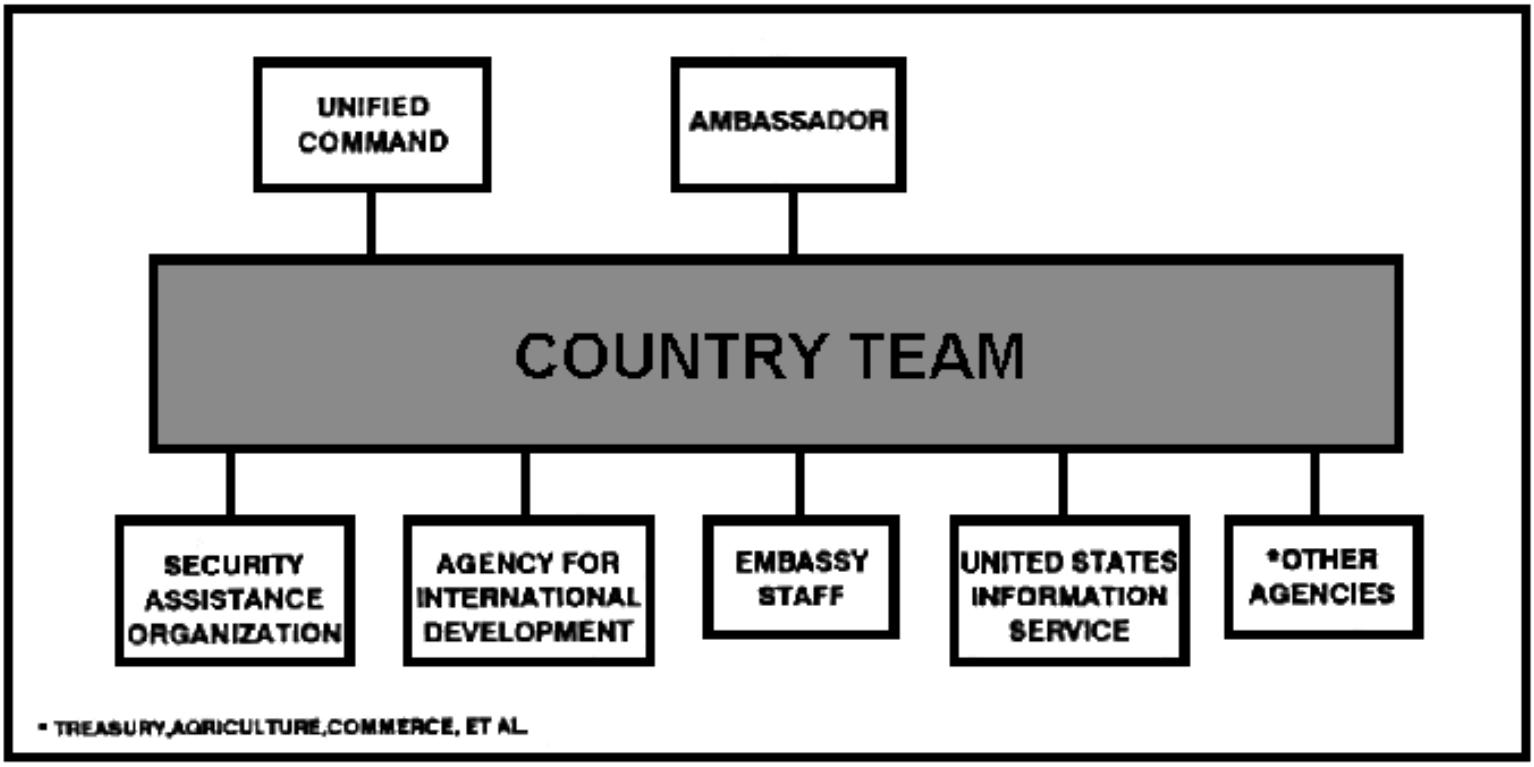

Figure 6-1. Country team.

MOBILITY	CONTERMOBILITY	SURVIVABILITY	SUSTAINMENT ENGINEERING	TOPOGRAPHICAL ENGINEERING
• Countermine/ Counter obstacle	• Mine systems	• Fighting positions	• Lines of communication construction and repair	• Terrain analysis
• Gap crossing	• Obstacle development	• Protective emplacements	• Logistics facilities support	• Map production
• Combat roads/trails		• Protected support facilities	• Area damage control	• Precision surveys
• Forward aviation combat engineering		• Camouflage	• Construction materials production	

Table 6-1. Engineer battlefield functions.

SYSTEM	SECURE	ECCM	RANGE	MOBILE
UHF TACSAT	YES	JAM	NLOS	MANPACK
VHF/FM	SOME	JAM/DF	LOS	MANPACK
HF/SSB	SOME	JAM/DF	LOS	MANPACK AND TRUCK
RATT	YES	JAM/DF	NLOS	MANPACK AND TRUCK
MCHAN TACSAT	YES	SOME	NLOS	TRUCK
MCHAN LOS	YES	YES	LOS	TRUCK
WIRE	NO	YES	SHORT	NO
COURIER	YES	YES	TIME LIMITED	AIR OR GROUND

Table 6-2. Communications means and characteristics.

INTEROPERABILITY	3 Multiband radio & control heads (Single-Channel FM, VHF, UHF) 2 Havequick control heads
NOE COMMUNICATIONS	SATCOM (UHF single channel) 1 HF radio and control head 2 60-Watt power amplifiers (FM) 2 IFM control heads
SECURE	3 Vinson Crypto devices 1 MINTERM (HF) Crypto device
OPERATOR FEATURES	6 ICS control heads 1 Light dimmer control 1 Eight-day clock
TOC OPERATIONS	Generator & Ground antennas Mapboard & 3 ICS

Table 6-3. AN/ASC-15B console components.

MISSIONS	COMMUNICATION MEANS
Control of outload	Secure commercial and TDA radios & telephones, WWMCCS ADP, AUTOSEVOCOM, AUTODIN, COURIER
Coordination of communications requirements in deployment area	Secure commercial and TDA radios & telephones, WWMCCS ADP, AUTOSEVOCOM, AUTODIN, COURIER
Coordination of logistics support in deployment area	Secure commercial and TDA radios & telephones, WWMCCS ADP, AUTOSEVOCOM, AUTODIN, COURIER
Intelligence on deployment routes & deployment area	Secure commercial and TDA radios & telephones, WWMCCS ADP, AUTOSEVOCOM, AUTODIN, COURIER

Table 6-4. Predeployment missions and communication means.

MISSIONS	COMMUNICATIONS MEANS
En route control of self-deploying aircraft	Aeronautical stations, HF/SSB, SECOMP
Control of arrival area	UHF/TACSAT, SECOMP
Arrival area local C2	VHF/FM (SINCGARS), HF/SSB (IHFR), RATT, EPLRS, Local Area Infrastructure, MSE
Coordination of logistics flow and prepositioning	UHF/TACSAT, MSE, Multichannel TACSAT, HF DCS entry

Table 6-5. Deployment missions and communications means.

MISSIONS	COMMUNICATIONS MEANS
Tactical Command & Control of Combat Operations	VHF/FM (SINCGARS), HF/SSB (IHFR) UHF/TASCAT, MSE
Combat Intelligence Reports	VHF/FM (SINCGARS), HF/SSB, UHF/TACSAT, plus RATT & MSE
Strategic Intelligence Reports	UHF/TACSAT, Multichannel TACSAT, HF DCS entry, Corps Communications System
Staff Coordination & Reports	Multichannel Telephone & FAX, RATT, MSE
Logistical Requests	Multichannel Telephone & FAX, RATT, MSE

Table 6-6. Employment missions and communication means.

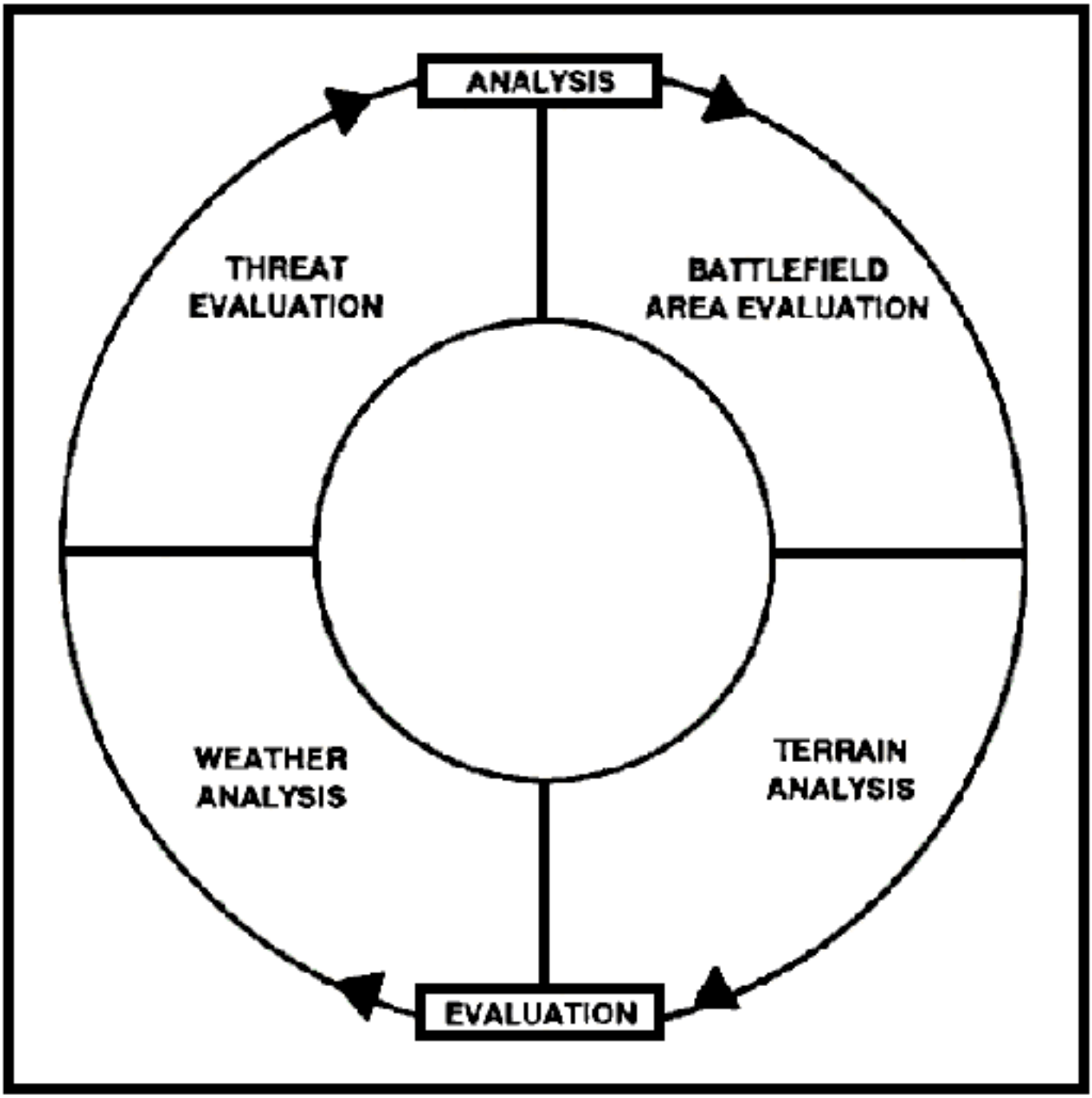

Figure 6-2. Intelligence preparation of the battlefield process.

CHAPTER 7

COMBAT SUPPORT

"There are five methods of attacking with fire. The first is to burn personnel; the second, to burn stores; the third, to burn equipment; the fourth, to burn arsenals; and the fifth, to use incendiary missiles."

Sun Tzu

The Art of War

In all four LIC categories, leaders must modify the TTPs of supporting operations. They must base the use of combat and CS elements on the political and METT-T factors. This chapter provides information for planning and using combat and CS elements. It emphasizes tactical operations but includes techniques of employment for each category. This chapter also discusses fire support planning, engineer support, Army aviation support, MI support, MP support, signal support, PSYOP, CA operations, and NBC operations.

Section I.
FIRE SUPPORT

The main factors in planning fire support are the restrictions on its use. In LIC environments, restrictions are greater than in conventional conflicts. The commander integrates his fire support into his tactical plan IAW those restrictions. This normally limits the use of fire support. However, the commander ensures fire support for possible contingencies.

7-1. PLANNING

Commanders should apply the fire support planning principles listed in FM 6-20, but they should also consider the following when planning for a low-intensity conflict.

a. Plan early and continuously.

(1) Obtain commander's guidance. Normally restrictive in nature, the FSCOORD must translate this guidance to determine where, what, and how fire support can support his guidance. Host nation rules and political implications greatly influence the commander's guidance and therefore fire support actions.

(2) Identify or request appropriate fire support assets. Based upon the commander's guidance, compare the capabilities and limitations of each of the assets to obtain a best solution.

(3) Identify or establish liaison requirements. To ensure proper planning with accurate information

and expertise, acquire the needed personnel with the background and experience.

(4) Update the plan continuously. The nature of LIC is one of constant change. Some of the factors include--

- Rules of engagement.
- Change in the threat (change in loyalties and political alignment).
- Weather.
- Deployment status.
- Personnel changes (enemy and friendly).
- Tactical situation (unit locations, patrol routes).

b. Follow the commander's targeting guidance.

(1) Detail guidance. ROE and other restrictions require detailed and well-disseminated guidance. The guidance must also be in a simple format so that it can be understood at the lowest level.

(2) Identify possible high-payoff targets (HPT) for fire support engagement. Tie assets to possible targets.

(3) Place restrictions on certain types of munitions (FASCAM, WP, smoke, illumination).

c. Exploit all available targeting assets.

(1) Include all information sources in the fire support plan (HUMINT, EW, RADAR, RECON FLIGHTS).

(2) Consider the timeliness of the targeting source especially for the small-size target and fleeting nature of targets associated with LIC.

(3) Consider target location error and reliability of the targeting assets.

d. Consider the use of all available fire support means, both lethal and nonlethal.

(1) Understand the commander's intent and guidance. In a LIC environment using the minimum-essential force means balancing the expected effects with the collateral damage associated with asset. Other considerations include the following:

- Range/deflection probable errors.
- Bursting radius.
- Target location error.
- Target verification.
- Response time.
- Gun-target line.
- Minimum safe distances.
- Political implications of damage (using WP in a dry environment may cause fires that could burn an entire village or crop).

(2) Consider nonlethal means.

e. Use the lowest echelon that can provide effective support.

(1) In a LIC environment, the nonlinear battlefield requires responsive and seemingly decentralized fire support execution. However, centralized planning due to ROE and political restraints, as well as possible clearance procedures, may not support typical decentralized fire support coordination. For example, guidance that all indirect fires may have to be cleared by battalion or brigade would include 60-mm mortars at company level. However, this type of guidance implies a higher level of coordination when compared to the level of employment.

(2) To provide the fire support umbrella, many of the assets may have to be positioned throughout the area of operations. This may require decentralized operations as well as delineating nonstandard missions.

f. Furnish the type of support requested. Dissemination of the commander's guidance to the lowest level is vital. Otherwise, FSCOORDs may have to disapprove or modify the request for a specific fire support asset.

g. Avoid duplication of fire support. The FSCOORD must ensure duplications of fire support are resolved and that only the minimum force needed for the desired effects is used.

h. Consider airspace coordination.

(1) Establish a liaison with the A2C2 element. Consider civilian aircraft and flight routes.

(2) Identify liaison requirements such as the ANGLICO and Air Force liaison officer.

(3) Include restrictions such as flying at night and the use of informal ACA.

i. Provide adequate fire support. Advise the maneuver commander when fire support assets do not meet his guidance. It is imperative that the FSCOORDs recommend other solutions.

j. Provide rapid and effective coordination.

(1) Disseminate clearance procedures and ROE to the lowest level.

(2) Monitor and update fire support coordination measures (FSCM) constantly.

(3) Adhere to host nation rules.

(4) Inform liaison personnel as to procedures and ROE.

k. Provide for flexibility.

(1) Provide mutual support for indirect fires.

(2) Provide backup assets for unfavorable weather conditions.

(3) Position indirect assets for a 6400-mil capability.

(4) Consider backup communications procedures.

(5) Know limitations based upon terrain characteristics and adapt accordingly (such as adjustment by sound in the jungle).

l. Provide for safeguarding and survivability of friendly forces and installations.

(1) Consider integrating maneuver and fire support assets on a fire support base for mutual defense.

(2) Formulate FSCMs that provide safeguards (such as no-fire areas and restrictive fire areas).

7-2. ARTILLERY UNITS

The application of firepower must always reflect the principle of minimum-essential force. FA support normally provided to light infantry divisions includes the 105-mm howitzer. FA units in the division artillery provide weapons of larger calibers. If the supported unit is not light infantry, its organic assets consist of 155-mm howitzers. Artillery batteries normally operate from the battalion operational base when widely dispersed. FA missions include DS, reinforcing, GS, and GS reinforcing. Organic artillery is employed either in a DS capacity with a habitually associated maneuver unit or in a series of fire bases (GS) to cover an area of operation. The pattern of enemy forces requires quick response. FA provides a rapid means of placing accurate, lethal fire on moving guerrilla forces. Also, FA officers and NCOs can provide training, advice, and assistance in tactics and techniques of employment in military assistance roles.

a. Missions. Along with supporting tactical maneuver units, FA fires are effective in accomplishing or supporting--

(1) *Security posts,* checkpoints, roadblocks, and patrols. This is accomplished by fire plans, fire direction nets, and use of ground and airborne FOs. Artillery fire can also disrupt enemy routes and provide fire support near DZs and LZs before, during, and after an assault landing.

(2) *Deception plans.* This is accomplished by placing artillery fires in areas other than those in which an operation is planned. This can distract enemy forces from the main effort.

(3) *Populace and resources control operations.* This is accomplished by providing illumination for police-type cordon-and-search operations or raids. FA can also plan the use of illumination for defense against guerrilla attacks on installations. These installations include airbases, power plants, communications centers, supply points, bridges, or communities. Also, planned fires can defend a convoy or tactical column.

(4) *Psychological operations.* FA fires provide nonlethal fire support to PSYOP or conventional units in all the LIC categories.

b. Concept. Timely and effective FA fire can quickly hinder enemy activity. To provide effective fire support, commanders use FA to obtain maximum area coverage with available weapons by placing batteries in each battalion operational base. FA can also provide area fire support to defend depots, logistic complexes, population centers, and other critical points. With its greater area coverage, some FA can always be within range of an attacking force. This outweighs the need for massing the fires of a battalion or battery against small targets. FA fires can be requested by the supported tactical force, self-defense forces, police, security elements, and other support units.

c. Coordination. Commanders must closely coordinate FA with tactical operations as well as with civilian activities of the host nation.

(1) The senior FA officer at each echelon of maneuver command is designated the FSCOORD.

(2) The FSO from company through brigade establishes and maintains the FSE. At battalion and brigade, FSEs are manned by artillery personnel and may be augmented by TACP or ANGLICO personnel if assets arc available.

(3) The use of FA may require further augmentation to aid coordination in obtaining authority to fire, based on the ROE.

(4) Lack of time can preclude preparing a formal, coordinated, and integrated fire support plan. Therefore, SOPs should provide for all likely contingencies. Close liaison and continuous contact between the supported commander and the FSCOORDs provide the required coordination. However, in operations involving wide employment of maneuver and support forces, coordination measures must ensure that converging friendly units do not call fire upon one another. For this purpose, an RFL may be employed.

d. COIN Operations. These operations normally dictate--

(1) Greater decentralization of organic, attached, and reinforcing fire support.

(2) Reduced ability for brigade-level control and coordination of fires within the operations area.

(3) Added security requirements for firing positions of indirect-fire weapons. This includes planning of direct fires for defense and coordination of US or host nation military forces to augment the security of the FA unit.

(4) A need to fire in all directions.

(5) Support to local defensive forces and static security posts.

(6) Use of fire support that avoids friendly casualties. Such casualties could estrange the populace and produce hostility toward the host government. Close coordination is vital with host nation military and civilian authorities to locate villages, population centers, and religious institutions.

(7) Close coordination with host country officials in the operations area.

7-3. MORTAR PLATOONS/SECTIONS

Firing elements of mortar platoons/sections occupy positions with the battalion/company or within operational bases. The mortar platoon/section provides the most responsive indirect fire to a battalion/company. It is normally under battalion/company control.

7-4. ANTITANK COMPANIES/PLATOONS

Antitank units are not normally employed in their primary role in LIC. When no armor threat exists, the commander may consider using the antitank elements to destroy hardened targets or may consider leaving the TOW missile in a secure staging area, using crews in other roles. These personnel are best used as part of the security force for the battalion operational base. Also, consolidated antitank companies/platoons may be at the brigade level to perform specific missions for the brigade commander such as scouts or convoy security. Many vehicles can carry the .50-caliber machine gun, M60 machine gun, or MK 19. Before these weapons systems are attached, crews must be trained in their operation, employment, and ROE.

7-5. AIR DEFENSE UNITS

Air defense combines all active and passive measures to counter hostile air operations. In a LIC, the hostile air threat may be none, minimal, or existing.

a. If the threat is none or minimal, the commander must consider leaving ADA weapons in a rear staging area. ADA personnel may be used as a security force for the operational base. Also Vulcans may be used in the direct-fire role for base security, convoy security, and so forth. If this course of action is selected, commanders must realize that an enemy can always be supported by an outside air threat. If ADA personnel are separated from their ADA weapons, a minimal air attack could destroy friendly forces. Commanders must plan for such an attack by hostile or sympathetic forces.

b. If the enemy force mounts an air attack or when an air threat exists, ADA assets must react quickly. Units must employ ADA as in a conventional environment. The commander establishes the priority of protection.

7-6. ATTACK HELICOPTER UNITS

Attack helicopters are a highly mobile and immediate-response maneuver element that can attack targets anywhere on the battlefield by fire. These abilities apply to LIC operations to include--

- Overwatch and security for air assault operations to include the objective area.
- Overwatch and security for surface convoys to include ground, water, and rail movements.
- Armed reconnaissance and surveillance to include target marking and destruction under certain conditions.
- Augmentation of the firepower of committed forces.
- Use as a psychological impact and show of force.

7-7. TACTICAL AIR SUPPORT

The USAF flies tactical air operations in support of LIC operations. The USAF ALO at brigade headquarters can coordinate and assist in requesting support.

a. Close Air Support. CAS supports surface operations by attacking hostile targets near friendly surface forces.

(1) CAS can support offensive, counteroffensive, and defensive surface force operations with planned or immediate attacks. All such missions require detailed coordination and integration with the fire and maneuver plans of friendly surface forces. CAS missions require corridors to the battlefield, timely intelligence information, and accurate weapons delivery.

(2) CAS enhances surface force operations by delivering a wide range of weapons and massed firepower at decisive points. It can surprise the hostile force, create opportunities for the maneuver or advance of friendly forces, protect the flanks of friendly forces, blunt hostile offensives, and protect the rear of surface forces during rear battle maneuvers.

b. Air Reconnaissance. Air reconnaissance collects information from airborne, orbital, and surface-based sensors. USAF R&S efforts are part of the national intelligence-gathering effort and

observation process. These operations provide much data that are key to developing national security policy, force postures, planning actions, force employment, and informed responses in times of crises. Surveillance operations collect data continuously from the aerospace and from the earth's surface and subsurface. Reconnaissance operations are directed toward local or other targets. Through R&S various data are collected such as meteorological, hydrographical, geographical, electronic, and communications characteristics. The products of R&S operations apply strategically and tactically in both peace and war. Strategic and tactical R&S provides timely notice of hostile intent, and actions and data vital to the NCAs and combat commanders. These operations help to identify the composition and determine the ability of hostile forces.

c. Tactical Airlifts. Airlifts deploy, employ, and sustain forces under conditions that range from peace to war. As a combat mission, airlifts provide combat power through airdrops, extractions, and airlanding of ground forces and supplies. Through mobility operations, the joint or combined force commander can maneuver fighting forces to exploit hostile weaknesses. As a CS mission, airlifts provide logistic support by transporting personnel and equipment. In peacetime, airlifts provide military assistance and civilian relief programs to enhance national objectives. Aircraft assets may also be used to dispense flares and leaflets. They are equipped with speakers and spraying apparatus for forest firefighting. Airlifts provide the timely movement, delivery, and recovery of personnel, equipment, and supplies, and enhance military and national goals. They can be strategic or tactical. Strategic (intertheater) airlifts can be employed for any theater under the central direction of a higher authority, normally in support of an overall effort. Tactical (intratheater) airlifts are performed within a theater of operations and support theater objectives.

d. Psychological Operations. PSYOP support national objectives by changing the attitudes and behavior of hostile, neutral, or friendly groups. All USAF commands and agencies conduct or support PSYOP. In planning and executing operations, commanders should know the psychological implications and opportunities common to each action. They must ensure that the signals transmitted are as intended. Both action and inaction can send a message to enhance perceptions of abilities or to influence others to support friendly objectives. Depending on the means of communications, national objectives, and planned actions, psychological efforts can be devised to reinforce operations. These include planned communications through electronic means or printed matter; a show of force or demonstrations of superiority; an attack on a specific target; actions to harass and disrupt hostile operations; surprise, shock action, and deception; or humanitarian operations. These efforts must be coordinated with Army PSYOP through attached PSYOP personnel.

e. Weather Service. The USAF weather service provides timely and accurate environmental data to support strategic, tactical, and mobility operations. It gathers, analyzes, and provides meteorological data for mission planning. Environmental data are needed to conduct both air and surface operations.

7-8. NAVAL GUNFIRE SUPPORT

Ship batteries deliver NGF to support amphibious operations and maneuver units operating in coastal areas. When NGF provides support, each ship is assigned the tactical mission of DS or GS. A ship in DS supports a battalion and delivers planned and immediate fires. A ship in GS supports a brigade and delivers adjusted fires. NGF may also be assigned on a fire-mission basis to a subordinate maneuver unit. The force commander must be aware that NGF is high-velocity, low-trajectory fire and therefore has inherently large range probable error on flat terrain.

a. In a LIC environment, the use of NGF is governed by the same limits and the same principle of "minimum-essential force" as when using FA. If FA can be used in an insurgency, NGF can also be used. One advantage is that supported ground units do not need to provide security to the firing ships.

b. A liaison platoon (from USMC) is normally attached to the brigade. It provides specialists and communications to control, coordinate, and recommend use of NGF or naval air.

Section II.
ENGINEER SUPPORT

LIC operations require an increase in engineer support for both psychological and tactical reasons.

7-9. MISSIONS

The LIC area of operations normally has poorly developed road nets. Road systems, installations, and airfields typically must be built to accomplish tasks. Forces involved in LIC operations require engineer support in both combat and sustainment engineering missions. The probable mine/booby trap threat in a LIC area of operations warrants the need for combat engineers. Sustainment engineering develops the logistics facilities and transportation infrastructure used by US forces. The engineers provide support in all engineer battlefield mission areas in LIC operations.

a. Mobility is geared toward improving the movement of maneuver units and critical supplies. Its aim is to reduce or negate the effects of obstacles. Examples of mobility operations include clearing of LZs, construction of combat trails, assault bridging, reduction of roadblocks, breaching of obstacles, mine sweeping, removal of booby traps, and route reconnaissance.

b. Countermobility is geared toward reducing the enemy's mobility and effectiveness. This is done by installing obstacles. Some obstacles may destroy targets; most enhance or complement weapon effectiveness. Examples of conventional obstacles are minefields, wire entanglements, roadblocks, and barriers. These obstacles are integrated into the maneuver plan and are covered by observation and fires.

c. Survivability is the development of protective positions, fighting positions, and protective obstacles. Examples include building perimeter defense positions in operating bases, CPs, LZs, medical facilities, shelters, and storage facilities; and building field fortifications.

d. Sustainment engineering missions add to nation assistance. Construction of facilities, support to government or civil agencies, and support for the population may become central to the operation. While organic engineer elements can provide sustainment engineering support to the force, additional engineer units are needed for most of the construction needed. The combat (heavy) units are most important for developing logistics facilities, roads, and airfields. Examples of general engineering missions include--

- Road construction and repair.
- Temporary structures for the local populace.
- Fixed bridges.
- Aid in civic action.
- Location of potable water sources and, if required, water drilling.

e. Topographic engineering provides commanders with information about the terrain. Topographic

operations, in a LIC environment, involve the functions of terrain analysis and topographic production. All engineers are terrain analysts and assist others to use the ground effectively. Terrain analysis is the process of interpreting natural and man-made features of a geographic area, and the influence of weather and climate on these features to predict their effect on military operations. Examples of terrain analysis products include cross-country movement (wet/dry weather), lines of communication, river crossing, and cover and concealment information. Terrain analysis products are usually provided in limited quantities for staff use: the topographic production of map-based graphics, reproduction of these graphics, and the production of topographic survey data. Production capabilities produce such products as operations and intelligence overlays and overprints, map substitutes (photomaps), expedient revisions to standard maps, draft manuscripts of terrain analysis overlays and graphics, and precise survey and geodetic positions.

7-10. ORGANIZATION

The commander can expect to be supported by at least a division engineer company. Other companies and elements of the division engineer battalion are normally required. Engineer units from corps and Army level can be attached to the engineer battalion or placed in DS. When in an isolated area, the commander can expect the engineer units to be attached. He must coordinate with other units to provide all CSS.

7-11. SECURITY

Engineer units in support of task force operations need increased security. Engineers spend much of their time interfacing with the populace during civil action projects. Although the engineers can secure themselves, their full abilities cannot be used if they are conducting security. Commanders should assign this mission to infantry or military police.

7-12. ENGINEERS USED AS INFANTRY

Combat engineers can be used in the secondary role as infantry during combat operations as a last resort. The authority to employ them as infantry rests with the division commander. They can also be used as trainers on basic mobility, countermobility, and survivability skills. Engineers contribute more toward achieving national goals as civic action units than as infantry. They can be used as infantry--

- During attacks on the operational base.
- When all tactical units are committed and a threat arises.
- As reserves when the threat has caused the commitment of all available reserves. (See FM 5-100.)

When used as infantry, engineers must be the commander can expect the augmented with fire support.

Section III.
ARMY AVIATION SUPPORT

Army aviation can provide support to US, host country, or transient forces. The availability of aviation support affects the tactics of supported units. Army aviation assists maneuver commanders to perform intelligence, mobility, firepower, command and control, communications, and CSS functions. (The use of attack helicopters was discussed in Section I.) This section discusses other missions and the organizations of Army aviation support.

7-13. MISSIONS

Typical support tasks, other than attack helicopter operations, performed by aviation units include the following:

- Aerial CP for command and control of ground maneuver elements.
- Aerial R&S and target acquisition, to include visual reconnaissance and the use of photographic, infrared, and radar sensors, are made available to the brigade through higher headquarters.
- Adjustment of artillery fire (aerial observation).
- Battlefield illumination.
- Air assault operations to include assault operations and airlift for reserves.
- Augmentation of USAF R&S.
- Dissemination of chemical agents and smoke.
- Radio relay.
- Message drop and pickup.
- Airdrop of personnel.
- Convoy security.
- Mapping and survey.
- Emergency medical evacuation.
- Liaison.
- Command and staff transportation.
- Chemical and radiological monitoring.
- Column control.
- Screening.
- Delivery of critical personnel, supplies, and material to isolated areas.
- Deception.
- Mine laying.
- Electronic warfare (monitor, jam, direction finding, intercept).

7-14. ORGANIZATION

US Army aviation resources are normally OPCON to the brigade commander. In LIC, they must bring their aviation logistic support with them. Other than attack helicopter units, the commander can expect both CS aviation and aerial surveillance units to be OPCON. The number of aircraft depends on political and METT-T factors.

a. CS aviation units, when in support of the brigade, provide tactical air movement of personnel, supplies, and equipment. A CS aviation company can--

(1) Provide continuous operations during good visibility and limited operations under low visibility.

(2) Provide airlift for the assault elements of one rifle company.

(3) Augment the evacuation ability of medical air ambulance elements.

b. Aerial surveillance units extend surveillance and target acquisition abilities of the brigade. This is due to the use of sensor equipment and aerial observers. An aerial surveillance company can--

(1) Conduct sustained surveillance of part of the brigade area. This task can be performed both day and night and in most weather conditions.

(2) Conduct aerial reconnaissance of routes and areas.

(3) Acquire target acquisition information by aerial means.

(4) Collect information for poststrike analysis of air and artillery attacks.

(5) Provide an airfield terminal control facility.

Section IV.
MILITARY INTELLIGENCE

MI at the tactical level is of prime importance. (The IPB process is discussed in Chapter 6.) This section focuses on the missions, organization of intelligence assets, categories of information, disciplines used to produce and collect data, and synchronization of these elements. Also discussed are the principles of IEW and special environmental considerations.

7-15. MISSIONS

The tactical MI element collects, processes, and disseminates combat information and intelligence. It provides intelligence support to OPSEC, deception, and EW.

7-16. ORGANIZATION

The brigade and battalions normally have an MI staff section. Due to the decentralized nature of LIC operations, parts of division and corps assets may be attached to brigades. In turn, brigades may attach elements down to battalion. The tactical MI must be coordinated with existing intelligence operations (either host country or US) in the area. The brigade commander should request IEW support that provides intelligence, combat information, EW, OPSEC, and interrogation, which, in turn, must be responsive to his needs.

7-17. CATEGORIES OF INFORMATION

Two categories of information that are important to commanders are combat information and intelligence.

a. Combat information is time sensitive and can be used for tactical missions. It can be used for fire and maneuver decisions with minimal assessment, validation, or processing (interpretation or integration). Combat information is seldom formed above battalion level.

b. Intelligence is information requiring some form of validation, integration, and comparison. This comparison is made before the information can be used or fully exploited.

7-18. DATA DISCIPLINES

To counter the insurgency, a multidiscipline intelligence collection effort must be used. This multidiscipline effort includes the use of HUMINT, SIGINT, IMINT, MASINT, and TECINT. Under the guidance of counterintelligence, counter-HUMINT is the best discipline that can disrupt or delay the insurgents' HUMINT collection capability/process.

a. Human Intelligence. HUMINT is the category of intelligence derived from information collected and provided by human sources. HUMINT consists of interrogation of EPWs, exploitation of captured documents, LRSU, fire support teams, scout platoons, aerial scouts and observers, CI liaison with local populace, and CI low-level source operations.

b. Signal Intelligence. SIGINT is effective only if the threat has communication equipment that can be intercepted and monitored.

c. Imagery Intelligence. IMINT is derived from radar, infrared, and photographic sensors. The data are analyzed through imagery interpretation (II) and can identify and locate enemy bases, concentrations, and activities.

d. Measurement and Signature Intelligence. MASINT is the intelligence derived from the measurement and signature of threat systems putting out electromagnetic energy.

e. Threat Equipment Intelligence. TECINT is the intelligence derived from captured threat equipment.

NOTE: The integration of information from each of these sources, along with other intelligence, provides a composite. It allows the commander to "see" the battlefield. It provides the time and flexibility to react to contingencies.

f. Counterintelligence. This includes deception operations, OPSEC, and COMSEC.

(1) *Deception operations*. These are actions that deceive the enemy by denying information and mislead the enemy by providing false information.

(2) *Operations security*. OPSEC deprives the enemy of intelligence needed to create situations in which the friendly force can be taken by surprise.

(3) *Communications security.* COMSEC actions deny enemy intelligence from friendly communication networks.

7-19. SYNCHRONIZATION OF INTELLIGENCE INFORMATION

In LIC, HUMINT provides the major part of available intelligence. Technical and electronic assets can provide data to enhance the force's intelligence means. To disrupt or delay the insurgent collection process, counterintelligence is used. By taking advantage of collection and counterintelligence efforts and synchronizing them, the commander can deceive the enemy.

7-20. INTELLIGENCE AND ELECTRONIC WARFARE

EW principles for AirLand Battle apply to LIC. However, the intelligence indicators for enemy activity are unique. Development and application of proper indicators are key steps in the collection effort.

a. US Army commitment in a LIC can occur suddenly or slowly. The IEW staff or security assistance office assists in developing the intelligence part of contingency plans for US assistance. US MI support consists of advice, financial and material aid, provisions for professional education, and development of an intelligence documentary data base. Most of this effort is aimed at the host country national level. However, mobile trainers and advisors may be sent throughout the country to subnational levels. Some MI advisors may assist paramilitary and nonmilitary elements in developing HUMINT sources and in exploiting the data they provide.

b. US military involvement in a LIC can shift quickly from the advisory role to an operational role. Those intelligence functions already set would continue. Other roles that augment the MI effort include--

- Military assistance at provincial and lower level.
- Civil affairs.
- Psychological operations.
- Population and resource control.
- Tactical operations.
- Combined MI operations with the host country in the form of interrogation, materiel and document exploitation, and imagery interpretation centers.

7-21. INTELLIGENCE INTERACTION

In the LIC operational categories of counterinsurgency and combatting terrorism (and possibly in peacetime contingency), successful intelligence operations require close coordination and interaction between US and host country intelligence agencies. Support from US national level agencies is routed by way of the US country team to a central host country entity. This entity produces an all-source intelligence picture for the entire country. The title of this entity varies from country to country. For the purposes of this discussion, we will refer to it as the National Intelligence Center (NIC). The NIC is organized to direct and coordinate the activities of all host country intelligence agencies. This includes military, paramilitary, and police intelligence operations nationwide.

a. Similar entities exist at the subnational level. The names of these entities also vary from country to country. For the sake of this discussion, we will refer to them as Regional Intelligence Centers (RICs). RICs are established in conflictive areas and are organized and function in the same manner as the NIC. Both the NIC and the RIC are under the direction and control of the host country. However, supporting US MI activities develop close relations with their NIC/RIC counterparts. RICs have the following missions:

- Coordinate the collection activities of all military and security elements within its region.
- Perform all-source analysis of all available information.
- Produce all-source target packages for friendly combat units.
- Cue CA and PSYOP units to areas of increased concern.

b. US Army MI efforts support the missions to and assumed by the NPCCs and ACCs by--

- Determining intelligence objectives.
- Integrating local intelligence programs with host country national programs.
- Evaluating intelligence resources.

- Organizing and training new intelligence activities.
- Formulating new intelligence plans.
- Establishing priorities and allocating resources.
- Conducting an active liaison program.

c. If US tactical forces are committed to a host country, intelligence personnel of the tactical forces work with the combined intelligence elements already in place.

d. In LIC, US MI personnel support the host country both in advice and assistance roles and, when required, as a part of military operations. The MI officers of various elements may have to coordinate requirements in creative ways. Chains of command and political makeup of the host country are defined and used as the basis for setting up support channels.

e. The terrain and weather conditions of a possible LIC operational area are important to both the human factors and material maintenance. The conditions discussed in the following paragraphs also apply to a LIC.

Section V.
SPECIAL ENVIRONMENTS

Army preparedness is maintained for special environments in which many unique challenges exist. This paragraph outlines considerations for adapting core doctrine to special operations in jungle, desert, mountain, winter, and urban terrain.

7-22. JUNGLES

The jungle regions of Asia, Africa, and the western hemisphere are potential battlefields. Jungles vary from tropical rain forests and secondary growth forests to swamps and tropical savannas. The dominant features of jungle areas are thick vegetation, high and constant temperatures and humidity, and heavy rainfall. Military operations in jungles are affected by two factors--climate and vegetation. These factors combine to restrict movement, observation, fields of fire, communications, and battlefield intelligence collection operations. Both factors constrain a unit's operational and sustainment abilities. They demand unique measures to reduce their effects. (See FM 90-5.)

7-23. DESERTS

Many desert areas of the world are vital to the national interests of the US and demand Army readiness. Deserts may be semiarid or arid. Available water is a prime factor in planning and conducting desert operations. Deserts can have extremes of cold and heat, good visibility and blinding sandstorms, drought and sudden rains, water shortages and flash floods, and good trafficability and interspersed obstacles. Some of the many characteristics of desert operations include rapid movement of large units, good observation and long fields of fire, mandatory use of deception, and lack of key terrain. (See FM 90-3.)

7-24. MOUNTAINS

Mountain regions are found throughout the world, from the arctic to the tropics. They have a major

influence on military operations. Mountain operations are characterized by reduced ranges for flat-trajectory fire, increased importance of indirect fire, mobility canalized along valley floors, decentralized combat, increased collection operations from heights higher than lines of communications, and reduced command and control abilities. (See FM 90-6.)

7-25. ARCTIC CONDITIONS

The effects of arctic conditions have a major influence on military operations. Winter is characterized by long nights, extreme cold, and deep snow. This can degrade weapons performance due to brittleness, ice or fog over optic sights, and ice loading on antennas and intake filters. Winter conditions increase the time required to perform even simple tasks. They also have adverse effects on soldiers' health and morale. (See FM 31-71.)

Section VI.
MILITARY POLICE SUPPORT

MP units can be an effective part of LIC operations by performing their normal duties. They operate along with host country civil and military police. MP units can conduct continuous patrol operations and are a valuable source for intelligence collection. Also, they are organized and equipped to perform battlefield circulation control, area security, EPW operations, and law and order operations. They can also serve as an economy of force in force protection and security roles.

7-26. MISSIONS

MP units are well suited for a variety of tasks in each of the operational categories:

a. Counterinsurgency operations to include--

(1) Police-type operations.

(2) Search operations. MP units conduct searches in support of cordon-and-search operations by manning or supervising search parties, securing persons or property captured, and evacuating prisoners.

(3) Checkpoints and roadblocks.

(4) Search of built-up areas.

(5) Civil disturbance and riot control.

(6) Raids.

(7) Patrols.

(8) Ambushes.

(9) Base defense.

(10) Lines of communication. MP units assist in securing lines of communication. They do this by road and aerial patrolling, setting up traffic control points, escorting convoys, and reconnoitering

in their area of responsibility. MP units can combat small enemy elements or can act as fixing elements until combat units arrive.

(11) Populace and resource control. Operations in an insurgency may involve extensive police activities. MP units can control the host country populace and material resources. This includes screening, identification, registration, enforcement of curfews, operation of patrols and checkpoints, and investigation of crime.

(12) Prisoners. MP units process, secure, and evacuate captured persons and detainees IAW FM 19-40, DA directives, and host nation agreements.

(13) Intelligence operations. Since guerrilla activities often overlap with criminal activities, police activities can develop informants and informant nets. These can produce intelligence and information.

b. Combatting terrorism to include--

(1) Physical security.

(2) Operational security.

(3) Personnel security. MP units provide physical security to personnel and installations that may include designated communities.

c. Peacekeeping to include--

(1) Show of force.

(2) Raids.

(3) Noncombatant evacuation operations.

(4) Peacekeeping.

(5) Rescue and recovery.

(6) Support to civil authority.

7-27. ORGANIZATION

A brigade normally has one MP platoon attached. Depending on the situation, more elements of the division MP company may be attached. Also, corps MP assets may be attached. The size and composition of the force depends on the following:

- Mission and size of the contingency force.
- Attitude of the local population.
- Number and distribution of lines of communication.
- Quality of MSRs, which may be channelized, extended, and have many control points.
- Ease of access to critical supplies.
- Number of critical facilities and supply points needing security.
- Type of terrain.

7-28. MILITARY WORKING DOGS

Military working dogs can support all categories of LIC. The three different types of dogs are patrol dogs, patrol/narcotic detector dogs, and patrol/explosive detector dogs.

a. Patrol Dogs. Patrol dogs are the most versatile of the military police working dogs. Composed and controllable at all times, they can work near people safely, either on- or off-leash, without loss of effectiveness. Despite their well-socialized nature, they can detect and detain criminal offenders in both physical security and law enforcement situations. They attack on command from the handler and can be recalled from an attack. Patrol dogs are trained to detect and locate unauthorized persons in buildings as well as in open areas, and some can track criminals from crime scenes by following scent trails. All patrol dogs and handlers are certified at Lackland Air Force Base, Texas. Handlers are trained in a 6-week course on the care of the patrol dogs.

(1) *Training.*

(a) Basic obedience--to sit, stay, heel, down, and so on.

(b) Drill and ceremony--to perform close order drill with other dogs and handlers.

(c) Scouting--to search a field or woods and alert the handler of the presence of an intruder.

(d) Aggression and agitation--to respond to aggressive acts or threats to include responding to the handler's command to attack.

(e) Building search--to search a building on- or off-leash to detect and attack once an intruder is located.

(f) Tracking--to follow the scent of a human, at least one hour old, over any type of terrain.

(g) Gunfire--to be adversely affected by gunfire from either the handler or another person.

(h) Vehicle patrol--to ride quietly and calmly in a vehicle that the handler is driving and not show any aggressiveness toward passengers.

(2) *Utilization.*

(a) Patrol--walking or mobile, to respond to alarms, check high security areas, and so on.

(b) Building search--to check for intruders faster and safer than by MPs.

(c) Crowd control--to stay out of sight until needed, then can be used in direct confrontation.

(d) Tracking/scouting--to search for lost, injured, or missing persons, prisoners, or fleeing criminal offenders.

(e) Public affairs--to demonstrate abilities and increase public relations.

(3) *Types of alert.*

(a) Building search--trained to attack, growl, bark, and so on.

(b) Scouting--trained to alert the handler of an intruder without alerting the intruder.

b. Patrol/Narcotic Detector Dogs. Patrol/narcotic detector dogs are highly specialized animals whose primary mission is to detect possession or transportation of marijuana, heroin, and related substances. The patrol/narcotic detector dog is also valuable in that it is trained first as a patrol dog, then as a narcotic detector dog, so it can do all that a patrol dog can do and more. All patrol/narcotic detector dogs and handlers are certified at Lackland Air Force Base, Texas. Handlers are trained in a four-week course on search patterns, different drug odors and characteristics, dog alerts, and so on. Although the handler receives intensive training at the school, the dog and handler must continuously train together to maintain their proficiency.

(1) *Training.* The patrol/narcotic detector dog is required to maintain proficiency in all patrol dog areas of training, in addition to detecting the following odors:

- Marijuana
- Cocaine.
- Hashish.

(2) *Utilization.* The patrol/narcotic dog is proficient in all patrol dog areas of utilization, and it can detect contraband material on narcotic dog missions.

(3) *Missions.*

(a) The narcotic mission is scheduled, then it is given to the patrol/narcotic detector dog handlers.

(b) The narcotic detector dog team then goes to the unit for the mission and contacts the commander, who receives a briefing.

(c) The narcotic search is then conducted.

(d) When the dog alerts on a room, water fountain, and so on, the commander is notified, and either gives or denies permission to search the alerted area.

(e) If permission is granted to search the alerted area, the search is then conducted by a person designated by the commander.

(f) If permission is denied to search the area, the mission is over.

(4) Types of alert.

(a) Passive response--upon finding an item, trained to sit at the location and await the handler.

(b) Aggressive response--upon finding an item, trained to scratch and bite at the location.

c. Patrol/Explosive Detector Dogs. Patrol/explosive detector dogs have a particularly acute sense of smell and are trained to discriminate the scent of different explosives. These dogs are specially selected patrol dogs that have received specialized training in this difficult and demanding field. All patrol/explosive detector dogs and handlers are certified as a team at Lackland Air Force Base, Texas. The patrol/explosive detector dog and handler must be certified together by maintaining a proficiency of 95 percent or better.

(1) *Training.* The patrol/explosive detector dog is required to maintain proficiency in all patrol dog areas of training in addition to detecting nine different types of explosives.

(2) *Utilization.* The patrol/explosive detector dog is proficient in all areas of patrol dog utilization, and it can provide bomb threat response support to both the military police and civilian communities. The patrol/explosive detector dog can also provide VIP security, pay site security, money escorts, and so on.

(3) *Type of alert.* For obvious reasons, the patrol/explosive detector dog is trained for a passive response.

Section VII.
PSYCHOLOGICAL OPERATIONS

PSYOP support is an integral part of LIC. It is tailored to meet certain needs for peacekeeping, FID, contingencies, or terrorism counteraction. Thus, leaders must consider military and nonmilitary courses of action in terms of their psychological impact. In correcting the main causes that lead to LIC, leaders may lose short-range tactical advantages to preserve long-range psychological objectives. Understanding and incorporating political, social, and economic policies and goals into military PSYOP planning are vital for success. Peacekeeping operations can be supported by PSYOP in four ways: information/education programs, peacekeeping training for other nations, aid as advisors to allied peacekeeping efforts, and aid as advisors to other US agencies. (See FMs 100-20 and 33-1.)

7-29. INTEGRATION

In FID, PSYOP support is integrated into all aspects of the foreign assistance programs. This includes internal development, humanitarian aid, and security assistance. PSYOP in FID are directed toward--

- Assisting the host nation in gaining popular support.
- Assisting the host nation in defeating the insurgents.
- Establishing a favorable US image in the host nation.
- Favorably influencing neutral groups and the world community.
- Assisting the host nation in supporting defector rehabilitation programs.
- Providing close and continuous PSYOP support to enhance the effects of CA operations.

a. A major security assistance role in the conduct of FID includes US military PSYOP training, advisory assistance, and logistic support. United States PSYOP assets work to help the host nation improve its PSYOP programs and abilities.

b. Army PSYOP elements may be tailored to support a certain contingency. In most contingency operations, PSYOP can help explain why the US took the action. They can amplify the effects by stating the reasons and results to friendly, neutral, and hostile audiences.

c. Terrorism has an immense psychological impact. Terrorism counteraction includes PSYOP directed at target audiences of the terrorists, the terrorists themselves, and terrorist supporters. PSYOP reinforce national will to deter and attack terrorism.

7-30. UNIT RESPONSIBILITIES

The PSYOP unit commander and the supported unit commander have different duties for PSYOP. The execution of these responsibilities, as outlined below, enhances the commander's mission accomplishment. (See FM 33-1.)

a. The PSYOP unit commander--

(1) Determines PSYOP objectives based on the supported unit's mission.

(2) Provides, when required, PSYOP assets to augment the G3/J3 section of the supported command.

(3) Advises the supported command concerning PSYOP abilities and limitations.

(4) Advises, assists, coordinates, and recommends plans concerning psychological aspects of proposed operations.

(5) Recommends proper allocation of PSYOP assets within the supported command.

(6) Conducts PSYOP in support of the supported unit's mission.

(7) Provides feedback about the effect of ongoing PSYOP.

(8) Maintains close, continuous coordination with other US agencies having PSYOP responsibility.

(9) Analyzes the enemy psychological situation to identify weaknesses.

b. The supported unit commander--

(1) Integrates PSYOP into the military decision-making process.

(2) Assesses the psychological impact of the military presence, activities, and operations.

(3) Provides intelligence support to PSYOP.

(4) Ensures that the PSYOP staff element has access to other staff sections. This aids coordinating PSYOP activities and acquires needed information and intelligence.

(5) Reviews OPLANs/OPORDs to ensure that they support national and military psychological objectives.

(6) Provides guidance to subordinate commanders and staff officers concerning PSYOP objectives and plans.

(7) Integrates PSYOP training with unit instruction and training programs.

(8) Provides mess, administration, and logistic support (less PSYOP-peculiar equipment) to supporting PSYOP unit.

Section VIII.
CIVIL AFFAIRS OPERATIONS

CA operations are those activities of a command that obtain needed civilian cooperation and support for

a military commander. They may also reduce civilian interference to attain his objective. CA operations affect the relationship between the military forces and civil authorities, and the people of a country or region. They involve the performance by military forces of some or all of the functions normally performed by civil government.(See FM 41-10.)

7-31. CIVIL AFFAIRS SUPPORT

In LIC operations, CA operations support the commander and host nation civil administration.

a. CA support to the commander includes--

(1) Identifying available local resources, facilities, and support.

(2) Coordinating US requirements for and assisting in obtaining local resources, facilities, and support.

(3) Minimizing civilian interference with US military operations.

(4) Assisting the commander in meeting legal and moral obligations to the local populace. This is done by temporarily providing support of goods and services through the host government agencies to the local populace.

(5) Supplementing the intelligence effort at the tactical level.

(6) Acting as the staff focal point for cultural considerations that affect military operations.

b. CA support to the host nation civil administration includes--

(1) Assisting a host government to meet its people's needs and to maintain a stable and viable civil administration. CA may also assist other US agencies that are providing aid to the host nation.

(2) Establishing a temporary civil administration to maintain law and order, and to provide life sustaining services until the host nation can resume normal operations. This must be done at the request of the host nation.

(3) Establishing a civil administration in occupied enemy territory. This remains effective until the local authorities can administer a system that supports US and allied objectives.

7-32. MISSION ACCOMPLISHMENT

Command priority is given to those major CA activities that are most closely related to accomplishing the command mission. The CA staff element plans and supervises all CA activities of the command It provides for maximum command effort in support of this mission. In internal defense operations, priority is normally given to military civic action and to military participation in the populace and resources control program. As important as these two functions are, the commander cannot presume that they will meet his total CA responsibility.

Section IX.
NUCLEAR, BIOLOGICAL, CHEMICAL OPERATIONS

Nonlethal NBC munitions prove effective where the guerrilla force has blended in with the local populace. The employment of firepower, such as artillery and air-delivered ordnance, must be avoided. This section focuses on employing smoke and nonlethal agents such as riot-control munitions. (See FMs 3-100, 3-4, 3-11, and 3-101.)

7-33. SMOKE AND RIOT-CONTROL MUNITIONS

Smoke is a combat multiplier and can reduce the effect of weapons that depend on LOS. Riot-control agents are chemicals with military application. They are not classified as military chemicals and adhere to different policies than those that apply to chemical warfare. The use of smoke and riot control munitions must be carefully assessed for collateral effects, both physical and moral, then balanced against the advantages of their use. (See FM 100-20, Appendix B, for the specific limitations.)

a. Smoke can deny guerrilla forces direct visual observation of COIN troop and equipment assembly areas. It can also conceal weapons positions, CSS installations, river-crossing sites, objectives, and landings of air assault forces. (See FM 3-50.)

b. Riot-control agents and herbicides may be employed--

(1) To disable for a short time a guerrilla force that has blended in with friendly civilians. No permanent effects occur to civilians.

(2) By use of chemical antiplant agents to defoliate vegetation that restricts observation and fields of fire within or around US bases.

c. Flame field expedients are most effective in COIN operations. These weapons counter ambushes, defend fixed installations, and can be used as ambush weapons.

d. Riot-control agents provide rapid area coverage by heavy concentration. This reduces an unmasked guerrilla's ability to fight. Agents can subject him to capture or destruction.

e. Riot-control agents are used in offensive and defensive operations in which guerrillas lack proper eye and breathing protection. They supplement or complement firepower; for best results, they must be supported by fire and maneuver.

(1) The agent supports operations in which the COIN forces want to deny an area for a short time by using nonlethal means. When COIN forces armed with the agent are stopped, they must adopt a temporary defensive posture. Munitions are emplaced to augment defense of the position or to assist in withdrawal when attacked by a superior guerrilla force. The agent increases the commander's ability and flexibility. It does so by applying effective combat power in situations where death and permanent injury are to be reduced. For example, in a consolidation operation, the agent can subdue guerrilla forces that have blended with the civilian populace.

(2) In offensive action against an alert and fleeting guerrilla force, the counterguerrilla unit can place the agent on the target without being seen or open to small-arms fire. Thus, the agent is best used in the defense when the guerrilla moves within the range of emplaced weapons.

(3) The employment of the agent is limited only by the current policy on employment, the availability of the agent, the means of delivery (either ground or air), and the imagination of the commander and his staff When air-ground communications are not adequate, air-dropped riot-control agents can be employed with less information than needed for other munitions. However, the best effect occurs under optimum air-ground coordinated action.

7-34. ORGANIZATION

The divisional chemical company and corps chemical units are the only TOE chemical CS units. Since there are rarely enough chemical units and personnel to meet requirements in counterguerrilla situations, brigade personnel must manage smoke, flame, and nonlethal agents.

a. Ground Units. Any size ground tactical organization can employ riot-control agents. However, a platoon is considered the minimum-size force that can employ the agent effectively in counterguerrilla tactical operations. For example, a platoon designates one squad as the riot-control agent squad to cover targets. Larger units (company and battalion) may air-deliver the munitions against more extensive targets. The agent can be employed in any quantity to gain the desired effect on target.

b. Aviation Units. The agent may be delivered by rotary-wing or fixed-wing aircraft. The number of aircraft used depends on the size of the target and the amount of agent concentration desired.

c. Military Police. Host country (civilian or military) or US MP employ riot-control agents to control mobs or to reestablish control over rioting prisoners. Units may employ riot-control agents to assist in taking prisoners for interrogation or for obtaining documents. Agents are employed where immediate disabling of guerrilla personnel will prevent the destruction of documents.

7-35. OPERATIONS

Smoke generator units are best employed when guerrilla activities escalate to large-scale operations by companies, battalions, or larger units. In operations conducted against small bands of elusive guerrilla forces, there is limited opportunity to employ chemical smoke generator units.

a. Tactical Operations. Tactical operations involve the following factors.

(1) *Offense*. Air and ground delivery of riot-control agents may be planned with preparatory fires on objectives. The agent may be delivered as the attacking troops cross the line of departure. Delivery of the agent in the target area should cease no earlier than five minutes before friendly forces arrive. Guerrilla forces in the objective area should be weakened to offer little resistance.

(a) When riot-control agents are used to force guerrillas from caves and tunnels, positive pressure should be used in the form of an air pump.

(b) In helicopter-assault operations, air-delivery of riot-control agents directed on known or suspected hostile positions near the landing area can precede armed escort helicopters. If intelligence does not produce known guerrilla positions, the munition may be held on call awaiting return fire by the guerrilla forces. FAC can direct the delivery of the munitions on positive sighting of guerrilla positions. Aircraft crews and assault troops prepare to wear protective masks during landing. Riot-control agents may also be employed in airborne and amphibious operations.

(c) In counterguerrilla force ambush operations, the riot-control agent can produce confusion and weakening. This allows counterguerrilla ambush forces to move to the killing zone to take prisoners. In night ambushes, riot-control agents are best used along with trip flares.

(d) When attacking hard targets, such as fortified positions, gun positions, and bunkers, the agent can make the positions untenable. It can also flush the occupants into the open to be captured or destroyed.

(e) Other offensive operations in which the agent may be employed are river crossings, reconnaissance by fire, canalizing and blocking, harassing, attack on guerrilla forces in populated regions, raids, and antiaircraft fire suppression.

(2) *Defense.* Air and ground-delivered riotcontrol agents can be used in hasty and deliberate position defenses. The agent should be emplaced far from the position in likely areas of guerrilla approach and rigged with trip wires to serve as a warning of and deterrent to guerrilla attack.

(a) The agent can be integrated into perimeter defenses of various types of fixed installations (communications centers, airbase/airfield complexes, outposts, villages, and support facilities). When there is considerable friendly activity around these installations, strict command and control measures must be provided. This prevents accidental discharge of the agent by friendly personnel.

(b) The agent can be used in counterambush situations if delivered quickly on the guerrilla ambush force.

(3) *Retrograde.* The agent can be used to break contact when a counterguerrilla unit's position is untenable. Also, isolated units can employ the agent along with other fires. It acts as a means of route clearance and flank security in open areas on the route of withdrawal.

b. Populace and Resources Control Operations. The agent can be used when enforcement of populace control measures is needed.

c. Psychological Operations. The agent is an effective psychological weapon when used against personnel in countries where superstition and a fear of the unknown are common. The reason for its use in populated areas should be explained in PSYOP followup--for example, to protect the population from severe harm if conventional firepower were used.

7-36. DECONTAMINATION

With the proliferation of NBC weapons in the world, it is highly probable that commanders will have biological or chemical agents employed against their troops in a LIC environment. Therefore, they must assess the threat and be prepared to decontaminate their troops based on the political and METT-T factors. (See Appendix F or FM 3-5 for detailed information.)

CHAPTER 8

COMBAT SERVICE SUPPORT

"For want of a nail, the shoe was lost.
For want of a shoe, the horse was lost.
For want of a horse, a rider was lost.
For want of a rider, the battle was lost."

Benjamin Franklin

This chapter discusses the details of CSS for each LIC category. Sustainment in LIC includes all elements of CSS. It can range from a medical team that provides humanitarian aid to a supporting brigade TF that conducts tactical operations. Each LIC category has distinct support procedures that must be tailored for a each operation. For example, sustainment for peacetime contingency operations is usually provided through normal logistic channels. Sustainment for PKOs is accomplished through a support organization established by the force mandate. For further information refer to FM 63-6, Combat Service Support in Low-Intensity Conflict.

Section I.
COMBAT SERVICE SUPPORT GUIDELINES

This section provides general guidelines that apply to all categories of LIC. Logistic support in LIC involves providing material and supplies to US and host nation combat forces. It can also involve developing logistic systems, infrastructure, and procedures for the host nation and training host nation logistic personnel. In LIC, logistic elements often precede other military forces into the area of operation or may be the only forces deployed. Logistic systems supporting either US or host nation forces must operate within the environmental constraints, and the legal and political constraints governing US involvement. Therefore, such systems must be flexible to tailor support to the situation.

8-1. FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES OF SUPPORT

The fundamental principles of support apply across the spectrum of conflict. The CSS unit must apply and adapt these principles to the LIC environment, which presents unique challenges. The following are guidelines for establishing and operating CSS systems in LIC.

a. Maximum economy of resources.

b. Flexible task force composition.

c. Ability to operate in any theater or country.

d. Routine use of host nation support to include local services, supplies, facilities, and transportation.

e. Maximum use of existing fixed facilities such as lines of communication, ports, and airfields.

f. Minimum handling of supplies.

g. Maximum reliance on CONUS supply activities or, when appropriate, existing regional support bases.

h. Provisions for self-protection.

i. Active and passive protection measures for CSS units.

j. Routine use of both strategic and theater airlift until surface transportation can accommodate the deployment.

k. Elimination of duplicated facilities and overlapping of functions.

l. Short duration conflicts (less than 90 days) should be supported by carefully tailored and planned resupply packages.

8-2. SUPPORT PLANNING

Support planning for LIC operations is a continuous process. Inclusion of the CSS unit at the outset during mission planning and force development is vital to the success of any operation. Once the concept of operation is determined, detailed CSS planning can proceed. Support planning should be as detailed as time will allow. However, since LIC requirements arise with little warning and may occur in any theater of operation, it is best to be familiar with the LIC environment and its characteristics.

8-3. LOGISTICS INTELLIGENCE

Combat service support intelligence is critical to the LIC planning effort. It is defined as the operational and tactical information required by the CSS manager to develop and execute the logistic support plan for a specific concept of operations. Combat service support intelligence should include:

a. Intent to engage in combined operations.

b. Extent of CSS to non-DOD agencies, allied forces, or a combination thereof

c. Available resources in the area of operations.

d. Conditions that alter the usage factors.

e. Information on the ability of local facilities to support deployment and sustainment operations.

f Foreign military logistics structure and national infrastructure abilities. g. Environmental factors.

h. Analysis of lines of communications.

8-4. SECURITY

Once units are deployed, the wide dispersal of forces, the need to protect all bases and installations, the need to provide security for ground and air movement, and the problems of acquiring local resources can

hinder logistic support in LIC. Due to these concerns, logistics facilities and stock levels should be kept to a minimum to reduce security requirements. This lowers the risk of supplies being taken/destroyed by an opposing force. While local resources should be used to the fullest, such use should not adversely affect the local security forces or population.

8-5. COMBAT SERVICE SUPPORT TAILORING

The structure of most CSS organizations allows units to be tailored to the assigned mission and situation. This flexibility is vital to enable CSS organizations to meet the wide range of deployment situations in LIC. The conventional echelons of CSS functions are often not responsive enough to sustain a LIC force in an austere area of the world. Direct contact by units in the area of operations with the wholesale logistic community is vital for responsive support to remote areas. Therefore, procedures must be established early as to how to accomplish such direct contact. Simplicity is vital to CSS. It allows for the required flexibility for effective support under demanding and adverse conditions. Combat service support must be tailored to the force mixture and conditions of METT-T.

a. A preferred method of operation is either a light battalion attached to a heavy brigade or a heavy force OPCON to a light brigade. In LIC, the meaning of OPCON includes the OPCON unit bringing extended support assets on deployment. As the situation develops, the unit could become attached and the support assets may be under the control of the higher headquarters.

b. The light brigade focuses on replacing parts, but the heavy unit focuses on repairing equipment. Commanders must be constantly aware of this throughout the operation.

c. Light units can use transportation assets of the heavy force.

8-6. REQUIREMENTS

To meet the needs of widely dispersed forces, CSS flexibility, foresight, improvisation, rapid response, and full use of local resources are required. Also, greater mobility is needed to reduce or remove excessive stocks in forward areas, to restrict CSS installations to secure areas, and to provide for rapid evacuation of casualties. Air resupply reduces or excludes the need for escort troops, and reduces targets and supply sources for potential use by the enemy. LIC CSS support requires the following:

a. Clearly understood command and control arrangements.

b. Reliable CSS communications network.

c. Secure lines of communications.

d. Theater mobility stressing airlift and support helicopters.

e. Means to exploit local resources within the limits of the political and social context of the conflict.

f. Means to protect CSS installations.

g. Automated inventory and movement control to provide responsive support.

h. Resources for construction of camps and airfields, adaptation of buildings, provision and maintenance of services to include aid to the civilian community.

i. Means of establishing a casualty evacuation and treatment system.

j. A flexible maintenance system to meet required operational availability rates of equipment.

k. Means of collecting, collating, and disseminating CSS intelligence before and during operations.

l. Means of supporting isolated forces separated from main bodies.

m. Financial support to allow for payment of goods and services received and the recovery costs for goods and services provided.

n. Legal support for the interpretation of law, application of ROE, and protection of assigned forces.

o. An available source of language qualified personnel conversant both with military logistics and host nation business practices and customs.

p. Mobile logistics training teams and logistics training exercises.

8-7. CATEGORIES OF SUPPORT

LIC operations often require the ability to execute time-sensitive, discrete deployments. Along with speed, the system used to mobilize and deploy must function in an environment where OPSEC is so restrictive as to preclude normal predeployment coordination. This heightened security environment may require much tailoring of set mobilization procedures. Therefore, mobilization signatures should be the same as day-to-day operational signatures. Such requirements must not preclude the required CSS planning and coordination for mission success.

a. Each of the three categories of CSS must be considered. Priorities within each category must be set based on type of operation and the principles of METT-T. The three categories of CSS are logistics support, personnel service support, and health service support.

b. Logistics support includes:

- Supply.
- Transportation.
- Maintenance.
- Field services to include graves registration, clothing exchange and bath (CEB), salvage, laundry, textile renovation, airdrop, and bakery.

c. Personnel service support includes:

- Personnel and administration services to include strength management, personnel accounting and strength reporting, replacement operations, casualty management, personnel information management, and personnel database management.
- Religious support to include conduct of services, personal and religious counseling, and pastoral care.
- Legal services.
- Finance services.
- Public affairs.

- Postal operations.
- Enemy prisoner of war support.
- Morale welfare, and recreation (MWR).

d. Health services support includes:

- Treatment and evacuation.
- Medical supply support.
- Preventive medicine.

Section II.
SUPPORT FOR INSURGENCY AND COUNTERINSURGENCY OPERATIONS

This section explains how CSS assets support tactical operations in insurgency and COIN operations. Assets include medical, supply, transportation, maintenance, and personnel and administration. CSS assets normally operate from bases that support unit tactical operations. Depending on the size of the unit, these assets may be organic or attached. In insurgency and COIN operations, CSS units may have the primary mission, while the infantry role may be to protect the CSS units. The infantry brigade may function as a combined arms and services unit with minimum fighting strength, while providing C2 for various CSS organizations.

8-8. SUPPORT LEVELS

Most CSS assets are located at division or higher level. They are DS to brigades as needed. In some cases, the brigade can receive a larger part of division assets than normal.

a. DISCOM support can consist of small teams for supply, maintenance, ammunition, medical, and transportation support. When augmented and directed DISCOM's immediate purpose is to assist indigenous tactical forces, the long-term goal is to develop a local force to perform these tasks. If local forces fail, the preparation of the conflict area should support contingency plans for employing combat forces. To support FID, selected CSS elements can be employed in support of host country national developmental efforts. Such elements could train local forces on logistic operations.

b. CSS can operate on two levels. The first level is a small requirement for support of the advisory team. The second level is for supply of material to the host country (security assistance) for improving military and civil organizations. The S1/S4 should coordinate with S5 to determine the requirements that can be met by local resources. Local support is used to the greatest extent possible. When planning support forces requirements, the commander must carefully consider local resources. If the US presence increases beyond small teams (engineering projects, medical exercises), the size of the support element (supply and services, maintenance transportation) increases. This is also true in host countries having minimal resources to provide support.

8-9. COMBAT SERVICE SUPPORT UNITS

CSS units in counterguerrilla operations, as in conventional operations, provide all classes of supplies to

units involved in tactical operations. Since the battalion operational base is as small as possible and provides only a limited logistics base, the supply element at battalion is small. Currently prescribed supply systems and procedures can support counterguerrilla operations with some changes.

a. Most combat trains are collocated with field trains in the brigade support base. Therefore, supply lines to battalions must be maintained. Both aerial and ground resupply operations are considered, ensuring a backup system if one method is disrupted. Resupplying tactical units must be done by request so as not to set a pattern.

b. Assets from DISCOM provide the brigade with direct support CSS.

8-10. OPERATIONAL BASES

Operation bases are usually established by battalions and are semipermanent in consolidation operations. They operate only as long as required by the unit mission.

a. The main function of the battalion operational base is to support tactical operations. It may provide a staging area for operations; a command, control, and communications center; a limited logistic base (battalion combat trains); a fire support base; personnel systems support; or a combination thereof. The specific support functions it provides are determined by availability and need. These bases have the minimum personnel needed to operate and provide security. All nonessential personnel--those not crucial to the tactical mission--are positioned in the brigade operational base.

b. Battalion operational bases provide certain advantages. These advantages are secondary and do not take precedence over the main function-- to support tactical operations. Some secondary advantages are:

(1) Establish a government presence in the area of operations.

(2) Aid in limiting guerrilla mobility nearby.

(3) Provide some security to populated areas nearby.

c. When selecting a location for the operational base, commanders must consider several factors. The location must include an area large enough to meet the unit's requirements and be on defensible terrain. Use or construction of protective structures must be considered as well as defensive positions, obstacles, and minefields. If the unit is going to use the base for fire support, the location must provide maximum coverage for indirect fire weapons.

(1) The operational base is located far enough away from population centers to preclude civilian interference with operations. It must minimize the chance of the population center becoming a collateral target.

(2) The operational base is located so that it has two methods for resupply. For example, if the main means for resupply is by air, it should also have a secondary means, such as a road, if weather precludes the use of aircraft.

(3) The brigade operational base provides deployed battalions with command, control, and communications facilities; CSS (BSA); personnel systems support; staging areas; and intelligence activities. The brigade operational base is usually in a secured area within a government-controlled area. It is larger than a battalion operational base. The brigade operational base provides essential tactical and operational support to deployed battalions. It also provides a rear location for

nondeployed elements of the deployed battalions (battalion field trains).

(4) All CSS elements, whether operating from battalion or brigade bases, ensure that their activities support the overall national objective. Since these operations usually involve more interaction with the civilian populace than tactical operations, personnel involved must understand the host country's culture. This precludes any action that might hinder accomplishing the overall national objective.

(5) The CSS assets that normally operate from the battalion operational base are medical, maintenance, and supply. These same assets can also operate from the brigade operational base. The additional assets of transportation, maintenance, and personnel support usually operate from the brigade operational base. The size of the element at each base depends on the situation. A nonessential element should not be deployed from the home station. Deployed elements should consist only of those assets crucial to the tactical or operational functioning of the unit.

8-11. MAINTENANCE

Maintenance involves all actions to keep equipment operational or to restore it to that status. Except for light units, battalion maintenance elements are located at the operational base (combat trains) and the brigade support base (field trains). Maintenance contact teams from the maintenance unit supporting the brigade (forward support maintenance company or forward support battalion) are also located with the operational base. Maintenance doctrine (fix as far forward as possible) is modified to keep the operational base small. As a result, most maintenance, other than minor repair or replacement of parts, occurs at the brigade support base in a secure area. Maintenance elements in the operational base should stress replacement of components (LRUs) and should maximize the use of BDAR teams.

8-12. TRANSPORTATION PLANNING

The S4 plans transportation for CSS movement. He must consider departure and arrival facilities, in-country transportation networks, and host nation support.

a. Transportation requirements are classified as tactical and nontactical. Tactical transportation deals with repositioning men and materiel. Nontactical transportation deals with moving men and material in noncombat action.

b. Two major types of transportation means available to counterguerrilla forces are motor and air transport. Less common means of transportation are railroads, watercraft, and pack animals.

c. Tactical transportation by aviation assets is preferred due to its speed and flexibility. When aviation assets are not suitable, motor transportation is used. If motor transportation is required, the logistics task force must be augmented with the transportation assets. Motor transportation requires increased security. Once the unit is repositioned, soldiers move on foot to accomplish their mission. Aviation units are located at division level and above. Aircraft for brigade operations or below are attached or placed in support of the using unit.

d. Nontactical transportation is accomplished by either aviation or motor transportation assets. Normally, nontactical transportation moves supplies and equipment, and supports medical evacuation. Motor transportation assets may be organic to units at company level and above. The use of motor transport

depends on distance, security, terrain, availability of routes, and so on.

e. Motor transportation requests are made through S4 channels, consolidated at brigade S4, and forwarded to the division transportation officer. The division movement control officer assigns priorities and allocates truck assets or requests additional assets from corps. Also, additional transport may be needed to move cargo for civic action projects.

f. Requests for Army aviation are made through S3 channels and forwarded to the assistant division aviation officer. The assistant division aviation officer assigns priorities and missions to the division's combat aviation brigade or requests additional assets from corps.

g. When planning transportation support in countries where the road infrastructure is not well developed, commanders may depend upon inland and coastal waterways for transportation. If so, Army watercraft may play a vital role in the support of FID.

8-13. MEDICAL UNITS

Medical units conserve the fighting strength of the counterguerrilla force. They do so by preventive medical and sanitary measures, and by proper medical and surgical treatments. In support of the IDAD effort, medical units and personnel can provide assistance, advice, and training to host country medical personnel. These units may also provide limited medical support to the local populace for a short time. However, such support is conducted under the auspices of the host country and to the credit of that government.

a. Aidmen are at platoon level and give emergency medical treatment within their abilities. They also ensure that patients who must be evacuated are properly prepared and promptly moved.

b. A physician and or physician's assistant normally supervises the battalion aid station. In counterguerrilla situations, the station is within the battalion operational base. Aid station functions include the following:

(1) Receiving, recording, examining, and sorting patients and returning the physically fit to duty.

(2) Providing emergency medical treatment and preparing patients for evacuation.

(3) Providing limited medical support through military civic action programs.

c. Depending on how serious the injury, the patient can be moved directly to a division clearing station in the brigade support base or to a corpslevel hospital. Evacuation to medical support facilities can be by ground. However, the preferred means is aeromedical evacuation in counterguerilla operations due to the speed and security of aerial transport.

d. Any medical facility may be bypassed and the patient evacuated to a higher level when his condition warrants it and the means of evacuation permit. Evacuation of wounded personnel does not take precedence over mission accomplishment.

8-14. PERSONNEL SERVICE SUPPORT

To remain an effective fighting force, the counterguerrilla unit requires personnel service support. Most, if not all, of this support function occurs in the field trains at the brigade operational base. (See FMs

7-20, 71-2, and 12-6.)

a. The adjutant (S1) locates at the battalion operational base with the supply officer (S4) and functions as the combat unit's primary personnel operational base. The S1's primary role includes managing combat-essential information to support the decision-making process and delivering replacements, mail, and other personnel services. Information essential to the critical functions of the personnel systems must be collected and processed timely and accurately to support command decisions and combat units at all levels. The HHC commander locates with the field trains of the battalion in the brigade base. This arrangement keeps the battalion base as small as possible.

b. Personnel support for the commander includes the following:

(1) *Replacement operations.* This entails the coordinated support and delivery of replacements and return-to-duty soldiers on the battlefield. During a LIC, depending on the task force configuration and duration of the conflict, individuals may not be replaced. However, when possible, replacements may be provided on an individual, team, squad, platoon, or unit level depending on the command requirements.

(2) *Strength management.* This assesses an organization's combat power, plans for future operations, and assigns replacements on the battlefield. It predicts the need for replacements. Strength management includes the techniques and decision-making process used to allocate replacements and to assess the combat capabilities of units from the personnel perspective. This is a critical function. As part of the task force, units may have personnel from other branches of service or components.

(3) *Personnel accounting and strength reporting.* This accounts for soldiers and reports their duty status as the foundation for critical battlefield decisions. This function will also be performed at the home station in a peacetime mode for soldiers that did not deploy. This function also includes the C2SRS. The C2SRS manages the personnel combat power of the tactical force and reconciles deliberate personnel accounting and hasty strength reporting information.

(4) *Casualty management.* This records, reports, and accounts forcasualties promptly and efficiently. In a LIC, casualties must be processed as soon as possible. They could be in a CONUS medical facility before the casualty manager is aware of the casualty; therefore, casualties must be reported sooner than current regulations mandate.

(5) *Enemy prisoner of war and civilian internee operations.* In a LIC, a reserve military police prisoner of war processing unit may not be activated. The personnel community may perform EPW processing depending on the task force commander's desires.

c. Finance support operations and counterinsurgency operations remain flexible to support the situation.

Section III.
PEACEKEEPING OPERATIONS

Sustainment operations in a PKO must have the consent of the recently belligerent parties. The PKO force must remain neutral to retain its credibility and acceptability. This can preclude or limit the use of host nation support and contracting. Normal DISCOM support operations should be used to the maximum in PKOs. The support reflects austere base development and a mixed military/civilian

contractor support structure.

8-15. LOGISTICAL CIVIL AUGMENTATION PROGRAM

In the UN's multinational force and observer-type mission, civilian contractors can provide custodial support at bases, maintenance of vehicles, and other supply and service functions. Host nation support may not be a major factor due to political considerations derived from the nature of a PKO. Due to the multinational and noncombat orientation of the operation, the LOGCAP can be used more than in other types of actions. It should not be confused with HNS agreements or contracting with local or third party nationals. The LOGCAP objective includes planning for the use of civilian contractors to perform certain services to augment Army forces. It can be an asset if several conditions have been met and the LIC operation occurs in a country where servicing contracts exist. (See AR 700-137.)

8-16. PLANNING

In PKO planning the S3 and S1/S4 identify those units requiring CSS and provide the required support packages. Planning must allow for enough transportation assets to provide for the rapid relocation of peacekeeping forces. If more transportation assets are required beyond the organic assets of the peacekeeping force, then such augmentation should be planned and requested in advance.

a. CSS units in support of the peacekeeping force should establish liaison with the task force commander and staff. Timely guidance allows the unit to begin the detailed planning and preparation required for executing assigned tasks. Support units of higher headquarters can provide CSS directly to UN peacekeeping forces.

(1) Some of the subjects relative to logistic support for the peacekeeping force include--

- Supplies and services.
- Use of indigenous personnel.
- Use of roads, post facilities, airfields, and railways.

(2) Planning considerations include--

- Task-organizing a special CSS unit.
- Using an intermediate support base near the deployed force.

b. Supply support for a deployed peacekeeping force requires longer order times for surface shipments. Due to this, initial supply support must be planned in advance. Stockage of repair parts and other supplies must be increased to a level that can support a deployed force for a long time. Self-service supply items are required, and their type and amount are based on a particular unit.

c. The force may rely heavily on contractors for fresh food supplies as well as dining facility operations. Therefore, planning and coordination are vital to planning for supplemental rations. Veterinary inspection support must be planned to monitor local purchase activities. Also, the need for MREs or other combat-ready meals may exist for members of the force on remote patrol. Since battalion elements may support all members of the PKO force, they must consider the type/content of certain foods for religious or cultural reasons.

d. Water can be included in an overall custodial contract, obtained from local sources, or provided water purification/distribution units. Commanders must coordinate with preventive medicine personnel to test

and approve all water obtained from both local and US military systems.

e. Services at the base camp for PKO personnel can be included in the general custodial contract. The extent to which they are established permanently depends on the length of the operation. Mortuary affairs support is usually reserved for US force operations. Arrangements for the following services must be made in advance so that they are contracted or included as part of the force:

- Showers.
- Laundry.
- Barber.
- Post exchange services.
- Recreation facilities.
- Engineer functions.
- Firefighting.
- Sewer.
- Trash disposal.
- Electrical power.

f. When neutrality is not in question and all parties agree, host nation contractors can perform maintenance for military and commercial equipment. Use of host nation contractors assists in the growth of their economic base and enhances relations. As host nation contractors' involvement increases, the need for language-qualified maintenance personnel also increases.

g. The brigade may need division and corps assets to ensure a dedicated transportation capability to provide flexibility and mobility to the supported force. Host nation or third-party contract assets, however, should be used to the fullest to meet transportation needs. If US vehicles are used, the need for vehicle operators to have local or international driver's licenses must be determined. Likewise, the road network must be checked before arrival in country. Current data on all roads and bridges are required to include the main supply routes that can be used and restrictions to vehicles--for example, convoy size, weight of vehicle, when roads can be used.

h. Military medical support of PKOs is conducted as part of a single health service assistance program. The brigade surgeon has responsibility for the overall medical planning. All medical support to host country nationals is usually limited to emergency treatment. Strict coordination requirements preclude an improvised medical activity from functioning.

Section IV.
PEACETIME CONTINGENCY OPERATIONS

As in other operations, the commander determines the sequence of deployment of the tactical force, supporting elements, fillers and replacement personnel, and bulk supplies in PCOs. The S4 coordinates the deployment of CSS units and recommends changes in the deployment sequence if a balanced force is not maintained. Usually, DS supply and service elements, maintenance, repair parts supply, transportation, and ammunition and petroleum supply are required early in the PCOs. Divisional and corps field service units are not normally required at first. However, they must be sequenced early to

provide for the physical needs of the force. The need for such units depends on the nature of the operation and its duration and environment.

8-17. PLANNING

Brigade CSS units are not flexible enough to provide needed CSS in contingencies. Additional division and corps CSS elements can be deployed into a hostile environment along with or soon after the first forces land. Selected DISCOM units should land soon after combat units. Some CSS elements can arrive in the country or in an adjacent country before the actual deployment. These elements can arrive by air at a commercial airfield and move to the conflict area to operate as an arrival airfield control group.

a. When developing the OPLAN, the S4 determines the source of support. The force can be resupplied from CONUS designated OCONUS facilities (another theater) or from a third country. It relies on strategic airlift or sealift for rapid deployment and resupply. Due to the unique requirements of PCOs, the time-consuming maintenance activities and management functions may take place at the CONUS support base with mission-ready equipment returned to the user. If the situation escalates from LIC to mid-intensity conflict, the support structure in the area of operations would require expansion.

b. During the buildup phase, the S1/S4 must know the number of CSS units in country, since many of the mutual support units may be detachments, teams, and companies without a parent headquarters. To execute effective command and control, the commander must include some element of brigade support headquarters in early increments. This element can organize smaller elements into a composite and can provide a command and control structure. This arrangement should be reorganized as priorities and resources permit. As the situation develops, temporary composite headquarters can revert to its normal role.

c. The S1 must establish procedures for replacements and, in coordination with the brigade/battalion surgeon, a medical evacuation policy. The replacement requirements are based on estimates on the number of casualties. The source of these replacements must be identified to include all processing the contingency force must provide. This can include where personnel are to be equipped for the local environment such as a replacement center or the receiving unit.

d. The S4 determines the requirements for supply, services, and maintenance. He bases these requirements on the force structure and projected intensity of conflict. The S4 should provide this information to the planners as they develop the amount of support required and for the loading of the supply pipeline.

e. The S4 must examine transportation from the departure point to the arrival facility. The S4 and S5 must coordinate the amount of support that can be provided by and to the host nation.

f. The S4 must determine if any CSS function that is normally performed by higher headquarters is required such as water terminal operations. If so, it should be included in the force structure.

8-18 CRITICAL TASKS

When a friendly host nation requests US assistance in a threatening but inactive combat situation, CSS elements may precede combat elements in deployment. This provides the needed support, units, and materials for combat elements upon arrival. If the PCO is initiated in a hostile country, the first CSS

increment is deployed in the contingency area as soon as initial objectives are seized and an operating base area is secured. Civil-military affairs, transportation, engineers, MP, communications, health services, financial support, and personnel systems support operations elevate in importance at this stage. Initially, the tasks to be accomplished and established include--

- Real estate and facilities.
- Arrangements for unloading aircraft and ships.
- Transportation nets.
- Site selection for service support operating facilities and bivouacs.
- Facilities for the receipt, storage, and inventory control of material.
- Transportation movement control.
- Communications and power.
- Security for service support.
- Potable water.
- Initial personnel support operations.
- Medical evacuation and initial medical support facilities.
- Laundry and renovation.
- Mortuary affairs.
- Subsistence.
- POL resupply (bulk/packaged).
- Ammunition resupply.
- Repair parts.
- Public affairs team for command/public information purposes.

APPENDIX A

THE URBAN INSURGENT

Cities and towns are vulnerable to urban insurgent violence because they are the focus of economic and political power. Public utilities and services can often be disrupted. Thus, the government may appear to have lost control of the situation. US forces employed in LIC can expect to conduct operations in an urban environment normally in support of the host nation police or military.

A-1. EFFECTS OF THE URBAN ENVIRONMENT

The concentration of a large number of people in a small area provides cover for the insurgent. However, the insurgent may find support only in certain areas of a town or city. The urban insurgent usually lives in a community that is friendly to him, or the people are too frightened to withhold its support or to inform on him. He has a close relationship with leaders and other insurgents. He may have a communication system using women and children, who also provide cover for other activities.

a. The urban insurgent can operate more boldly than his rural counterpart as reflected by his tactics. The sniper complements the more conventional ambush and often replaces it. Also, explosive devices can be used either as instruments against the community or more selectively against individuals or groups.

b. The availability of a large number of people ensures that crowds can be assembled and demonstrations easily manipulated. The presence of women and children restricts COIN force reactions. A thoughtless reaction can ensure a major incident that provides the insurgent with propaganda. Publicity is easily achieved in an urban area because no major incident can be concealed from the local population. Terrorist successes can be exploited to discredit the ability of the police, COIN force, and civil government, thus providing protection and controlling the insurgents.

c. The urban insurgent cannot, like his rural counterpart, establish bases and recruit large military units. He is an individual and a member of a relatively small group. He relies on the cover afforded by the people of the city and relies on terror to avoid betrayal. Individuals and small groups are effective in an urban environment because it is easier for them to avoid capture. However, if captured, the terrorist may be able to expose only two or three persons to government or COIN forces.

A-2. INSURGENT TACTICS

The urban insurgent works alone or in small cells. His tactics are different from those of his rural counterpart to include the following:

a. Disrupting industry and public services by strikes and sabotage.

b. Generating widespread disturbances designed to extend the resources of the COIN force. c. Creating

incidents or massing crowds to lure the COIN force into a trap.

d. Provoking the COIN force into overreacting, which would provide hostile propaganda.

e. Provoking interfactional strife.

f. Sniping at roadblocks, outposts, sentries, and individuals.

g. Attacking vehicles and buildings with rockets and mortars.

h. Planting explosive devices, either against specific targets or at random, to cause confusion and destruction, and to lower public morale.

i. Ambushing patrols and firing on helicopters.

A-3. OPERATIONS

Operations against urban insurgents may vary from a passive policy to active. The passive policy curtails terrorists activities so that community life can continue (under certain constraints). The active policy involves the COIN force seeking out and capturing or killing the enemy. The level of intensity at which operations are conducted are determined by the civil government. Fighting the urban insurgent is a police mission. However, the military COIN force commander may be required to assist the police in this mission or even assume it. The techniques used are like those used in rural areas. Before operations are conducted, information must be obtained about the enemy, his environment, and operations. The techniques include:

- Installation of base defense.
- Roadblocks and checkpoints.
- Crowd dispersal.
- Cordon-and-search operations.
- Patrols.

A-4. MINIMUM FORCE

In an urban environment, the principle of minimum force becomes vital and is related to the ROE. There is greater danger of injuring or killing innocent civilians in heavily populated centers. Clearing operations must be modified to ensure their safety. A grenade tossed into a room before entering may be a violation of the ROE. However, when insurgents are located and isolated, precision munitions may be employed to destroy them. These systems minimize collateral damage and reduce the chance of injury to noncombatants. Since large groups of insurgents are seldom found in cities, there are no base camps--only safe houses. Also, killing or capturing the urban insurgent takes a great deal of time; opportunities for deliberate attacks rarely occur.

APPENDIX B

SMOKE, FLAME, HERBICIDES, AND RIOT CONTROL AGENTS

This appendix provides guidance on the employment of chemical agents and munitions in COIN operations.

B-1. SMOKE

Smoke can be employed to identify, signal, obscure, deceive, and screen. It helps identify and signal targets, supply and evacuation points, and friendly unit positions. Smoke also provides the COIN commander with prearranged battlefield communications.

a. Obscuration aids in deceiving the enemy, concealing maneuver, and increasing the potential force-on-force ratio when the target cannot see through the smoke. Smoke supports LIC operations by creating a feeling of isolation that reduces the insurgent's will to resist. In counterterrorist activities, smoke restricts the use of airfields or facilities, and conceals the movements of counterterrorist forces. It also restricts the effectiveness of sophisticated sighting systems used by state sponsored terrorists.

(1) The use of obscurants in counterterrorist or counterinsurgency operations requires the same planning as in mid- to high-intensity conflicts. If properly planned, obscurants increase survivability by concealing friendly forces from enemy observation and from intelligence-gathering operations without degrading operational capabilities.

(2) In peacetime contingency operations, units use smoke to protect forces in a show-offorce or demonstration exercise. During an actual extraction or raid, they use obscurants to conceal LZs and entrances into buildings, and to confuse the enemy as to the size and strength of the force. The use of obscurants can reduce the effect of all command and control measures while enhancing mission success. During the exfiltration, smoke can cover routes and can allow the extraction force to break contact and escape. Deception smoke operations must be planned and conducted to divert the attention of the enemy away from the intended operation.

b. Smoke sources include the following:

(1) Mechanical smoke generators (large screen areas).

(2) Smoke grenades (small screens, signaling, identifying).

(3) M1 smoke pot, 10-pound (small screen).

(4) ABC-M5 smoke pot, 30-pound (small screen).

(5) M4A2 floating smoke pot (small screens, ground or water base).

(6) WP mortar, and WP and HC artillery rounds (obscuring, signaling, deceiving, identifying, screening).

(7) WP tank rounds, 90-mm and 105-mm (small screens, obscuring, signaling, identifying).

(8) Grenade-launched round by tanks, BFV, and M203 grenade launcher (small, individual screens).

(9) Vehicle engine exhaust smoke systems, tanks, and BFV (small, individual screens).

(10) Aircraft-delivered smoke ordnance (large screens).

c. Depending on the weather and terrain, smoke screening may not always be effective. For example, the wind could be too strong or be blowing from the wrong direction. Signaling, identifying, and obscuring are all good smoke missions in all phases of a COIN operation.

B-2. FLAME EXPEDIENTS AND THE M202 ROCKET LAUNCHER

Flaming fuel and hot shrapnel, exploding over an area up to 100 meters in diameter, are effective defensive weapons. If a target is to be pinpointed, then the M202 rocket can be used to flame a hostile position.

a. The flame mine is an omnidirectional expedient that can be command-detonated or activated by a trip wire. It scatters flame and shrapnel over an area 20 to 100 meters in diameter, depending on the size of the mine.

b. The fougasse (flame/shrapnel) expedient is similar to the mine except that its explosive force is directional (rather than all-round). A 55-gallon barrel is often used as a container for fuel and shrapnel. The barrel is placed in a V-trench and sandbagged in place, and an explosive charge is placed behind the barrel. When exploded, the flaming fuel and pieces of metal are blown out to a distance of 200 meters or more (in a broad V-pattern).

c. The M202 rocket launcher contains four rockets that burst into flame on impact. The aiming device on the launcher provides on-target accuracy for close combat.

B-3. HERBICIDES

The US renounces first use of herbicides in war except when used for control of vegetation within US bases and installations. Herbicides can also be used around the immediate defensive perimeters to clear observation and fields of fire. They have the potential to destroy food production and to defoliate large areas. However, the US will not use herbicides in this way, unless they are first used against US forces and the President directs their use in retaliation.

B-4. RIOT-CONTROL AGENTS

The US renounces the first use of RCAs in war except defensively to save lives. RCA use is not governed by the same policy as chemical agents. Since RCAs are not used to injure or kill and their effects are short lived, situations arise when RCA use is more appropriate than conventional weapons. (See FM 3-100.)

a. RCA containers include hand grenades and 40-mm CS cartridge grenades (M203 grenade launcher). When used, the grenades, whether thrown or fired, are directed upwind of the target so the chemical vapor drifts onto the hostile position.

b. Commonly used RCAs contain chemicals that cause lung irritation and watering of the eyes. They are used to force insurgents from tunnels, caves, and buildings in an effort to take them prisoner. When COIN units probe possible ambush sites, RCAs can be used to flush insurgents and take prisoners.

c. When COIN units are in defensive positions, canisters of RCA (containing the agent in powder form) can be detonated by remote control.

d. COIN personnel wear the protective mask and cover exposed skin areas when employing RCAs. Decontamination, after RCA missions, requires troops to wash skin areas and brush or wash clothing.

APPENDIX C

OPERATIONS AND TECHNIQUES

This appendix presents techniques that may be employed when conducting the most common types of tactical COIN operations. Table C-1 presents some of the most common operations and techniques that a COIN force employs. Large-scale operations are more suited to the later stages of an insurgency while small-unit tactics are more suited to the whole spectrum. (See FMs 7-7, 7-7J, 7-8, 7-10, 7-20, 7-30, 71-1, 71-2, and 71-3.)

Section I.
OPERATIONS

With minor changes, some operations discussed in FMs 7-10, 7-20, 71-1, and 71-2 can be used for counterguerrilla warfare and COIN. These operations include raids, movements to contact, hasty attacks, deliberate attacks, reconnaissance in force, exploitations, and pursuits.

C-1. ENCIRCLEMENT

Encirclement is designed to cut off all ground routes for escape and reinforcement of the encircled insurgent force. It offers the best possibility for fixing insurgent forces in position and for achieving decisive results. Battalion and larger units may conduct encirclements.

a. The company and smaller units normally lack enough men and command and control ability to conduct encirclements (except against small, concentrated insurgent forces). All units of the brigade can participate in encirclements conducted by a larger force.

b. Planning, preparation, and execution are aimed at complete encirclement of the insurgent force. Maximum security and surprise can be gained by completing the encirclement during darkness.

c. Encircling movements are executed rapidly. Use of air assault and airborne troops can contribute speed and surprise to the early phases of an encirclement. Positions are occupied at the same time to block an escape. If occupation at the same time is not possible, escape routes most likely to be used are covered first. Initial occupation is the most critical period of an encirclement. If large insurgent formations become aware of the encirclement, they may react immediately to probe for gaps or to attack weak points to force a gap.

d. Units occupying the encircling positions provide strong combat patrols well to their front to give early warning of attempted breakouts and to block escape routes. Mobile reserves are positioned for immediate movement to counter any threat of a breakout, and to reinforce difficult areas such as deep ravines or areas containing cave or tunnel complexes.

e. Indirect fire support can cloak an impending encirclement by gaining and maintaining the insurgent's attention while encircling units move into position. Fires, including field artillery, should be planned in detail to support the encirclement after it is discovered.

Table C-1. Comparison of operations.

C-2. REDUCTION OF ENCIRCLEMENT

Following the initial encirclement, the capture or destruction of the insurgent force is methodical and thorough. Fire and maneuver are used together in a controlled contraction of the encirclement. As the line of entrenchment is contracted, depending on terrain, units may be removed from the line and added to the reserve. Against small insurgent forces, the entire encircled area may be cleared by contraction; however, against larger insurgent forces, some action other than further contraction will be required (Figure C-1)

C-3. HAMMER AND ANVIL METHOD

The hammer and anvil technique is employed after some degree of reduction. It involves employing a blocking force on one or more sides of the perimeter. This is performed while part of the encirclement forces the insurgents against the blocking force by offensive action. Either element can accomplish the actual destruction, but it is usually accomplished by the attacking element. This technique is most effective when the blocking force is located on, or to the rear of, a natural terrain obstacle. In this method, one or more units in the encirclement remain stationary while the others drive the insurgent unit against it (Figure C-2.). This technique can be employed during the reduction of an encirclement or whenever the tactical situation permits. Airborne or air assault forces can be employed on favorable terrain deep in the enemy rear. This technique is useful in destroying insurgents, because they prefer to fight only when conditions are favorable to them.

Figure C-2. Hammer and anvil method.

C-4. WEDGE METHOD

This method is used during the reduction of an encirclement. A unit is used to divide the enemy while the encircling elements remain in place. After the insurgent force has been divided into smaller elements, either reduction of encirclement or the hammer and anvil method is used (Figure C-3).

Figure C-3. Wedge method.

Section II.
CIVIL DISTURBANCES AND SEARCHES

While it is preferred to have host country forces control civil disturbances, US forces may be forced by circumstances to conduct them and be involved in search operations. (The type of civil disturbance provides the needed counteraction guidelines; for detailed information refer to FM 19-15.)

C-5. SEARCH TECHNIQUE

Searches are commonly used in population and resources control operations. They include use of checkpoints and roadblocks to control traffic and to reduce the ability of the insurgent to move personnel and materiel freely.

a. Special Equipment Required. Special equipment is required for a checkpoint to achieve the best results. Portable signs in the native language and in English should be available. Signs should denote the speed limit of approach, vehicle search area, vehicle parking areas, male and female search areas, and dismount point. Lighting is needed for the search area at night. Communication is required between the various troop units supporting the checkpoint operation. Barbed-wire obstacles across the road and around the search area should be provided. Troops must have adequate firepower to withstand an attack or to halt a vehicle attempting to flee or crash through the checkpoint.

b. Method. The checkpoint is established by placing two parallel obstacles (each with a gap) across the road. The distance (in meters) between obstacles depends on the amount of traffic that is held in the search area. The blocked section of road can be used as the search area. If possible, there should be a place (adjacent to the road) where large vehicles can be searched without delaying the flow of other traffic (which can be dealt with more quickly). Areas are required for searching female insurgents and detaining persons for further interrogation. If possible, the personnel manning a checkpoint should include a member of the civil police, an interpreter, and a trained female searcher. When searching a vehicle, all occupants get out and stand clear of the vehicle. The driver should observe the search of his vehicle. The searcher is always covered by an assistant. When searching, politeness and consideration are shown at all times. The occupants of the vehicle can be searched at the same time, if enough searchers are available (Figure C-4., Area search technique).

C-6. SEARCH OF INDIVIDUALS

The searching of individuals involves the following methods.

a. Frisk Search. The frisk is a quick search of an individual for weapons, evidence, or contraband. It should be conducted in the presence of an assistant and a witness. In conducting the frisk, the searcher stands behind the insurgent. The searcher's assistant takes a position from which he can cover the insurgent with his weapon. The insurgent is required to raise his arms. The searcher then slides his hands over the individual's entire body, crushing the clothing to locate concealed objects.

b. Wall Search. Based on the principle of rendering the insurgent harmless by placing him in a strained, awkward position, the wall search affords the searcher some safety. It is quite useful when two searchers must search several insurgents. Any upright surface can be used such as a wall, vehicle, or tree.

(1) *Position of insurgent.* The insurgent must face the wall (or other object) and lean against it, supporting himself with his upraised hands placed far apart and fingers spread. His feet are placed well apart, turned out, parallel to the wall, and as far from the wall as possible. His head is kept down.

(2) *Position of searcher's assistant.* The searcher's assistant stands on the opposite of the insurgent (from the searcher) and to the rear. He covers the insurgent with his weapon. When the searcher moves from his original position to the opposite side of the insurgent, the assistant also changes position. The searcher walks around his assistant during this change to avoid coming between his assistant and the insurgent.

(3) *Position of searcher.* The searcher approaches the insurgent from the right side. The searcher's weapon must not be in such a position that the insurgent can grab it. When searching from the right side, the searcher places his right foot in front of the insurgent's right foot and makes and maintains ankle-to-ankle contact. From this position, if the insurgent offers resistance, the

insurgent's right foot can be pushed back from under him. When searching from the left side of the insurgent, the searcher places his left foot in front of the insurgent's left foot and again maintains ankle-to-ankle contact.

(4) *Initial position.* In taking his initial position, the searcher should be alert to prevent the insurgent from suddenly trying to disarm or injure him. The searcher first searches the insurgent's headgear. The searcher then checks the insurgent's hands, arms, right side of the body, and right leg, in sequence. The searcher repeats the procedure in searching the insurgent's left side. He crushes the insurgent's clothing between his fingers--he does not merely pat it. He pays close attention to armpits, back, waist, legs, and tops of boots or shoes. Any item found that is not considered a weapon or evidence is replaced in the insurgent's pocket. If the insurgent resists or attempts escape and must be thrown down before completing the search, the search is restarted from the beginning.

(5) *Switch of multiple insurgents.* When two or more insurgents are to be searched, they must assume a position against the same wall or object but far enough apart so that they cannot reach each other. The searcher's assistant takes his position a few paces to the rear of the line with his weapon ready. The search is started with the insurgent on the right of the line. On completing the search of one insurgent, the searcher moves the insurgent to the left of the line to resume his position against the wall. Thus, in approaching and searching the next insurgent, the searcher is not between his assistant and a insurgent.

c. Strip Search. This type of search is used when the individual is suspected of being an insurgent leader or important messenger. The search should be conducted in an enclosed space such as a room or tent. The searching technique can be varied. One method is to use two unarmed searchers while an assistant, who is armed, stands guard. The insurgent's clothing and shoes are removed and searched carefully. A search is then made of his person to include his mouth, nose, ears, hair, armpits, crotch, and other areas of possible concealment.

d. Search Or Females. The insurgent force makes full use of females for all types of tasks where search may be a threat. COIN forces must fully employ female searchers. If female searchers cannot be provided, a doctor or aidman should be used for searching female insurgents. The search of females is an extremely sensitive matter. When male soldiers must search females, every possible measure must be taken to prevent the slightest inference of sexual molestation or assault.

C-7. SEARCH OF POPULATED AREAS

Four fundamentals are employed when conducting a search.

a. Approach. On some operations, mounted movement may be possible directly into the area to be searched. However, the situation may dictate dismounted movement. Emphasis is on rapid and coordinated entrance into the area.

b. Surrounding the Area. During darkness, troops approach silently by as many different routes as possible. At first daylight, the area can be occupied by a chain of OPs with gaps covered by patrols. Normally, a large area cannot be completely surrounded for a long time due to the number of troops required. If needed, troops dig in, take advantage of natural cover, and use barbed wire to help maintain their line.

c. Reserves. If there is a chance that hostile elements from outside the area could interfere, measures are taken to prevent them from joining the inhabitants of the area under search. Air observers can assist by detecting and giving early warning of any large-scale movement toward the occupied area.

d. Search Parties. The officer in command of the operation informs the inhabitants that the area is to be searched, that a house curfew is in force, and that all inhabitants must remain indoors. Or, he may require the inhabitants to gather at a central point and then have the search party move in and begin the search. Search parties are usually composed of search teams.

(1) When a decision is made to gather inhabitants at a central point, the head of the house should accompany the search party when his house is searched. If this is not done, he can deny knowledge of anything incriminating that is found, or he can accuse the troops of theft and looting. In small searches, it may be best to ask the head of each household to sign a certificate stating that nothing has been illegally removed. However, in a large search this may be impractical. To avoid accusations of theft, witnesses should be present during the search. A prominent member of the community should accompany each search team.

(2) Buildings should be searched from top to bottom. Mine detectors are used to search for arms and ammunition. Every effort is made to avoid needless damage. Each house or building searched is marked with a coded designation. This same designation can be used to list occupants who must be accounted for in subsequent searches. The designation helps ensure that no building is overlooked in the search.

(3) If a house is vacant or if an occupant refuses entry, an entry using force may be required. If a house containing property is searched while its occupants are away, it should be secured to prevent looting. Before troops depart, the commander should arrange to protect such houses with the community until the occupants return.

e. Search Teams. Special teams can be formed for search operations. In searching small areas (a few buildings), small units can conduct a search without special teams for each function. Search teams may require--

- Reconnaissance.
- Physical or visual search.
- Control.
- Prisoner detection.
- Riot control agents, flame weapons, and demolitions.
- Documentation.

and may be augmented by--

- Fire support.
- Mine detection team.
- Military work dogs.
- Tunnel reconnaissance team.
- Interrogation team.
- Psychological/civil affairs team.

f. House Search. Each search party assigned to search an occupied building should consist of at least one local policeman, one protective escort, and one female searcher, if appropriate. The search party must first assemble everyone. The civil police may give the required orders and perform the actual searching. The object of this search is to screen for suspected persons. Detained persons are evacuated quickly--troops can perform this task. Escort parties and transportation must be planned.

g. Village Search. Before conducting search operations in a village, a reconnaissance patrol is sent out to gain information on the village and its inhabitants. The patrol must avoid detection.

(1) Part of the patrol maintains surveillance over the village while the rest returns with information. This detects any changes that may take place before the security element assumes position. Valuable information for the commander includes:

- Size and exact location of the village.
- Fortifications (mantraps, spike traps).
- Warning systems.
- Tunnel systems.
- Where the insurgent lives. He could live in the forest at night and inhabit the village during the day, or he could stay in the village both day and night. He could inhabit one or more huts.
- The number of people that live in the village.

(2) The security and search elements use one of two methods of movement.

(a) If aviation support is available, a quickstrike air assault movement is employed. This type of operation is characterized by speed.

(b) If the elements conduct a dismounted movement, they normally use designated routes. This type of operation is characterized by secure and rapid movement.

(3) A village may be searched as follows:

(a) First method: Assemble inhabitants in a central location (if they appear to be hostile). This method provides maximum control, facilitates a thorough search, denies insurgents an opportunity to conceal evidence, and allows for detailed interrogation. It has the disadvantage of taking the inhabitants away from their dwellings, thus encouraging looting that engenders ill feelings.

(b) Second method: Restrict inhabitants to their homes. This method prohibits movement of civilians, allows them to stay in their dwellings, and discourages looting. The disadvantages are that it makes control and interrogation hard and gives inhabitants time to conceal evidence in their homes.

(c) Third method: Control head of household. The head of each household is told to remain in front of his house while all others are brought to a central location. During the search, the head of each household accompanies the search team through his house. Looting is reduced, and the head of the household can see that the search team did not steal properly. This is the best method for controlling the population.

(4) Search teams must search thoroughly for insurgent personnel, equipment, escape tunnels, or caches. Cattle pens, wells, haystacks, gardens, fence lines, and cemeteries should be investigated.

Search teams are constantly alert for booby traps.

(5) After the house search is completed, the perimeter and area between the security element and village is searched. The two methods are:

(a) One--if the security element has not been discovered, the search element may be formed into sections, each section searching part of the perimeter. If any section flushes an insurgent out of the vegetation or tunnel exit, the security element captures the person, or fires at him, if he attempts to escape.

(b) Two--if the security element has been discovered, it conducts the perimeter search. Part of this element keeps the village isolated, while the rest conducts the search. Such a search could take hours if the terrain is extremely dense. Regardless of the terrain, the search units check possible locations for caches of material or insurgents in hiding.

(6) In areas where tunnels have been reported, the search unit must have a tunnel reconnaissance team attached. This team should consist of volunteers trained for this type of operation. They should have special equipment and abilities such as flashlights or miner helmets, protective masks, and communication with the surface. They should know how to sketch a tunnelsystem. They should also recover all items of intelligence interest.

Section III.
MOVEMENT SECURITY

Movement security can be divided into two categories: security of convoys with strong security detachments, and security of convoys with weak security detachments.

C-8. STRONG CONVOY SECURITY

Special combined-arms teams can be organized and trained to accompany and protect convoys. The security detachment is organized with adequate combat power to suppress insurgent ambushes. Its size and composition depend on the physical characteristics of the area, the ability of the enemy force, and the size and composition of the convoy.

a. The security detachment should have the following subordinate elements:

(1) A headquarters element to provide command, control, and communication.

(2) A medical support element.

(3) An armored element to provide firepower and shock effect.

(4) A mechanized or motorized infantry element.

(5) A combat engineer element to make minor repairs to bridges and roads, and to detect and remove mines and obstacles.

b. For large convoys, the security detachment should include field artillery. Ideally, half of the artillery would be placed well forward in the column and half near the rear of the column. The artillery command and control element would move near the security detachment headquarters. This arrangement is the most flexible for providing artillery fire support to elements of the column if an ambush occurs.

c. The combined-arms security detachment is usually interspersed throughout the convoy. This allows various elements to be employed either as a fixing element or attacking element. The formation of a security detachment and its integration into a convoy varies. Therefore, the enemy can be expected to observe convoy patterns and to prepare their ambushes to cope with expected formations. Tanks lead the convoy to gain maximum advantage from their mobility and firepower. If no tanks are available, a heavy vehicle with sandbags placed to protect personnel from mines should lead the convoy.

d. A strong attack element is placed at the rear of the convoy formation. This allows for maximum flexibility in moving for ward to attack forces trying to ambush the head or center of the convoy.

e. The enemy force may allow the advance guard to pass the site of the main ambush. Then it blocks the road and attacks the main body and the advance guard separately. At the first sign of an ambush, vehicles try to move out of the kill zone. If they must halt, vehicles stop in place; they do not drive to the roadsides or shoulders, which may be mined.

f. Specified personnel (following the unit SOP) immediately return fire from inside vehicles to cover dismounting personnel. They dismount last under cover of fire by those who dismounted first. Upon dismounting, personnel caught in the kill zone open fire. They immediately assault toward the ambush force and then establish a base of fire. Tanks open fire and maneuver toward the ambush force or to the closest favorable ground.

g. While the engaged element continues its action to protect the convoy, the commander rapidly surveys the situation. He then issues orders to the designated attack elements to begin predrilled offensive maneuvers against the insurgent force. The fire of the engaged security element fixes the ambush force and is coordinated with that of the attacking element.

h. After the insurgent force is defeated or neutralized, security details are posted to cover convoy reorganization. The convoy commander, using the fastest communication available, briefs his commander on the engagement. Captured insurgent personnel are interrogated as to where they planned to reassemble. This information is reported immediately to higher headquarters.

i. After an ambush, patrols may be sent to interrogate and or detain suspected civilians living near or along the routes of approach to the ambush positions.

C-9. WEAK CONVOY SECURITY

The security detachment accompanying a convoy may be too weak for decisive action against an insurgent attack or ambush.

a. The following principles apply when weak convoy security is evident:

(1) Some of the troops are placed well forward in the convoy, and the remainder are placed a short distance to the rear.

(2) Radio contact is maintained between the two groups.

(3) Sharp curves, steep grades, or other areas where slow speeds are needed are reconnoitered by foot troops before passage.

b. At the first sign of ambush, leading vehicles should increase to the safest maximum speed to try to break through the ambush area. Troops from vehicles halted in the ambush area dismount and

immediately return fire. Also, troops from vehicles breaking through the ambush dismount and assault the flanks of the ambush position. Both attacking groups must exercise care that they do not fire on each other.

c. If the enemy force allows the main convoy to pass through and then ambushes the rear guard, troops from the main body return and attack the flanks of the ambush position.

Section IV.
SUBSURFACE OPERATIONS

This section explains how insurgents can use natural caves or build underground facilities in the course of their operations. Caves and underground facilities can be used for command and control centers, logistics staging areas, hospitals, or fortifications. The larger underground facilities can be quite complex. They can be wired for electricity and communications, and can have pumping stations for supplying air to lower levels. Caves can have many large chambers connected by passageways. Also, tunnel systems can have many large rooms joined by interconnecting tunnels.

C-10. TUNNEL USES

Tunnels can be dug with zigzags and sumps to reduce the effects inside them of small-arms fire, explosives, and gas. Some tunnels, rooms, passageways, or chambers can contain concealed exits to allow insurgents to hide or escape if the complex or cave is penetrated. While other tunnels can be booby-trapped to kill intruders. Tunnels and caves are hard to detect from the air or ground. Their construction can make them impossible to destroy with conventional ammunition. Tunnels can also be dug in the basement of safe houses for use as escape routes if a house is compromised. Tunnel entrances are normally covered by fire from another point on the complex.

a. Insurgents can use tunnels in penetration operations to gain access to restricted areas. In built-up areas, they can infiltrate through sewers, or tunnel to their target from the basement of a nearby building, subway tunnel, or sewer. When insurgents are below the target, they can either build an exit and penetrate the target from below or fill the tunnel with explosives and destroy the target.

b. Tunnels are used for approach and escape, and for access to caves and underground bunkers for firing positions and for protection against indirect fires. They are also used as a common method for storing food and materials in underground caches. If large enough some tunnel complexes can house underground hospitals and base camps. (See FM 90-10-1 for information on urban tunnels.)

C-11. TUNNEL DETECTION

The first step in detecting or locating tunnels is to reduce a large geographical area of interest to a smaller area of probable locations. This can be accomplished by studying indications of probable tunnel locations.

a. Some indicators that tunnels are being employed by insurgent forces include--

(1) Movement of insurgents in a specific direction after being spotted by aircraft.

(2) Sniper fire occurring from areas where there are no obvious avenues of withdrawal.

(3) Vegetable gardens far from places of habitation.

(4) Operations where insurgents inflict casualties at relatively long range and disappear without making close contact or being detected by friendly forces.

(5) The smell of burning wood or food cooking in an area lacking habitation.

b. Conventional aerial photography produces results if the appearance of the surface and vegetation is changed from the normal. This requires skilled personnel to interpret photographs. In a jungle environment, aerial photography may be prohibited since dense vegetation, such as double or triple canopy jungle, obscures the ground.

c. Once determined that a certain area may contain a tunnel system, several indicators can be helpful in detecting tunnels. Visual inspections often disclose the general area of a tunnel but not its precise location. The key to finding a tunnel system is applying common sense to the situation. A platoon or company should be assigned a small search area, never larger than a 1,000-meter grid square. These small areas are chosen based on intelligence reports or on past actions of the insurgent force. The unit searches every square meter of the area. Some visual indicators usually found include--

(1) Worn places on trees that the insurgent uses as handholds.

(2) A small trail, much like a game trail, through brush into a clump of small trees.

(3) Cut trees, not a sure indicator.

(4) Limbs tied near the tree top to conceal the use of a tunnel from aircraft.

(5) Slight depression in or around a group of small trees.

(6) Air holes--sure indicators.

(7) A lone individual, mainly a female, in the area.

(8) Freshly cooked food with no one attending the site.

(9) Fresh human feces in the area.

d. These are all good indicators. However, they can vary depending on the area. The places to look for indicators are in the corners of hedgerows and trails and streams. The enemy often hides in these places so he can see while not being seen. Also, hiding in these places allows those who finished the camouflage to escape undetected. The insurgent is aware of the danger of setting a pattern. However, he must have a location that provides him with observation as well as concealment. Soldiers should look for OPs that allow the insurgent to move into or out of an area undetected.

e. Sometimes, the exact location of a tunnel can be obtained by questioning the local populace or PWs who may have occupied, or helped dig, the system. Due to compartmentation, the individual may not be able to locate an entrance or exit unless he has seen or used the completed tunnel.

C-12. TUNNEL SEARCH OPERATIONS

Forces entering an area where a tunnel complex is located requires a methodical approach. Security to the flanks and rear is imperative. The size of the objective area of operations determines the strength of the unit assigned the search mission. The unit, company, or platoon is task-organized for tunnel operations.

a. A company is divided into three elements: security, search, and reserve. (The headquarters element remains with the security element.)

(1) *Security*--one platoon plus headquarters element to cordon search area.

(2) *Search*--one platoon to search the immediate area for tunnels. The search element is subdivided into search and security teams.

(3) *Reserve*--one platoon to assist in cordon and reinforce as needed.

b. A platoon is divided into three elements: security, search, and reserve.

(1) *Security*--one squad plus headquarters element to cordon area.

(2) *Search*--one squad to search the area for tunnels. The search element is subdivided into search and security teams.

(3) *Reserve*--one squad to assist in cordon and reinforce as needed.

c. The techniques of deliberate search are centered around the rifle squad. Each squad is divided into a security and a search team.

d. A slow methodical search is conducted in the area of operations. Once assigned a search area, the squad systematically searches every square meter. The security element moves toward the limits of the search area. Once a hole (tunnel) is discovered, the security element surrounds the area while the search team prepares to destroy or neutralize the hole (tunnel).

C-13. SPECIAL EQUIPMENT

The platoon or company may require the following special items to perform tunnel operations:

a. Mine Detector--used to detect ammunition and weapon caches.

b. Grenades--fragmentary, chemical gas, chemical smoke, white phosphorus, and concussion types. Grenades should not be used after friendly forces have entered a tunnel.

c. Demolitions--used to destroy tunnel systems. Due to the complexity of charges needed to destroy some tunnel complexes, an engineer team should support the search unit. Also, the large amount of demolitions required for some operations can present unique logistics problems, mainly in a jungle environment. (See FM 9010-1 for information on the urban environment.)

d. Air Generstor--used to force smoke into tunnel complex.

e. Flashlights--to search tunnels.

f. Weapons--Pistols should be used inside tunnels. The pistol has good stopping power and is effective at close range.

g. Loudspeaker--used to call the enemy from tunnels.

C-14. FOUR-STEP PROCESS

The destruction of a tunnel is a four-step process, beginning (step 1) with a soldier firing one or two

magazines from a rifle into the tunnel entrance. This discourages the enemy from staying close to the entrance.

a After gaining the attention of the insurgents, they are told to vacate the hole or tunnel, or be killed. They may surrender without a fight, saving not only the efforts of killing but also of excavating the hole or tunnel for weapons and documents.

b. If this fails, breaching operations are used (step 2). A grenade is placed on the entrance cover to gain access. The entrance cover is removed in this manner to reduce the effects of any attached booby traps.

c. Once the entrance cover is destroyed, the following measures are used (depending on the mission):

(1) Insert grenades (step 3), fragmentary or concussion, to kill the insurgents. Ensure that the grenades are cooked-off before throwing them into the hole or tunnel.

(2) Insert a combination of chemical smoke and chemical gas grenades. This serves two purposes: chemical smoke can reveal the locations of other entrances or exits, and chemical gas can force the insurgents to evacuate the hole or tunnel. Captured insurgents are used to find other holes or tunnels.

d. Soldiers then enter to ensure that all weapons and documents are recovered and all enemy (dead or wounded) are removed (step 4). The hole or tunnel is searched for small compartments built to hide weapons and ammunition. If a tunnel complex proves to be extensive with bunkers and large rooms, it is cleared systematically. Bunkers are destroyed or occupied to prevent the enemy from reoccupying them through another tunnel. *Do not clear more bunkers than friendly forces can hold.*

e. Deliberate search techniques emphasize where to look for the enemy (locations that provide him with observation, cover, concealment, and an escape route). When the soldier learns what to look for, any of these indicators are likely to trigger a mental alert that the enemy is not far away. After the tunnel is searched, it is destroyed with explosives.

C-15. NEUTRALIZATION-DEMOLITION PROCEDURES

Neutralization and clearing of tunnels are slow and deliberate procedures, which can be costly in terms of casualties.

a. Tunnels. Since each tunnel system differs in size and construction, different quantities and placements of explosives are needed for each type.

(1) The use of block explosives to destroy a tunnel system has a disadvantage: all the explosive power is concentrated at one point. Thus, the destruction is localized, and often portions of the tunnel are unaffected. However, a large (10- to 12-pound) block of explosive tamped against the ceiling may cause an entire tunnel to collapse.

(2) Advantages of block-type explosives are the ease of emplacement, ease of procurement, and feasibility of aerial resupply. Also, block or satchel charges are effective in destroying bunkers, sunken living quarters, underground rooms, and short tunnels. Cratering charges are also effective for underground rooms.

(3) The shaped charge in tunnel destruction is effective in certain circumstances. A shaped charge placed underground in the middle of a tunnel complex and aimed downward destroys the area

around and above the charge. Also, a shaped charge placed in a deep complex and aimed upward results in extensive destruction.

(4) Another effective method of tunnel destruction uses bangalore torpedoes placed throughout the tunnel length (regardless of depth). The constant length of explosives throughout the tunnel ensures complete destruction. The bangalore (5 feet long) adapts to the twists and turns in tunnels. A disadvantage of bangalore torpedoes is the logistics problems arising from their size and weight. Resupply may be a problem if large quantities are used to destroy a tunnel system.

b. Bunkers. Underground living quarters and hideaways, and bunkers can be destroyed by block or satchel charges placed strategically inside the room.

Section V.
AMBUSH PATROLS

This section discusses combat patrols with missions to establish and execute ambushes to harass or destroy targets and or capture personnel and equipment. Ambushes reduce the insurgent's overall combat effectiveness. Destruction is the main purpose of an ambush since insurgents killed or captured, and equipment or supplies destroyed or captured, critically affect the insurgent force. The secondary purpose of ambushes is harassment, which diverts insurgents from other missions. A series of successful ambushes cause the insurgent force to be less aggressive and more defensive; to be apprehensive and overly cautious; and to be reluctant to go on patrols and move in convoys or in small groups. (Discussions on ambush planning and fundamentals are omitted from this section. See FM 90-8 for more information.)

C-16. TYPES OF AMBUSHES

The two types of ambushes are point and area. A *point ambush* involves patrol elements deployed to support the attack of a single killing zone. An *area ambush* involves patrol elements deployed as multiple, related, point ambushes.

a. An ambush can be either hasty or deliberate. A hasty ambush is an immediate action drill--an action of a combat patrol with little or no information. When information does not permit detailed planning required for a deliberate ambush, a hasty ambush is planned. Then the ambush patrol plans and prepares to attack the first suitable insurgent force. A deliberate ambush is planned as a specific action against a specific target. Detailed information of the insurgent force is required: size, nature, organization, armament, equipment, route and direction of movement, and times the force will reach or pass certain points on its route. Deliberate ambushes are planned when--

(1) Reliable information is received on the intended movement of a specific force.

(2) Patrols, convoys, carrying parties, or similar forces establish patterns of size, time, and movement to permit detailed planning for the ambush.

b. A unit conducting a combat patrol, before departing, plans and rehearses the ambush of the type of insurgent force it may encounter. It establishes and executes ambushes as opportunities arise.

C-17. POSITIONS

A point ambush, whether independent or part of an area ambush, is positioned along the expected route

of approach of the insurgent force. Formation is important, because it determines whether a point ambush can deliver the heavy volume of highly concentrated fire needed to isolate, trap, and destroy the insurgents.

a. The formation to be used is determined by carefully considering possible formations and the advantages and disadvantages of each in relation to terrain; conditions of visibility, forces, weapons, and equipment; ease or difficulty of control; force to be attacked; and the combat situation.

b. Formations are developed for the deployment of point ambushes. The formations are identified with names that correspond to the general pattern formed on the ground by deployment of the attack element. They include:

- Line formation.
- L-formation.
- Z-formation.
- T-formation.
- V-formation.
- Triangle formation
- Box formation

(Detailed information on the different point ambush formations, along with advantages and disadvantages to each, is discussed in FM 90-8.)

C-18. AREA AMBUSH FORMATIONS

Area ambush formations consist of two types: multiple point and baited trap. (For more information see FM 90-8.)

a. Multiple Point. This area ambush is best suited in terrain where movement is restricted to trails. It provides best results when established as a deliberate ambush. When there is no sufficient intelligence for a deliberate ambush, an area ambush of opportunity may be established. The outlying ambushes can attack insurgents approaching the central kill zone if the insurgent is small. If they are too large for a particular outlying ambush, the insurgents are allowed to continue in order to be attacked in the central kill zone.

b. Baited Trap. This area ambush can be varied by using a fixed installation as "bait" to lure relieving or reinforcing insurgent units into the kill zone of one or more of the outlying ambushes. The installation replaces the central kill zone and is attacked. The attack may intend to overcome the installation or may use it as a ruse.

OPERATION	SIZE	REQUIRED * ≥ INTELL	SUIT PHASE	** MODE	PURPOSE	TARGETS
ROADBLOCKS	≥ PLT	1	I, II, III	1 & 2	POPULATION & RESERVE CONTROL	INDIVIDUALS CONTROL
CHECKPOINTS	≥ PLT	1	I, II, III	1 & 2	POPULATION & RESERVE CONTROL	INDIVIDUALS CONTROL
CORDON & SEARCH	≥ CO	2	II, III	2	POPULATION & RESERVE CONTROL	AREAS (URBAN) LOG PERS INFO
RAID	≥ PLT	3	II, III	1	SECURE INFORMATION DESTROY ENEMY LIBERATE PERSONNEL	SPECIFIC TARGETS
PATROLLING	≥ PLT	1 2	I, II, III	1 & 2	RECONNOITER COMBAT DENIAL OF AREAS	AREA UNITS FACILITIES
AMBUSH	≥ CO	1 2	I, II, III	1 & 2	HARASS DESTROY INTERDICT MOVEMENT	INTERDICTION OF MOVEMENT
MOVEMENT TO CONTACT	BN	2 3	III	1	RECONNOITER CLEAR DRIVE	ENEMY UNITS
RECONNAISNCE IN FORCE	≥ BN	2 3	III	1	RECONNOITER TEST	ENEMY STRENGTH, DISPOSITION, AND LOCATIONS
HASTY ATTACK	CO	1 2	II, III	1 & 2	DESTROY ENEMY	ENEMY UNITS
DELIBERATE ATTACK	CO	2 3	II, III	1	DESTROY ENEMY	ENEMY UNITS FACILITIES
EXPLOITATION	BN	3	III	1	DISRUPT ENEMY FACILITIES	ENEMY FACILITIES
PURSUIT	BN	3	III	1	DESTROY WITHDRAWING FORCES	ENEMY UNITS
OPERATIONAL SUPPORT BASE	BN	2 3	II, III	2	SUPPORT OP LIMITED LOG BASE	ESTABLISH PRESENCE LIMIT ENEMY MOBILITY
PATROL BASES	≥ CO	2 3	II, III	2	COMMAND AND CONTROL RECONNAISANCE SITES	LIMITED TO DEFENSE
IMMEDIATE ACTION DRILLS	≥ BN	1 2	I, II, III	1 & 2	DESTRUCTION DEFENSE	ENEMY UNITS
ENCIRCLEMENT	≥ BN	3	II, III	1	DESTRUCTION	LARGER UNITS BASE COMPLEXES

LEGEND:

* 1. NO INTELLIGENCE
2. LIMITED INTELLIGENCE
3. COMPREHENSIVE

** 1. OFFENSIVE
2. DEFENSIVE

Table C-1. Comparison of operations.

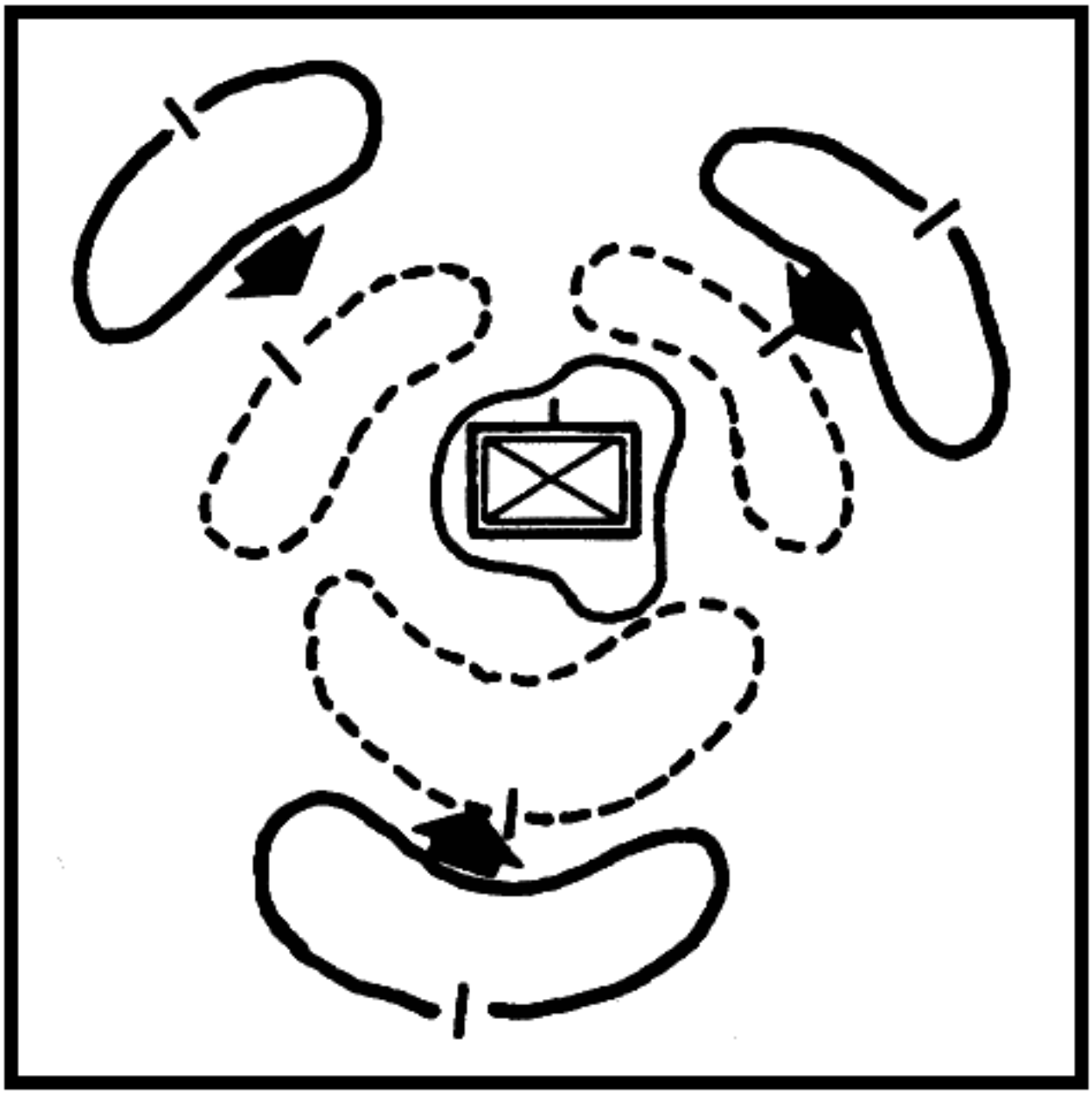

Figure C-1. Reduction of encirclement.

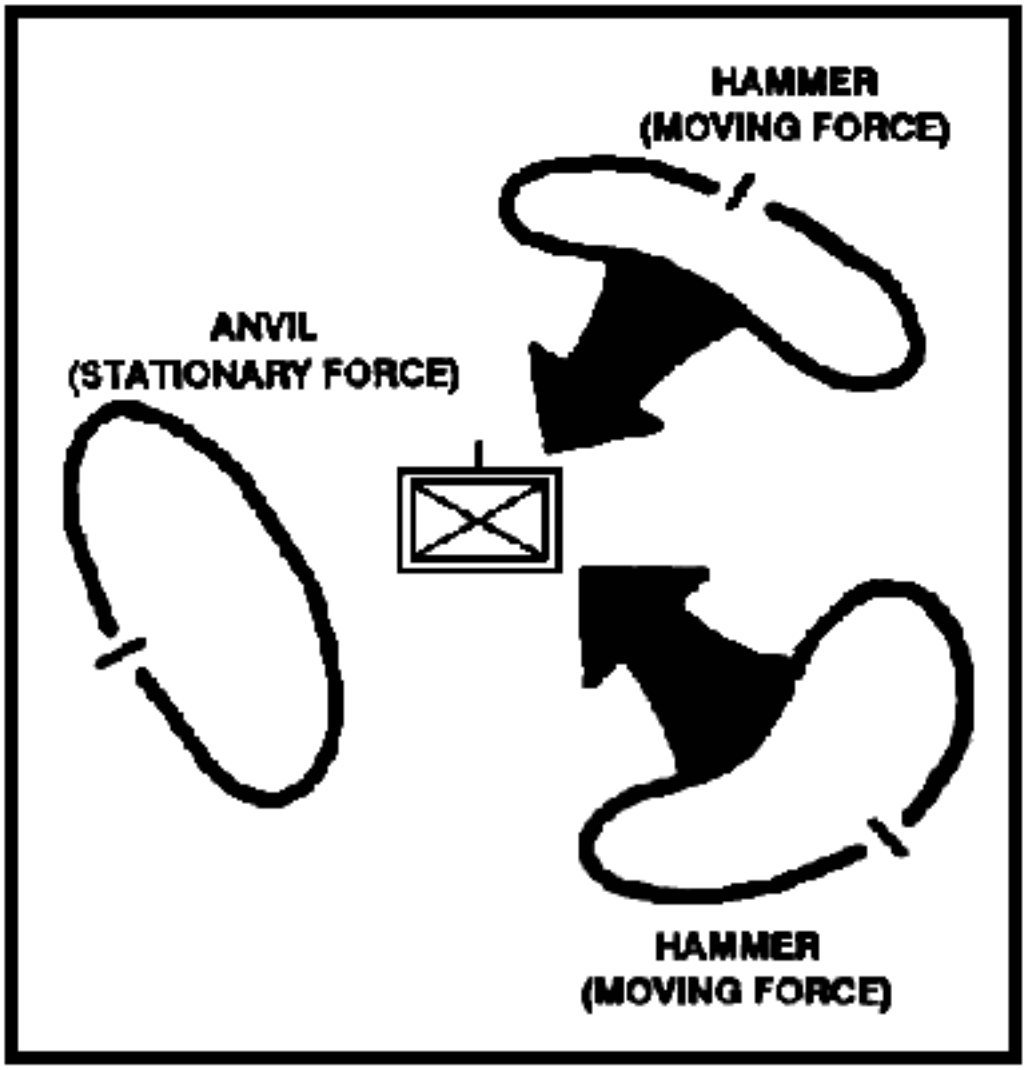

Figure C-2 Hammer and Anvil Method

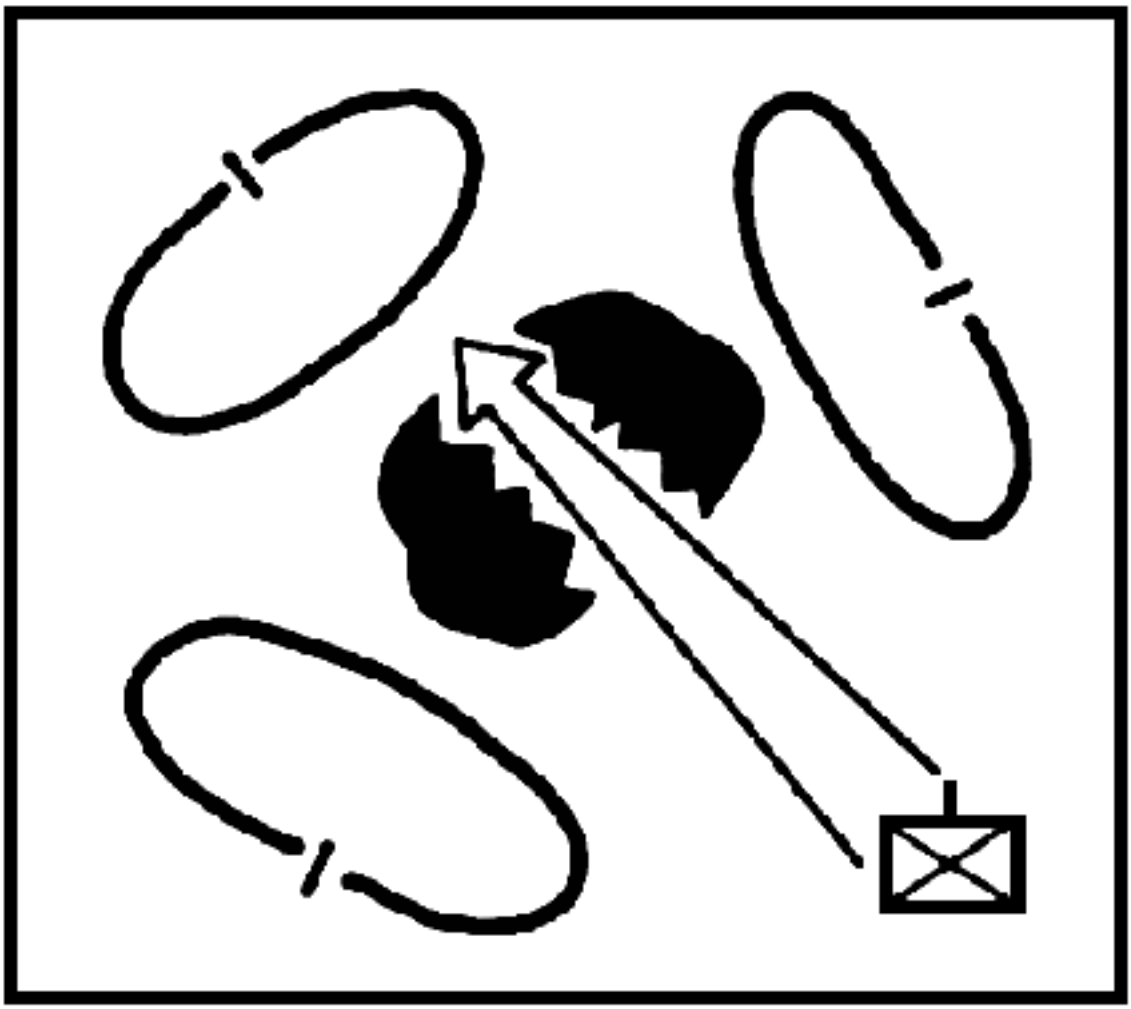

Figure C-3. Wedge method.

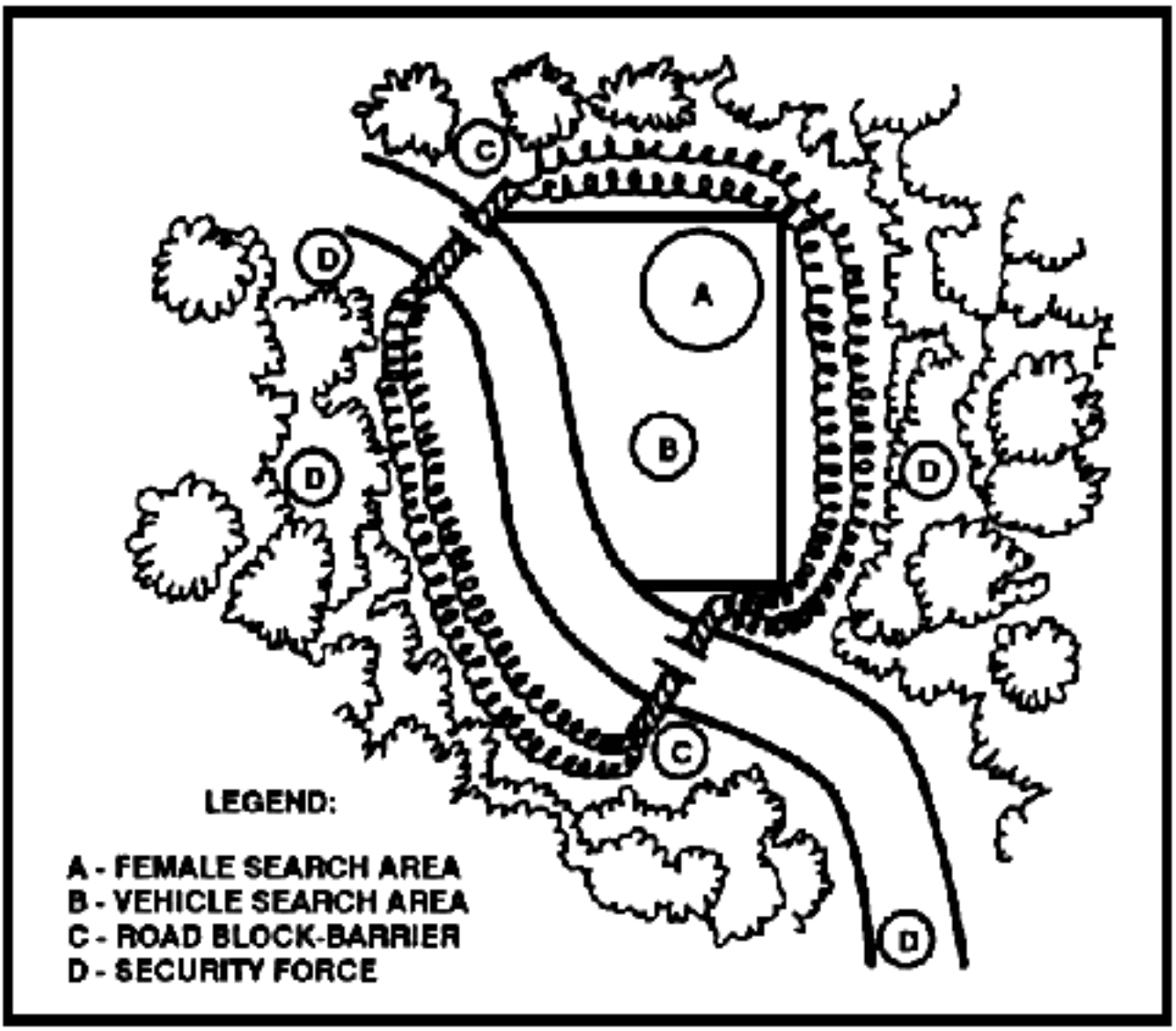

Figure C-4. Area search technique.

APPENDIX D

RELATED OPERATIONS

This appendix describes the five major operations found in internal defense and development, and in foreign internal defense besides tactical operations: intelligence, psychological operations, civil affairs, populace and resources control, and advisory assistance. While the brigade commander is mainly concerned with tactical operations in strike campaigns, he also recognizes that these five operations exist and support many activities in a COIN program. In consolidation campaigns, these operations normally take precedence, and tactical operations assume a supporting role. While the emphasis on any operation may shift in response to the needs of the situation, all of these operations occur at the same time and continuously.

Section 1.
INTELLIGENCE

When operating in a counterinsurgency environment, the population is considered a major source of intelligence. Since the conflict revolves around the population, the populace usually has a wealth of information that can be exploited.

D-1. INFORMATION SOURCES

The internal defense intelligence system consists of all host country military and civilian intelligence systems plus all US intelligence resources that are committed in-country to assist in preventing or defeating an insurgency. These agencies are coordinated and integrated under a single directorship in the National Internal Defense Coordination Center.

a. The intelligence resources of committed COIN forces are an integral part of this intelligence system. National agencies are usually targeted toward more *strategic* demands that require long-term intelligence networks and systems. COIN force intelligence assets are usually targeted toward *tactical* battlefield intelligence requirements and use intelligence gained through national systems.

b. In FID, intelligence organization requirements fall into three areas: preparedness, advice and assistance, and support of US units.

(1) *Preparedness.* Intelligence requirements are produced and filled in anticipation of a counterinsurgency. This intelligence production fulfills contingency requirements. Examples of these requirements are background biographies, area studies, and order of battle for insurgent forces in areas likely to become involved in an insurgency.

(2) *Advice and assistance.* Advice and assistance increases the abilities of the host country intelligence organization.

(3) *Support of US units.* This support fulfills operational requirements for committed US units.

c. Some of the primary objectives of US intelligence organizations in FID include:

(1) Determining the indicators of an impending insurgency.

(2) Obtaining or developing enemy intelligence that can be used to launch surgical strikes by US forces.

(3) Obtaining-information about the insurgent, weather, terrain, and population.

(4) Reducing to a minimum insurgent espionage, subversion, and sabotage.

(5) Identifying the main sources of discontent among the people.

(6) Identifying the true nature, aims, leadership, potential power, and most likely course of action of the insurgency.

(7) Identifying and penetrating the insurgent infrastructure.

D-2. INTELLIGENCE PRODUCTION

Intelligence production in COIN operations in FID operations is performed in accordance with the intelligence cycle. This cycle consists of directing the intelligence effort, collecting raw information, processing this information into finished intelligence, and disseminating the intelligence for use by the commander and his staff.

a. Directing. The intelligence officer directs the intelligence effort. He translates the commander's guidance and concept of the operation into specific, prioritized intelligence requirements. A continuously updated collection plan provides the intelligence officer with a logical, orderly system for directing the collection effort. Ideally, it ensures that all required information is collected in time to be of use and that all possible sources of information are exploited by appropriate collection agencies.

b. Collecting. The need to exploit all sources of information requires resourceful, flexible, and aggressive direction and coordination of the intelligence collection effort. Commanders and intelligence officers must be aware of the abilities and limitations of all intelligence resources for their best use. Many collection techniques are employed such as the use of SOPs and the use of expedients and improvisations as required by local conditions and resources. Another technique is the employment of specialized intelligence personnel and equipment that may be placed in support of the brigade.

c. Processing. Processing is the phase of the intelligence cycle whereby information becomes intelligence. Raw (combat) information from all sources is evaluated, correlated, and analyzed to produce an all-source product. The effort to produce intelligence for support of COIN operations in FID requires continual and close coordination with higher, subordinate, adjacent, supporting, and cooperating civil and military intelligence agencies and elements.

d. Disseminating and Using. The timely dissemination of available intelligence and its immediate use are vital in COIN operations in FID. Primary, alternate, and special intelligence channels of communication may be established when facilities and resources permit.

D-3. CIVILIAN POPULATION

Exploitation of civilian sources of information in COIN operations normally requires a sophisticated intelligence organization that is resident within the population. However, as the COIN campaign progresses, the civilian populace may volunteer more intelligence information within the brigade operational area.

a. Type of Information. Civilian sources or informants normally provide the following information:

(1) Details of the local terrain.

(2) Ideological motivation and sympathies of local residents.

(3) Logistic support available, or potentially available, to insurgents operating in the area.

(4) Potential insurgent targets or objectives.

(5) Identification of covert or part-time members of the insurgent force.

(6) Sabotage, espionage, and terrorism techniques and activities of the insurgent and underground support organizations.

(7) Weaknesses of the insurgent force.

(8) PSYOP by the insurgent force and the impact on the local population.

b. **Information Source File.** To expedite the evaluation of information provided by the civilian populace, brigade intelligence personnel may need to establish records that quickly identify local sources of information and their reliability. When established, this information source file should include such information as--

(1) Name, photograph, and physical description of source.

(2) Area in which source(s) can obtain information.

(3) Factors contributing to source's motivation to cooperate with COIN forces.

(4) Information collection abilities of source to include indication of training received.

(5) Method by which source is contacted.

(6) Record of payments or other remunerations, if made to source.

(7) Record of productivity and reliability of source.

c. Overt Exploitation of Civilian Sources. In overt exploitation, a source is contacted openly by the intelligence officer or one of his recognizable agencies, and information is solicited directly. This method has the advantage of providing for the immediate collection of information, but often entails significant disadvantages.

(1) The information requirements of the brigade or battalion are made apparent to the source, thus entailing a security risk.

(2) The source may not cooperate fully due to lack of motivation or fear of reprisal.

d. Clandestine Exploitation of Civilian Sources. Clandestine intelligence techniques are required in COIN operations in FID. They complement overt collection efforts to determine location, strength, and

ability of insurgent forces, underground cells, and civilian supporters. Normally at brigade or battalion level it is hard to establish an original clandestine collection or informant system during the time the brigade or battalion is the area of operations. Therefore, the S2 should support reliable informant or clandestine collection operations that are being conducted by other US, allied, or host country agencies within the brigade or battalion area of interest. Intelligence collected through clandestine exploitation of civilian sources of information is made available to COIN commanders. This is done through an area control center, joint operations-intelligence center, or a similar facility established to coordinate internal defense and development operations.

D-4. COUNTERINTELLIGENCE

Counterintelligence increases the security of all forces and the probability of attaining surprise in operations against insurgent forces. Adequate security measures are developed and continuously enforced. This helps toprevent penetration of the intelligence operation by hostile elements and to detect hostile elements already within the operation. Since insurgent forces are usually numerically inferior to those of the host country, allied, and US forces opposing them, the insurgent depends heavily on intelligence for successful operations. US brigades, in coordination with host country authorities, must habitually emphasize counterintelligence measures.

a. Denial Measures. Denial measures that apply to COIN operations may include--

(1) Removal of compromised informant sources from the area of operations.

(2) Restrictions on movement and communication facilities of the civilian population within the area of operations.

(3) Thorough briefing of all US, allied, and attached host country personnel. This should include the intelligence practices and techniques used by the insurgent and his underground support organization, and information on security.

(4) Emphasis on the secure disposal of trash and waste matter.

(5) Employment of silent weapons by patrols.

(6) Normal activity while preparing for operations in order to avoid informing the insurgent force of a change in routine.

(7) Maintenance of strict security concerning current or projected logistic movements and the nature of supplies.

(8) Conduct of major troop movements during darkness or inclement weather and by the most rapid means.

b. Detection Measures. Appropriate detection measures in COIN operations may include--

(1) Background investigations and screening of all civilians employed by, or operating with, US and host country forces, and those in civil positions. Emphasis must be on controlling guides or trackers who are familiar with the location, disposition, and objectives of the friendly forces.

(2) Surveillance of all known or suspected members of the insurgent force and its infrastructure.

(3) Extensive employment of trip flares and ambushes in areas of suspected insurgent

reconnaissance activity.

(4) Employment of infantry work dogs in conjunction with other security measures.

(5) Maximum emphasis on visual and electronic observation. Augmentation of organic visual aids and electronic detection devices is often required.

(6) Monitoring of civil communication media.

(7) Employment of women civil police officers for search and interrogation of women and children.

(8) Counterintelligence screening of the entire population of settlements suspected of intelligence activities in support of insurgent force.

(9) Wide distribution of photographs of known insurgents or key underground personnel to assist in the apprehension.

(10) Rewards for information leading to the capture of informants or other agents supporting the insurgent force.

(11) Periodic photographs of all residents of villages within the insurgent area of influence. They are compared to determine additions to or deletions from the population in the interim.

(12) Issuance of closely controlled identification cards to all residents of the area of operations. In COIN operations, counterintelligence activities normally are complicated by the presence of large numbers of civilians of unknown reliance. It is hard to distinguish among the friendly, neutral, and hostile elements. All possible security measures that aid identifying these elements are employed continually.

c. Deception Measures. In COIN operations, units habitually plan and execute small-scale cover and deception.

Section II.
PSYCHOLOGICAL OPERATIONS

PSYOP in foreign internal defense include propaganda and other measures to influence the opinions, emotions, attitudes, and behavior of hostile, neutral, or friendly groups to support the achievement of national objectives. (For further information on psychological operations, see FM 33-1.)

D-5. BRIGADE PSYCHOLOGICAL OPERATIONS

The purpose of brigade PSYOP is to enhance the accomplishment of the brigade's various FID missions. This is achieved by employing psychological principles to lessen or exploit the effects of tactical or nontactical operations upon the population or insurgent force.

D-6. PROGRAM CONCEPT

The overall PSYOP program for a given host country is established at the national level by a US-host country agency. This program provides guidelines for succeeding lower military and civilian echelons to use in the quest for popular support.

a. COIN units must ensure that their PSYOP is consistent with and supports US national objectives and the host country national PSYOP program. The brigade employs PSYOP to support its tactical strike and consolidation missions and to support intelligence operations, CA operations, and advisory assistance operations.

b. The allegiance of the people must be directed toward the host country rather than US brigade forces, ensuring announced programs and projects are within reach. Coordination is accomplished in the local area control center.

D-7. ORGANIZATION

The PSYOP staff officers and units perform assigned missions the same as other specialized units or staff members that are attached to, or placed in support of, the brigade or battalion. When such support is not available, a member or section of the unit staff is assigned responsibility for incorporating PSYOP considerations into plans, action, and operations. PSYOP resources are provided either from higher headquarters units or from TOE resources. The units provide, in addition to advice, support in the form of loudspeaker teams, leaflets, and various other audiovisual media.

D-8. EMPLOYMENT

Properly integrated and employed in the planning and conduct of operations and activities, PSYOP can aid in accomplishing the brigade's mission. COIN forces must consider employing PSYOP in all missions. Commanders and staff officers must realize that all military operations have psychological implications. PSYOP officers must be included in planning all activities.

a. Establishing support bases and operational support bases requires gaining the support of the populace nearby. Propaganda themes stress the purpose of US support and the military civic action program subversive insurgent movement.

b. Within an insurgency context, PSYOP has five major objectives:

(1) To assist the government in gaining the support of its population.

(2) To assist the government in defeating the insurgent movement.

(3) To assist the government in providing psychological rehabilitation for returnees from the subversive insurgent movement.

(4) To establish and maintain a favorable image in the host country.

(5) To influence neutral groups and the world community.

c. The major tasks of US PSYOP in an insurgency (when US combat forces are not yet committed) include--

(1) Advising host country PSYOP personnel on how to best exploit government programs.

(2) Recommending techniques for maintaining morale of host country forces.

(3) Assisting host country and US information agencies and activities in coordinating their efforts.

(4) Assisting host country personnel regarding PSYOP programs that will motivate the people to actively support their government.

(5) Recommending programs that will adversely affect the insurgent.

d. The major tasks of US PSYOP personnel in an insurgency (when US combat forces have been committed) include--

(1) Coordinating PSYOP activities with hostcountry units.

(2) Advising US and host country commanders regarding insurgent activities and effects.

(3) Advising US commanders regarding the psychological effects of military actions.

(4) Assisting in development of a PSYOP ability within host country military forces.

e. Five major target groups for PSYOP are the insurgent, the population supporting the insurgent, the uncommitted population, government personnel, and foreign audiences. Themes are tailored to each of these groups to gain maximum support for the government.

f. When targeting the insurgent, the major PSYOP objective is to discredit the insurgent and to isolate him from the population. The most important direction of attack is against insurgent unit morale.

(1) Themes should publicize and exploit differences between cadre, recruits, supporters, and the local population. Other themes might stress lack of support, isolation, homesickness, and hardships.

(2) Amnesty programs often prove useful in neutralizing insurgencies. They are most effective when they are sincere, credible, well publicized, directed against lower-ranking members of the insurgency, and offer good reasons and benefits for quitting the insurgent threat.

(3) Amnesty programs have several disadvantages. They recognize the insurgents as quasi-legitimate; they forgo punishment of anyone accepting amnesty, and they increase the image of the insurgent threat.

g. When targeting the population supporting the insurgent, the PSYOP objective is to achieve withdrawal of support for the insurgent and defection in place or person to the legitimate government. Themes should highlight insurgent shortcomings, ultimate governmental victory, government successes, and the practical advantages of surrendering or of accepting amnesty.

h. When targeting the uncommitted population, the major PSYOP mission is to build national morale, unity, and confidence in the government. There should also be a major effort to win popular acceptance of the government force. It should include convincing the people that government programs serve their interests, government forces can protect them, ultimate government victory is assured, and the people have major intelligence and counterintelligence roles to play.

i. When targeting government personnel, the PSYOP should seek to maintain loyalties and to develop policies and attitudes. These result in group members who realize the importance of popular support, promote public welfare and justice, try to eliminate causes of the subversive insurgency, and protect the population from the subversive insurgent.

(1) PSYOP should indoctrinate host country security and military forces regarding the importance of the civilian population and IDAD operations. Each soldier must understand that his actions toward the people may be the difference between success and failure.

(2) When government personnel interact with neutral and nonhostile elements of the population, the emphasis should be positive and constructive. PSYOP efforts should publicize the tangible and visible accomplishments of the legitimate government.

(3) PSYOP should discourage public apathy and activity that helps the insurgent. The people should not be asked to undertake any activity that is contrary to their own best interests.

j. When targeting foreign audiences, there are two major groups to be addressed: neutral nations and hostile nations. For neutral nations, the purpose of PSYOP is to achieve friendly neutrality or active support for the legitimate government. For hostile powers, the major PSYOP objective is to influence public opinion against involvement in supporting the insurgency.

k. US PSYOP try to establish and maintain a favorable US image. The themes most useful in establishing an image are that the US presence is requested by host country government, it is legal and necessary, it is temporary, and it is advisory.

l. In combat actions, provisions are made for the safety of the civilian population and, if possible, for their separation from the insurgent forces so that maximum firepower can be employed against the insurgent. The decision to employ PSYOP media to accomplish this task is carefully weighed against compromising surprise and security.

m. Intelligence operations are aided by employing PSYOP media in telling people to report information pertaining to strangers, suspicious persons, unusual activities by neighbors, and insurgent activities. Posters and leaflets provide clear instructions as to persons and places that receive this information. The message indicates if rewards are available.

n. Captured or defected leaders of the insurgent force are exploited. Written and broadcast messages prepared by these personnel and reviewed by trained PSYOP personnel are used in communities suspected of supporting insurgent forces, and in tactical operations against insurgent forces.

Section III.
CIVIL AFFAIRS

The CA role in FID takes the form of civic assistance and civic action.

D-9. GOVERNMENT-BUILDING

Civic assistance is defined as providing advice and assistance to indigenous civil and military authorities in the sociological, economical, and political aspects of a civil emergency, disorder, or IDAD. It is commonly referred to as government-building since it is directed toward the structures of government. Military civic action is defined as the participation of indigenous military forces in short-term projects. These projects are useful to the local population, and contribute to social and economical development.

a. Civic action programs are divided into long-range and short-range programs. Long-term deals with resolving social and economical problems. Short-range is designed to gain and retain the loyalty of the population.

b. CA operations are a responsibility of military commanders at every echelon. They include any activity of military forces concerned with relationships between the military forces and the civil authorities and people in the area. Activities may range from military civic action projects to the use of authority that

normally is the responsibility of the local government.

D-10. OPERATIONAL SCOPE

The scope of CA operations varies with the type of local government. It is influenced by the social, economical, and political backgrounds of the country and people.

a. Some major CA activities include--

- Prevention of civilian interference with military operations.
- Support of government functions.
- Community relations.
- Military civic action.
- Assistance for populace and resources control.
- Civil defense.

b. The overall objective of CA in FID is to mobilize and motivate civilians to assist the government and military forces. The operations are directed at eliminating or reducing military, political, economical, and sociological problems. Close and continuous PSYOP support is needed to maximize the effect of CA.

c. All military units have the ability to conduct CA, particularly military civic action. Major roles in military civic action are often assumed by engineer, transportation, medical, and other units that have assets suited to support military civic action projects.

d. Both civic assistance and civic action are geared to the phase of insurgency they are involved in. Several factors should be considered before a military unit begins a civic action project:

(1) Is the project needed and wanted?

(2) Will military participation compromise civilian authority and responsibility?

(3) Does the project support the unit's political-military mission?

(4) Does the project comply with the host country FID plan?

(5) Will the project duplicate other efforts?

(6) Will the people be involved in the project?

(7) Will there be continuity of effort?

D-11. THE UNITED STATES ROLE

The normal role of the US military in civic assistance and civic action is to advise and assist host nation military forces. US military units rarely enter into direct civic action programs.

a. Units as small as a battalion task force may be assigned CA elements to assist in enforcing CA plans. A civil-military operations staff officer may also be assigned to such a task force.

b. CA liaison and coordination should be set up between military forces and government agencies. This can be accomplished through organizations designed for this purpose or through CA staff elements.

c. CA operations require good relationships with the population. To establish a good relationship, troop discipline, courtesy, and honesty in dealing with the people are emphasized. Where rapport has been established between host country forces and the population, properly administered CA operations contribute to the attainment of objectives.

D-12. FIVE PHASES OF PLANNING

CA responsibilities assigned to a tactical unit commander may require employing specialized CA personnel or units. Host country CA plans should include provisions for CA support for tactical unit commanders. (For further information on CA organization, see FM 41-10.)

a. CA planning includes political, economical, social, psychological, and military considerations to include--

(1) A national development plan that involves projects that support development programs that meet the needs and desires of the people. Civic action projects conducted for merely something to do may be counterproductive.

(2) Military civic action projects conducted by military forces.

(3) CA personnel and units required to support host country agencies at subnational levels.

(4) CA mobile training team requirements and resources.

(5) CA training program requirements for host country and allied forces.

(6) CA requirements to provide government administration in areas of the country.

b. Emphasis on military civic action varies with the intensity of insurgent activities. Whatever the level of military civic action, projects are planned and coordinated with internal development programs. During Phase I of an insurgency, military civic action concentrates on the development of the socioeconomic environment. In the absence of tactical operations, many military resources may be devoted to military civic action projects that that provide both long-range and shortrange benefits.

c. During Phases II and III, military civic action is concentrated on projects designed to prevent intensifying the insurgency. These projects produce noticeable improvements in a relatively short time. Examples of such projects are farm-tomarket roads, bridges, short-range educational programs, basic hygiene, medical immunization programs, and simple irrigation projects.

d. Advice is sought on projects to ensure they are needed, wanted, and coincide with development plans for the area. In the advanced stages of insurgency, priorities on military operations may reduce military civic action to such immediate tasks as providing medical aid to civilians. Other tasks are procuring and distributing food and shelter for displaced persons.

Section IV.
POPULACE AND RESOURCES CONTROL

P&RC operations are classified as nontactical, police-type operations.

D-13. POPULATION PROTECTION

P&RC is government action to protect the populace and its material resources and to deny those

resources that would further hostile objectives against the government. The objective of P&RC operations is to assist in preserving or reestablishing a state of law and order within a nation or area. Four main tasks are involved in reaching this objective:

a. Providing security for the populace.

b. Detecting and neutralizing the insurgent apparatus.

c. Severing any relationship between the insurgent and the populace.

d. The measures employed must be the least restrictive in accomplishing the purpose. Their needs must be explained to the people, and the restrictions must be lifted as soon as the situation permits.

D-14. AVAILABLE FORCES

Three forces are available to conduct populace and resources control operations.

- The civil police are the first line of defense in the battle againstan insurgency.
- Paramilitary forces may augment or assist the civil police.
- The nation's military forces should be employed only when civil police and paramilitary units cannot cope with the insurgent activity.

a. Control of the populace and resources should be performed by host country agencies. This is a matter of practicality, but there are also legal and psychological implications. US military should be used as a last resort and only as augmentation to host country units. MP units should be used before combat troops.

b. Populace and resources control measures can be classified into three categories:

(1) Surveillance of individuals, groups, activities, or locations by overt or covert means.

(2) Restrictions such as curfews; travel permits; registration of firearms; national registration and identification of all persons; and control of selected foodstuffs, medical supplies, and equipment.

(3) Enforcement through the use of roadblocks, checkpoints, rewards, amnesty programs, and selective inspections of homes at night.

c. These control measures should be well planned and coordinated to ensure rapid and efficient operations, with a minimum of delay and inconvenience to the people. P&RC complements and supports other COIN operations and environmental improvements being conducted by the military forces. It also contributes to the overall stability of the country or the operational area.

D-15. CENTRAL THEME

The central theme of populace and resources control is population.

a. PSYOP should convey this theme and be designed to accomplish the following:

(1) To persuade the people to accept the needed measures before implementation.

(2) To convince the people that their full support will reduce the inconvenience of the measures.

(3) To place the blame for any inconveniences or discomfort on the insurgents.

b. Border operations are taken (as part of populace and resources control) to isolate the insurgent from

his outside support. Outside support deals with many activities. It may range from provision of funds and training of individual insur- gents by an outside power to providing an active sanctuary for combat forces.

c. The most frequent populace and resources control operations US units may engage in include--

- Border operations.
- Cordon and search.
- Augmentation of enforcement operations (roadblocks, checkpoints).

Section V.
ADVISORY ASSISTANCE

Advisory assistance is advice and assistance US personnel provide to host country regular, paramilitary, and irregular forces. It is also provided to civilian agencies to help them become effective in the performance of their missions.

D-16. TACTICAL BACKUP

The activities named above support and, in turn, are supported by tactical operations, intelligence operations, PSYOP, P&RC operations, and military civic action. Such assistance is designed--

a. To provide military assistance in conjunction with the Navy and Air Force to the host country.

b. To participate in joint internal defense training and exercises as mutually agreed upon by the services concerned.

c. To provide mobile training teams, CSS, and CS to advise, train, assist, and support host country forces.

D-17. ARMYASSISTANCE

The main purpose of US Army assistance is to increase the abilities of host country armed forces.

a. The brigade may be required to organize, train, equip, and advise host country civil and military personnel and units to perform COIN missions. Tasks include--

(1) Organizing, equipping, training, and advising paramilitary and irregular forces (locally recruited) to assume local defense missions from the brigade.

(2) Equipping, training, and advising host country regular armed forces on new equipment provided by MAPs and FMS.

(3) Organizing, equipping, training, and advising host country police organizations.

(4) Advising host country regular armed forces, paramilitary forces, and local governments in all aspects of internal defense and development.

b. Brigade advisory assistance to host country personnel and organizations, as differentiated from military civic action, usually is performed to extend security assistance activities. Such activities as organizing, equipping, training, and advising host country forces may be accomplished while in base areas. They may also be accomplished during the defensive phase of consolidation operations of COIN tactical operations.

c. If US military assistance organizations are operational, advisors usually are provided for this purpose. However, when US advisors or mobile training teams are not available, brigades may be required to assume this function. Advisory assistance is coordinated closely with both the internal defense and the internal development programs through the local area control center.

D-18. BRIGADE ORGANIZATION

All brigade organizations should be prepared to provide individuals or teams who can perform advisory assistance. (For further information, see FMs 100-5 and 100-20.)

a. Organization for advisory assistance operations may require the tailoring of specific teams to accomplish specific missions.

(1) MP units, augmented by brigade elements, may be required to train host country MP organizations in the area. Also, combined arms teams may be required to train local host country artillery and armor units in artillery and armor tactics and techniques.

(2) Training centers may be required to warrant them if the training load is sufficient.

(3) Teams from brigade units may be organized for on-duty training of host country specialists. These specialists are trained in the use of specialized equipment. This equipment is organic to brigades but will be supplied to host country forces at a later date.

(4) Mobile training teams formed by the brigade may be dispatched to local host country forces to conduct training at host country unit bases or training centers.

b. Advisory assistance operations inherently involve the need to use advisory techniques. Therefore, tact, discretion, language qualification, expertness in the subject, and other qualifications must be stressed.

c. A major consideration in organizing for advisory assistance is the military rank of the advisors. In many countries, it is not appropriate to have someone of less rank advising a unit or an element. To avoid this, commanders may need to frock or designate acting sergeants in order to give the impression that personnel of equal or greater rank performing advisory assistance.

APPENDIX E

COMBINED OPERATIONS

When US forces are deployed to a host country, tactical operations are usually joint in nature. US forces normally work with or in support of the military and paramilitary forces of the host country.

E-1. NATURE OF COMBINED OPERATIONS

Combined operations require written agreement as to authority, jurisdiction, and procedural and organizational matters. The legal basis for combined operations is usually a treaty or operational agreement between the US and the host country.

a. US forces must plan to coordinate and work with the military or paramilitary forces. Commanders and staffs must be prepared to establish workable arrangements quickly, once introduced into a host country, if not performed before deployment. Every situation is unique and depends on the extent of involvement of US forces and the nature of the operations.

b. Planning for factors that must be considered benefits combined operations. Chief considerations are:

- Command and control.
- Intelligence.
- Operational procedures.
- Combat service support.

E-2. COMMAND AND CONTROL

US forces establish the following:

a. Organization of the combined force.

b. Overall command of the force.

c. Roles and missions of the combined-force.

d. Procedure for exchange of LOs with language ability or interpreter support, and determine the level of exchange.

e. Understanding of differences, abilities, and personal characteristics of host country military leaders.

E-3. INTELLIGENCE

US forces establish procedures for--

a. Dissemination of military intelligence and use of intelligence assets by partners.

b. Coordination of intelligence operations.

c. Sharing of high-technology intelligence abilities.

E-4. OPERATIONAL PROCEDURES

US forces establish plans and procedures for--

a. SOPs that ensure effective cooperation.

b. Assignment of responsibility for certain operations based on special abilities of the force.

c. Determination of difference in tactics, techniques, and procedures.

d. Determination of difference in equipment, radios, and maps.

e. Detailed planning and rehearsals.

f. Determination of allied unit recognition.

g. Rear operations coordination, planning, and responsibilities.

h. Use of combat support assets.

E-5. COMBAT SERVICE SUPPORT

US forces establish plans for--

a. Exchange of liaison officers.

b. Coordination support from local resources and facilities.

c. Determination of equipment and ammunition compatibility.

d. Support in a tactical emergency.

APPENDIX F

USES OF MISSION-ORIENTED PROTECTIVE POSTURE

In MOPP gear, soldiers have protection against all known chemical agents, live biological agents, and toxins. MOPP gear does not protect against initial nuclear radiation or the hazards of residual radiological contamination from induced gamma and fallout. However, it gives some radiation protection because of complete body coverage. It reduces the chance of beta particles coming in contact with and burning the skin, and it reduces the possibility of wearers ingesting alpha particles. This encapsulation also helps simplify decontamination, but this protection demands a price be paid. Soldiers wearing MOPP gear cannot work long or fast. They may suffer mental distress as a result of feeling closed in and will suffer from heat stress and heat exhaustion in warm temperatures and at high work rates. Thus, when the NBC threat is low, full protection may not always be worth the resultant reduction of combat potential.

The need to balance protection with the threat, temperature, and urgency of the mission led to the concept of MOPP. Commanders can raise or lower the amount of protection through five levels of MOPP--MOPP zero through MOPP4. In addition, commanders have a mask-only option. Protection increases with progression from MOPP zero to MOPP4, but efficiency decreases correspondingly, therefore, selecting the MOPP level that provides the best balance requires judgment. (For additional information, see FM 3-4.)

F-1. MOPP LEVELS

Standardized MOPP levels allow commanders to easily increase or decrease levels of protection. Because the levels are standardized and all soldiers understand them, commanders can order increased or decreased protection without providing long explanations. Soldiers put on first the elements of MOPP gear that take the longest to put on and that degrade mission performance the least. They put on last the MOPP gear elements that can be put on quickly and degrade mission performance the most. This flexibility gives soldiers a head start at putting on MOPP gear.

a. MOPP Zero. Soldiers carry the protective mask with LCE, having the MOPP gear readily available (that is, within the work area, vehicle, fighting position, or the like). MOPP zero is appropriate when the enemy has an NBC employment capability but chemical warfare has not begun or when troops are first deployed outside the theater of operation. MOPP zero allows soldiers to be free of the burden of wearing the overgarment and mask, and yet have them readily available when needed. The battle dress overgarment should remain sealed in the vapor-barrier bag until needed. Soldiers carry their M258A1 decontamination kit, M8/M9 detector paper, and NAAK.

b. MOPP1. Soldiers in MOPP1 wear the battle dress overgarment. In hot weather, they can wear it

directly over their underwear and may leave the jacket open for ventilation, but they must keep the trousers closed. They attach the M9 paper to the overgarment and wear the protective helmet cover. For soldiers in MOPP1, the reaction time needed to adopt MOPP4 protection against an attack is half, from 8 minutes to 4.

c. MOPP2. Soldiers in MOPP2 add their chemical-protective overboots. The overboots take about three to four minutes to put on; once troops are in MOPP2, they can go to the higher MOPP levels in seconds. In hot weather, soldiers can leave the overgarment jacket open for ventilation but must keep

d. MOPP3. Soldiers wear the protective mask and hood in MOPP3, making protection almost complete, but interference with work becomes significant. The mask and hood restrict vision, heat stress becomes a major factor, and a greater risk of heat exhaustion exists. In hot weather, soldiers may open the overgarment jacket and roll the protective-mask hood for ventilation but must leave their trousers closed.

e. MOPP4. Soldiers in MOPP4 protect their hands with a pair of NBC rubber gloves with cotton liners. They close the overgarment and pull down and adjust the hood, completing protection. MOPP4 has the most negative impact on individual efficiency and effectiveness.

F-2. MASK-ONLY POSTURE

WARNING
DO NOT USE MASK-ONLY POSTURE WHEN A BLISTER AGENT IS PRESENT.

In a contaminated environment, soldiers do not need to wear protective overgarments or rubber gloves as long as they are protected from direct skin exposure to liquid or solid contamination (transfer hazards). Tanks, some vans, and some buildings are examples of this kind of partial shelter from contamination. Inside these shelters, soldiers may be exposed to vapor hazards but not to transfer hazards. A teletype operator inside a sealed communications van, for example, can work safely and far more efficiently in mask-only posture.

a. Commanders must balance the value of increased efficiency that mask-only posture gives against the increased risk it imposes. If the shelter is penetrated by weapons fire or accident, soldiers inside might be exposed to a transfer hazard. In case of shelter penetration, ordinary clothing provides brief protection from transfer hazards.

b. Soldiers in mask-only posture must assume the appropriate MOPP level before exiting their shelter. To maintain mask-only posture, returning soldiers must carefully avoid bringing liquid contamination into the shelter. The following situations are appropriate for the mask-only command:

- Troops outside are at MOPP3 or MOPP4, and a chemical attack has not occurred.
- Troops outside are at MOPP4, and the unit is in a down wind vapor-hazard area only.
- An attack has occurred, and the only hazard has been determined to be nonpersistent vapor.

Ultimately, the decision rests with the commander to go to mask-only for personnel protected from liquid-agent contact. Mask-only is not an appropriate command when blister-agent hazards exist.

F-3. SYSTEM FLEXIBILITY

MOPP is not a fixed or rigid system. Flexibility is the key to providing maximum protection with the lowest risk possible while still allowing mission accomplishment. Flexibility allows subordinate commanders to adjust the amount of MOPP protection required in their particular situations and still maintain combat effectiveness. Also, commanders can place all or part of their units in different MOPP levels or can authorize variations within a given level.

a. Responsibility for MOPP Levels. It is corps and higher level commanders' responsibility to direct minimum MOPP levels and recommend the higher MOPP levels appropriate to the threat. They are aware of the strategic tactical intelligence that might indicate the probable use of NBC weapons. These commanders have the first responsibility for upgrading the unit's protective posture. Ordering MOPP2 through MOPP4 is the responsibility of division and lower commanders. The ultimate responsibility, however, is that of the company commander, platoon leader, or squad leader. At this level there is a better understanding of what the unit can and cannot do. The leader increases or decreases the unit's protective posture based on an analysis of the situation and guidance from higher command. Final responsibility at this level retains flexibility of the system. The leader does not decrease the protective posture level below the minimum established level.

b. Variations to MOPP Levels. Considerable flexibility within each MOPP level allows variations based on the situation. Certain variations of the wearing of MOPP gear reduce degradation of unit efficiency. Commanders must weigh these variations against the possible risk of contamination and mission accomplishment. Commanders should make these decisions on the spot to modify MOPP. The following gives some suggested variations.

(1) Soldiers may leave the overgarment jacket open at MOPP1, MOPP2, or MOPP3, allowing greater ventilation, and they may leave the hood open or rolled at MOPP3. Commanders base their decision to use this variation on the threat, temperature, and unit work rate.

(2) Wearers may don the overgarment over the battle dress uniform (BDU) or directly over underwear. Determining factors are the temperature and the work rate of personnel.

(3) Soldiers must wear the protective gloves at MOPP1 through MOPP3 when handling equipment that has been decontaminated. This prevents contact with agents that may absorb to the surface of the equipment.

(4) Where the only hazard is from residual nuclear effects, the commander may modify MOPP levels based on assessment of the situation and criticality of the mission. As stated earlier, MOPP gear does not protect against gamma radiation, which is the commander's immediate concern. Once it has been determined that only a low-level residual radiological hazard exists, the commander may decide to modify the unit's posture, because of mission requirements. This reduces the degradation of unit performance caused by heat stress.

(5) Risks include burns from beta particles and ingestion of alpha particles. Another is the greater problem of removing radiological particles from the hairy areas of the body, since showers are no longer part of the decontamination process. As a last resort, soldiers may use the wet wipes of the M258A1 kit for this purpose. Neither situation will cause excessive degradation of unit performance, but both must be considered.

(6) One method of modifying the protective posture allows soldiers to wear the cloth liners from their butyl gloves. This helps cover as much exposed skin as possible. Soldiers can cover their

mouths with handkerchiefs or other material that provides dust protection in place of their protective masks. The primary concerns are to reduce the amount of radioactive contamination that contacts the skin and to prevent ingestion of radioactive particles. If soldiers can accomplish the mission while in full MOPP gear, they will reduce beta burns and alpha particle ingestion hazards and avoid additional decontamination procedures.

F-4. MOPP ANALYSIS

Every commander has a responsibility to go through a MOPP analysis based on the situation. The analysis finds the balance between reducing the risk of casualties and accomplishing the mission. The use of MOPP involves risk, but the better the commander analyzes the complex factors that control the need for protection, the lower the risk and the higher the mission performance. Before deciding, the commander must consider the following questions in the analysis:

- What is the mission?
- What is the work rate?
- How much time will the work require?
- Is the unit targeted?
- What is the warning time?
- What is the weather?
- What additional protection is available?
- What are the training and physical levels?
- Is it day or night?

a. Mission. What type of mission has the unit been given? The mission greatly influences the amount of protection needed by each soldier. How important is the mission, and what risks will it require?

b. Work Rate. What work rate will the mission require? Physical work rate is categorized as light, moderate, or heavy. Clerical and administrative tasks and riding in vehicles are examples of light work. Handling supplies and equipment, and preparing defensive positions are examples of moderate work. Fighting or forced marching are examples of heavy work. Soldiers doing heavy work tire more quickly than those doing lighter work. MOPP gear reduces soldiers' effectiveness at all work rates, but the reduction becomes more severe as the work rate increases.

c. Required Time. How much time will it take to accomplish the mission at different levels of MOPP? The commander can estimate the time needed to accomplish the mission. To give the commander an idea of how much time tasks will take in MOPP4, Appendix A, FM 3-4, shows tables for various types of units. Remember, the tables are only a guide, and only experience can give accurate times. Increases in the time needed to conduct operations in MOPP3 are somewhat less than in MOPP4. This is because some body heat dissipates through the open hood and overgarment in MOPP3. However, soldiers cannot achieve normal work times until they remove their masks and hoods. The hood and shoulder areas release most of the body heat. If retained, this heat increases the time required to do a job. With only one exception, there are no major time increases for units operating in MOPP1 and MOPP2. The exception is extensive travel on foot in MOPP2, because overboots slow travel.

d. Target. How likely is it that the unit will be attacked with NBC weapons? The answer is a judgment based on knowledge of the way NBC weapons are used. First, there is the matter of the unit location on

the battlefield. Is the unit close to the front lines? Mortars and artillery can deliver chemicals accurately, and the closer the unit is to enemy observers, the more accurate and timely enemy fire is likely to be. Is the unit considered a primary target in the rear area? Persistent agents are more likely to be used in the rear to disrupt operations that support the front lines. If the unit is on a likely avenue of approach, use of nonpersistent agents is likely.

e. Warning Time. How much warning of an enemy NBC strike can be anticipated? The commander must consider available intelligence. Has the enemy used NBC weapons? Has the enemy deployed weapon systems and munitions? Do wind direction and speed place the unit in a downwind-hazard area? If so, he must consider placement of the unit alarms. What are the lay of the land and the wind direction? Are the alarms positioned in locations that will give best early warning? Have adjacent units experienced any unexplained illness?

f. Weather. What are the weather conditions, and how will they influence the unit's performance? High temperatures and humidity make it difficult for the body to dissipate heat, and this is compounded when soldiers must wear MOPP gear, which retains even more heat. The more body heat retained, the fewer hours soldiers can work without increasing their chance of heat exhaustion or heat stroke. This, coupled with the work rate, requires units to take more frequent and longer breaks, thus taking longer to accomplish the mission. Wind speed may also be a factor to consider. High wind speeds aid in the dissipation of body heat as well as decrease the probability that the enemy will employ chemical agents.

g. Additional Protection. What additional protection is available? Any form of available overhead cover provides additional protection. Depending on the wind speed and type of cover, the commander can reduce MOPP levels, using sound judgment. The possibility of a percutaneous (through-the-skin) hazard still exists, and soldiers should wear as much protection as mission and resupply capabilities allow.

h. Troop Preparedness. How well are the troops trained, and what is their physical condition? Well-prepared troops suffer less stress when in MOPP4 under combat conditions than do troops who are less prepared. Well-prepared troops are those who have trained extensively in protective gear and are in good physical condition. It cannot be overemphasized that soldiers must train with their MOPP gear, including many hours of training in MOPP4. Soldiers cannot be expected to fight successfully in full MOPP gear if they have not trained with the equipment. Infantrymen train extensively with the M16 rifle to become proficient with its use. Likewise, soldiers must continually train with MOPP gear to become more confident of the equipment and learn how to adjust their way of working. Training in full MOPP gear helps soldiers understand the problems they will encounter when required to fight in MOPP gear.

i. Time of Day. Is it day or night? The best time to use chemical agents is between late evening and early morning, when stable or neutral temperature gradients prevail. Under these conditions, agents tend to linger close to the ground and move horizontally with the wind. During unstable conditions in the heat of the day, agents rise rapidly. This rapid rise reduces the time on target and the agents' casualty-producing capabilities.

j. Commanders Decision. After answering these questions, the commander can decide on the amount of protection needed to accomplish the mission, continuously updating and refining the process as the situation changes. The following scenario is an example of applying a flexible MOPP system.

"Intelligence reports indicate Threat forces are advancing on the corps area. Reports are that large shipments of chemical munitions have been moved forward to artillery units in support of the Threat first

echelon. The corps commander has directed MOPP1 for all units in the corps area of operations. Division and brigade commanders determined that the threat does not involve all units within their areas of responsibility. They recommend that all units assume MOPP2.

"An infantry company commander, using the MOPP analysis and his commander's guidance, determines that his unit is a primary target and must complete defensive preparation before the Threat forces arrive in an hour. The unit alarms are in position and will provide early warning of a chemical attack. The commander determines that he must modify the unit protective posture and prepare for an attack. Half the unit assumes MOPP2 and continues defensive preparation. The remainder assumes MOPP3 and provides security. If an attack occurs, soldiers in MOPP2 will take only seconds to assume a higher MOPP level. Thus, the commander applies the flexible MOPP system and accomplishes the mission in the required time with the least amount of risk."

F-5. OTHER PROBLEMS

Several other problems arise when troops encounter NBC weapons. Although these problems are not as important as the questions already discussed, the commander must consider them.

a. Command, Control, and Communications. In an NBC environment, command, control, and communications are difficult. Performance of command functions while in MOPP gear presents problems all commanders must consider. A few of these problems are the following.

- Heat stress causes personnel in responsible positions to tire easily.
- The voicemitter makes speech difficult to understand.
- The M17-series mask impairs voice communication in both volume and quality on radio and field phones.
- The hood impairs hearing.
- Eye lenses of the mask narrow the field of vision.

To minimize some of these difficulties, leaders can delegate more responsibilities to reduce the stress of wearing MOPP gear. The unit SOP must include specific guidelines based on the mission. When using the radio, leaders must ensure the microphone is held close to the voicemitter. If possible, they wear the microphone-equipped M24/M25 mask and use the vehicular communication system. To enhance verbal communications, they speak more slowly than normal and repeat orders. If time permits, leaders issue written orders to ensure orders are understood. They use collective protection as much as possible to eliminate the burden of MOPP gear.

b. Personal Identification. One way to help identify each soldier in MOPP gear is to use tape showing the soldier's name and rank. The soldier wears this tape on his protective-mask carrier and overgarment pocket. If he is in MOPP zero, the tape is placed on the overgarment bag. When the overgarment is put on, the soldier pulls the tape off the package and places it on his overgarment for identification.

c. Miosis. Small amounts of nerve agent absorbed through the eyes constrict the pupils. This condition is called *miosis*. It may involve pain, headaches, or both. The pupil is unable to dilate normally, thus reducing night vision and the efficiency of operating night vision devices. Miosis can reduce the efficiency of performance of other tasks at night, such as navigating on foot, identifying and engaging targets, driving vehicles under blackout conditions, and flying, which requires pilots to change focus frequently. Miosis ranges from minimal to severe, depending on the nerve agent dosage. Victims may

experience headaches when they are exposed to bright light. Severe miosis and the reduced ability to see in dim light can persist for 48 hours after onset. The pupil gradually returns to normal after several days. Full recovery may take more than 20 days. Repeated exposures within this period cause cumulative effects. Commanders must identify personnel performing critical tasks dependent on night vision and initiate precautions to minimize miosis:

(1) Have key personnel mask whenever there is risk of encountering miosis-producing hazards.

(2) Have them mask when close to ground, equipment, or other personnel known to have been contaminated with liquid nerve agent.

(3) After detailed decontamination (FM 3-5), personnel should move away from their equipment. Have them move to a contamination-free area and conduct short unmasking periods. They should disperse in the open air and use the buddy system to observe for possible miosis symptoms.

(4) Use collective protection as much as possible.

d. Psychological Effects. Commanders must always be aware of the psychological effects soldiers encounter while wearing protective clothing.

(1) History shows that 10 percent of battlefield casualties are caused by psychological factors. In an NBC environment, 25 percent of casualties may be psychological in origin. Symptoms may include claustrophobia, apprehension, paranoia, disorientation, distorted body sensations, hallucinations, confusion, and panic.

(2) Many of these symptoms can be prevented by continually reinforcing NBC training and by educating soldiers on NBC survival measures. During peacetime, soldiers should receive extensive concurrent training in full MOPP gear. This allows soldiers to become more confident in the equipment. It also increases the time that MOPP gear can be worn without serious effects.

e. Food Contamination. A soldier's ability to eat in an NBC environment depends on the type and extent of contamination. In a contaminated area where there is also a vapor hazard, leaders should move troops into a collective-protection facility. Since collective-protection shelters have a limited capacity, small groups should be rotated through these facilities.

(1) In a contaminated area with no collective protection available, leaders can relocate troops to a safe area for feeding by rotating small portions of the unit or by entire unit replacement. The rotational method selected depends largely on the situation, distance from the safe area, and availability of uncontaminated areas.

(2) If the troops are in a contaminated area with no detectable vapor hazard or in a clean area where they are under constant threat of NBC attack, leaders can use a rotating basis for feeding about 25 percent at any one time. They must take care to prevent contaminating the food.

f. Water Supply. The human body depends on water to cool itself in a hot environment. Soldiers in MOPP4 may lose more than one quart of water each hour. They must replace these losses continually.

(1) Leaders should base an approximate recommended replenishment on work rate and temperature. For example, with a moderate to heavy work rate and temperatures below 80 degrees F (27 degrees C), water consumption should be one quart for each person every three hours. With the same work rate but temperatures above 80 degrees F (27 degrees C), the water consumption should increase to one quart every two hours. Otherwise, soldiers can suffer rapid rise in body heat

and heart beat, decrease in ability and motivation to work and, eventually, heat exhaustion.

(2) Troops equipped with M17A1/M17A2 protective masks should be able to drink from their canteens while masked. If the drinking tube is not working or if masks do not have drinking tubes, soldiers should use the buddy system and follow the procedure detailed under food and water consumption in FM 3-4, Chapter 5.

(3) Leaders should arrange for additional water supply by having filled canteens delivered in exchange for empty ones. If water and additional canteens are in short supply, they should observe water economy measures. Such measures include reducing physical activity or limiting it to the early morning, evening, and night hours when the heat load and sweat loss are lessened. The reduction of water intake to economize in turn reduces work capability and efficiency, and increases the risk of heat injury.

GLOSSARY

A2	Army airspace
ABCCC	airborne battlefield command and control center
ACA	airspect coordination area
ACC	area coordination center
ADA	air defense artillery
ADL	armistice demarcation line
ADP	automatic data processing
AFSOC	Air Force Special Operations Command
AI	air interdiction
ALO	air liaison officer
AM	amplitude modulation
ANGLICO	air and naval gunfire liaison company
AO	area of operation
AOR	area of responsibility
ASD/ISA	Assistant Secretary of Defense for International Security Affairs
ASL	authorized stockage list
AUTODIN	automatic digital network
AUTOSEVOCOM	automatic secure voice communications
AUTOVON	automatic voice network
BAI	battlefield air interdiction
BDAR	battle damage assessment and repair
BDE	base defensive effort
BDF	base defensive force
BDU	battledress uniform
BFV	Bradley fighting vehicle
BMNT	beginning morning nautical twilight
BSA	brigade support area
C2	command and control
C2SRS	command and control strength reporting system
C3	command, control, and communications
C3CM	command, control, communications countermeasures
CA	civil affairs
CAS	close air support
CE	communications-electronics

CIA	Central Intelligence Agency
CINC	Commander in Chief
CJCS	Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff
CNR	combat net radio
COA	course of action
COIN	counterinsurgency
COMSEC	communications security
CONPLAN	concept of the operation plan
CONUS	continental United States
CP	command post
CS	a chemical gas; combat support
CSS	combat service support
DAO	Defense Attache Office
DCA	defense counter air
DCS	defense communications system
DF	direction-finding
DIA	Defense Intelligence Agency
DISCOM	division support command
DOD	Department of Defense
DS	direct support
DTS	data transfer system
DZ	drop zone
ECM	electronic countermeasures
ECCM	electronic counter-countermeasures
E&E	escape and evade
EENT	end evening nautical twilight
EOD	explosive ordnance disposal
EPW	enemy prisoner of war
ESM	electronic warfare support measures
EW	electronic warfare
FA	field artillery
FAC	forward air controller
FAO	foreign area officer
FASCAM	family of scatterable mines
FAX	facsimile
FDC	fire direction center
FIDAF	foreign internal defense augmentation force
FID	foreign internal defense
FIST	fire support team
FM	field manual; frequency modulation
FMS	foreign military sales

FO	forward observer
FRAGO	fragmentary order
FSCM	fire support coordination measures
FSCOORD	fire support coordinator
FSE	fire support element
FSO	fire support officer
G2	Assistant Chief of Staff (Intelligence)
GS	general support
GSR	ground surveillance radar
HC	a chemical smoke
HF	high frequency
HHC	headquarters and headquarters company
HNS	host nation support
HPT	high-payoff target
HUMINT	human intelligence
HVT	high-value target
IAW	in accordance with
ICS	intercommunications system
IDAD	Internal Defense and Development
IED	improvised explosive device
IEW	intelligence and electronic warfare
IHFR	improved high frequency radio
II	imagery interpretation
IMINT	imagery intelligence
IPB	intelligence preparation of the battlefield
IR	information requirements
ITU	International Telecommunications Union
J3	operations directorate
JCS	Joint Chiefs of Staff
JDS	joint deployment system
JSEAD	joint suppression of enemy air defense
JSOTF	joint special operations task force
JTF	joint task force
KIA	killed in action

LAW	light antitank weapon
LCE	load-carrying equipment
LIC	low-intensity conflict
LOC	lines of communication
LOGCAP	logistical civil augmentation program
LOS	line of sight
LRRP	long-range reconnaissance patrol
LRSU	long-range surveillance unit
LRU	less-than-release unit
LUP	linkup point
LZ	landing zone

MAAG	Military Assistance Advisory Group
MANPADS	man-portable air defense system
MASINT	measurement and signature intelligence
MAP	military assistance program
MCHAN	multichannel
METT-T	mission, enemy terrain (and weather), troops and time available
MFO	multinational force and observers
MHz	megahertz
MI	military intelligence
MILGP	military group
mm	millimeter
MNF	multinational force
MOPP	mission-oriented protective posture
MP	military police
MRE	meal, ready-to-eat
MSE	mobile subscriber-equipment
MSR	main supply route

NAAK	nerve-agent antidote kit
NAI	named areas of interest
NATO	North Atlanta Treaty Organization
NBC	nuclear, biological, chemical
NCA	national command authority
NCO	noncommissioned officer
NEO	noncombatant evacuation order
NGF	naval gunfire
NIC	National Intelligence Center
NLOS	non line of sight
NOD	night observation device
NPCC	National Production Control Center

OBJ	objective
OCONUS	outside continental United States
OJT	on-the-job training
OP	observation post
OPCON	operational control
OPFOR	opposing force
OPLAN	operation plan
OPORD	operation order
OPSEC	operations security
ORP	objective rally point
OSB	operational support base
PAO	public affairs office
PCM	pulse code modulation
PCO	peacetime contingency operation
PHOTOINT	photo intelligence
PIR	priority intelligence requirement(s)
PKO	peacekeeping operation
PLL	prescribed load list
POL	petroleum, oils, and lubricants
P&RC	population and resources control
PSYOP	psychological operations
PW	prisoner of war
RATT	radio teletypewriter
RCA	riot-control agent
RF	radio frequency.
RFL	restrictive fire line
RIC	Regional Intelligence Center
RIF	reconnaissance in force
ROE	rules of engagement
rpm	revolutions per minute
R&S	reconnaissance and surveillance
RSL	reconnaissance and security line
RSTA	reconnaissance, surveillance, and target acquisition
S1	adjutant
S2	intelligence officer
S3	operations and training officer
S4	supply officer
S5	civil affairs officer
SATCOM	satellite communications
SECDEF	Secretary of Defense
SECOMP	secure en route communications package

SIGINT	signal intelligence
SIGSEC	signal security
SINCGARS	single-channel ground and airborne radio subsystem
SITMAP	situational map
SJA	staff judge advocate
SOC	special operations command
SOI	signal operation instructions
SOF	special operations force
SOFA	status of forces agreement
SOP	standing operating procedure
SP	start point
SSB	single side band
TACSAT	tactical satellite
TACFIRE	tactical fire
TACP	tactical air control party
TAI	target(ed) areas of interest
TC	training circular
TC&D	tactical cover and deception
TDA	table of distribution and allowances
TECINT	threat equipment, captured, intelligence
TF	task force
TLE	target location error
TOC	tactical operations center
TOE	table of organization and equipment
TOR	terms of reference
TOW	tube-launched, optically tracked, wire-guided missile
TRADOC	United States Army Training and Doctrine
TTP	tactics, techniques, and procedures
TVA	target value analysis
UHF	ultra high frequency
UN	United Nations
UNDOF	United Nations Disengagement Observer Forces
UNEF	United Nations Emergency Forces
US	United States
USAF	United States Air Force
USAID	United States assistance and internal development
USIA	United States Information Agency
USMC	United States Marine Corps
USN	United States Navy
UNIFIL	United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon
UW	unconventional warfare

VHF	very high frequency
VIP	very important person
WP	white phosphorus
WWMCCS	worldwide military command and control system
XO	executive officer

REFERENCES

Sources Used

These are the sources quoted or paraphrased in this publication.

AR 310-25, Dictionary of United States Army Terms, 15 November 85

AR 310-50, Catalog of Abbreviations and Brevity Codes, 15 November 85

AR 700-137, Logistics Civil Augustmentation Program (LOGCAP), 16 December 85

FM 1-100, Doctrinal Principles for Army Aviation in Combat Operations, 28 February 89

FM 6-20, Fire Support in the AirLand Battle, 17 May 88

FM 12-6, Personnel Doctrine, 23 August 89

FM 19-1, Military Police Support for the AirLand Battle, 23 May 88

FM 19-4, Military Police Team, Squad, Platoon Combat Operations, 23 May 84

FM 19-15, Civil Disturbances, 25 November 85

FM 33-1, Psychological Operations, 31 July 87

FM 41-10, Civil Affairs Operations, 17 December 85

FM 55-2, Division Transportation Operations, 31 January 85

FM 63-6, Low-Intensity Conflict (To be published)

FM 100-20, Low Intensity Conflict, 16 January 81

FM 100-37, Terrorism Counteraction, 24 July 87

JCS Pub 1-02, DOD Dictionary of Military and Associated Terms, 1 December 89

JCS Pub 3-07 (Test), Doctrine for Joint Operations in Low-Intensity Conflict, October 1990

JCS Pub 5-02.4, Joint Chief of Staff, Joint Operation Planning System, Vol IV (Crisis Action Procedures), 8 July 1988

TC 19-16, Countering Terrorism on US Army Installations, 25 April 83

Documents Needed

These documents must be available to the intended users of this publication.

FM 1-111, Aviation Brigade, 27 August 90

FM 3-3, NBC Contamination Avoidance, 30 September 86

FM 3-4, NBC Protection, 21 October 1985

FM 3-5, NBC Decontamination, 24 June 85

FM 3-10-1, Chemical Weapons Employment, 8 April 88

FM 3-11, Flame Field Expedients, 19 September 90

FM 3-50, Deliberate Smoke Operations, 25 July 84

FM 3-100, NBC Operations, 17 September 85

FM 3-101, Chemical Staffs and Units, 22 April 87

FM 5-100, Engineer Combat Operations, 22 November 88

FM 5-103, Survivability, 10 June 85

FM 7-8, Infantry Platoon and Squad, 22 April 92

FM 7-10, Infantry Rifle Company, 14 December 90

FM 7-20, Infantry Battalion, 6 April 92

FM 7-30, Infantry Brigade, 24 April 81

FM 17-50-1, Attack Helicopter Team Handbook, 9 May 83

FM 17-95, Cavalry Operations, 14 February 86

FM 19-40, Enemy Prisoners of War, Civilian Internees and Detained Persons, 27 February 76

FM 21-75, Combat Skills of the Soldier, 3 August 84

FM 24-1, Signal Support in the AirLand Battle, 15 October 90

FM 29-51, Division Supply and Field Service Operations, 13 November 84

FM 31-11, Doctrine for Amphibious Operations, 1 August 67

FM 31-12, Army Forces in Amphibious Operations, 28 March 61

FM 31-71, Northern Operations, 21 June 1971

FM 34-1, Intelligence and Electronic Warfare Operations, 2 July 87

FM 34-10, Division Intelligence and Electronic Warfare Operations, 25 November 86

FM 43-5, Unit Maintenance Operations, 28 September 88

FM 43-11, Intermediate Maintenance Operations, 17 December 87

FM 43-12, Division Maintenance Operations, 10 November 89

FM 44-1, US Army Air Defense Artillery Employment, 9 May 83

FM 44-3, Air Defense Artillery Employment: Chaparral/Vulcan/Stinger, 15 June 84

FM 44-18, Air Defense Artillery Employment, Stinger, 30 September 81

FM 71-1, Tank and Mechanized Infantry Company Team, 22 November 88

FM 71-2, The Tank and Mechanized Infantry Battalion Task Force, 27 September 88

FM 71-3, Armored and Mechanized Infantry Brigade, 11 May 88

FM 90-2, Battlefield Deception, 3 October 88

FM 90-3(HTF), Desert Operations (How to Fight), 19 August 77

FM 90-4, Air Assault Operations, 16 March 87

FM 90-10, Military Operations on Urbanized Terrain (MOUT), 15 August 79

FM 90-10-1, An Infantryman's Guide to Combat in Built-Up Areas, 30 September 82

FM 90-12, (Base Defense) Multi-Service Procedures for Defense of a Joint Base, 2 October 89

FM 90-14, Rear Battle, 10 June 85

FM 100-5, Operations, 5 May 86

FM 101-40, Armed Forces Doctrine for Chemical and Biological Weapon Defense,30 June 76

JCS Pub 0-2, (o) Unified Action Armed Forces (UNAAF), 1 December 86

JCS Pub 1, Joint Chief of Staff Administration Publications, 15 June 88

AUTHORIZATION LETTER

FM 7-98
19 OCTOBER 1992

By Order of the Secretary of the Army:

GORDON R. SULLIVAN
General, United States Army
Chief of Staff

Official:

MILTON H. HAMILTON
Administrative Assistant to the
Secretary of the Army

DISTRIBUTION:

Active Army, ARNG, and USAR: To be distributed in accordance with DA Form 12-11E, requirements for FM 7-98, Operations in a Low-Intensity Conflict (Qty rqr block no. 4766).

U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: O-160-408

PIN: 070446-000