Special Forces
Unconventional Warfare

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Special Forces Unconventional Warfare

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Preface

Training Circular (TC) 18-01, *Special Forces Unconventional Warfare*, defines the current United States (U.S.) Army Special Forces (SF) concept of planning and conducting unconventional warfare (UW) operations. For the foreseeable future, U.S. forces will predominantly engage in irregular warfare (IW) operations.

PURPOSE

TC 18-01 is authoritative but not directive. It serves as a guide and does not preclude SF units from developing their own standing operating procedures (SOPs) to meet their needs. It explains planning and the roles of SF, Military Information Support operations (MISO), and Civil Affairs (CA) in UW operations. There are appropriate manuals within the series that addresses the other primary SF missions in detail.

SCOPE

The primary users of this manual are commanders, staff officers, and operational personnel at the team (Special Forces operational detachment A [SFODA]), company (Special Forces operational detachment B [SFODB]), and battalion (Special Forces operational detachment C [SFODC]) levels. This TC is specifically for SF Soldiers; however, it is also intended for use Armywide to improve the integration of SF into the plans and operations of other special operations forces (SOF) and conventional forces.

APPLICABILITY

Commanders and trainers should use this and other related manuals in conjunction with command guidance and the Combined Arms Training Strategy to plan and conduct successful UW operations. This publication applies to the Active Army, the Army National Guard (ARNG)/Army National Guard of the United States (ARNGUS), and the United States Army Reserve (USAR) unless otherwise stated.

ADMINISTRATIVE INFORMATION

The proponent of this TC is the United States Army John F. Kennedy Special Warfare Center and School (USAJFKSWCS). Submit comments and recommended changes on Department of the Army (DA) Form 2028 (Recommended Changes to Publications and Blank Forms) directly to Commander, USAJFKSWCS, ATTN: AOJK-DTD-SF, 2175 Reilly Road, Stop A, Fort Bragg, NC 28310-5000. This TC is designed to be UNCLASSIFIED in order to ensure the widest distribution possible to the appropriate Army special operations forces (ARSOF) and other interested Department of Defense (DOD) and United States Government (USG) agencies while protecting technical or operational information from automatic dissemination under the International Exchange Program or by other means. Unless this publication states otherwise, masculine nouns and pronouns do not refer exclusively to men.

Chapter 1

Overview

There is another type of warfare—new in its intensity, ancient in its origin—war by guerrillas, subversives, insurgents, assassins; war by ambush instead of by combat, by infiltration instead of aggression, seeking victory by eroding and exhausting the enemy instead of engaging him. It preys on unrest.

President John F. Kennedy, 1962

The Commander, United States Special Operations Command (USSOCOM), defines UW as activities conducted to enable a resistance movement or insurgency to coerce, disrupt, or overthrow a government or occupying power by operating through or with an underground, auxiliary, and guerrilla force in a denied area.

INTRODUCTION TO UNCONVENTIONAL WARFARE

1-1.   The intent of U.S. UW efforts is to exploit a hostile power's political, military, economic, and psychological vulnerabilities by developing and sustaining resistance forces to accomplish U.S. strategic objectives. Historically, the military concept for the employment of UW was primarily in support of resistance movements during general-war scenarios. While this concept remains valid, the operational environment since the end of World War II has increasingly required U.S. forces to conduct UW in scenarios short of general war (limited war).

1-2.   Enabling a resistance movement or insurgency entails the development of an underground and guerrilla forces, as well as supporting auxiliaries for each of these elements. Resistance movements or insurgencies always have an underground element. The armed component of these groups is the guerrilla force and is only present if the resistance transitions to conflict. The combined effects of two interrelated lines of effort largely generate the end result of a UW campaign. The efforts are armed conflict and subversion. Forces conduct armed conflict, normally in the form of guerrilla warfare, against the security apparatus of the host nation (HN) or occupying military. Conflict also includes operations that attack and degrade enemy morale, organizational cohesion, and operational effectiveness and separate the enemy from the population. Over time, these attacks degrade the ability of the HN or occupying military to project military power and exert control over the population. Subversion undermines the power of the government or occupying element by portraying it as incapable of effective governance to the population.

1-3.   Department of Defense Directive (DODD) 3000.07, *Irregular Warfare*, recognizes that IW is as strategically important as traditional warfare. UW is inherently a USG interagency effort, with a scope that frequently exceeds the capabilities of the DOD alone. There are numerous, uniquely defined terms associated with UW (Figure 1-1, page 1-2). These terms developed over the years from various military and government agencies, as well as the academic world. Many of the terms used to define UW appear to closely resemble one another and most are found in Joint Publication (JP) 1-02, *Department of Defense Dictionary of Military and Associated Terms, or JP 3-05, Doctrine for Joint Special Operations*.

1-4.   The following chapters contain vital information for U.S. forces. In addition, there are four appendixes. Appendix A provides an example of an area study, Appendix B gives an example of an SF area assessment, Appendix C contains a sample program of instruction for resistance forces, and Appendix D details SF caching.

General War

Armed conflict between major powers in which the total resources of the belligerents are employed, and the national survival of a major belligerent is in jeopardy (JP 1-02).

Guerrilla Warfare

Military and paramilitary operations conducted in enemy-held or hostile territory by irregular, predominantly indigenous forces (FM 1-02).

Insurgency

An organized movement aimed at the overthrow of a constituted government through use of subversion and armed conflict (JP 3-05).

Limited War

Armed conflict just short of general war, exclusive of incidents involving the overt engagement of the military forces of two or more nations.

Resistance Movement

An organized effort by some portion of the civil population of a country to resist the legally established government or an occupying power and to disrupt civil order and stability (JP 1-02).

Subversion

Actions designed to undermine the military, economic, psychological, or political strength or morale of a governing authority (JP 1-02).

Figure 1-1. Unconventional warfare terminology

THE ROLE OF UNCONVENTIONAL WARFARE IN UNITED STATES NATIONAL STRATEGY

1-5.   Three documents capture the U.S. national strategy: the National Security Strategy, the National Defense Strategy, and the National Military Strategy. The National Security Strategy states the President's interest and goals. The National Defense Strategy is the DOD contribution to the National Security Strategy. The National Defense Strategy also provides a framework for other DOD strategic guidance, specifically for campaign and contingency planning, force development, and intelligence. The goals and objectives of the President's National Security Strategy guide the National Military Strategy. In addition, the National Military Strategy implements the Secretary of Defense's National Defense Strategy. The National Military Strategy provides focus for military activities by defining a set of interrelated military objectives.

1-6.   USG support to a resistance or insurgency can manifest in any of the following manners:

- *Indirect support.* In limited-war scenarios, overt U.S. support for a resistance movement is sometimes undesirable. In these cases, the USG may indirectly render support though a coalition partner or a third-country location. The USG normally limits indirect support to logistical aid and training. Limited war presents a much more restrictive environment that requires low-profile execution of all USG support operations.
- *Direct support* (*less combat*). In general-war scenarios, the visibility of USG support is less controversial, which expands the nature of possible USG support to include a wider scope of logistical support, training, and advisory assistance. U.S. assistance can include advisors in

sanctuaries or insurgent-controlled areas not in direct combat. The United States can also render assistance from a neighboring country.

- ***Combat support.*** Combat support includes all of the activities of indirect and direct support in addition to combat operations.

1-7. Before providing support to a resistance movement or insurgency, planners must consider how the ideology and objectives of the resistance movement affect strategic interests in the region. Planners must ensure leadership clearly defines U.S. national strategy and goals before planners make any determination regarding the appropriateness of support to a resistance movement or insurgency. Without a clear understanding of the desired effects and end state for a region or conflict, it is impossible to assess whether support to a resistance or insurgency would achieve favorable results.

1-8. Successful planners weigh the benefits of providing support to resistance forces against the overall strategic context of a campaign. They must not allow a desire to conduct UW or to produce a purely military effect dominate their judgment. Support to resistance forces does not simply contribute to a military effort; it undoubtedly alters the geopolitical landscape of a given region. Planners may deem a specific insurgent effort feasible and appropriate to the military effort, but consider it strategically unfavorable because of the political risk of the effort or the potential for increased regional instability.

FEASIBILITY FOR UNITED STATES SPONSORSHIP

1-9. There are certain environments and situations that make UW the best option. Although outside forces could alter and shape the existing environment to some degree, they cannot artificially manufacture or transplant it.

1-10. There are two categories planners use when deciding to provide support. The first category is feasibility. Feasibility is dependent upon the physical and human conditions of the environment. The second category is appropriateness. Appropriateness is dependent upon the characteristics of the resistance movement.

1-11. U.S. UW forces possess capabilities that can profoundly affect the human terrain through shaping operations that influence behavior in support of U.S. objectives. They can also influence resistance movement characteristics, making them more appropriate to the mission. For example, U.S. UW forces could emphasize guerrilla adherence to international norms and standards of behavior.

1-12. Planners further break down feasibility and appropriateness into the seven dynamics of an insurgency. Chapter 2 discusses these dynamics in detail.

PHYSICAL AND HUMAN ENVIRONMENTAL CONDITIONS

1-13. There are specific physical and environmental conditions that allow for a successful resistance or insurgency. The three main conditions are a weakened or unconsolidated government or occupying power, a segmented population, and favorable terrain from which an element can organize and wage subversion and armed resistance.

WEAKENED OR UNCONSOLIDATED GOVERNMENT OR OCCUPYING POWER

1-14. Conditions must sufficiently divide or weaken the organizational mechanisms that the ruling regime uses to maintain control over the civilian population for the resistance to successfully organize the minimum core of clandestine activities. It is extremely difficult to organize successful resistance under a fully consolidated government or occupying power with a strong internal security apparatus. Despite the general dissatisfaction of the society, the resistance has little chance of developing the supporting infrastructure it needs to succeed. Planners need to recognize the significant differences in the ability of different elements to exert control over a population. A recent foreign occupier does not have the same ability as an indigenous long-standing dictatorial regime that has had years to consolidate power.

WILL OF THE POPULATION

1-15. The population must possess not only the desire to resist but also the will to bear the significant hardships associated with repressive countermeasures by the government or occupying power. Populations that the regime subjugates or indoctrinates for long periods are less likely to possess the will required to sustain a prolonged and difficult struggle. Populations living under repressive conditions generally either retain their unique religious, cultural, and ethnic identity or begin to assimilate with the regime out of an instinct to survive. Planners need to distinguish between the population's moral opinion of their "oppressors" and their actual willingness to accept hardship and risk on behalf of their values and beliefs. Populations recently overtaken by an occupying military force have a very different character than those that have had to survive for decades under an oppressive regime.

1-16. Information activities that increase dissatisfaction with the hostile regime or occupier and portray the resistance as a viable alternative are important components of the resistance effort. These activities can increase support for the resistance through persuasive messages that generate sympathy among populations.

1-17. In almost every scenario, resistance movements face a population with an active minority supporting the government and an equally small militant faction supporting the resistance movement (Figure 1-2). For the resistance to succeed, it must convince the uncommitted middle population, which includes passive supporters of both sides, to accept it as a legitimate entity. A passive population is sometimes all a well-supported insurgency needs to seize political power. As the level of support for the insurgency increases, the passive majority will decrease.
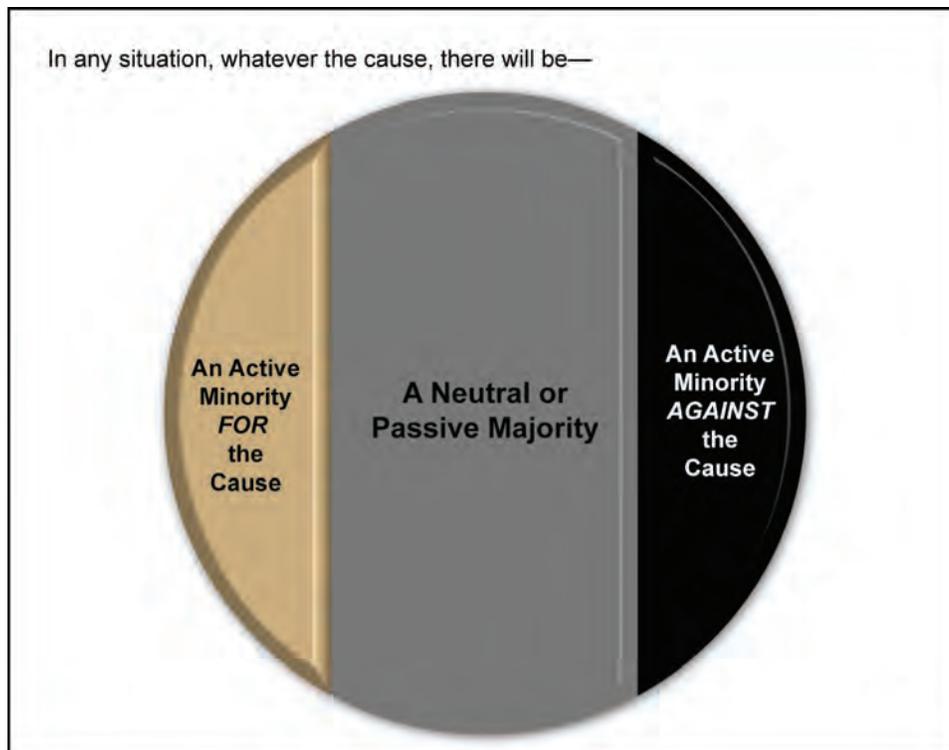
Figure 1-2. Support for an insurgency

FAVORABLE TERRAIN

1-18. In order to conduct operations, resistance forces require human and physical terrain that provides safe haven. This terrain must possess enough security for resistance members to train, organize, and recuperate. The resistance must locate safe havens in relatively inaccessible areas that restrict the ability of the HN military force to project power and exert control. Examples of favorable terrain include physically

inaccessible terrain, such as mountains, jungles, and swamps, or artificial safe havens (such as urban ghettos or an international border). Artificial safe havens replicate actual restrictive terrain. However, artificial safe havens are only restrictive for as long as the risk of penetrating them remains unacceptable to HN forces. In contrast, safe havens in physically inaccessible terrain, such as mountains and jungles, remain restrictive to pursuing counterinsurgent forces.

1-19. An important aspect of the human terrain is the opportunity it presents for the resistance to access populations in enemy-controlled areas, to disseminate information about the resistance and its objectives, and to establish beneficial lines of communications (LOCs) with key communicators. Active cultivation of relationships with key communicators can lower barriers and increase cooperation between U.S. forces and the resistance movement.

1-20. Elements can sometimes negate the limitations of physical terrain to shape the operational environment. For example, forces may use shortwave transmitters to broadcast messages in areas where mountain ranges prevent line-of-sight frequency modulation (FM) radio broadcasting with messages targeted at a specific segment of the population. Shortwave transmitters (such as those used on EC-130J Commando Solo) may be able to broadcast the messages to reach the populace in the target area.

Note: The U.S. military uses the specially configured Commando Solo to conduct information operations to broadcast in amplitude modulation, FM, high-frequency, television, and military communications bands.

RESISTANCE MOVEMENT CHARACTERISICS

1-21. There are certain characteristics of a resistance movement that make U.S. support favorable. Characteristics of a favorable movement include the following:

- Willingness to cooperate with the United States.
- Compatible objectives and ideology.
- Capable resistance leadership.

WILLINGNESS TO COOPERATE WITH THE UNITED STATES

1-22. A genuine willingness to collaborate and cooperate with the United States must exist within the leadership of the indigenous force. It is unrealistic to expect a leader to relinquish control of his forces to the United States. In general, insurgent leaders expect to retain authority and control over their forces while benefiting their cause by collaborating with the United States. Tailored, persuasive messages targeting key leaders and groups may increase their willingness to accept U.S. support.

COMPATIBLE OBJECTIVES AND IDEOLOGY

1-23. Successful movements must have compatible objectives and an ideology that binds their forces together. Organizations bound through some commitment other than common ideology—such as forced conscription or hired mercenaries—typically are only marginally capable over a protracted period. Armed groups may find a common bond in ethnicity, religion, or tribal ties. Elements can use persuasive techniques and messages emphasizing commonalities to unite different groups for a common cause. Once the groups unite, other messages can reinforce unity by building morale, reinforcing organizational cohesion, and emphasizing mutual goals.

CAPABLE RESISTANCE LEADERSHIP

1-24. Resistance movement leaders are cautious of quickly forming new partnerships. In order to understand insurgent leaders, it is critical to understand their motivation and desires. Planners must consider what the United States is requesting and offering in return from the insurgent's perspective. The best leader is not always the one that is the easiest to work with initially. In fact, an overly accommodating

leader could be a desperate and incapable leader primarily interested in personal gain. Similarly, a seemingly indifferent leader could be an effective leader that is unimpressed with offers of support without an assurance of long-term commitment because of the potential risk involved. The determination of the appropriateness of U.S. support requires an in-depth understanding of the resistance leadership and organization. This level of fidelity normally requires a degree of first-hand observation in order to develop an educated assessment.

1-25. Assessments are important sources of information on the psychological characteristics of leaders and groups. This analysis provides a degree of prediction about the future behavior of these potential partners. With prediction comes a degree of confidence in knowing how potential resistance leaders will conduct themselves in the UW effort. It also provides information on guerrilla leader expectations for their forces in terms of the method of fighting, treatment of civilians, and other key aspects that can have political and legal ramifications for the operation. This information aids the commander or other decision-makers in determining the appropriateness of any support to the movement.

THE CRITICALITY OF THE FEASIBILITY ASSESSMENT

1-26. Planning remains limited until leadership validates certain assumptions. If operations proceed without a proper feasibility assessment, the likelihood of unintended consequences is high. To gain an accurate picture, operational personnel need to meet with indigenous personnel who represent the resistance forces. This meeting can take place inside the denied territory, in the United States, or in a third-party nation. Although meeting representatives in the United States or a third-party nation is safer for an assessment team, it also provides a less reliable assessment of potential capabilities. Participation of all components is vital to enable an accurate assessment of potential resistance capabilities. No single ARSOF element can provide a complete picture of the movement necessary for this crucial step in the UW effort.

1-27. The feasibility assessment analyzes the achievability, acceptability, and suitability of a mission. This is an assessment based on mission, enemy, terrain and weather, troops and support available, time available, and civil considerations (METT-TC) to determine if the necessary means and resources are available to meet mission requirements. It also addresses whether the potential gain or desired effect outweighs or otherwise justifies the potential losses or cost. Lastly, the assessment determines if achieving the desired objectives would accomplish the desired effects.

1-28. The normal areas of concern that make up a feasibility assessment are as follows:
- Are there groups that could develop into a viable force with assistance?
- Is the United States in contact with or can it make contact with individuals representing the resistance potential in an area?
- Are there any capable leaders, whose goals are compatible with U.S. goals who are willing to cooperate with the United States?
- Can the United States influence the leaders to remain compliant with U.S. goals?
- Are the groups' tactics and battlefield conduct acceptable by the standards established in Field Manual (FM) 27-10, *The Law of Land Warfare,* and to the U.S. population?
- Will the environment geographically and demographically support resistance operations?
- Is the enemy effectively in control of the population?
- Is the potential gain worth the potential risk? Is this group's participation politically acceptable to other regional partners?

1-29. All U.S. UW elements are able to assist the commander in answering these questions. They assist with individual perspectives for developing a particular resistance capability, as well as for an overall feasibility assessment.

1-30. Expatriates are a valuable resource, particularly in regions where the culture is largely unfamiliar or alien to a planner's frame of reference. However, planners should carefully ensure the individual's claims are valid. An expatriate's influence in a given country can be inversely proportional to the length of time he has been away from his former homeland. Although there are many reasons an expatriate might

exaggerate his influence in a region and attempt to exploit the situation in his favor, he may be legitimately surprised to find his own assessment of his influence to be grossly inaccurate. During normal peacetime conditions, a person can spend years away from a country and expect to maintain their contacts and influence. This period significantly shrinks under the pressures of a harsh regime or occupying force.

1-31. While determining the feasibility of a potential campaign, planning personnel must have clear objectives, a desired end state, and knowledge of exactly what level of support is available and acceptable. Without these specifics, negotiations with potential resistance forces are futile. If planners determine conditions are unfavorable during the assessment, then they need to consider any measures that could transform the current situation into a more favorable one. For example, can the United States—

- Persuade a potential resistance group to cease unacceptable tactics or behavior?
- Persuade a coalition to accept a specific resistance group's participation under certain conditions?
- Degrade the enemy's control over the population?
- Bolster the will of the population to resist?
- Achieve desired objectives within the given time constraints?

1-32. SF, Military Information Support (MIS), and CA Soldiers can actively engage their resistance counterparts to encourage adherence to international norms of behavior and law. They can also change attitudes and beliefs about other groups participating in the resistance effort as part of unity and cohesion building.

1-33. Planners need to be careful of attempting to overcome a potential resistance shortcoming by creating surrogate forces that are not indigenous. Historically, the United States has not had success creating and transplanting these types of resistance forces to the operations environment without an existing clandestine infrastructure that connects the local population to the foreign forces.

WAYS THE UNITED STATES CONDUCTS UNCONVENTIONAL WARFARE

1-34. The United States conducts two types of UW. The United States executes UW with the anticipation of large-scale U.S. military involvement or without anticipation of large-scale U.S. military involvement.

GENERAL WAR SCENARIOS

1-35. There are two possible goals of large-scale involvement. The goal is either to facilitate the eventual introduction of conventional forces or to divert enemy resources away from other parts of the operational area.

1-36. UW forces can function as effective instruments in the psychological preparation of the population for the introduction of conventional forces. Furthermore, deception and other measures can convince enemy leaders to divert resources away from the main area of effort when it is not necessary to do so. For example, the United States can disseminate messages suggesting guerrilla operations will occur in certain locations, causing enemy leaders to divert their forces away from the actual route of advance to meet a nonexistent threat. Examples of this type of UW effort by the United States include the following:

- European and Pacific Theaters (1942–1945).
- North Korea (1951–1953).
- Cold War Contingency Plans for Eastern Europe (1952–1989).
- Kuwait (1990–1991).
- Afghanistan (2001–2002).
- Iraq (2002–2003).

1-37. During large-scale UW, operations focus largely on military aspects of the conflict because of the eventual introduction of conventional forces. The task is normally to disrupt or degrade enemy military capabilities in order to make them more vulnerable to the pending introduction of conventional invasion forces. The United States can use actions and messages to increase the disruption and degradation of

enemy capabilities by lowering their morale and unit cohesion. This can increase desertion, surrender, and malingering among their ranks. Use of such techniques increases the potential for enemy unit breakdown to the point of rendering them combat-ineffective.

1-38. Resistance forces assume a one-time greater degree of risk in large-scale involvement scenarios by exposing almost their entire infrastructure in exchange for the possibility of success and linkup with friendly coalition forces following an invasion. The ultimate challenge is synchronizing resistance efforts while maintaining a degree of operational security for the invasion.

1-39. If the intent of the UW operation is to develop an area in order to facilitate the entry of an invasion force, the challenge is to ensure that the operations of the resistance complement (rather than inadvertently interfere with or even compromise) those of the invasion forces. If the timing is wrong or the conventional invasion forces fail to liberate the territory and linkup with resistance forces, it is likely that the resistance organization (guerrillas, underground, and auxiliary personnel) will suffer significant losses.

1-40. With a few exceptions, it is relatively simple for U.S. forces to compel an adversary to commit forces to an area away from a possible invasion site. The challenge in this scenario is determining which resistance actions trigger the desirable responses and when to begin those operations to appropriately affect the adversary's decision cycle. If U.S. forces do not coordinate these operations with the invasion force or time the operations incorrectly, they can cause significant negative consequences.

LIMITED WAR

1-41. In general, the United States uses limited-involvement operations to pressure an adversary. Examples of this type of UW effort by the United States include the following:

- The Baltic States (Estonia, Lithuania, Latvia–1950s).
- Guatemala (1954).
- Albania (1949–1954).
- Tibet (1955–1965).
- Indonesia (1958).
- Cuba (1960s).
- North Vietnam (1961–1964).
- Afghanistan (1980s).
- Nicaragua (1980s).

1-42. During limited-involvement missions, the overall operation takes place in the absence of overt or eventual hostilities from the sponsor. Such operations take on a strategic and sensitive political aspect. Typically, the United States limits its direct involvement, which mitigates the risks of unintended consequences or premature escalation of the conflict. During limited-involvement operations, the manner in which forces operate significantly differs from that of large-scale involvement scenarios. Without the benefit of a conventional invasion force, the resistance forces must limit overt exposure of their forces and supporting infrastructure in order to sustain operations over a protracted period. Forces must conduct operations in a manner that accounts for the enemy's response and retaliation.

1-43. If retaliation occurs, the resistance can exploit the negative consequences to garner more sympathy and support from the population by emphasizing the sacrifices and hardship the resistance is enduring on behalf of "the people." If retaliation is ineffective or does not occur, the resistance can use this as proof of its ability to wage effect combat against the enemy. In addition, the resistance can portray the inability or reluctance of the enemy to retaliate as a weakness, which will demoralize enemy forces and instill a belief in their eventual defeat.

THE SEVEN PHASES OF UNCONVENTIONAL WARFARE

1-44. The seven-phase UW framework is a conceptual construct that aids in planning (Figure 1-3). It depicts the normal phases of a UW operation. Personnel should not confuse the seven phases of UW with the phases of development through which friendly resistance forces progress. It is important for planners to

recognize when factors, such as time, compress or change the normal progression of the seven phases. In addition, operational elements may only support a portion of the overall campaign and therefore may miss some of the seven phases. However, all operational elements should understand how their individual efforts fit into the overall campaign. Chapter 3 contains more information on the seven phases of UW.
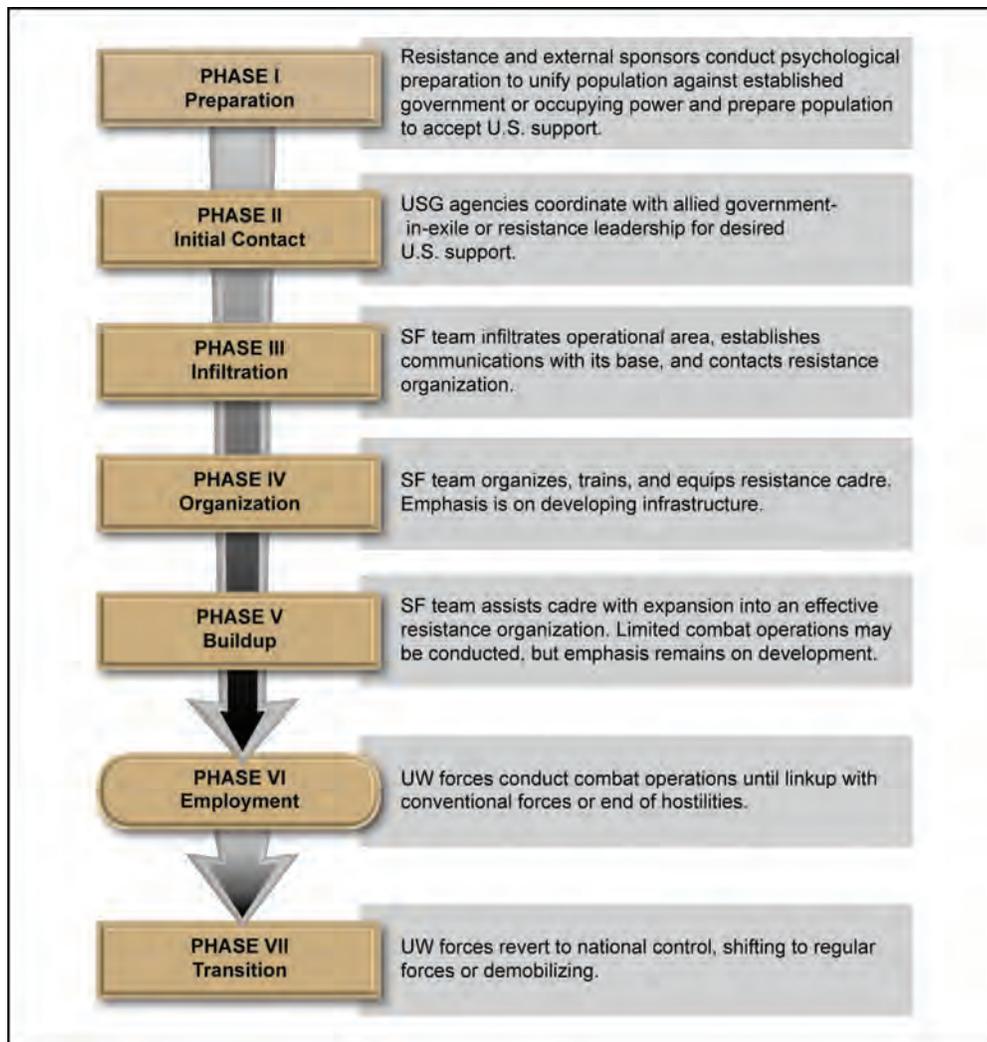
Figure 1-3. Phases of unconventional warfare

ELEMENTS IN UNCONVENTIONAL WARFARE

1-45. The operational requirements for conducting and supporting UW present some significant challenges when compared to other types of special and conventional operations. UW efforts are normally of long duration and primarily occur in denied areas. These conditions require participating forces to have the capability of operating in a truly decentralized manner without the benefit of well-established LOCs. These factors make many of the existing techniques for command and control (C2) and logistics inappropriate.

SPECIAL FORCES IN UNCONVENTIONAL WARFARE

1-46. Whereas other special operations and governmental organizations support UW, SF are the only unit specifically designed to conduct UW. Unique SF capabilities include—

- Infiltrating denied territory and linking up with resistance forces.

- Training and advising the guerrilla or underground forces part of a resistance.
- Coordinating and synchronizing the various resistance command elements with U.S. efforts.

MILITARY INFORMATION SUPPORT OPERATIONS IN UNCONVENTIONAL WARFARE

1-47. U.S. forces can use MISO as part of ARSOF capabilities or in conjunction with other USG capabilities to reduce the need for military force. When military force is necessary, Soldiers conduct MISO to multiply the effects of the operations. Specifically, MIS elements—

- Determine key psychological factors in the operational environment.
- Provide training and advisory assistance to insurgent leaders and units on the development, organization, and employment of resistance information capabilities.
- Identify actions with psychological effects that can create, change, or reinforce desired behaviors in identified target groups or individuals.
- Shape popular perceptions to support UW objectives.
- Counter enemy misinformation and disinformation that can undermine the UW mission.

CIVIL AFFAIRS IN UNCONVENTIONAL WARFARE

1-48. CA personnel augment the SF headquarters (HQ) by providing expertise in civil-military operations (CMO). Although CMO plays a small role in resistance operations, planning CMO early in the campaign is critical. CMO efforts can play a significant role in—

- Mitigating the suffering of the population during resistance operations through humanitarian assistance (HA) efforts. (Forces must conduct CMO and HA efforts in a manner that does not link the population to the resistance effort, thereby bringing the retaliation of adversary forces.)
- Planning mobilization of popular support to the UW campaign.
- Analyzing impacts of resistance on indigenous populations and institutions and centers of gravity through CA inputs to intelligence preparation of the operational environment (IPOE).
- Providing the supported commander with critical elements of civil information to improve situational awareness and understanding within the operational environment.
- Assisting in stabilization postconflict.
- Assisting in the demobilization and transition of former resistance forces postconflict.

Note: FM 3-05.40, *Civil Affairs Operations,* contains additional information on CA support to UW.

OTHER UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT AGENCIES IN UNCONVENTIONAL WARFARE

1-49. Because of the military and political nature of UW, the U.S. interagency involvement is critical to achieving a whole-of-government approach and long-term success. The full integration of joint, interagency, intergovernmental, and multinational communities is necessary at various stages of an unconventional conflict.

Chapter 2

Fundamentals of Resistance and Insurgency

The guerrilla must move amongst the people as a fish swims in the sea.

Mao Zedong

Secret operations are essential in war; upon them the army relies to make its every move.

Sun Tzu

Separate definitions exist for resistance movements and insurgencies within the DOD and various academic communities. However, within this document, the two terms convey a strategy of insurrection. Planners broadly use the term "insurgency" to describe the concept of achieving aims through a strategy of armed conflict and subversion against an indigenous government or occupying power. Planners use the term "resistance movement" to convey a unique type of insurgency that focuses on the removal of an occupying power. The difference in terminology is important to the concept of UW, because planners must understand the significant differences in dealing with a resistance movement that forms in response to an occupying power, and an insurgency that grows over time out of discontent for an oppressive regime. Planners generically use the term "resistance" to categorize the activities of a resistance movement or insurgency.

Insurgents are inherently indigenous. There remains confusion regarding external support elements, such as foreign fighters. Even when the U.S. forces or foreign fighters support an insurgency or resistance movement, planners should not categorize them as part of the insurgency. Planners should categorize these elements as enablers, facilitators, advisors, or supporters.

WHY POPULATIONS RESIST

2-1. Resistance generally begins with the desire of individuals to remove intolerable conditions imposed by an unpopular regime or occupying power. Feelings of opposition toward the governing authority and hatred of existing conditions that conflict with the individual's values, interests, aspirations, and way of life spread from the individual to his family, close friends, and neighbors. As a result, an entire community may possess an obsessive hatred for the established authority. Initially, this hatred will manifest as sporadic, spontaneous nonviolent and violent acts of resistance by the people toward authority. As the discontent grows, natural leaders, such as former military personnel, clergymen, local office holders, and neighborhood representatives, emerge to channel this discontent into organized resistance that promotes its growth. The population must believe they have nothing to lose, or more to gain. Key to transitioning from growing discontent to insurrection is the perception by a significant portion of the population that they have nothing to lose by revolting and the belief that they can succeed. In addition, there must be a spark that triggers insurrection, such as a catalyzing event that ignites popular support against the government power and a dynamic insurgent leadership that is able to exploit the situation. Figure 2-1, page 2-2, defines words critical to understanding resistance movements.

Area Command

A command that is comprised of those organized elements of one or more of the Armed Services, designated to operate in a specific geographical area and placed under a single commander. In UW, the organizational structure established within a UW operational area to command and control irregular forces. It consists of the area commander, his staff, representatives of the irregular organization, and ARSOF elements after infiltration.

Area Complex

A clandestine, dispersed network of facilities to support resistance activities. It is designed to achieve security, control, dispersion, and flexibility.

Auxiliary

The support elements of the irregular organization whose organization and operations are clandestine in nature and whose members do not openly indicate their sympathy or involvement with the irregular movement.

Cache

A source of subsistence and supplies. It typically contains vital items, such as food, water, medical items, and communications equipment. It is packaged to prevent damage from exposure and hidden in isolated locations by methods such as burial, concealment, or submersion to support isolated personnel.

Government-in-Exile

A government that has been displaced from its country but remains recognized as the legitimate sovereign authority.

Guerrilla

A combat participant in guerrilla warfare. An irregular, usually indigenous, actor that conducts paramilitary operations in enemy-held, hostile, or denied territory.

Guerrilla Base

A temporary site where guerrilla installations, HQ, and some guerrilla units are located. A guerrilla base is considered to be transitory; it must be capable of rapid displacement by personnel within the base.

Guerrilla Warfare Operational Area

An area where a guerrilla force can operate effectively. Once identified, these areas can serve as the basis for delineation of responsibility and deconfliction of effort among various guerrilla forces.

Sabotage

An act or acts with intent to injure, interfere with, or obstruct the national defense of a country by willfully injuring or destroying, or attempting to injure or destroy, any national defense or war materiel, premises, or utilities, to include human and natural resources.

Shadow Government

Governmental elements and activities performed by the irregular organization that will eventually take the place of the existing government. Members of the shadow government can be in any element of the irregular organization (underground, auxiliary, or guerrillas).

Underground

A covert UW organization established to operate in areas denied to the guerrilla forces or to conduct operations not suitable for guerrilla forces.

Figure 2-1. Resistance terminology

CLANDESTINE RESISTANCE

2-2. People who outwardly follow their normal mode of existence conduct clandestine resistance. This type of resistance is organized and controlled and conducts the following activities as groups and individuals:

- Political action.
- Propaganda.
- Espionage.
- Sabotage.
- Traffic in contraband.
- Intelligence gathering.

OVERT RESISTANCE

2-3. Individuals and groups who train along military lines perform overt resistance. Planners refer to this militant arm of the resistance movement as the guerrilla force. These elements make no secret of their existence or their objectives. However, resistance leaders compartmentalize the specific relationship of the guerrilla force to other components of the resistance movement to prevent compromise of the entire movement.

2-4. Each insurgency or resistance movement has its own unique characteristics based upon its strategic objectives, operational environment, and available resources. Insurgencies normally seek to change the existing social order and reallocate power within the country. Typical insurgent goals include:

- Removal of the established governing authority, whether an indigenous regime or occupying military power.
- Establishment of an autonomous national territory within the borders of a state.
- Extraction of political concessions that the movement cannot attain through nonviolent means.

2-5. The structure of an insurgency or resistance movement is similar to an iceberg (Figure 2-2, page 2-4). Most of the structure is below the surface, and only the peak is visible. In building a resistance structure, insurgent leaders give principal attention to the development of a clandestine supporting infrastructure. This infrastructure works—

- Among the citizens in rural villages, towns, and urban cities.
- Within the military, police, and administrative apparatus of government.
- Among labor groups and students.

DYNAMICS OF SUCCESSFUL INSURGENCIES

2-6. JP 3-24, *Counterinsurgency Operations,* lists eight dynamics of an insurgency. JP 3-24 includes internal support and organizational and operational patterns. FM 3-24, *Counterinsurgency,* lists six dynamics of an insurgency. FM 3-24 does not include organization and operational patterns. However, SF continue to use organization as one of the dynamics of an insurgency to understand the form, function and logic of insurgent movements.

2-7. Seven dynamics are common to most successful insurgencies. These dynamics provide a framework for planners to analyze insurgencies. It is some combination of these dynamics that will generally transform popular disconnect into an organized and effective movement.

LEADERSHIP

2-8. A group committing random political violence is not an insurgency. In an insurgency, the group is committing directed and focused political violence. It requires leadership to provide vision, direction, guidance, coordination, and organizational coherence. The insurgency leaders must make their cause known to the people and gain popular support. Their key tasks are to break the ties between the people and the government and to establish credibility for their movement. The leaders must replace the government's

legitimacy with that of their own. Their ability to serve as a catalyst that motivates and inspires others to have faith in their cause is vital to the movement's growth. Their ability to organize and willingness to distribute power across the organization is vital to the long-term success of the movement. Organizations dependent upon key charismatic personalities to provide cohesion and motivation for the movement are vulnerable to disruptions if the enemy removes or co-opts those players.
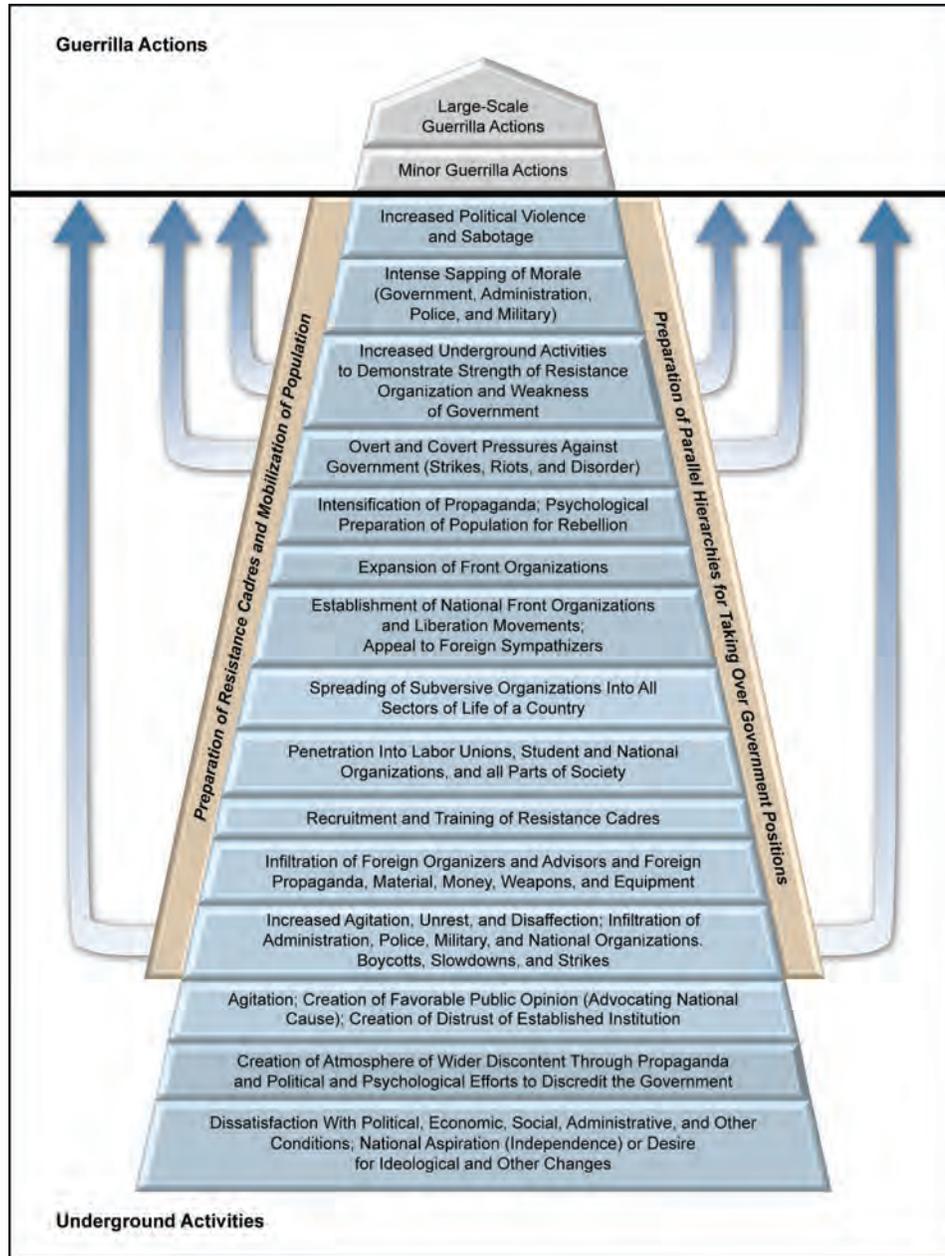
**Figure 2-2. Structure of an insurgency or resistance movement**

IDEOLOGY

2-9.   The insurgents must have a program that justifies its actions in relation to the movement's grievances and explains what is wrong with the status quo. The most important aspect of a successful insurgency is the viability of the message. It is essential that the message physically reaches the people and possesses

meaning to their way of life. The insurgency cannot gain active or passive support without achieving these goals. This makes the language, culture, and geography of the masses particularly important. Ideology is an important factor in unifying the many divergent interests and goals among the insurgency membership. As a common set of interrelated beliefs, values, and norms, ideology is used to manipulate and influence the behavior of individuals within the group. Ideology will serve as the rallying call for all members of the population to join the struggle. The ideology of the insurgency and the motivation of the insurgent must remain linked. Once delinked, the counterinsurgent will be able to address individual grievances and negate the unity of the insurgency.

OBJECTIVES

2-10. Although insurgency is a strategy, implementation requires intermediate objectives, specifically strategic, operational, and tactical goals. Tactical goals most directly translate to actions. These actions lead to operational goals. Insurgents need carefully to choose what efforts to undertake. For example, raids, ambushes, and supporting propaganda urging enemy forces to serve their tour quietly and go home alive, to consolidate into large bases away from the cities, or to stay to the roads for their own safety achieves the goals of disrupting enemy control over territory and weakening enemy commitment to counterinsurgent strategy.

2-11. Operational objectives address how the insurgency will progress towards its strategic goal. Examples could include the following:

- Attaining a level of popular support in a key region.
- Gaining international recognition or external support.

2-12. The strategic objective is the desired end state. In general, the strategic objective is to gain concessions or remove the regime in power. Typically, the strategic objective is critical to cohesion among insurgent groups. It might be the movement's only clearly defined goal. Some examples of strategic goals are as follows:

- Political revolution.
- Political reformation.
- Succession.
- Preservation.
- Reversion.

ENVIRONMENT AND GEOGRAPHY

2-13. The environment and geography (demographics) greatly affect an insurgency's strategies and tactics. Insurgencies may form their base in urban environments, rural environments, or a combination of both. By maintaining a combination of urban cells and rural bases, insurgencies can often take full advantage of the benefits of both models (urban and rural) without becoming constrained by the shortcomings of either model.

2-14. Insurgents located in rural areas enjoy the relative safety of remote terrain or safe havens, such as jungles or mountains. These geographical conditions make it possible for them to form larger guerrilla bands and conduct large-scale guerrilla operations. Disadvantages of a rural base are—

- Length and speed of communications and supply lines.
- Displacement of insurgents from the populace.
- Susceptibility of insurgents to conventional military counterguerrilla operations.

2-15. Urban insurgencies have overcome the lack of suitable restrictive terrain by operating within ethnic ghettos or enclaves within sympathetic densely populated urban areas. These areas often create safe havens that HN forces are unwilling or unable to access. This type of urban basing requires a high degree of compartmentalization, which makes it more difficult for the group to train and organize for large-scale operations.

EXTERNAL SUPPORT

2-16. Historically, insurgencies do not succeed without some form of external support. This support can be in the form of—

- Moral or political support in the international forum.
- Resources, such as money, weapons, food, advisors, and training.
- Sanctuary, such as secure training sites, operational bases over a border, or protection from extradition.

2-17. Governments providing support to an insurgency normally share beneficial interests or common ideology with the insurgency. Ethnic enclaves or diasporas in third-party countries can provide significant support in terms of political voice, money, personnel, and sanctuary.

2-18. With external support comes a degree of dependency on the foreign power. Insurgencies can view this as a disadvantage because the foreign power can then attempt to control or manipulate the insurgency to better serve its goals. To counterbalance the loss of the support from sympathetic foreign governments since the end of the Cold War, many groups have resorted to alliances with organized crime groups, narcotics trafficking, and kidnapping to raise funds. This tactic has proven extremely effective for generating revenue, but counterproductive to the original goals of the movements.

PHASING AND TIMING

2-19. Successful insurgencies pass through common phases of development. Not all insurgencies experience every phase, and progression through all phases is not a requirement for success. The same insurgent movement may be in different phases in separate regions of a country. Successful insurgencies can also revert to an earlier phase when under pressure, resuming development when favorable conditions return. A common failure of insurgencies and counterinsurgencies is the inability to adapt tactics when transitioning from one phase of a strategy to another.

2-20. The three-phase construct presented below is a historical representation of how insurgencies mature. An extremely useful template allows planners to communicate precisely an insurgency's stage of development.

Phase I—Latent or Incipient Phase

2-21. During this phase, the leadership of the resistance develops the clandestine supporting infrastructure upon which all future effort will rely. The resistance organization uses a variety of subversive techniques to prepare the population psychologically to resist. Some techniques include propaganda, demonstrations, boycotts, and sabotage. Subversive activities frequently occur in an organized pattern without any major outbreak of armed violence. Activities include the following:

- Recruit, organize, and train cadre.
- Infiltrate key government organizations and civilian groups.
- Establish cellular intelligence, operational, and support networks.
- Organize or develop cooperative relationships with legitimate political action groups, youth groups, trade unions, and other front organizations. This approach develops popular support for later political and military activities.
- Solicit and obtain funds.
- Develop sources for external support.

2-22. An absent government will compromise with insurgent objectives. The goal is to prepare or transition the population into accepting overt military operations (guerrilla warfare) as permissible. The goal is to gain the support of the local population and weaken the power of the existing government. Although the operational goal is to win popular support, the tactical goal is to convince the local population to avoid collaboration with the government forces. This leads to a condition where the insurgency can expand operations without the risk of compromise by the local population. It is impossible

for the insurgency to conduct the operations it desires without the population being aware of it. This condition allows the insurgency to expand into Phase II (guerrilla warfare).

Phase II—Guerrilla Warfare

2-23. The objective of this phase is to degrade the government's security apparatus (the military and police elements of national power) to the point where the government is susceptible to defeat.

2-24. A campaign of guerrilla attacks and sabotage degrade the government's military and police forces. Subversive activities continue to build and maintain support from the population. Proinsurgency radio broadcasts, newspapers, and pamphlets openly challenge the control and legitimacy of established authority.

2-25. Unlike Phase I, in Phase II guerrillas need to gather forces, communicate and coordinate operations, conduct training, receive logistics, rest and hide after operations, and plan future operations. Their need for intelligence collection and security also increases in Phase II. As the guerrillas grow in numbers, so must the clandestine support mechanisms.

2-26. The resistance fighters or insurgents may achieve legal belligerent status from the international community if they meet the internationally accepted criteria.

Phase III—War of Movement

2-27. The goal of the insurgency in Phase III is to bring about the collapse of the established government (military or internal actions) or the withdrawal of the occupying power. The insurgency does not necessarily need to transform into a conventional military, but it must position itself to defeat the government or occupying power. For example, the insurgency might degrade the enemy's capabilities to a point that an urban uprising against the presidential palace would topple the government. This tactic can only succeed if the insurgency effectively removes the military first.

2-28. As the insurgency gains control over the country, the insurgent leadership becomes responsible for the population, resources, and territory under its control. If the insurgency fails to plan and execute posthostility activities, the population may lose confidence in the insurgency and turn to the old government, a breakaway faction, or a splinter group of the insurgency.

2-29. Based on the conditions set earlier, an effective resistance or insurgency—
- Establishes an effective civil administration.
- Establishes an effective military organization.
- Provides balanced social and economic development.
- Mobilizes the population to support the resistance organization.
- Protects the population from hostile actions.

Failure to achieve these objectives may cause the resistance movement to revert to an earlier phase.

ORGANIZATION AND OPERATIONAL PATTERNS

2-30. The organizational and operational pattern of a given movement is similar to its order of battle. From its outset, the organization has a concept of its development based on its goals. Although there are numerous traditional models for insurgencies (for example, conspiratorial, military-focused, urban, protracted popular war, or terror-based [not a methodology supported as a U.S. option]), the planner must avoid following a famous model without considering the way that model worked for its historical environment and if the model is appropriate for the current problem set. The structure of the organization largely depends on the available resources, security threat, and population distribution. All insurgencies are unique and rarely follow one model exclusively. It is unlikely the structure would resemble a uniform

organization, such as the military, in which all units look relatively the same. Function takes precedence over form. Planners must understand the organization's—

- Various subordinate components and their orientation.
- Commands—down to the lowest tactical level.
- Supporting infrastructure.

2-31. The organization's most important component level is the local level, where it obtains and sustains support and manifests actions. Echelons above the local level coordinate all functions (political, military, external support, and so on). Overall command provides purpose and direction.

THE COMPONENTS OF AN INSURGENCY

2-32. There are three components of an insurgency. The underground is always present and is the first component of the insurgency to form. Goals and objectives of the insurgency will determine the level of development of the—

- Underground.
- Auxiliary.
- Guerrillas.

THE UNDERGROUND

2-33. The underground is a cellular organization within the resistance movement or insurgency that has the ability to conduct operations in areas that are inaccessible to guerrillas, such as urban areas under the control of the local security forces. The underground can function in these areas because it operates in a clandestine manner, which prevents it from receiving legal belligerent status under any international conventions. Examples of underground functions include the following:

- Intelligence and counterintelligence networks.
- Subversive radio stations.
- Propaganda networks that control newspaper or leaflet print shops and/or Web pages.
- Special material fabrication, such as false identification, explosives, weapons, and munitions.
- Control of networks for moving personnel and logistics.
- Individuals or groups that conduct acts of sabotage in urban centers.
- Clandestine medical facilities.

2-34. Underground members normally are active members of the community, and their service is a product of their normal life or position within the community. They operate by maintaining compartmentalization and delegating most risk to their auxiliary workers. The functions of the underground largely enable the resistance movement to affect the urban areas.

2-35. The operation cell is usually composed of a leader and a few cell members operating directly as a unit (Figure 2-3, page 2-9). The intelligence cell is unique in that the cell leader seldom in direct contact with the members of the cell, and the members are rarely in contact with one another (Figure 2-4, page 2-9).
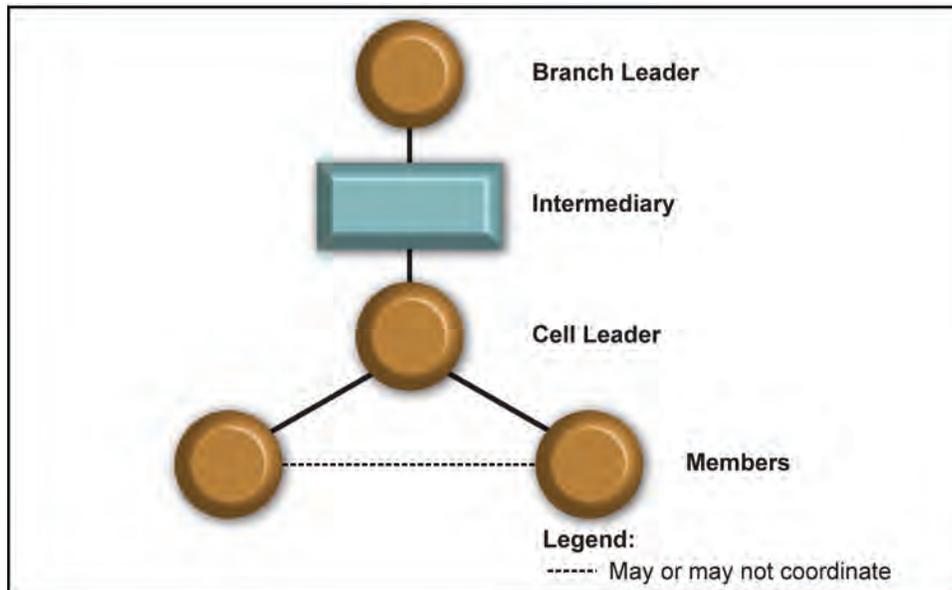
Figure 2-3. Operational cell
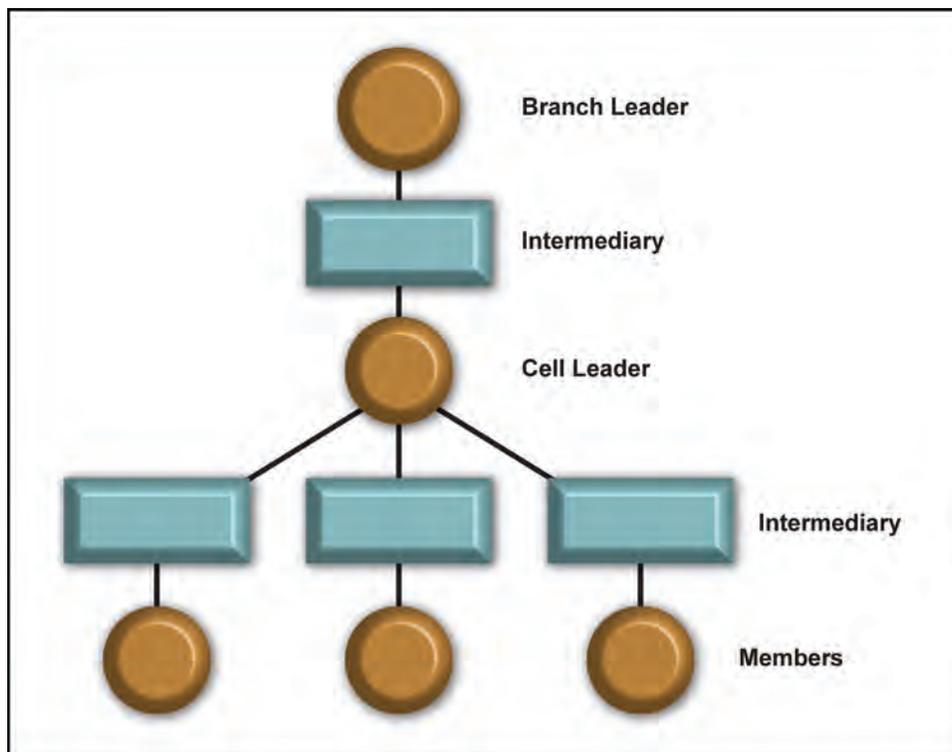
Figure 2-4. Intelligence cell

THE AUXILIARY

2-36. The auxiliary refers to that portion of the population that provides active clandestine support to the guerrilla force or the underground. Members of the auxiliary are part-time volunteers that have value because of their normal position in the community. Soldiers should not think of the auxiliary as a separate organization but as a different type of individual providing specific functions as a component within an urban underground network or guerrilla force's network. These functions can take the form of logistics,

labor, or intelligence collection. Auxiliary members may not know any more than how to perform their specific function or service that supports the network or component of the organization. In many ways, auxiliary personnel assume the greatest risk. They are also the most expendable element within the insurgency. Insurgent leaders sometimes use auxiliary functions to test a recruit's loyalty before exposing him to other parts of the organization. Auxiliary functions are like embryonic fluid that forms a protective layer, keeping the underground and guerrilla force alive. Specific functions include the following:

- Logistics procurement (all classes of supply).
- Logistics distribution (all classes of supply).
- Labor for special materiel fabrication.
- Security and early warning for underground facilities and guerrilla bases.
- Intelligence collection.
- Recruitment.
- Communications network staff, such as couriers and messengers.
- Propaganda distribution.
- Safe house management.
- Logistics and personnel transport.

2-37. Parallel cells are frequently set up to support a primary cell (Figure 2-5). The auxiliary cell is commonly found in front groups or in sympathizers' organizations. It contains an underground cell leader, assistant cell leaders, and members (Figure 2-6, page 2-11). The cells in series provide a division of labor in order to carry out functions, such as the manufacture of weapons, supply, escape and evasion, propaganda, and printing of newspapers. The task assigned to a particular cell must transition or carry over (depicted by arrows) to the next cell in order to accomplish the function in its entirety. For example, Cell 1 purchases certain items, cell 2 assembles the items, and cell 3 distributes the assembled item (Figure 2-7, page 2-11). Based on the assigned mission, cell members do not communicate directly with one another. However, cell leaders will communicate indirectly through intermediaries.
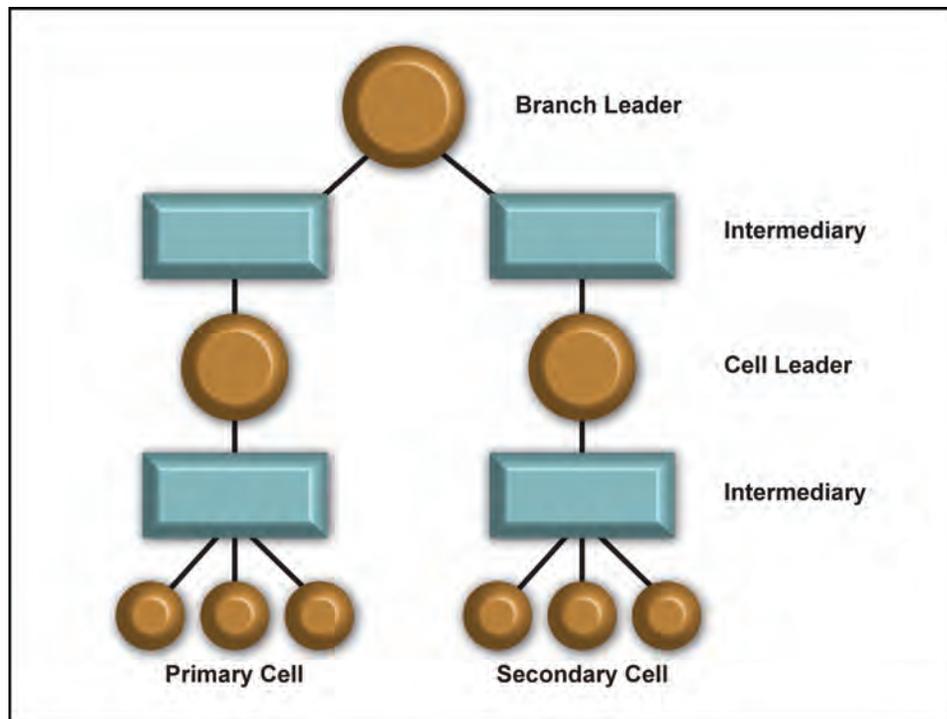
Figure 2-5. Parallel cells
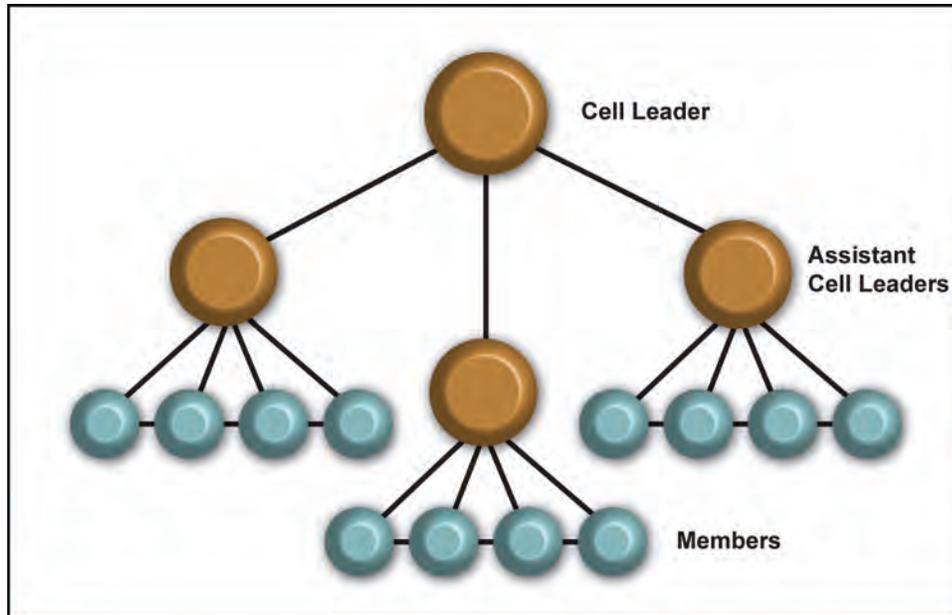
Figure 2-6. Auxiliary cell
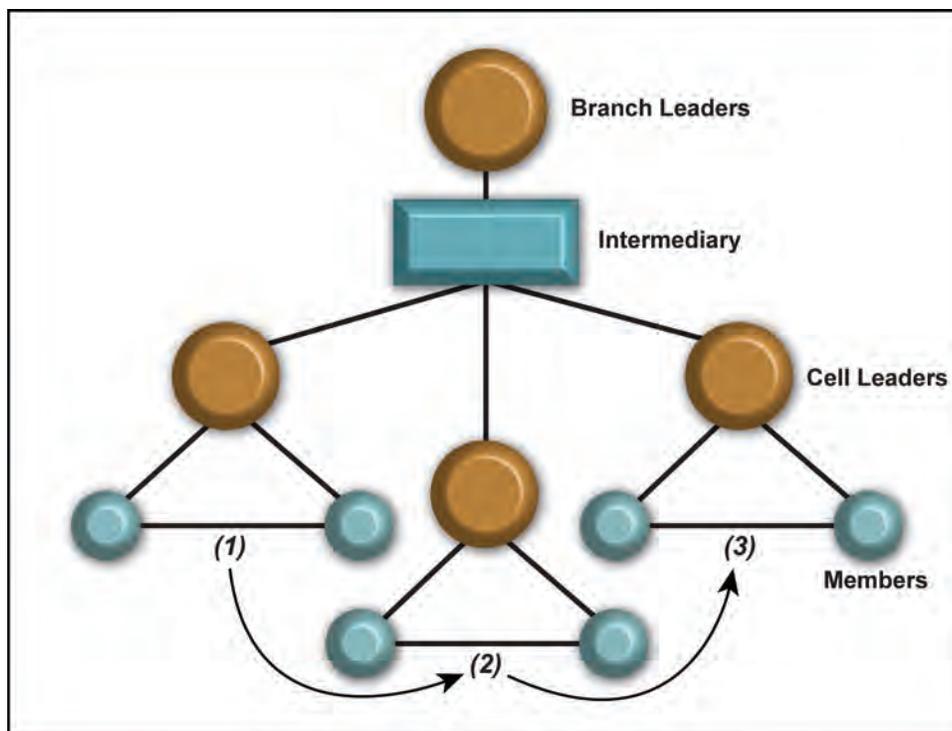
Figure 2-7. Cells in series

THE GUERRILLAS

2-38. Guerrillas are the overt military component of a resistance movement or insurgency. As the individuals that engage the enemy in combat operations, guerrillas typically have a significant disadvantage in terms of training, equipment, and firepower. For all their disadvantages, guerrillas have one advantage that can offset this unfavorable balance—the initiative. In all his endeavors, the guerrilla commander must

strive to maintain and protect this advantage. The guerrilla only attacks the enemy when he can generate a relative, if temporary, state of superiority. The guerrilla commander must avoid decisive engagements, thereby denying the enemy the opportunity to recover, regain their actual superiority, and use it against the guerrilla force. The guerrilla force is only able to generate and maintain the initiative advantage in areas where they have significant familiarity with the terrain and a connection with the local population that allows them to harness clandestine support.

2-39. Depending on the degree of control over the local environment, the size of guerrilla elements can range anywhere from squad to brigade-size groups or larger. In the early stages of an insurgency, the guerrilla force's offensive capability might be limited to small standoff attacks. As the guerrilla force's base of support from the population grows, its ability to challenge government security forces more openly with larger-scale attacks increases. At some point in an insurgency or resistance movement, the guerrillas may achieve a degree of parity with HN forces in certain areas. In these cases, units may start openly fighting, rather than as guerrilla bands. In well-developed insurgencies, formerly isolated pockets of resistance activity may eventually connect and create liberated territory, possibly even linking with a friendly or sympathetic border state.

2-40. It is important to use the term "guerrilla" accurately in order to distinguish between other types of irregular forces that might appear similar but are in fact something entirely different, such as militias, mercenaries, or criminal gangs. The DOD defines a guerrilla as someone who engages in guerrilla warfare. This definition is somewhat overly simple because people generally consider guerrilla warfare a tactic that any force, regular or irregular, can use. True guerrilla forces normally only exist, for an extended period, as part of a broader resistance movement or insurgency.

ADDITIONAL ELEMENTS OF AN INSURGENCY

2-41. There are additional elements that may be found in an insurgency. Some typical additional elements include the following:

- Leadership and C2.
- Government-in-exile.
- Shadow government.
- Area command.

LEADERSHIP AND COMMAND AND CONTROL

2-42. Leadership is not a separate type of component as much as it is a function. The guerrilla or underground component generally performs this function.

GOVERNMENT-IN-EXILE

2-43. A government-in-exile does not exist in every situation. A government-in-exile is normally present only in situations in which an element displaces a government from its country but the government remains recognized as the legitimate sovereign authority. Whether a government-in-exile does or does not exist, the insurgency will usually still report to some form of a shadow government in-country. Figure 2-8, page 2-13, depicts the structure of a resistance with a government-in-exile.

SHADOW GOVERNMENT

2-44. The shadow government is an organization the underground forms in occupied territory. Ideally, the shadow government can perform normal governmental functions in a clandestine manner and synchronize those functions with the resistance movement. The shadow government is critical because it exercises a degree of control, supervision, and accountability over the population at all levels (district, village, city, province, and so on), and further discredits and delegitimizes the existing government.
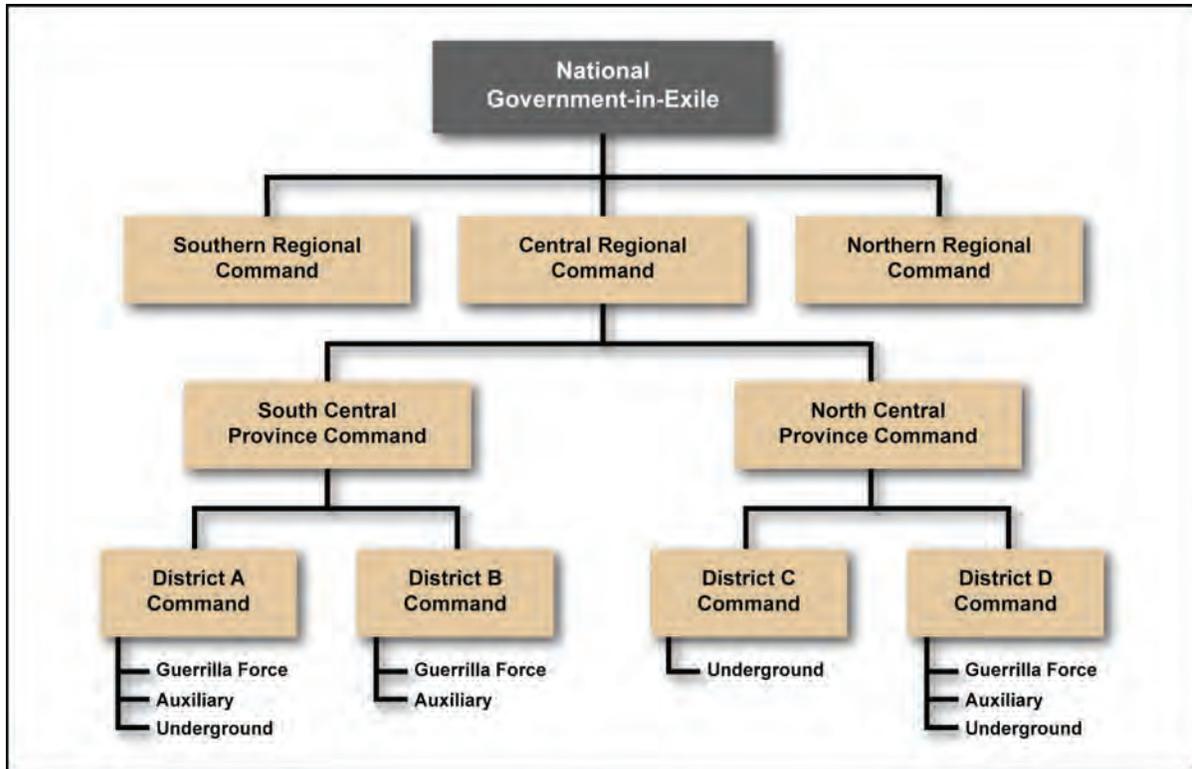
Figure 2-8. Resistance structure with government-in-exile

AREA COMMAND

2-45. Area command is a term planners use to denote the resistance leadership that directs, controls, integrates, and supports all resistance activities in a region. The area commander's location should be a place where he can safely control the insurgency and its activities. Flexibility, intelligence, mobility, and operations security are essential for survival and success. If the insurgency subdivides the area command into sector commands, its component units are the subordinate sector commands.

INFRASTRUCTURE OF A RESISTANCE MOVEMENT OR INSURGENCY

2-46. The infrastructure of a resistance movement or insurgency includes the area complex and the guerilla bases. Guerrilla bases may be further subdivided into the inner security zone, outer security zone, and insurgent logistics.

AREA COMPLEX

2-47. An area complex is a clandestine, dispersed network of facilities to support resistance activities in a given area. The area complex is contested territory or an area that contains clandestine supporting infrastructure. It is not liberated territory. It represents the insurgent's area of operations (AO). Insurgent forces can maintain their clandestine infrastructure in the area complex. The clandestine infrastructure provides insurgent forces with a measure of freedom of movement and support. These areas overlay areas under the control of the government or occupying military. These areas can eventually transform into liberated areas if the enemy's ability to challenge the insurgent forces degrades to a level of parity with the guerrilla forces. To support resistance activities, an area complex must include a security system, guerrilla bases, communications, logistics, medical facilities, and a series of networks capable of moving personnel and supplies. The area complex may consist of friendly villages or towns under guerrilla military or political control (Figure 2-9, page 2-14).
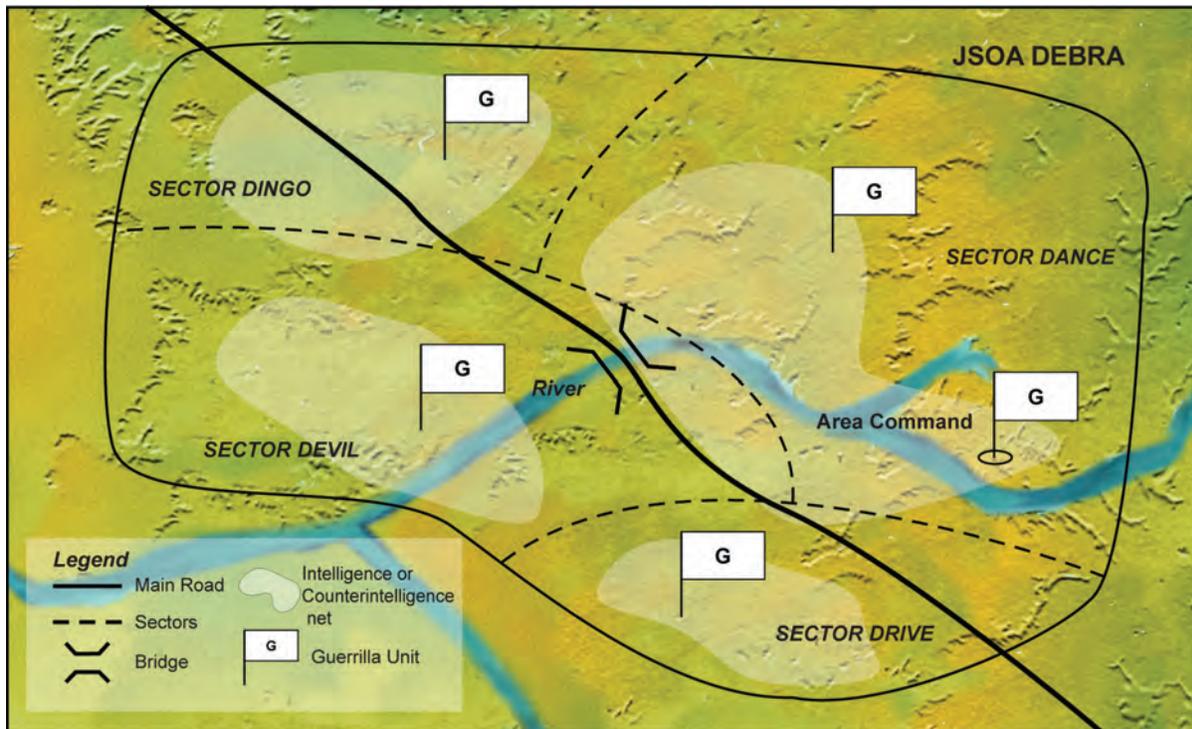
Figure 2-9. Area complex

GUERRILLA BASES

2-48. A guerrilla base is an encampment that affords the guerrilla force the ability to rest, recuperate, plan, and train. Guerrilla bases may be temporary or semipermanent camps. Their level of complexity is proportional to the surrounding security situation. The security situation is a combination of the ability of the guerrillas to receive warning of an enemy advance, the ability of the enemy to project force to the base area, and the ability of the guerrillas to conceal their signature from all means of enemy detection. Guerrilla leaders should locate bases in terrain that HN counterguerrilla forces cannot easily access, such as restrictive rural or urban terrain. In environments that lack suitable restrictive physical terrain, certain urban environments can serve as guerrilla base locations. Densely populated urban enclaves that are sympathetic to the guerrilla cause can present an obstacle to counterguerrilla forces. Unlike actual restrictive physical terrain that always restricts the enemy's ability to attack, urban restrictive terrain only serves its purpose while counterguerrilla forces remain unwilling to assume the physical and political risk of entering the enclave. The security of the guerrilla camp comes from two bands of protection, which planners refer to as bizonal security (Figure 2-10, page 2-15).

Inner Security Zone

2-49. The inner security zone encompasses normal camp security measures found in any military encampment. These measures consist of static guard and sentry positions, flank observation posts, and roving patrols. These measures provide a layer of physical protection and early warning to the potential surprise of an advancing enemy patrol or attack. The security elements have a coordinated means of signaling and communicating with the main base, as well as clear instructions that dictate how they will respond to different threats. Bases have emergency procedures to respond to enemy attacks. These procedures include plans for rapid evacuation and withdrawal, as well as possible dispersal of the main body while a dedicated guerrilla element remains behind to temporarily delay any enemy penetration. Fighting positions, obstacles, command-detonated or personnel-initiated mines, preestablished ambush positions, mortars, explosives, or traps along probable enemy vehicular and personnel avenues of approach may support the defense plans. It is essential that the guerrillas avoid becoming decisively engaged while carrying out their delaying and defensive mission.
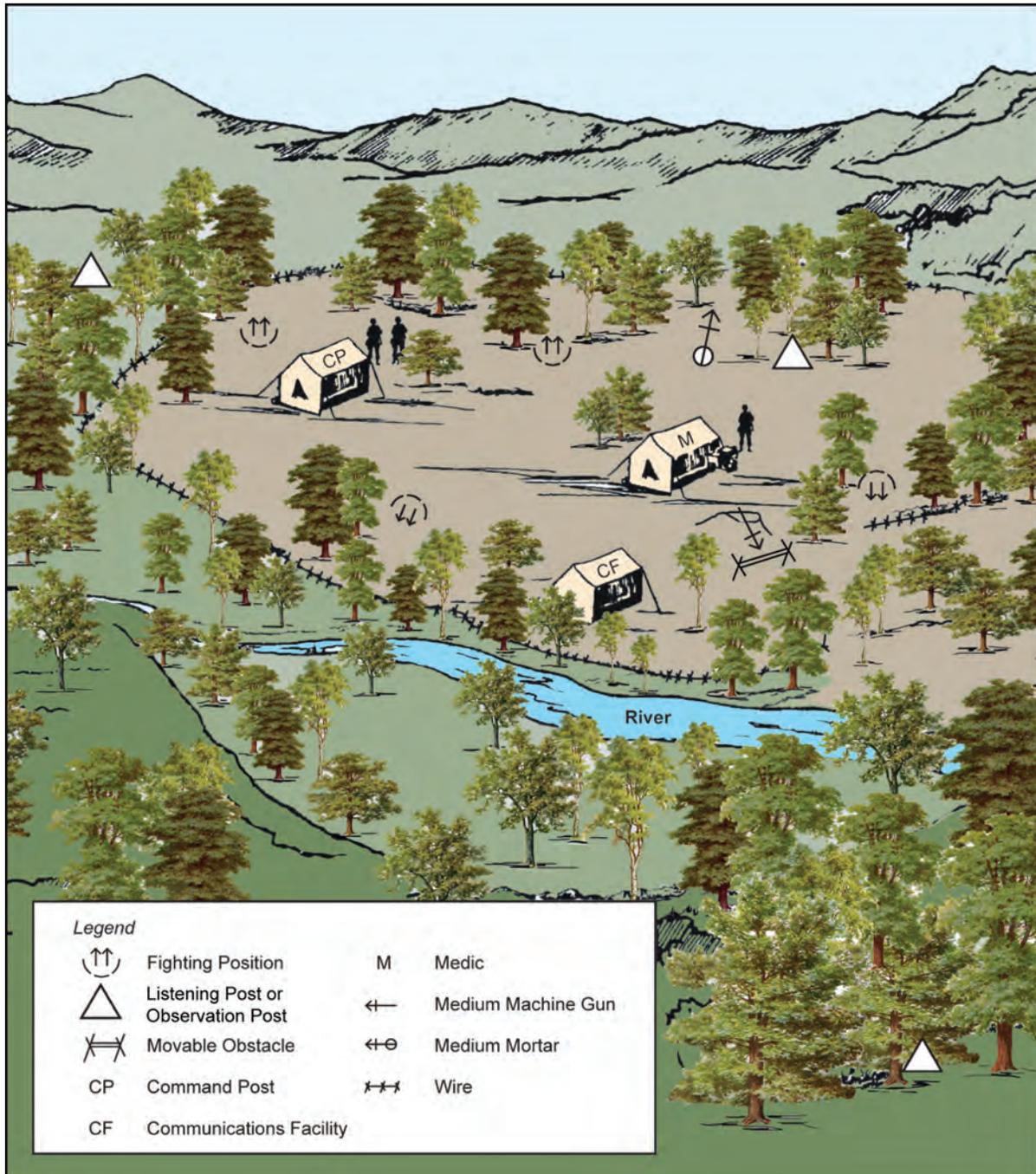
Figure 2-10. Permanent base security

Outer Security Zone

2-50. Insurgent leaders develop and organize the auxiliary's clandestine supporting infrastructure in the outer security zone. Clandestine LOCs connect the guerrilla base and other facilities within the area complex. The outer zone consists of multiple networks of auxiliary agents that provide passive and active surveillance of key enemy positions that would indicate a pending enemy operation, such as airfields, motor pools, army compounds, police stations, or choke points along major roadways. These auxiliary agents might also be in positions to observe indicators of pending offensive operations, such as the daily itineraries of key leaders, the absence of clientele at popular enemy recreation spots, or the arrival of new

special units. Auxiliary personnel may also be in positions to monitor unsecured telephone and radio traffic, collect and sort the enemy's trash, and take advantage of individual security force and soldier operational security awareness. Auxiliary members may also extort or intimidate enemy security personnel to procure operational information. Redundant collection methods and secure means of communications between auxiliary members and guerrilla bases provide the guerrillas with significant information that allows them to maintain the initiative over enemy security forces.

Insurgent Logistics

2-51. Each resistance organization must develop a logistics system to meet the specific requirements of their situation. In general, however, a resistance organization meets its logistical requirements through a combination of internal and external means.

2-52. The area complex must provide the bulk of an insurgent organization's logistical requirements. The area commander must balance his support requirements against his need for civilian cooperation. Imposing excessive demands on the population may adversely affect popular support. Logistical constraints may initially dictate the size of the resistance organization.

2-53. As the resistance organization expands, its logistical requirements may exceed the capability of the area complex to provide adequate support. When this situation occurs, an external sponsor provides supplemental logistical support or the resistance organization reduces the scale of its activities. External support elements normally limit support to the necessities of life and the essential equipment and supplies the resistance needs to conduct combat operations. Internal sources of resistance supply include the following:

- Battlefield recovery.
- Purchase.
- Levy.
- Barter.
- Production.
- Confiscation.

2-54. Successful offensive operations permit resistance forces to satisfy some of their logistical requirements through battlefield recovery. Capturing supplies from hostile forces also avoids alienating civilians. The resistance organization normally limits its purchases to critical items unavailable by other means. Excessive introduction of external currency may disrupt the local economy, which may not be in the interest of the resistance organization or the United States.

2-55. The resistance organization may organize a levy system to ensure an equitable system for obtaining supplies from the local population. Under a levy system, the resistance organization provides receipts and maintains records of levy transactions to facilitate reimbursement at the end of hostilities. Obstacles to a levy system include—

- Chronic shortages among the local population.
- Hostile populace and resources control (PRC) measures, including confiscation or destruction of local resources.
- Competition from the hostile power or rival resistance organizations.
- Chemical, biological, radiological, nuclear, and high-yield explosives (CBRNE) or other contamination of local resources.

2-56. Barter may adversely affect the levy system. However, it is sometimes the only method of obtaining critical services or items, such as medical supplies.

2-57. Resistance forces often have to improvise their own field expedients. They may even have to plant and raise their own food, dig wells, and tend their own livestock. The area commander may consider establishing clandestine factories to produce unobtainable items.

2-58. Confiscation alienates the local population. The resistance organization should use confiscation only in emergencies or as punishment for individuals who refuse to cooperate or who actively collaborate with the hostile power. In all cases, resistance leaders must strictly control confiscation to ensure that it does not deteriorate into looting.

2-59. The resistance organization requires basic medicines and other medical supplies to treat its members. Preventive medicine is especially important to a resistance organization because it normally does not have adequate facilities to treat diseases.

2-60. The area commander normally obtains transportation support from the auxiliary on a mission basis. The guerrilla force may have its own organic transportation system to meet its immediate needs. In remote or undeveloped areas, the primary means may be human porters or pack animals.

2-61. The area commander caches extra supplies and equipment throughout the operational area. Caching is not a haphazard affair. Caches must support anticipated operational requirements or specified emergencies.

2-62. The resistance organization obtains repair materiel from the local economy and through battlefield recovery to perform all maintenance and repairs within its capability. It may establish repair facilities within the area complex. The sponsor includes necessary maintenance and repair items with all equipment it provides the resistance. Introducing sophisticated equipment into the area complex may complicate the maintenance system.

ORGANIZATION OF MEDICAL SUPPORT WITHIN THE AREA COMPLEX

2-63. The resistance initially confines clandestine medical treatment facilities to emergency and expedient care, with little preventive medicine. Once the area complex sufficiently develops, the clandestine facilities can expand and become a semipermanent medical organization, which serves the following purposes:

- To sustain and preserve combat power.
- To support the population.

MEDICAL REQUIREMENTS

2-64. If the area command has not established a degree of clandestine medical support, the result will be evident in the guerrilla force's morale. Historically, a lack of proper medical attention has led to serious illness and disability that reduced overall unit combat effectiveness.

2-65. Medical elements supporting the resistance forces must be mobile, responsive, and effective in preventing disease and restoring the sick and wounded to duty. It is unlikely the movement will have a safe rear area where it can take casualties for treatment. Medical personnel help during combat operations by operating casualty collection points, which allows the healthy guerrillas to keep fighting. Medical personnel evacuate casualties from these points to a guerrilla base or civilian care facility.

2-66. Resistance personnel use existing logistics and transportation nets to gain supplies and move casualties. The movement of wounded personnel across enemy-controlled areas by auxiliary members is a clandestine operation, not a support function.

AID STATION

2-67. Trained medical personnel provide emergency treatment at aid stations. Evacuation of wounded personnel from the battle area begins at these stations. Because the condition of the wounded may prevent movement to the unit base, personnel hide them in secure locations and notify the auxiliary. The auxiliary cares for and hides the wounded or evacuates them to a treatment facility.

2-68. The evacuation of the dead is important for security reasons. If the enemy identifies the dead, the families of the guerrillas may be in danger. Personnel evacuate and cache the bodies of those killed in action

until proper burial or disposal of the bodies in accordance with (IAW) the customs of the local population. Removal and burial of the dead denies the enemy valuable intelligence concerning indigenous casualties.

GUERRILLA HOSPITAL

2-69. A guerrilla hospital is a medical treatment facility (or complex of smaller facilities) that provides inpatient medical support to the guerrilla force. The resistance movement establishes a guerrilla hospital during the organization and buildup phase of its development. The hospital must be ready for operation at the start of combat operations and must be able to continue providing medical support until the leadership directs otherwise.

2-70. A guerrilla hospital rarely outwardly resembles a conventional hospital. The requirement for strict security, flexibility, and rapid mobility prevent visible comparison with conventional military or civilian medical facilities. As the guerrilla force consolidates its hold on the area complex, all medical support functions tends to consolidate. Safe areas allow the resistance to establish a centralized system of medical care. Sophisticated hospitals provide more elaborate care because they provide a wider selection of trained personnel and specialized equipment. These hospitals can also render more extensive and prolonged treatment.

CONVALESCENT FACILITY

2-71. The area where guerrilla forces send patients to recuperate is a convalescent facility. A guerrilla convalescent facility may be a safe house in which one or two convalescents are recuperating with an appropriate alibi or it could be in any base in guerrilla-controlled areas.

INSURGENT SUPPORT NETWORKS

2-72. Just like other large organizations, insurgencies need support networks. Insurgent support networks include the following:
- Logistics support network.
- Communications networks.
- Information and propaganda networks.
- Transportation networks.
- Recruitment networks.
- Intelligence and counterintelligence networks.

LOGISTICS SUPPORT NETWORK

2-73. Guerrillas need the ability to acquire, store, and distribute large quantities of supplies without standard lines of supply and communications. They accomplish this by maintaining a decentralized network of widely distributed caches instead of large centralized stockpiles. This minimizes the loss of materiel if a guerrilla base moves quickly or faces destruction. This network allows the guerrillas to conduct operations across a wide area without a long logistics tail.

2-74. The logistics supply network also includes facilities for materiel fabrication, such as false documentation, improvised explosives and munitions, and medical aid. If the resistance is receiving external support, this network will extend to clandestine airstrips, drop zones (DZ), seaports, and border-crossing sites.

COMMUNICATIONS NETWORKS

2-75. Guerrillas and underground leaders need to communicate with their subordinate elements in an area where enemy forces are always actively looking and listening for any indicators that would compromise the location of guerrilla forces or their supporting mechanism. Because of the likelihood of a high early-warning threat, especially in the initial phases of the resistance movement, nontechnical communications should prevail.

INFORMATION AND PROPAGANDA NETWORKS

2-76. Special networks are responsible for providing information to the population, against the will of the controlling regime. This information will bolster the will of the population to support the insurgent cause, undermine the legitimacy of the regime or occupying power, and undermine the morale of enemy security forces. Guerrilla forces may produce and distribute bootleg radio broadcasts, underground newspapers, Internet sites, and rumor campaigns. Guerrilla propaganda networks also draw new recruits to the movement. The networks may also coordinate with sympathetic elements outside the country to raise international favor and support. The resistance or insurgent leadership must have a degree of communication with the propaganda network to produce a coordinated effort.

TRANSPORTATION NETWORKS

2-77. The resistance requires the capability to move personnel and logistics safely through enemy controlled areas. Transportation networks include a compartmentalized series of safe houses or similar hiding locations. These locations allow the transport of personnel and materiel over long distances under the control of regional personnel who are familiar with the local enemy security measures. Security requires a complex series of recognition signals and communications that allow the individual segments to transfer the personnel and materiel safely with minimum exposure of either compartment to the other. These networks can also facilitate the evacuation of wounded personnel or personnel evading the enemy, such as downed airmen.

RECRUITMENT NETWORKS

2-78. The insurgency requires new recruits to join all aspects of the movement. The incorporation of these individuals requires special security measures to prevent the compromise of the components. The insurgency often sequesters recruits until it can check the recruit's validity and the recruit can complete training and possibly participate in an operation to prove his loyalty.

INTELLIGENCE AND COUNTERINTELLIGENCE NETWORKS

2-79. Aside from normal intelligence collection requirements, the resistance must recruit new members. The resistance screens new members to ensure they are not infiltrators. Further details are beyond the scope of this publication.

Chapter 3
Concept of Employment

Insurgents' actions are similar in character to all others fought by second-rate troops; they start out full of vigor and enthusiasm, but there is little level-headedness and tenacity in the long run.

Clausewitz, *On War*

It was a critical task of the special operations executive (SOE) to make sure that, where level-headedness and tenacity were lacking (among resistance forces), these characteristics were made available by first-rate organizers (from the SOE), so these forces could be brought into combat.

M.R. Foot, *The SOE 1940–1946*

Planning for UW is slightly different from planning for other special operations. Most SF core missions, other than UW and foreign internal defense (FID), are short-term operations. UW, however, involves long-term campaigns that require operational art to put forces in space and time and integrate ends, ways, and means from the tactical to the strategic levels that attain the desired strategic effects or U.S. political or military objectives and end states. The sensitivity of the planned action dictates the level of compartmentalization the United States must use to ensure operational security. Parallel planning by all levels ensures that each level understands how their mission integrates with the missions of other levels.

PLANNING FOR UNCONVENTIONAL WARFARE

3-1. UW operations have a fundamental psychological component in both execution and effects. Consequently, UW planning should integrate MIS in all phases of the operation. MIS can develop, maintain, and reinforce desired behaviors in target groups and individuals, while minimizing undesired behaviors. MISO are the primary method of fulfilling the ARSOF imperative of anticipating and controlling psychological effects. A key task of controlling psychological effects is ensuring that populations in the unconventional warfare operational area (UWOA) understand that operations are for their ultimate benefit, even if not immediately so. Failure to shape popular perceptions in ways that support UW objectives leaves the operation vulnerable to enemy information operations that can adversely affect even the best-planned and executed missions.

3-2. Planners must understand and distinguish between the resistance force's conceptual campaign-like activities and the Special Forces operational detachment's (SFOD's) immediate tactical operations, such as infiltration and linkup with resistance forces. Planners base the conceptual portion of the plan on numerous assumptions that they cannot confirm until after linkup with the resistance forces. Because of the ambiguous nature of these types of operations, command involvement is critical.

3-3. During SFODA or SFODB planning, the battalion HQ or special operations task force (SOTF) commander receives a concept brief to ensure synchronization of planning with his intent. This brief also affords the SOTF commander the chance to interact with the SFODA or SFODB, which builds a degree of confidence between the two elements.

3-4. The SOTF normally passes operations orders to companies, allowing them to further refine the tasks assignments of their subordinate units. However, this is not the case in UW. Because of the highly sensitive and complex nature of UW efforts, SFODAs receive their guidance directly from the SOTF. The mission

may not require the involvement of an SFODB, but the SFODB may infiltrate and linkup with resistance forces, as well. In the latter case, the SFODB in isolation stays abreast of the activities of its SFODAs, but does not provide C2 until successful infiltration of the operational area and linkup with a resistance counterpart HQ. Until this event occurs, it is more efficient for SFODAs to remain under direct SOTF control, and the companies or advanced operations base (AOB) to remain focused on their pending tactical infiltrations or other tasks.

3-5.   The SOTF can simultaneously run an isolation facility and a support center with a launch and recovery site, operations center, and signal center with 24-hour C2 for elements in denied territory. GTA 31-01-003, *Detachment Mission Planning Guide*, contains a more detailed description of specific planning. Figure 3-1 contains definitions vital to understanding UW planning.

Pilot Team

A deliberately structured composite organization comprised of SFOD members, with likely augmentation by interagency or other skilled personnel, designed to infiltrate a designated area to conduct sensitive preparation of the environment activities and assess the potential to conduct unconventional warfare in support of U.S. objectives .

Mission Support Site

A preselected area used as a temporary base or stopover point. The mission support site is used to increase the operational range within the joint special operations area. Unlike a patrol base (PB), a mission support site (MSS) can be occupied for an extended period of time (in excess of 24 hours) and reoccupied as necessary.

Figure 3-1. Unconventional warfare elements

SEVEN PHASES OF UNCONVENTIONAL WARFARE

3-6.   The seven phases of U.S.-sponsored insurgency are a conceptual template that planners use to aid understanding of a UW campaign effort. As a template, it merely serves as a guide for planning and execution. With the exception of MIS forces, no other SOF will mirror the seven phases, but may support a specific portion or phase of the larger UW campaign. Regardless, operational personnel should understand how their efforts integrate with and contribute to the overall campaign plan.

PHASE ONE—PREPARATION

3-7.   The preparation phase must begin with a complete IPOE. UW operations need to include, but are not limited to, a thorough analysis of the resistance force's strengths, weaknesses, logistics concerns, level of training and experience, political or military agendas, factional relationships, and external political ties. Along with this data, a thorough area study (Appendix A) of the target area is completed. At a minimum, the area study includes governmental services, living conditions, and political, religious, economical, environmental, medical, and educational issues.

3-8.   The USG begins to shape the target environment as far in advance as possible. The shaping effort may include operations to increase the legitimacy of U.S. operations and the resistance movement, building internal and external support for the movement, and setting conditions for the introduction of U.S. forces into the UWOA. MIS assessments are particularly important during the preparation phase because they provide the SFODA with vital information on possible insurgent leaders and key communicators that have psychological relevance with the population. Personnel could conduct these activities proactively in areas under the control of adversarial regimes or reactively immediately following an act of aggression against an ally's territory, such as an invasion. The population of a recently occupied country may already be psychologically ready to accept U.S. sponsorship, particularly if the country was a U.S. ally before its occupation. In other cases, psychological preparation may require a protracted period before yielding any favorable results.

PHASE TWO—INITIAL CONTACT

3-9.   Before the USG decides to render support to a resistance, it establishes contact with representatives of a resistance organization to assess the compatibility of U.S. and resistance interests and objectives. This assessment is largely a political negotiation between the USG and the resistance organization. Once the USG establishes compatibility, it assesses the resistance potential. During the initial contact, planners may arrange for the reception of a pilot team. If possible, planners may exfiltrate a resistance representative, referred to as an asset, from the operational area to brief the pilot team during its planning phase and possibly to accompany the team during their infiltration into the operational area and linkup with resistance forces.

3-10.   The pilot team conducts detailed area assessments (Appendix B) to expand their understanding of the operational environment, particularly human terrain analysis. This analysis provides information on the degree of support for the UW effort among the local populations. MIS planners provide the pilot team with area- and population-specific information requests to facilitate the evaluation of indigenous information capabilities and the determination of the level of support necessary to fully develop those capabilities and increase their operational effectiveness. MIS personnel may augment a pilot team.

PHASE THREE—INFILTRATION

3-11.   During the infiltration phase, a pilot team clandestinely infiltrates the operational area in order to link up with the resistance force and conduct or confirm a feasibility assessment. If the operational assessment is favorable, the pilot team coordinates for the infiltration and reception of follow-on SF teams and supplies. MIS personnel, attached to follow-on SF teams, provide SFODAs with an early information capability while developing an indigenous capability. As follow-on teams infiltrate the operational area and link up with their respective resistance-force counterparts, they begin their own operational assessment to confirm or deny the assumptions of the overarching UW campaign plan.

3-12. Depending on the situation, circumstances may dictate the infiltration of SFODAs without the benefit of a prior pilot-team effort, a trusted asset, or a completed feasibility assessment. In this case, the SFODA will perform many of the required functions normally accomplished by the pilot team. If this occurs, the SFODAs may need to adjust their infiltration plans to account for the higher risk of infiltration without the benefit of a reception coordinated by other U.S. personnel.

3-13. Successful infiltration of SFODAs and right-sized C2 to ensure countrywide or theaterwide unity of effort and apportionment of resources represents a decisive point for the operation, as well as a period of increased operational risk. Infiltration plans and tactics need to remain focused on successfully achieving this decisive point. Once the SFODA successfully links up with resistance forces, it must conduct the same level of operational assessment that the pilot team normally conducts before the implementation of their plan to render support.

3-14. In limited-war scenarios where the infiltration of U.S. personnel is undesirable, planners could exfiltrate indigenous resistance personnel out of the target area, provide training in specific required skills, and infiltrate the personnel back into the target area to function as cadre capable of conducting operations or training other resistance forces. The enemy's level of control over the population and the environment affects how long planners can keep resistance personnel away from their region before they begin to disconnect from the local population.

PHASE FOUR—ORGANIZATION

3-15.   Once U.S. advisors link up with resistance leadership, the objective is to determine and agree upon a plan to organize the resistance for expanded operations. In addition to physical preparations, this entails a confirmation of mutual objectives and prior agreements. This requires a period of rapport-building to develop trust and confidence, as well as a period of discussion of expectations from both sides.

3-16. Before a resistance organization can successfully engage in combat operations, its leadership must organize an infrastructure that can sustain itself in combat and withstand the anticipated hostile reaction to armed resistance. During the organization phase, the resistance leadership develops a resistance cadre to

serve as the organizational nucleus during the buildup phase. The SFODA assists the resistance leadership in this endeavor by providing training and advice to prepare for the eventual buildup of the resistance organization.

3-17. MIS elements assist in this phase by organizing and developing a new (or building upon an existing) resistance information capability. Once the resistance develops this capability, it can incorporate information elements into insurgent and auxiliary organizations. Development includes training and mentoring cadre and advising on their employment. The ultimate goal is the employment of resistance information capabilities that are increasingly self-sustaining.

3-18. Many guerrilla leaders may not enthusiastically accept U.S. advisors but may tolerate them as a precondition for other U.S. support, such as logistical aid. They may harbor suspicions that the U.S. intentions are purely self-serving or lack the resolve to maintain their commitment long-term. Guerrilla leaders are cautious of placing too much reliance in U.S. promises. It is the challenge of the SFODA leadership to gain the confidence of the resistance leadership and demonstrate the value of cooperation toward their mutual goals. The SFODA explains its capabilities and limitations and begins to assist the resistance leadership with the development of the organization. Although rapport eases every aspect of operations, operational personnel must not perceive rapport as the goal, but rather a means to a goal. The goal is a strong relationship in which the SF leaders are trusted advisors who can influence the direction of events. The amount of influence an advisor attains is directly proportional to the total sum of three factors between himself and his counterpart. These factors equate to rapport, credibility, and continued belief in the value of the relationship.

3-19. The resistance leader and U.S. advisors must agree upon C2 arrangements within the bounds of higher-level political and military agreements. The specifics of a resistance organization depend on local conditions. UW requires centralized direction and decentralized execution under conditions that place great demands on the resistance organization and its leadership. Armed rebellion inherently creates an ambiguous and unstructured environment. No two resistance organizations need the same degree or level of organization. All levels of command should consider the following factors when advising the resistance leadership concerning organization:

- The effectiveness of the existing resistance organization.
- The extent of cooperation between the resistance organization and the local population.
- The level of hostile activity and security measures.
- The political boundaries, natural terrain features, potential targets, and population density of the operations environment.
- The religious, ethnic, political, and ideological differences among elements of the population and competing resistance organizations.
- The proposed type and scope of combat operations.
- The degree of U.S. influence with the resistance organization.

3-20. It is important that the SFODAs understand and report the strengths and weaknesses of the resistance group. With this feedback, higher commanders can develop the UW campaign plan to effectively leverage the strengths of the different groups while mitigating the inherent weaknesses. MIS assessments are important sources of information that aid in understanding these strengths and weaknesses. These assessments aid in understanding the cultural, religious, economic, and social factors affecting the operational environment and the resistance movement. This analysis also provides key insights into relationships and other influences affecting the behavior of targeted groups.

3-21. Planners cannot automatically fix the organization of the guerrilla force according to conventional tables of organization and equipment. Guerrilla force missions and tactics dictate a simple, mobile, and flexible organization capable of rapid dispersion and consolidation. Each unit must function as an independent organization with its own intelligence, communications, and logistical systems. Guerrilla organization normally determines auxiliary organization. Planners should compartment all auxiliary functions from one another and from the guerrilla force that the auxiliary supports. MIS elements develop complementary guerrilla and auxiliary information elements that are simple, mobile, and flexible. This

enables them to provide training in tactics, techniques, and procedures that match the capabilities of those organizations.

3-22. Once U.S. advisors have an accurate assessment of the situation on the ground, a good working relationship, and a concept for expanded operations, resistance leaders and planners work out the specifics of the concept. The two parties work out these specifics at all levels, clearing them through U.S. interagency channels to ensure concept agreement.

PHASE FIVE—BUILDUP

3-23. During the buildup phase, the resistance cadre improves the organization's clandestine supporting infrastructure in order to prepare for expanded offensive operations. When the organization begins to conduct operations of a wider scope and across a wider area, many of these operations will draw attention from counterguerrilla forces. The organization must have the supporting clandestine infrastructure to prepare for and sustain these operations. Possible expansion efforts to prepare the area complex for future combat operations include—

- Increasing intelligence, counterintelligence, and early-warning networks.
- Expanding recruiting efforts without compromising security of the force or operations.
- Developing and expanding underground capabilities to conduct information, deception, and sabotage activities.
- Expanding the supply distribution and cache networks.
- Expanding guerrilla training programs for new recruits or on new materiel supplied by the SFODA, such as mortars, antitank systems, machine guns, demolitions, medical gear, CBRNE protective gear, and so on.
- Developing mechanisms and networks to support evasion and recovery of coalition forces, such as downed airmen.

3-24. During this phase, the resistance force may conduct limited offensive operations to gain confidence and experience, to procure needed materiel and supplies, or to confuse and harass the enemy forces in their area. However, the emphasis remains on developing the resistance infrastructure to support future operations. The resistance leadership must not let the organization expand beyond its organic capability to sustain itself.

3-25. All parties must carefully consider the type and scope of future combat operations that are likely to achieve each organization's desired plans, as well as the plans of the overarching resistance C2 in conjunction with or supporting U.S. efforts. All levels of command must be aware of the theater commander's intent for resistance combat operations. During isolation planning, units may focus on some strategic- to tactical-level targets. It is unlikely the unit would have had the fidelity to determine appropriate objectives and targets that achieve the theater commander's desired effects before linkup with the resistance leadership. After advisors and the resistance leadership agree upon a support plan for the overall UW campaign, they must determine which actual targets achieve the desired goals.

3-26. The first step toward determining appropriate targets, objectives, and other supporting efforts is to establish an understanding of the enemy's capabilities and intentions. What are the enemy's tactical, operational, and strategic capabilities and efforts to ensure control over the population? What are the enemy's centers of gravity? What are the enemy's psychological vulnerabilities? Where is the enemy vulnerable to guerrilla or underground operations? The enemy situation may change drastically from the current time to the time of a coalition invasion.

3-27. Depending on the length of the campaign effort, it is highly probable that the theater campaign plan was still in development at the time of the SFODA's isolation planning and infiltration. The intelligence derived from the resistance in this phase is critical to the theater planning efforts.

3-28. Each level of SF HQ must identify potential objectives or lines of operations with their resistance counterparts as part of the overall UW campaign plan. SF units ensure the resistance efforts complement the theater campaign plans. Planners must take care to minimize the communication signature during

coordination so that they do not burden or jeopardize resistance units while satisfying conventional planning procedures.

3-29. Once planners determine the type and scope of operations, they develop supporting capabilities specific to those efforts. Tasks outlined in the UW campaign plan or operation order drive supporting capabilities. The SFODA may start to coordinate for specific supplies via airdrop or other resupply methods. Planners need to prioritize resupply efforts for materials that forces cannot procure by other means. Every resupply operation comes with the risk of exposure and potential loss of the supporting apparatus. Planners need to develop and emplace capabilities without compromising the organization or future operations. If resistance efforts are to support a pending coalition D-Day (start of the coalition invasion), the capabilities—whether guerrilla, auxiliary, or underground—need to include notification and activation procedures that allow the synchronization of efforts with conventional forces.

PHASE SIX—EMPLOYMENT

3-30. During the employment phase, the resistance force initiates an expanded scope of offensive operations to achieve the desired effects. The desired effects can range from causing the enemy to commit limited resources away from a pending invasion area, support to a pending invasion area (as in general war), or in the case of a separate insurgency (limited war), the achievement of specific strategic politico-military objectives. The main activities in this phase consist of interdiction and MISO. The specific tactics and activities that occur during the conduct of UW are not exclusive to UW. Interdiction operations may include—

- Interdicting LOCs.
- Attacking C2 nodes, such as power lines, telecommunications towers, and key enemy leaders.
- Attacking mobile air defense systems.
- Targeting rear-area infrastructure and high-payoff targets, such as munitions and fuel depots, rail yards, airfields, waterways, power plants, and radio, television, and other mass media facilities.
- Seizing key objectives, such as choke points, prisoner or concentration camps, and critical national infrastructure, for very limited periods of time.

3-31. Planners need to consider the types of targets guerrilla forces attack. Guerrilla forces might avoid conducting wide-scale operations in frontline combat areas during the introduction of conventional forces because guerrilla force presence could inadvertently hinder the rapid advance of invasion forces. In order to maximize their effect, resistance forces should attack less-than-optimal targets by other means, such as air interdiction or missiles.

3-32. MISO seek to achieve two goals simultaneously in phase six. First, MISO exploit guerrilla successes for their maximum psychological effect. This exploitation can increase the morale of resistance forces and auxiliaries, which can further increase their operational effectiveness. In addition, success brings positive attention to the movement and increases support from the indigenous population and external supporters in terms of logistics, intelligence, and recruitment. Second, MISO exploit guerrilla successes to erode enemy morale and decrease internal and external support. MISO may also increase dissension, desertion, and surrender of enemy forces, further decreasing their operational effectiveness. MISO can further exploit enemy reprisals against populations or the guerrillas to separate the population from the enemy government or occupying forces.

3-33. Physical attacks that resistance forces conduct can significantly alter psychological effects during this phase. Planning actions for psychological effect is a deliberate process requiring thorough analysis, detailed coordination, and careful execution. Although this process is time- and labor-intensive, the effects can potentially shape the course of the entire UW operation in a profound manner. SF units on the ground coordinate and synchronize these efforts to ensure a complementary effect, first with partner force and then conventional force efforts. Other supporting efforts may include—

- Gathering and reporting vital intelligence to coalition forces.
- Assisting in the evasion and recovery of isolated personnel (downed aircrews).
- Reconnoitering and receiving airborne, air assault, or amphibious invasion forces.

3-34. MISO can enhance the effects of these supporting efforts. They can increase actionable intelligence obtained from key segments of the population through persuasive messages that increase sympathy and support for the resistance movement. Information on rewards and other messages can persuade target groups to aid the evasion and recovery of isolated personnel. In addition, MISO can assist in building local networks that provide support for incoming invasion forces by consistently emphasizing the benefits of supporting the UW effort and highlighting the negative aspects of the enemy government or occupying power.

3-35. In a general-war scenario involving a pending conventional force invasion, planners synchronize combat operations around an undisclosed D-Day. For operations security, planners do not tell SF personnel or resistance forces the specific time and date of D-Day, which makes synchronization particularly critical and challenging. Planners may choose a defining date or event, such as the anniversary of a civil disturbance, to motivate the guerrilla force and increase popular support for operations. Careful selection of the D-Day can have significant psychological effects on UW operations. SF HQ coordinate notification procedures and the amount of advance warning they require with theater HQ before the infiltration of SFODAs. Resistance forces require time to notify and assemble their forces, recover equipment, and move into position. Resistance forces must accomplish these tasks without the benefit of secure technical communications gear and without alerting enemy forces. Based on the expectation of liberation by invasion forces, the resistance can assume the risk associated with initiating more offensive operations than is normally permissible. When properly coordinated, these offensive operations can have a devastating disruptive effect on an adversary's combat capability. However, if the resistance initiates its efforts too early, they will alert enemy forces and possibly initiate retaliation. If the resistance initiates its efforts too late, they may not have the required effect to be of value.

3-36. In a limited-war scenario, this phase still consists of a campaign of guerrilla warfare and subversion, but forces execute them in a slightly different manner. Combat operations generally do not focus around a single culminating D-Day event. Forces conduct these operations over a protracted period of time, with the intent of slowly eroding enemy strength and morale. Guerrilla attacks and acts of sabotage and subversion drain the hostile power's morale and resources, disrupt its administration, and maintain the civilian population's morale and will to resist. By repeatedly attacking multiple and widely dispersed targets, the resistance organization confuses, frustrates, and demoralizes hostile forces. Such attacks force the hostile power to divide its reaction and reinforcement capabilities. This slowly creates an increasing demand on the enemy to spend a disproportionate amount of strength to maintain its existing state of control over the population. In either a general-war or limited-war scenario, advisors ensure that resistance activities continue to support the objectives of the U.S. unified commander, mindful that resistance objectives are rarely identical to those of the United States.

3-37. Some planners assume the goal is to enable resistance forces to transform and equate to additional conventional infantry units. It is the responsibility of the SF HQ to ensure that campaign planners understand the capabilities and limitations of the resistance forces, as well as the associated advantages and disadvantages.

3-38. As conventional forces near areas with resistance forces, the SF HQ coordinates linkup between the two forces. Planners arrange how linkup will occur before the SFODA's infiltration. Successful linkup is critical to avoid friendly-fire incidents and to give the maneuver commander the benefit of the resistance force's intimate knowledge of the local environment. This normally requires the placement of an element with the advancing conventional force HQ. After linkup, resistance forces revert to some variety of coalition or national control. These forces may demobilize or transition to a regular military or security force. Possible missions include employment as—

- Rear-area security of critical installations and LOC choke points.
- Scouts and guides assigned to coalition conventional units.

PHASE SEVEN—TRANSITION

3-39. Elements conduct UW until they remove the hostile power and the indigenous population becomes the government. At this point, it is critical to shift mindsets from defeating the adversary regime to

protecting the newly installed government and its security personnel from insurgency, lawlessness, and subversion by former regime elements that attempt to organize resistance. Planners should have addressed transition planning in the feasibility assessment that formed the basis of the determination to support the resistance organization. Elements must honor their commitment to promises made before transition. Resistance forces are more likely to demobilize or transition if—

- The postconflict government reflects their original expectations.
- The belief exists that elements will honor promises made before transition, specifically in terms of benefits, such as back pay for service to their country or future employment.

3-40. During the period of conflict, it is possible that attitudes of a given force change or allegiances collapse. It is common for isolated guerrilla units to lose sight of their original objectives in order to maintain a lifestyle that is now more familiar than their preconflict lives. For this reason, all levels need to monitor attitudes and reinforce the end state objectives throughout the course of the campaign. MISO units are particularly useful in disseminating information about the benefits of demobilization, reintegration, and a reestablishment of society and civilian life. The manner in which the transition occurs affects the postwar attitudes of the people and the government towards the United States. Perhaps the greatest danger in transition is the possibility that former resistance members may resort to factional disputes, banditry, or subversion of the new government. The new government must make every effort to reorient and absorb former resistance members into a peaceful society and gain their acceptance. To achieve this goal, the new government must—

- Bring arms and ammunition under government control.
- Assist resistance members in returning to civilian life.
- Use resistance members as local militias or the base for future police and army forces.
- Take positive measures to prevent resistance members from beginning or participating in further political upheaval.

3-41. Because of their knowledge of resistance organization and history, SF teams initially remain in their operational areas to assist in the demobilization effort or in the transition of former resistance forces into national regular forces. SF personnel may serve as trainers and advisors to newly formed counterguerrilla or counterterrorist units, particularly if former resistance forces reject transition and continue to violently oppose the new indigenous government. During transition and demobilization, CA units are critical assets in helping the new government meet the needs of the former resistance forces and their families. MISO are essential during this phase. MIS assists in explaining the demobilization process to the guerrilla forces and promotes loyalty of guerrilla forces to the new government as part of continuing efforts to maintain support for the movement's transition to a working government. The key to long-term strategic success in UW is the planning and execution of SOF postconflict responsibilities.

CIVIL AFFAIRS SUPPORT TO THE SEVEN PHASES OF UNCONVENTIONAL WARFARE

3-42. CA forces are capable of providing support to all seven phases of a UW campaign. CMO planners and CA forces are well equipped to assist SFODs in developing the factors that make up the operational environment of UW operations, in achieving the support or neutrality of various segments of society, or influencing the JSOA. All Civil Affairs operations (CAO) may support UW, although the most important role of CAO is facilitating the swift transition of power from the resistance forces to a legitimate government after the cessation of hostilities.

3-43. CA operational support during phase one of UW may include the following:

- Providing detailed civil considerations analysis of the JSOA.
- Providing CAO inputs to the IPOE process.
- Identifying foreign humanitarian assistance (FHA) funding sources.
- Initiating transition planning by developing a disengagement concept and identifying the CMO end state.

3-44. CA operational support during phase two of UW may include the following:

- Integrating with the pilot team-planning cell.
- Identifying sources of FHA, to include intergovernmental organizations (IGOs) and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs).
- Preparing to insert with the pilot team to support initial assessments.
- Preparing to provide detailed CAO or CMO analysis of pilot team assessments.
- Identifying quick, high-impact projects based on pilot team assessments.

3-45. CA operational support during phase three of UW may include the following:

- Validating CA inputs to the IPOE.
- Identifying and liaising with key leaders within the indigenous population who may influence the CAO/CMO plan.
- Preparing to insert with the SFOD.
- Conducting key leader engagement.

3-46. CA operational support during phase four of UW may include the following:

- Refining CA input to IPOE.
- Facilitating the build of the resistance force.
- Initiating CAO (FHA, nation assistance, and PRC).

3-47. CA operational support during phase five of UW may include the following:

- Validating measures of effectiveness (MOEs).
- Monitoring or assessing effects
- Executing CAO.

3-48. CA operational support during phase six of UW may include the following:

- Mitigating impacts on the population.
- Surging FHA.
- Preparing to execute planned PRC (dislocated civilian operations).
- Deconflicting IGO and NGO operations supporting unity of effort.

3-49. CA operational support during phase seven of UW may include the following:

- Executing support to civil administration operations to advise and assist the new government.
- Supporting posthostility institutions to foster legitimacy and transparency of government.
- Supporting the interagency execution of strategic and operational stability operations.

LOGISTICS CONSIDERATIONS

3-50. Logistics support for UW is different from support to other types of special operations. UW missions often require significant quantities of materiel to support resistance forces, specifically guerrillas. The materiel includes lethal and nonlethal aid, some of which may not be organic to the U.S. Army supply system. Every effort must be made to maximize the use of indigenous supply sources within the UWOA. In addition, confiscation, barters or trades, IOUs, donations or levies, and battlefield recovery and purchase are leveraged extensively in order to maximize demands of external resupply. Planners need to consider the ability of the indigenous forces to make use of U.S. materiel. In some cases, the materiel may not be compatible with other materiel acquired in the operational environment. The introduction of some U.S. materiel could actually complicate the resistance forces efforts.

3-51. A key area that planners must address in the planning phase is that much of the MIS equipment is unique to the force and not in the U.S. Army supply system. Furthermore, indigenous information capabilities rely on locally sustainable equipment that is within their ability to supply and service. The decentralization and mobility of the insurgent and auxiliary organizations necessitate equipment that personnel can easily move and set up. Equipment in austere conditions must have minimum maintenance

requirements. In some cases, personnel will need to conduct production, distribution, and dissemination using theater resources rather than organic or indigenous assets.

3-52. The lack of established LOCs presents another significant challenge. Personnel must deliver materiel in a manner that does not compromise the indigenous force's location. For this reason, planners need to carefully consider and prioritize external resupply efforts, keeping resupply to essential items only. Planners need to ensure resupply efforts do not establish a pattern. Personnel should use various methods and locations throughout the course of the buildup and combat employment phases.

3-53. To facilitate isolation and field planning, the theater special operations command (TSOC) and subsequent joint special operations task force (JSOTF) must make detachments aware of available materiel. These elements are responsible for establishing a catalog of available materiel for a campaign effort. This catalog will include standard and nonstandard materiel. Detachments need to understand if quantities have already been allocated and the given quota for the number of resupplies they can expect. They also need to know whether resupply scheduling is by month or by phase (air, sea, and ground). The willingness to assume risk with platforms to resupply forces may increase as phases progress towards initiation of combat operations.

3-54. In addition, detachments need to know their allocation for emergency bundles to support evasion and for resupply in support of their mission requirements. The JSOTF forwards requests for materiel not immediately available to the TSOC for resourcing. Detachments need to understand the process and time necessary for nonstandard requests.

SUPPLY CONSIDERATIONS

3-55. There are two main categories of resupply, accompanying resupply and external resupply. External resupply is comprised of automatic, emergency, and on-call (or routine) resupply. The following sections discuss each of these categories and subcategories.

ACCOMPANYING RESUPPLY

3-56. The SFODA may take accompanying supplies into the JSOA at the time of infiltration. The SFODA receives these supplies in isolation at the JSOTF or SOTF. While undergoing mission preparation in isolation, the SFODA prepares and rigs accompanying supplies for delivery in conjunction with infiltration. This preparation must include packaging and load consideration to facilitate transportation subsequent to infiltration. The situation may dictate that these supplies are cached following infiltration for later use. The threat in the JSOA dictates the quantity and type of supplies and equipment the SFODA can include. Other influences are the—

- Capabilities, size, and responsiveness of the guerrilla force to sponsor assistance.
- Enemy capabilities and situation.
- Method of infiltration (air, land, or sea).
- Requirements for survival, evasion, resistance, and escape.
- Available resources in the JSOA.
- Size and capability of the reception committee.
- Requirements for sustaining operations pending receipt of an automatic resupply.
- Need for key items of equipment to partially equip a cadre nucleus of the guerrilla force when the SFODA expects a reception committee upon infiltration.
- Other items of equipment and supplies to help establish rapport with the guerrillas.

EXTERNAL RESUPPLY

3-57. External resupplies are procured and delivered to the UWOA/JSOA by the sponsor (JSOTF), based on the needs of the resistance force or insurgents, as well as the SFODA. Resupply is planned in isolation to be delivered after infiltration at a coordinated location and time automatically, as requested, or based upon a no-communications trigger. The SFODA preselects resupply items and delivery merchandise during

isolation to replenish or supplement supplies its members consume or to fulfill other requirements. The SFODA receives these items after infiltration.

Automatic Resupply

3-58. The SFODA plans for automatic resupply before infiltration, coordinating for the delivery time, location, contents, and the identification marking system or authentication. Personnel deliver automatic resupply after the SFODA successfully infiltrates and establishes radio contact, unless the SFOD cancels, modifies, or reschedules the delivery. Automatic resupply augments supplies or equipment that the SFOD could not carry in on the initial infiltration or were not required until a later date. Automatic resupply also reinforces U.S. support of the guerrillas. In addition, it fulfills the need for selected items to equip a nucleus of the guerrilla force should accompanying supplies be unrecoverable during infiltration.

3-59. The JSOTF or SOTF schedules the delivery of automatic and emergency resupply to the SFODAs. Preplanned automatic resupply provides the guerrilla force with immediate supplies and equipment until on-call or routine resupply procedures are established. Supply personnel normally pack equipment and supplies in appropriate aerial delivery containers that have a cargo capacity of 500 pounds or less to ease handling and transportation within the JSOA. Packers mark door bundles for easy identification once they arrive on the DZ. To allow rapid clearance of the DZ, personnel ensure the contents of each container are in man-portable units of about 50 pounds each. Packers must brief DZ parties on these man-portable containers. If personnel must carry the containers long distances, the SFODA must arrange transportation assets with the guerrilla support arm (auxiliary). The SFOD can cancel, modify, or reschedule automatic resupplies, depending on their requirements.

Emergency Resupply

3-60. The purpose of the emergency resupply is to provide essential equipment and supplies in order to restore operational capability and survivability of the SFODA. Typical items contained in the bundle may be communications equipment, batteries, weapons, ammunition, money, and handheld global positioning systems. A coded message, a radio request, or the absence of any detachment communication over a prearranged period can trigger an emergency resupply. The SFODA and the supporting HQ must clearly understand the sequence of events, time required, and assets available to deliver the emergency resupply.

3-61. Although detachments can request special items, it is highly likely that all emergency resupply bundles will contain generic items in order to support numerous detachments. As a minimum, resupply should consist of communications equipment and enough mission-essential supplies to establish base contact.

On-Call or Routine Resupply

3-62. When the SFODA establishes communications with the JSOTF or SOTF, external supply begins on call. Personnel use the abbreviated code of a catalog supply system contained in the signal operating instructions (SOI) to request supplies based on operational need. These supplies consist of major equipment items that units do not consume at a predictable rate. Theater Army area command (TAACOM) depots, the JSOTF, or the SOTF hold these items in readiness for immediate delivery on a specific mission-request basis.

3-63. To determine the quantity of supplies to request, the SFODA considers the rate of expansion of the guerrilla force, the anticipated tempo of operations, and the detachment's ability to receive, transport, store, and secure incoming supplies.

3-64. The SFODA also anticipates its operational needs for supplies and equipment in the JSOA. The mission operations cell at the JSOTF or SOTF packs and rigs the supplies into man-portable loads and color-codes them before infiltration. The mission operations cell color-codes the supplies IAW the type of supplies in the load so personnel need not open them for identification.

3-65. As the guerrilla force expands and logistic requirements increase, internal popular support will lose its ability to provide subsistence for the resistance without creating hardships for or lowering the living

standards of the civilians. At this point, the force must obtain logistics support from an external source. This dependence on the external source requires a routine supply system. As the JSOA grows, the need for external supply normally outgrows the on-call method of requesting supplies.

ORGANIZATION OF SUPPLY

3-66. The area command, with advice from U.S. advisors, plans, develops, operates, and controls the guerrilla force logistics system. Each element of the area command has a specific role in the logistics system, and the force develops each system to meet the specific needs and peculiarities of the JSOA. Elements may centralize or decentralize supply organization systems. During the organization and buildup phase, the command may centralize logistic operations, moving all supplies into one collection area. The SFODA procures logistics items from throughout the JSOA, processes them through a centralized or decentralized collection point, and distributes them to all units of the guerrilla force.

3-67. As the JSOA matures, subordinate units take over a sector in which they are responsible for establishing a separate and decentralized supply procurement system. They distribute all supplies throughout the JSOA to several distribution centers. This decentralization improves security because compromise or destruction of the procurement system in one sector will not destroy the entire apparatus. Another advantage of this system is that it permits an equitable distribution of the logistics burden on the civilian population. Elements keep movement of supplies between sectors to a minimum, and personnel do not pass names, storage sites, and caches from sector to sector. The area commander delegates supply operations to sector commanders. He retains the responsibility for the overall plans. He also reports supply needs to the sponsoring power and issues directives covering operations. Plans and directives may include—

- Organization of supply and service support units.
- Organization and employment of civilian support units.
- Systems of levy and barter on civilians.
- Receipt of payment for supplies.
- Collection, storage, transportation, and distribution of supplies.
- Quantity and type of supplies personnel are to maintain.
- Allocation of supplies to major lower commands.

3-68. The area commander provides all supply items to the sector commander. The sector commanders supply their units and conduct supply operations according to the plans, directives, and orders of higher HQ. Individual units within their assigned sectors conduct decentralized supply operations. The sector commander makes his needs known to the next-higher HQ for supplies and equipment not available within his area. He distributes all supplies and equipment received from higher HQ. Besides supplying his sector, higher HQ may charge him with supplying adjacent sectors.

DELIVERY SYSTEMS

3-69. The SF detachments in the JSOA deliver all external supplies and equipment to the guerrilla force. It is essential that personnel control access to sensitive items, such as weapons, ammunition, demolitions, radios, drugs, or special equipment. An SFODA member must be present at all deliveries of external supplies to ensure positive control and accountability.

DELIVERY MEANS

3-70. The preferred mission delivery method for external resupply is by sponsor aircraft, surface ship, or submarine. At first, planners may determine aerial delivery by parachute is the best means of supply to a JSOA. Personnel may use free-drop techniques for certain hardy items. Later, as the JSOA expands and comes under greater friendly control, SFODA members use air-landed supply missions. Supply personnel normally use surface ships or submarines when JSOAs are next to waterways or seas. Resupply operations require secrecy to protect the resupply platform and the reception element. Personnel normally conduct these operations during limited visibility.

PACKAGING

3-71. The JSOTF or SOTF support center personnel prepare supplies and equipment for delivery to a JSOA. The size of the package and the number of packages determines the delivery means. Personnel base the packaging system on man-portable packages weighing about 50 pounds. With this weight limitation, members of the reception committee transportation party can easily move the packages from the supply point to safe sites. Personnel equip man-portable packages with carrying straps and mount the packages on pack boards. The transportation party color-codes the packages so personnel can easily identify their contents upon arrival. The JSOTF or SOTF support center personnel ensure each package is—

- Waterproofed to permit aboveground and limited underground or underwater cache.
- Packed with instructions (in the indigenous language) for all equipment.
- Marked with a prearranged code to identify the contents.
- Packed with an inventory list to aid in identifying lost or damaged materiel.
- Packed to protect sensitive communications and medical items by using clothing, blankets, or other padding.

3-72. The JSOTF or SOTF support center personnel may put combat and morale supply items in the same container. They package ammunition and cleaning equipment with weapons and batteries with flashlights. Personnel may include additional small arms ammunition, by caliber, as an individual package.

SUPPLY PROCEDURES

3-73. SFODA members use a catalog supply system code to accelerate on-call resupply requests and ensure accurate equipment identification and supply items. The system also reduces radio transmission time. To permit maximum user flexibility, the system identifies single major equipment items or several associated items by code words. Personnel catalog these items by class of supplies and group them in individual packaged items or several associated unit items packed together. The catalog supply system is not secure, but it reduces message length and transmission time when personnel request a variety of supplies. The catalog supply system is—

- Based on mission requirements, concept plans, and SOPs.
- Prepared under the supervision of the group logistics staff section.
- Reproduced in miniature form for operational missions and published in the SOI by the group signal officer.

COMMAND AND CONTROL

3-74. Military commanders must understand that the C2 tactics and techniques used in other special operations do not transfer well to UW missions. Units cannot communicate with their HQ in the same manner as during other types of operations. Even if the communication architecture is available, leaders must exercise great care before placing requirements on units operating from within enemy territory. Unlike conventional units, UW organizations risk some degree of exposure with every communication. Personnel must not confuse communications encryption with low electronic signature. Leaders must balance a HQ commander's desire for computer-based briefings and real-time communications with the constraints of the operational environment. Units engaging in UW must operate in a decentralized manner. They should always operate under the assumption that the enemy is trying to locate their position using unusual signals in urban and rural areas.

3-75. Unlike conventional operations, the acceptable size and optimum location for the HQ of units engaging in UW change as the mission progresses. The HQ base their decision to provide C2 from an adjacent country or from an infiltrated point in the resistance area on where it provides the most value. The SF company (AOB) and battalion (SOTF) HQ are tactical elements that not only coordinate the actions of their subordinate units, but also integrate with their resistance force counterparts (sector or area command) if needed.

3-76. The U.S. Army specifically designed the SF group to operate in a decentralized manner, synchronizing the efforts between displaced sector and area commands with their SFODAs and SFODBs. The group provides SFODAs and SFODBs to perform tactical functions in addition to their inherent C2 responsibilities. Each one of these HQ maintains the ability to operate with its equivalent resistance-force counterpart. Although the insertion of SFODBs greatly enhances C2 and synchronization with the resistance force, it also removes the ability of that HQ to perform C2 for other special operations outside of the area complex.

3-77. Before entering resistance controlled territory, the unit HQ must consider if their signature will jeopardize the mission and if there is an appropriate level of resistance HQ that could benefit from their direct interaction. In either case, it is inappropriate for these types of operations, particularly in forward areas, for a large, unwieldy HQ.

3-78. UW operations present some unique force protection challenges. Because of the low signature of many UW operations, the normal measures for force protection may be impractical or impossible. Personnel can mitigate some aspects of the associated risk through good operational security measures and signature reduction measures.

OPERATIONAL SECURITY

3-79. There are numerous aspects of operations beyond the control of advisors. As such, advisors should always employ proactive measures to protect operational information regardless of their estimate of the actual risk at hand. Compromises of operational information may occur hundreds of miles from the operational area. Personnel should take the following precautions:

- Limit the use of proper names with resistance members. Soldiers should not share personal information with indigenous resistance personnel.
- Provide code names for all advisors. This allows secure and unsecure communication regarding SFODA personnel.
- Keep operational information on a need-to-know basis.
- Maintain internal communications procedures that indicate a compromise of information.

3-80. The situation may dictate that U.S. personnel reduce their distinctive appearance. This may include the wear of articles of indigenous clothing, such as a scarf or hat, the carrying of indigenous weapons and gear, or the adoption of normal customs of appearance, such as a mustache or beard. Signature reduction measures can allow SF personnel to blend in with indigenous forces and prevent identification by enemy personnel.

3-81. However, if advisors deviate from their normal U.S. military appearance but not toward that of the allied military forces it can have the opposite intended effect of drawing attention to the U.S. personnel or causing a perception of a lack of discipline on the advisor's behalf. At times, Soldiers can reap significant benefits from deviating from the normal U.S. military appearance, but this requires an understanding of the local customs and culture. The Soldier must make deliberate and conscious decision to take this step. The unit chain of command must approve any deviations from standard appearance and must ensure they comply with the legal requirements of the operation.

PHYSICAL SECURITY

3-82. Decentralized elements often must rely on indigenous forces for security. However, U.S. personnel should always maintain a degree of vigilance for their own security, at least passively, if not actively. As much as the resistance forces are familiar with the local area, U.S. forces must not become complacent with their trust of the resistance forces. Resistance forces may contain enemy collaborators or infiltrators among their ranks. SFODAs maintain internal emergency communication signals, rally points, linkup plans and evasion plans of action.

LEGAL PRINCIPLES

3-83. The foremost legal concern for UW operations is that every proposed operation receives a specific legal review and that all aspects of planning and executing UW operations are closely coordinated with legal advisors.

3-84. UW operations involve many unique and often unsettled legal matters, including authority to conduct operations, funding, legal status of personnel, and a host of other issues. The legal parameters of UW are rarely clear and depend on the specifics of a particular mission, campaign, or conflict. SF should know the potential that individual and small-unit UW operations have to affect matters on the international level. SF must possess awareness of the standards that apply to UW and the implications of conducting UW under U.S. and international law. Because of its nature, UW requires close coordination with legal advisors in all phases of planning and executing operations of this type.

3-85. This section provides general guidance on legal, regulatory, and policy considerations for UW operations. It is not directive or exhaustive; rather, it serves as a base document of the law and policy that exist as of the writing of this circular. Law and policy in the area of UW are subject to rapid change. New U.S. congressional legislation and presidential executive policy can affect and often directly address UW operations. New treaties, United Nations actions, and shifting views among nations can dramatically change the international implications of UW operations. These changes often affect specific operations and theaters while leaving others unaffected. Law and policy concerns have potential long-term effects for SF. A single violation, real or perceived, can profoundly affect SF operations and organizations. In certain situations, the fluid nature of UW operations may warrant precautions that exceed the strict letter of the law. Other situations may require aggressive action that maximizes full use of all legal means at a commander's disposal. Consequently, SF commanders must draw on the expertise of their legal staff and the organic socio-political expertise of SF Soldiers and relevant subject-matter experts before establishing UW plans and policy. Constant monitoring of the legal ramifications of UW operations is also necessary.

3-86. There is no special body of law for UW. The usual operational authorities govern UW by applying the unique facts of each operation on a case-by-case basis. A baseline consideration for U.S. UW operations is that SF cannot do anything through irregular forces that SF could not legally do alone. UW is not a means to circumvent FM 27-10 or U.S. and international law. U.S. forces must comply with FM 27-10 in all military operations regardless of the nature of those operations. Further, all U.S. forces have a duty to report any violations of FM 27-10 to their chain of command, whether committed by U.S. forces, other regular forces, or irregular forces.

UNITED STATES LAW AND POLICY

3-87. Personnel must conduct UW operations IAW U.S. domestic and international law. U.S. special assistance and arms transfers programs are subject to specific congressional authorization, appropriation, and oversight. Commanders and other UW planners must consult with their legal advisors to ensure operations are conducted IAW current U.S. legislation and policy. In general, legal considerations on the international level center on the issue of describing the conflict as either international or internal (insurgency). Legal considerations for the United States often focus on using the proper funds for the type of mission forces are conducting, although compliance with FM 27-10 and U.S. law and policy is always a requirement. Specific authorities control transfers and transport of lethal and nonlethal aid, as well as HA, and examine each on a case-by-case basis. They must also consider additional country-specific issues and applicable U.S. legislation.

Title 10, United States Code, Armed Forces

3-88. The baseline U.S. legal authority for UW is in Section 167(j), Title 10, United States Code (USC). This provision states that UW is one of the activities of USSOCOM. Per Title 10, USSOCOM has the authority to prepare, train, equip, fund, and sustain forces for UW. Personnel can only conduct actual UW operations with specific approval and authorizations from the chain of command, often up to the Secretary of Defense (SecDef) or executive level. Congress ultimately controls U.S. military operations though

funding and legislative constraints. Personnel can only conduct UW with funds authorized and available for that purpose. Failure to use the proper funds for UW missions is one of the greatest potential pitfalls for commanders conducting UW operations.

3-89. UW operations in which U.S. SF employ lethal force to further national objectives fall under the same Title 10 authorities as any other employment of U.S. forces. The United States ultimately derives all rules of engagement (ROE) from Title 10. Typically, SF units receive existing ROE before conducting UW operations. The President or SecDef may apply specific cautions and additional guidance regarding Title 10 provisions for UW operations on a case-by-case basis to best support U.S. national objectives. These cautions and additional guidance augment the existing ROE. In given situations, subordinate commanders may further restrict the ROE IAW applicable policy and regulation.

Title 50, United States Code, War and National Defense

3-90. Title 50 of the USC is a far-reaching document covering areas as diverse as the establishment and scope of the Council of National Defense and the disclosure of classified information. Chapter 22 of Title 50 contains the Uniform Code of Military Justice (UCMJ). Title 50 also covers several legal aspects of the intelligence warfighting function. UW planners should coordinate with the intelligence staff, as well as staff legal personnel, to ensure that they properly classify communications regarding SF executing Title 50 responsibilities. In addition, per U.S. law, SF must comply with FM 2-22.3, *Human Intelligence Collector Operations*. This requirement applies to all DOD entities and to all DOD civilians and contractors engaging in human intelligence activities. The Detainee Treatment Act of 2005 mandated that FM 2-22.3 is sole authority for interrogation rules and ordered compliance with the Geneva Conventions Common Article 3 as the minimum standard for all detainees, regardless of the actual status of the detainee. In certain situations, higher standards may apply.

International Legal Considerations

3-91. Under international law, armed conflicts fall into two broad areas. These areas are those of an international character and those of a noninternational character.

International Armed Conflicts

3-92. A declaration of war and an invasion of one country by the armed forces of another clearly result in an international armed conflict. The definition of an international armed conflict is broader, however. As a rule, if the combat effects of a conflict go beyond a nation's boundaries and seriously affect other countries, the conflict is international. All the customary laws of war on hostilities between states govern international armed conflicts. The 1949 Geneva Conventions and FM 27-10 also apply. Often a Soldier's biggest concerns fighting UW is his right to prisoner of war (PW) status if captured and combatant immunity. Combatant immunity is the practice by which members of a given nation's military forces are not subject to prosecution under another nation's domestic criminal law for legitimate acts of war.

Noninternational Armed Conflicts

3-93. Parties typically recognize noninternational armed conflicts as insurgencies. Clandestine forces usually engage in hostilities. In general, their purpose is not to hold fixed territory or to engage government troops in direct combat but to wage a guerrilla war. In this type of war, troops can blend in with the civilian populace by posing as noncombatants. Insurgents, therefore, are organized bodies of people who, generally for public political purposes, are in a state of armed hostility against the established government. An important legal aspect of a noninternational conflict is that captured combatants do not normally enjoy POW rights. Depending on the circumstances, countries can prosecute combatants as criminals under the domestic laws of the nation in question. An insurgent's wear of a uniform does not automatically give him a protected status under international law in a purely internal, noninternational armed conflict.

GENEVA CONVENTIONS COMMON ARTICLE 3

3-94. Common Article 3 exists in each of the four Geneva Conventions of 1949. It provides the primary source of rights and duties of persons participating in noninternational armed conflicts. The touchstone of Common Article 3 is the humane treatment of all detainees.

3-95. Common Article 3 has two parts. The first part provides that persons taking no active part in the hostilities (including members of armed forces who have laid down their arms and those out of combat because of sickness, wounds, detention, or any other cause), shall be treated humanely in all circumstances. Humane treatment specifically excludes—

- Violence to life and person; in particular, murder, mutilation, torture, or any cruel treatment.
- Hostage-taking.
- Outrages upon personal dignity; in particular, humiliating and degrading treatment.
- Passing of sentences and carrying out executions without previous judgment pronounced by a regularly constituted court affording all the judicial guarantees that civilized peoples recognize as vital.

3-96. The second part of Common Article 3 requires collecting and caring for the wounded and sick. It does not grant POW status or combatant immunity to insurgents or irregular forces. It does require the government to grant them a fair trial in a regularly constituted court before carrying out the court's sentence after a guilty verdict. Common Article 3 incorporates basic human rights. Human rights also include other rights embodied in the phrase "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness," such as the right of free speech, freedom of worship, and freedom of the press. U.S. personnel who notice suspected violations of basic human rights must report the facts to their chain of command.

3-97. Per U.S. law, all U.S. forces must comply with Common Article 3. The basic test for humane treatment is a simple Golden Rule-like test: if the enemy were to give the same treatment to a U.S. Soldier, would the individual consider it abuse? If so, that treatment is probably inhumane. Note that the specific requirements for any particular detainee in U.S. custody may exceed the minimum standards of Common Article 3. Commanders must coordinate closely with their legal advisor regarding any detainee in U.S. custody.

3-98. Critical to building the legitimacy of any irregular forces under international law is engendering a respect for and adherence to FM 27-10. Humane treatment and respect of the civilian population is also nearly always an essential element in establishing the legitimacy of irregular forces in the view of the subject population. Accordingly, SF should not only comply with FM 27-10 as U.S. law requires but should also recognize the mission-enhancing potential of furthering irregular forces' respect for humane treatment and FM 27-10.

LEGAL STATUS OF UNITED STATES FORCES

3-99. U.S. forces performing a UW mission are not automatically immune from the jurisdiction of other nations. Commanders must coordinate with their legal advisor to find out the legal status of their personnel and try to obtain any necessary protection if there is no applicable international agreement.

3-100. Usually, anyone present in a foreign nation's territory is subject to its jurisdiction. Jurisdiction is the legal power a sovereign nation has to make and enforce its laws without foreign direction or control. When a nation's troops enter a friendly foreign country, international law subjects them to the territorial jurisdiction of that nation and any jurisdiction that, because of their status, the sending state wishes to exercise. U.S. military forces are always subject to the UCMJ. U.S. policy is to maximize U.S. jurisdiction over the armed forces it may deploy to a foreign nation. International agreement, either by Status of Forces Agreement, diplomatic notes or agreements, or unique mission or emergency agreements, define the legal status of U.S. forces in a foreign nation. Normally, these agreements give the United States exclusive jurisdiction over U.S. forces, and U.S. military personnel are not subject to HN laws and law enforcement for anything done in the performance of official duty. However, agreements are negotiated individually, and the level of protection from a given nation's jurisdiction (and prosecution) can vary from complete protection to no protection. Accordingly, planners must analyze each operation under the specific

agreements and authorities regarding the nation or nations in question. U.S. forces performing a UW mission are not automatically immune from HN jurisdiction. Commanders must coordinate with their legal advisor to find out the legal status of their personnel and try to obtain any necessary protection if there is no applicable international agreement.

3-101.   The Rome Statute (a Treaty of Rome) of the International Court (ICC), established the ICC as a court where certain criminal violations of international law may be prosecuted. The ICC entered into force in 2002 and presently has 139 countries signed to the treaty, and of those, 114 has ratified (as of the date of this manual). Although, the United States signed the treaty in December 2000, they rejected ratifying the treaty. Accordingly, without an agreement with the subject nation that U.S. forces are not subject to ICC jurisdiction, U.S. Soldiers could face prosecution. The United States has executed many agreements with nations around the world to prevent prosecution of U.S. Soldiers in the ICC. However, commanders and planners should work closely with their legal advisors concerning any implications the Treaty of Rome or ICC may have on any specific operation or mission.

3-102.   In situations where there are no agreements in place that establish the status of U.S. Soldiers in a given nation, many of the protections of the Geneva Conventions should still apply under customary international law of principles. In an international armed conflict involving the United States, the Geneva Conventions typically entitle U.S. Soldiers to POW status. However, certain conduct may cause U.S. Soldiers to lose that protected status, primarily through concealing their status as U.S. Soldiers using nonstandard uniforms or civilian clothing, or committing acts of treachery or disloyalty. In a noninternational armed conflict, under customary international law, Common Article 3 should entitle U.S. Soldiers with its minimum protections. However, SF units planning and engaging in UW operations should understand the possibility that, depending on their particular circumstances, a given nation may subject them to ordinary criminal jurisdiction.

LEGAL STATUS OF IRREGULAR FORCES

3-103.   Legal status of irregular forces is a fluid and fact-specific determination that can change during the course of UW operations. Commanders should work closely with their legal advisors regarding the determination of legal status for any irregular forces with whom SF interact.

3-104.   In general, the full protections under the Geneva Conventions do not apply to irregular forces. Protections depend on the type of conflict and the type of person at issue. Members of irregular forces are not automatically given the protections of the Geneva Conventions.

3-105.   Under the Geneva Conventions, several factors influence the determination of protected status for irregular forces. Typically, when protections apply to irregular forces under the Geneva Conventions, the protections are those of Common Article 3. However, in certain instances, higher protections than Common Article 3 may apply. The factors for determining if and what protections apply under the Geneva Conventions are nonbinding, and no specific checklist applies. Any determination of protections for irregular forces under the Geneva Conventions should be based on a totality of the circumstances, focusing on the listed factors and other relevant information. The traditional factors under Article 4, Geneva Convention III (Treatment of Prisoners of War), to determine entitlement of PW status include the following:

- Have a superior responsible for subordinates (some form of adequate C2).
- Wear a fixed, distinctive sign recognizable at a distance (no requirement for a full uniform, but some method to distinguish members of the force from the civilian population).
- Carry arms openly.
- Conduct operations IAW FM 27-10.

3-106.   Related factors to determine relevant protections under the Geneva Conventions include—

- The control of territory.
- The consistency of acts and conflict.
- The response or lack of response from the government in question, using regular forces or civilian law enforcement. Response from regular armed forces could indicate a military-

to-military conflict, whereas responding with civilian law enforcement could indicate the government regards the irregular forces as mere criminals. Mere criminals are not entitled to protection under the Geneva Conventions.

3-107.   The later Additional Protocols to the Geneva Conventions modified the above factors. Additional Protocol I to the Geneva Conventions (1977) introduced a more relaxed standard for allowing protected status to irregular forces. For several reasons, the United States is not a party to Additional Protocol I, but many nations are. Accordingly, Soldiers should consider the provisions of Additional Protocol I in situations involving nations that recognize Additional Protocol I as binding authority. These more contemporary factors only require that the members of the force—

- Carry arms openly during the attack and while visible to the adversary when maneuvering for that attack.
- Be commanded by a person responsible for the actions of the force or organization.
- Comply with FM 27-10.
- Be subject to an internal discipline system of the force or organization.

3-108.   Additional Protocol II to the Geneva Conventions further modified the determination of what protections apply in a given circumstance by introducing the control of territory as a factor. As with Additional Protocol I, the United States is not a party to Additional Protocol II. All the above factors notwithstanding, in any situation, the determination of status depends on the facts and circumstances of the particular armed conflict and the persons at issue.

3-109.   In most internal armed conflicts, the government in question is unlikely to recognize irregular forces as meriting protected status. Typically, governments classify irregular forces as criminals subject to domestic criminal law and given no protections under international law. The criminal designation gives the government maximum flexibility in dealing with the members of the irregular forces without international constraints. Classifying the irregular forces as mere criminals also diminishes the legitimacy of those forces in the eyes of the civilian population and the international community. SF Soldiers should work diligently to ensure that any irregular forces they interact with do not merit that type of classification. Whereas the United States and other nations may recognize the irregular forces as having protections under international law, the subject nation will usually seek to regard them as domestic criminals.

USE OF ENEMY UNIFORMS

3-110.   The Hague Conventions of 1907 prohibit the improper use of the enemy's uniform, such as wearing the enemy's uniform while engaged in combat. It permits some use of the enemy's uniform, but it is difficult for personnel to discern the proper use. Although wearing the uniform while engaged in actual combat is unlawful, U.S. forces may wear it to allow movement into and through the enemy's territory. U.S. policy states that Soldiers may use the enemy's uniform for infiltration behind enemy lines. However, Additional Protocol I to the Geneva Conventions prohibits this and other uses of the enemy's uniform. An enemy nation party to Additional Protocol I may consider the use of its uniform by U.S. forces as a war crime.

USE OF CIVILIAN ATTIRE

3-111.   Use of civilian attire by U.S. forces in any military operation is a sensitive matter that can only be undertaken IAW all relevant regulations and policies. U.S. forces should closely coordinate with their legal advisor in the use of nonstandard uniforms or civilian clothing in any military operation. Many of the principles regarding the use of enemy uniforms apply to the use of civilian attire in military operations as well. Wearing civilian attire while engaged in actual combat is unlawful; however, U.S. forces may wear it to allow movement into and through the enemy's territory. Under the Geneva Conventions, the failure to use a "fixed sign recognizable at a distance" could factor into a nation's decision to deprive captured U.S. forces of POW status. Further, if an enemy nation can deem such use treachery, it may consider the use by U.S. forces of civilian clothing in military operations as a war crime and take remedial action.

ACTS OF TREACHERY

3-112. An act of treachery, also called perfidy, is a violation of FM 27-10. Soldiers commit treachery when they commit acts that gain advantage by falsely convincing enemies that they cannot engage without violating international rules of law. In other words, acts of treachery are acts that use an adversary's compliance with FM 27-10 against him to gain an advantage. Ruse or tactical deception is generally legal under international law and U.S. policy as long as forces are still complying with FM 27-10 and their actions are in good faith. The use of enemy codes and signals is a time-honored means of tactical deception or ruse. However, misuse of distress signals or of signals exclusively reserved for the use of medical aircraft would qualify as an act of treachery. FM 27-10 allows the use of deception measures, such as camouflaging a military structure to thwart attack. However, falsely convincing the enemy not to attack a military target by marking it as a hospital is an act of treachery. Under the Geneva Conventions, feigning civilian noncombatant status to avoid targeting by enemy forces can qualify as an act of treachery.

CONTRACTORS

3-113. It is possible for enemy nations to prosecute contractors with U.S. forces in contingency operations for criminal acts. Commanders and contracting authorities should work closely with their legal advisors to ensure that all contractors involved in UW operations fully comply with all applicable laws and regulations. There are two primary authorities for holding contractors accountable under U.S. criminal law, the Military Extraterritorial Jurisdiction Act (18 USC 3261) and Article 2, UCMJ. The Military Extraterritorial Jurisdiction Act only applies outside of the continental United States and now covers other agency contractors acting in support of DOD. A 2006 revision to Article 2, UCMJ, extends jurisdiction in a time of war or contingency operation to persons serving with or accompanying an armed force in the field. There is no geographic limitation to this jurisdiction. However, historically, "in the field" meant that the individuals were acting against, in the presence of, or in action geared towards engaging the enemy. The plain language of this article does not limit itself to contractors, but simply states "persons." However, in most circumstances, nonmilitary personnel subject to Article 2 would most likely be contractors of some type. Any individual applying the UCMJ to individuals that are not members of U.S. military forces must approach this area with caution and detailed legal analysis. Commanders must work closely with their legal advisor when taking action against contractor personnel.

FUNDING

3-114. A critical legal consideration for commanders conducting UW operations is using the proper funding authorizations for the mission. The two major types of funding are operations and maintenance (O&M) funding for U.S. forces and what is commonly known as Section 1208 funding for irregular forces. The restrictions on both types of funding are significant, and personnel should not use either for anything other than the stated purposes of the funds. Misuse of funds could result in criminal liability. Problems in this area usually arise when personnel use O&M funds for projects that require Section 1208 funding. Personnel should observe the following general fiscal principles when conducting UW operations to ensure that all activities are within the limits of U.S. law. Commanders must—

- Know fiscal law principles to avoid possible violation of the Antideficiency Act (ADA). Individuals may report violations to Congress, which can result in both civil and criminal penalties. Commanders cannot make expenditures in advance or in excess of available appropriations.
- Ensure expenditures reasonably relate to the purpose of the appropriation; using the wrong type of funds can result in an ADA "purpose" violation.
- Disallow any expenditure the law prohibits.
- Ensure the expenditure does not fall specifically within the scope of some other category of appropriation.
- Know that if two appropriations permit the expenditure, commanders may use either but not in combination or interchangeably.

3-115.   Section 1208 National Defense Authorization Act passed in the fiscal year (FY) 2005, and updated in the FY 2010 National Defense Authorization Act. Section 1208 authorizes funds for U.S. SOF to provide support to foreign forces, irregular forces, groups, or individuals engaging in support operations, or facilitating ongoing military operations by U.S. SOF to combat terrorism. The primary limitation on Section 1208 funds is that any operations of the irregular forces must be in support of ongoing U.S. operations against terrorism and not completely independent of or unrelated to actual U.S. missions. This requirement is easily met in certain areas, but in other areas, it is more difficult to establish the required link to ongoing U.S. operations. Section 1208 does not ordinarily fund training and equipment. Section 1208 funding is a USSOCOM-administered program, under the direct authority of the SecDef. Section 1208 funds are limiters to the support of irregular forces only (no U.S. forces), and require specific approvals before individuals can expend any funds under this authorization. Even with these constraints, Section 1208 is an agile method of funding UW operations. Typically, leaders develop a concept in-theater at the unit level and staff it through the chain of command. The timeline for this process can progress rapidly, depending on the theater and the proposed operation. U.S. forces should closely coordinate with their legal advisor for the most recent guidance on funding requests and coordinating approvals at higher levels.

HUMANITARIAN ASSISTANCE

3-116.   UW operations may involve HA to benefit populations sympathetic or potentially sympathetic to a particular UW effort. Humanitarian crises or conditions that arise during the course of UW operations may trigger HA. In these cases, SF units may provide and coordinate HA that supports UW operations. Although not necessarily factored into a UW strategy, timely HA may greatly facilitate UW operations and ultimate objectives. HA programs and authorities change often and vary from theater to theater. U.S. SF commanders and Soldiers should closely coordinate any requests for HA with legal and related advisors to maximize the sources available to a given mission at a particular time. A full discussion of all U.S. HA programs is beyond the scope of this manual. However, the basic HA most readily available to U.S. SF is known as *de minimus* HA. The basic rule for *de minimus* HA is, "a few Soldiers, a few dollars, a few hours." Leadership generally recognizes "a few dollars" as $2,500 or less of O&M funds for unplanned HA opportunities. Other HA may exist for a given operation or mission, and commanders working closely with their legal advisor should explore those avenues.

Appendix A

Area Study

This appendix provides an outline format for an area study (Figure A-1, pages A-1 through A-5). This format provides a systematic means for compiling and retaining essential information to support SF operations. Although the basic outline is general, it is flexible enough to permit detailed coverage of a given area. As time is available for further study, the preparer should subdivide various subjects and assign them to detachment members to produce a more detailed analysis of specified areas of interest.

Area Study Outline
Copy   of   Copies
Location:
Date:
Area Study of JSOA

1. Purpose and Limiting Factors.
   a. Purpose. Delineate the area being studied.
   b. Mission. State the mission the area study supports.
   c. Limiting Factors. Identify factors that limit the completeness or accuracy of the area study.
2. Geography, Hydrography, and Climate. Divide the operational area into its various definable subdivisions and analyze each subdivision using the subdivisions shown below.
   a. Areas and Dimensions.
   b. Strategic Locations.
      (1) Neighboring countries and boundaries.
      (2) Natural defenses, including frontiers.
      (3) Points of entry and strategic routes.
   c. Climate. Note variations from the norm and the months in which they occur. Note any extremes in climate that would affect operations.
      (1) Temperature.
      (2) Rainfall and snow.
      (3) Wind and visibility.
      (4) Light data. Include begin morning nautical twilight (BMNT), end of evening nautical twilight (EENT), sunrise, sunset, moonrise, and moonset.
      (5) Seasonal effect of the weather on terrain and visibility.
   d. Relief.
      (1) General direction of mountain ranges or ridgelines, and if hills and ridges are dissected.
      (2) General degree of slope.
      (3) Characteristics of valleys and plains.
      (4) Natural routes for and natural obstacles to cross-country movement.
      (5) Location of area suitable for guerrilla bases, units, and other installations.
      (6) Potential landing zones (LZs), DZs, and other reception sites.

Figure A-1. Area study outline format

Area Study Outline (continued)
Copy   of   Copies
Location:
Date:
Area Study of JSOA

     e. Land Use. Note any peculiarities especially in the following:

       (1) Former heavily forested land areas subjected to widespread cutting or dissected bypaths and roads. Also note the reverse—pastureland or wasteland that has been reforested.

       (2) Former wasteland or pastureland that has been resettled and cultivated and is now being farmed. In addition, note the reverse—former rural countryside that has been depopulated and allowed to return to wasteland.

       (3) Former swampland or marshland that has been drained, former desert or wasteland now irrigated and cultivated, and lakes created by dams.

     f. Drainage (General Pattern).

       (1) Main rivers, direction of flow.

       (2) Characteristics of rivers and streams, including widths, currents, banks, depths, kinds of bottoms, and obstacles. Note seasonal variations, such as dry beds, flash floods.

       (3) Large lakes or areas with many ponds or swamps. Include potential LZs for amphibious aircraft.

     g. Coast. Examine primarily for infiltration, exfiltration, and resupply points.

       (1) Tides and waves. Include winds and current.

       (2) Beach footing and covered exit routes.

       (3) Quiet coves and shallow inlets or estuaries. General direction of mountain ranges or ridgelines, and if hills and ridges are dissected.

     h. Geological Basics. Identify types of soil and rock formations. Include areas for potential LZs for light aircraft.

     i. Forests and Other Vegetation.

       (1) Natural or cultivated.

       (2) Types, characteristics, and significant variations from the norm at different elevations.

       (3) Cover and concealment. Include density and seasonal variations.

     j. Water. Note ground, surface, seasonal, and potable.

     k. Subsistence.

       (1) Seasonal or year-round.

       (2) Cultivated. Include vegetables, grains, fruits, and nuts.

       (3) Natural. Include berries, fruits, nuts, and herbs.

       (4) Wildlife. Include animals, fish, and fowl.

3. Political Characteristics. Identify friendly and hostile political powers and analyze their capabilities, intentions, and activities that influence mission execution.

     a. Hostile Power.

       (1) Number and status of nonnational personnel.

       (2) Influence, organization, and mechanisms of control.

     b. National Government (Indigenous).

       (1) Government, international political orientation, and degree of popular support.

       (2) Identifiable segments of the population with varying attitudes and probable behavior toward the United States, its allies, and the hostile power.

       (3) National historical background.

       (4) Foreign dependence or allies.

       (5) National capital and significant political, military, and economic concentrations.

     c. Political Parties.

       (1) Leadership and organizational structure.

Figure A-1. Area study outline format (continued)

Area Study Outline (continued)
Copy   of   Copies
Location:
Date:
Area Study of JSOA

          (2) Nationalistic origin and foreign ties (if single dominant party exists).

          (3) Major legal parties with their policies and goals.

          (4) Illegal or underground parties and their policies and goals.

          (5) Violent opposition factions within major political organizations.

      d. Control and Restrictions.

          (1) Documentation.

          (2) Rationing.

          (3) Travel and movement restrictions.

          (4) Blackouts and curfews.

          (5) Political restrictions.

          (6) Religious restrictions.

4. Economic Characteristics. Identify those economic factors that influence mission execution.

      a. Technological Standards.

      b. Natural Resources and Degree of Self-Sufficiency.

      c. Financial Structure and Dependence on Foreign Aid.

      d. Monetary System.

          (1) Value of money and rate of inflation.

          (2) Wage scales.

          (3) Currency controls.

      e. Black Market Activities. Note the extent and effect of those activities.

      f. Agriculture and Domestic Food Supply.

      g. Industry and Level of Production.

      h. Manufacture and Demand for Consumer Goods.

      i. Foreign and Domestic Trade and Facilities.

      j. Fuels and Power.

      k. Telecommunications Adequacy by U.S. Standards.

      l. Transportation Adequacy by U.S. Standards.

          (1) Railroads.

          (2) Highways.

          (3) Waterways.

          (4) Commercial air installations.

      m. Industry, Utilities, Agriculture, and Transportation. Note the control and operation of each.

5. Civil Populace. Pay particular attention to those inhabitants in the area of operations who have peculiarities and who vary considerably from the normal national way of life.

      a. Total and Density.

      b. Basic Racial Stock and Physical Characteristics.

          (1) Types, features, dress, and habits.

          (2) Significant variations from the norm.

      c. Ethnic and/or Religious Groups. Analyze these groups to determine if they are of sufficient size, cohesion, and power to constitute a dissident minority of some consequence.

          (1) Location or concentration.

          (2) Basis for discontent and motivation for change.

          (3) Opposition to the majority or the political regime.

          (4) Any external or foreign ties of significance.

Figure A-1. Area study outline format (continued)

Area Study Outline (continued)
Copy   of   Copies
Location:
Date:
Area Study of JSOA

      d. Attitudes. Determine the attitudes of the populace toward the existing regime or hostile power, the resistance movement, and the United States and its allies.

      e. Division. Division between urban, rural, or nomadic groups.

          (1) Large cities and population centers. Rural settlement patterns.

          (2) Area and movement patterns of nomads.

      f. Standard of Living and Cultural (Educational) Levels.

          (1) Extremes away from the national average.

          (2) Class structure. Identify degree of established social stratification and percentage of populace in each class.

      g. Health and Medical Standards.

          (1) General health and well-being.

          (2) Common diseases.

          (3) Standard of public health.

          (4) Medical facilities and personnel.

          (5) Potable water supply.

          (6) Sufficiency of medical supplies and equipment.

      h. Traditions and Customs (Particularly Taboos). Note wherever traditions and customs are so strong and established that they may influence an individual's actions or attitude even during a war situation.

6. Military and Paramilitary Forces. Identify friendly and hostile conventional military forces (Army, Navy, and Air Force) and internal security forces (including border guards) that can influence mission execution. Analyze nonnational (indigenous) forces using the subdivisions shown below.

      a. Attitude. Morale, discipline, and political reliability.

      b. Size. Personnel strength.

      c. Structure. Organization and basic deployment.

      d. Appearance. Uniforms and unit designations.

      e. Identification. Ordinary and special insignia.

      f. Control. Overall control mechanism.

      g. Communication. Chain of command and communication.

      h. Leadership. Note officer and noncommissioned officer corps.

      i. External Control. Nonnational surveillance and control over indigenous security forces.

      j. Practices. Training and doctrine.

      k. Tactics. Note seasonal and terrain variations.

      l. Mobility. Equipment, transportation, and degree of mobility.

      m. Logistics.

      n. Effectiveness. Note any unusual capabilities or weaknesses.

      o. Internal Security. Vulnerabilities in the internal security system.

      p. Past and current reprisal actions.

      q. Information Network. Use and effectiveness of informers.

      r. Populace. Influence on and relations with the local populace.

      s. Mind-set. Psychological vulnerabilities.

      t. Activity. Recent and current unit activities.

      u. Counterinsurgency Activities and Capabilities. Pay particular attention to reconnaissance units, special troops (airborne, mountain, ranger), rotary-wing or vertical-lift aviation units, counterintelligence units, and units having a mass CBRNE delivery capability.

Figure A-1. Area study outline format (continued)

Area Study Outline (continued)
Copy   of   Copies
Location:
Date:
Area Study of JSOA

      v. Guard Posts and Wartime Security Coverage. Note the location of all known guard posts or expected wartime security coverage along the main LOCs (railroads, highways, and telecommunications lines) and along electrical power and petroleum, oil, and lubricant lines.

      w. Forced Labor and Detention Camps. Note exact location and description of the physical arrangement (particularly the security arrangements).

      x. PRC Measures. Note locations, types, and effectiveness of internal security controls. Include checkpoints, identification cards, passports, and travel permits.

7. Resistance Organization. Identify the organizational elements and key personalities of the resistance organization. Note each group's attitude toward the United States, the hostile power, various elements of the civil populace, and friendly political groups.

    a. Guerrillas.

      (1) Disposition, strength, and composition.

      (2) Organization, armament, and equipment.

      (3) Status of training, morale, and combat effectiveness.

      (4) Operations to date.

      (5) Cooperation and coordination between various existing groups.

      (6) Motivation of the various groups and their receptivity.

      (7) Quality of senior and subordinate leadership.

      (8) General health.

    b. Auxiliaries and the Underground.

      (1) Disposition, strength, and degree of organization.

      (2) General effectiveness and type of support.

      (3) Responsiveness to guerrilla or resistance leaders.

    c. Logistics Capability.

      (1) Availability of food stocks and water. Include any restrictions for reasons of health.

      (2) Agricultural capability.

      (3) Type and availability of transportation of all categories.

      (4) Types and location of civilian services available for manufacture and repair of equipment and clothing.

      (5) Medical facilities, to include personnel, medical supplies, and equipment.

      (6) Enemy supply sources accessible to the resistance.

8. Targets. (The objective in target selection is to inflict maximum damage on the hostile power with minimum expenditures of men and materiel. Initially, a guerrilla force may have limited operational capabilities to interdict or destroy hostile targets.) Study the target areas. Identify and analyze points of attack. List targets in order of priority by system and IAW mission requirements. As appropriate, address both fixed and mobile (generic) targets.

9. Effects of Characteristics. State conclusions reached through analysis of the facts developed in the previous paragraphs.

      (1) Effects on hostile courses of action.

      (2) Effects on friendly courses of action.

Figure A-1. Area study outline format (continued)

Appendix B
Special Forces Area Assessment

This appendix provides an outline format for an area assessment. This format provides a systematic means for compiling and retaining essential information to support SF operations. Although the basic outline is general, it is flexible enough to permit detailed coverage of a given JSOA.

IMMEDIATE—INITIAL ASSESSMENT

B-1. The initial assessment includes items essential to the operational detachment immediately following infiltration. Detachments must satisfy these requirements as soon as possible after arriving in the JSOA. This initial information should include the following:

- Location and orientation.
- Physical condition of the detachment.
- Overall security, to include the—
    - Immediate area.
    - Attitude of the local populace.
    - Local enemy situation.
    - Status of the local resistance element.

SUBSEQUENT—PRINCIPAL ASSESSMENT

B-2. The principal assessment is a continuous operation that includes collection efforts that support the continued planning and conduct of operations. The principal assessment forms the basis for all of the detachment's subsequent activities in the JSOA. Figure B-1, pages B-1 through B-5, shows the areas that the principal assessment should encompass.

Principal Assessment
The Enemy:
Disposition.
Composition, identification, and strength.
Organization, armament, and equipment.
Degree of training, morale, and combat effectiveness.
Operations, such as: • Recent and current activities of the unit. • Counterguerrilla activities and capabilities, with particular attention to reconnaissance units, special troops (airborne, mountain, ranger), rotary-wing or vertical-lift aviation units, counterintelligence units, and units having a mass CBRNE delivery capability.
Unit areas of responsibility.
Daily routine of the units.

Figure B-1. Sample principal assessment

Principal Assessment (continued)
The Enemy (continued):
Logistics support, to include the following: • Installations and facilities.   • Supply routes.   • Methods of troop movement.   • Past and current reprisal actions.
Security and Police Units:
Dependability and reliability to the existing regime or the occupying power.
Disposition.
Composition, identification, and strength.
Organization, armament, and equipment.
Degree of training, morale, and efficiency.
Use and effectiveness of informers.
Influence on and relations with the local populace.
Security measures over public utilities and government installations.
Civil Government:
Control and restrictions, such as—   • Documentation.   • Rationing.   • Travel and movement restrictions.   • Blackouts and curfews.
Current value of money and wage scales.
The extent and effect of the black market.
Political restrictions.
Religious restrictions.
Control and operation of industry, utilities, agriculture, and transportation.
Civilian Populace:
Attitudes toward the existing regime or occupying power.
Attitudes toward the resistance movement.
Reaction to U.S. support of the resistance.
Reaction to enemy activities in the country, specifically that portion in the UWOA.
General health and well-being.
Potential Targets:
Railroads.
Telecommunication.
Petroleum, oils, and lubricants.
Electric power.
Military storage and supply.
Military HQ and installations.
Radar and electronic devices.
Highways.

Figure B-1. Sample principal assessment (continued)

Principal Assessment (continued)
Potential Targets (continued):
Inland waterways and canals.
Seaports.
Natural and synthetic gas lines.
Industrial plants.
Key personalities.
Weather:
Precipitation, cloud cover, temperature, visibility, and seasonal changes.
Wind speed and direction.
Light data (BMNT, EENT, sunrise, sunset, moonrise, and moonset).
Terrain:
Location of areas suitable for guerrilla bases, units, and other installations.
Potential LZs, DZs, and other reception sites.
Routes suitable for—   • Guerrillas.   • Enemy forces.
Barriers to movement.
Seasonal effect of the weather on terrain and visibility.
Resistance Movement:
Guerrillas: • Disposition, strength, and composition.   • Organization, armament, and equipment.   • Status of training, morale, and combat effectiveness.   • Operations to date.   • Cooperation and coordination between various existing groups.   • General attitude toward the United States, the enemy, and various elements of the civilian populace.   • Motivation of the various groups and their receptivity to U.S. presence.   • Caliber of senior and subordinate leadership.   • Health of guerrillas.
Auxiliaries and the underground: • Disposition, strength, and degree of organization.   • General effectiveness and type of support.   • Motivation and reliability.   • Responsiveness to guerrilla or resistance leaders.   • General attitude toward the United States, the enemy, and various guerrilla groups.
Logistics Capability of the Area:
Availability of food stocks and water. Include any health-related water restrictions.
Agricultural capability.
Type and availability of all categories of transportation.
Types and location of civilian services available for the manufacture and repair of equipment and clothing.
Supplies locally available, including type and amount.
Medical facilities, including personnel, medical supplies, and equipment.
Enemy supply sources accessible to the resistance.

Figure B-1. Sample principal assessment (continued)

Principal Assessment (continued)
Preventive Medicine:
Weather: • Area cold-weather impact on causes, treatment, and prevention of cold-weather injuries.   • Area hot-weather impact on causes, treatment, and prevention of hot-weather injuries.   • Terrain impact on evacuation and medical resupply.
Indigenous personnel: • Physical characteristics of local people, including endurance, ability to carry loads, and performance of other physical feats.   • Symbolism attached to various articles of clothing and jewelry, such as amulets.
Attitudes: • Taboos and other psychological attributes present in the society.   • Rites and practices unconventional healers use during illness, including symbolic rites and Western medicine in use.   • Response of indigenous personnel to feelings, such as fear, happiness, anger, and sadness.
Housing: • Analysis of the physical layout of the community.   • Infestation of ectoparasites and vermin.
Food: • Food cultivation for consumption, including types of food.   • Influence of seasons in the AO on diet, including any migration.   • Types of foods provided by U.S. personnel, including preferences and rejections of foods.   • Types of crops raised.

Water:
 • Urban water supply.
 • Rural water supply, including numbers and types.
 • Water treatment plants in use.
 • Water treatment in rural areas. Attitudes of indigenous personnel toward standard U.S. purification methods.
 • Sewage disposal (when applicable):
   ■ Types and locations of sewage treatment plants.
   ■ System used in remote areas to dispose of human excrement, offal, and dead animals or humans.
   ■ Attitudes of indigenous personnel to standard U.S. hygiene methods, such as the use of latrines.

Epidemiology:
 What specific diseases in each of the following two major categories are present among the guerrillas, their dependents, or their animals?
 • Domestic animals:
   ■ Types of domestic animals present.
   ■ Typical forage.
   ■ Supplemental animal food supply, including food supplements.
   ■ Animal housing (penned or free-roaming).
   ■ Religious symbolism or taboos locals associate with animals (for example, an animal considered sacred).

Figure B-1. Sample principal assessment (continued)

Principal Assessment (continued)
Preventive Medicine (continued):

■ Animal sacrifices for religious purposes.
      ■ Availability of local veterinarians for animal treatment and postmortem inspections of meats.
      ■ Training of local veterinarians.
   • Local flora and fauna:
      ■ Species of birds, large and small mammals, reptiles, and arthropods present in the area. Describe unknown varieties for survival purposes. Keep a record.
      ■ Area plants known to be toxic through contact with the skin, inhalation of smoke from burning vegetation, or through ingestion.

Figure B-1. Sample principal assessment (continued)

Appendix C

Sample Training Program of Instruction for Resistance Forces

The master training program for the 10-day and 30-day leadership schools provide indigenous leaders and potential leaders with general knowledge of the subjects to teach subordinate personnel. Trainers place the primary emphasis on the role of the leader or commander in preparing leaders to supervise the activities of their subordinates. Trainers assume that most individuals in leadership positions have prior military service. Attendees should already possess a basic knowledge of the subjects the trainers will cover.

EXAMPLE OF A 30-DAY LEADERSHIP COURSE

C-1.   Figure C-1, pages C-1 and C-2, is an example of a 30-day master training program that leaders may use as a basis for preparing individual master training programs for each indigenous unit.

Master Training Program, 30-Day Leadership Course					
Subject	**Scope**	**Hours**			
		Day	**Night**	**Total**	**PE**
Map Reading and Compass	Map reading, map orientation with compass, self-location, azimuth determination, and compass use at day and night.	14	10	24	(20)
Field Aid, Field Sanitation, and Survival	Basic wound treatment, infection prevention, simple bandaging, pressure points, shock prevention, splint placement, litter construction and use, field sanitation measures with water supply, waste disposal, and personal hygiene.	6	4	10	(7)
Individual Tactical Training (Day and Night)	Camouflage; cover; concealment; movement; observation; reporting; discipline; sounds; hand-to-hand combat; combat formations and night movement; night camouflage; preparation of equipment and clothing; night visions, sounds, and observation; night security and formations; message writing; immediate action drills; and security of operational bases.	26	9	35	(31)
Small-Unit Tactics, Raids, Patrols, and Ambushes (Day and Night)	Planning; organization; preparation; formations; commands; control; security; communications; patrol reporting; objectives; target selection; raid force organization; reconnaissance and intelligence planning; raid preparation, movement, deployment, and conduct; raid force disengagement and withdrawal; ambush characteristics, definition, and objectives; ambush site selection; ambush force	26	44	70	(60)

Figure C-1. Sample master training plan for 30-day leadership course

Subject	Scope	Hours			
		Day	**Night**	**Total**	**PE**
Small-Unit Tactics, Raids, Patrols, and Ambushes (Day and Night) (continued)	organization; ambush operation phases; planning, preparation, movement, deployment, execution, disengagement, and withdrawal of ambush forces. Trainers cover all subjects for day and night.				
U.S. and Foreign Weapons	Carbine M1 submachine gun, automatic rifle, pistol, .45-caliber machine guns, and foreign weapons. Training includes care and cleaning, loading, aiming, stoppages, and range firing. Trainers familiarize trainees with all weapons, as well as day and night firing	26	9	35	(31)
Intelligence	Security measures, information gathering and reporting, captured documents and materiel, prisoner handling and interrogation, and counterintelligence procedures.	26	44	70	(60)
Air Operations	DZ establishment, DZ marking and identification, DZ security, and transport and reception of supplies and equipment.	28	10	38	(32)
Demolitions	Nonelectric and electric firing systems, charge placement and calculation, rail and bridge destruction, booby traps, and expedient devices.	21	8	29	(24)
Squad Tests	Review and exercise covering all instructions.	23	16	39	(37)
Platoon Tests	Review and exercise covering all instruction.	42	24	66	(63)
Total Hours in Master Program		210	140	350	(304)

Master Training Program, 30-Day Leadership Course (continued)

Notes:
1. Trainers will use the maximum number of trained, indigenous personnel to assist in training others. Trainers should identify potential indigenous cadre and leaders. In addition, trainers must identify personnel with substandard leadership ability, knowledge, skill, or desire.
2. Whenever possible, trainers will integrate intelligence collection, compass instruction, map familiarization, observation and reporting, individual tactical training, patrolling, weapons, demolitions, and field sanitation.
3. Trainers can break classes down to platoon-size groups whenever possible.
4. Trainers should use practical work exercise, demonstrations, and conferences instead of lectures whenever possible.
5. Trainers must stress small-unit training (patrol, squad, and platoon) and develop teamwork and esprit de corps.

Figure C-1. Sample master training plan for 30-day leadership course (continued)

EXAMPLE OF A 10-DAY LEADERSHIP COURSE

C-2.   Upon completion of the 10-day leadership school, the leaders will return to work and train with their units, thus expanding their knowledge. Figure C-2, pages C-2 and C-3, is an example of 10-day master training program for a leadership school training select indigenous personnel.

Subject	Scope	Hours			
		Day	**Night**	**Total**	**PE**
Map Reading and Compass	*Same general scope as in the 30-day program.* Include how to read scale and coordinates.	4	2	6	(4)

Master Training Program, 10-Day Leadership Course

Figure C-2. Sample master training plan for 10-day leadership course

Master Training Program, 10-Day Leadership Course					
Subject	**Scope**	**Hours**			
		Day	**Night**	**Total**	**PE**
Field Aid, Field Sanitation, and Survival	*Same general scope as in the 30-day program.* Emphasis on field sanitation and responsibility of commanders.	4		4	(1)
Individual Tactical Training (Day and Night)	*Same general scope as in the 30-day program.* Emphasis on security of operational bases, movements, formations, night control measures, and duties and responsibilities of commanders.	10	9	19	(16)
Small-Unit Tactics, Raids, Patrols, and Ambushes (Day and Night)	*Same general scope as in the 30-day program.* Emphasis on planning, organization, preparation, command, control, security, patrol execution, ambushes, and raids.	10	29	39	(25)
U.S. and Foreign Weapons	*Same general scope as in the 30-day program.* Familiarization firing. Primary emphasis on employment of weapons.	8	2	10	(7)
Intelligence	*Same general scope as in the 30-day program.* Emphasis on basic intelligence and counterintelligence, as well as night vision.	6	4	10	(8)
Air Operations	*Same general scope as in the 30-day program.* Primary emphasis on selection and reporting of DZs, organization of reception committee, and duties and responsibilities of commanders.	6	8	14	(11)
Demolition	Familiarization with demolition procedures, including demonstrating, planning, and safety.	5		5	(3)
Communications	Communication includes available systems, communication security, and simple cryptographic systems.	4		4	(2)
Leadership Principles and Techniques	Military leadership traits, principles, indications, actions, and orders. Responsibilities and duties of the commander. Human behavior problem areas and problem-solving process. Selection of junior leaders. Span of control and chain of command. Combat leadership.	6		6	(4)
Tactics and Operations	Characteristics of guerrilla warfare; guerrilla operations, principles, capabilities, and limitations; organization of operational bases; security; civilian support; logistics; counterintelligence; combat employment; missions; tactical control measures; target selection; and mission support site (MSS) and defensive measures. Responsibilities and duties of indigenous leaders.	7	5	12	(9)
	Total Hours in Master Program	70	59	129	(90)
Notes: 1. Identify personnel with substandard leadership ability, knowledge, skill, or desire. 2. Upon completion of leadership school, trainers may schedule one additional day for coordinating and planning future operations. 3. A suggested arrangement of scheduling is as follows: • Preparation for training and selection of leaders: 29 April–4 May. • Leadership training: 5 May–14 May. • Troop training: 16 May–14 June.					

Figure C-1. Sample master training plan for 10-day leadership course (continued)

DATA CARD—PERSONNEL AND TRAINING RECORD

C-3. Figure C-3, pages C-4 and C-5, is an example of a personnel data card that may also serve as a training record. Using the card for both purposes simplifies record keeping and minimizes the number of records that personnel must maintain in the AO. The type and amount of information that personnel record will vary by AO as will the degree of security the U.S. element affords resistance personnel.

Data Card		
Personnel and Training Record		
1. PERSONNEL DATA		
a. JSOA:	FULL NAME:	SERIAL NUMBER:
b. RANK:	DATE OF BIRTH:	PLACE OF BIRTH:
c. UNIT:	DATE OF ENLISTMENT:	
d. LAST CIVILIAN ADDRESS:		
e. CIVILIAN OCCUPATION:		
f. LANGUAGES:		
g. SPECIAL SKILLS AND APTITUDES (CIVILIAN) :		
h. FINANCIAL DATA:		
NAME:	DATE:	AMOUNT PAID:
NAME:	DATE:	AMOUNT PAID:
NAME:	DATE:	AMOUNT PAID:
i. LEFT THUMBPRINT:	RIGHT THUMBPRINT:	
j. PHOTOGRAPH:		
k. DATE OF DISCHARGE OR DEMOBILIZATION:		
2. TRAINING RECORD		
a. BASIC TRAINING:	SUBJECT:	DATE:
b. ADVANCED OR SPECIALIST TRAINING:		

Figure C-3. Data card—personnel and training record

Data Card (continued)		
Personnel and Training Record		
c. MILITARY OCCUPATIONAL SPECIALTIES		
DEGREE:	AREA OF INTEREST:	LEVEL OF PROFICIENCY:
d. WEAPONS QUALIFICATIONS:		
WEAPON:	DEGREE OF SKILL:	
e. COMBAT OPERATIONS:		
f. AWARDS AND DECORATIONS:		
g. WOUNDS OR INJURIES:		
TYPE:	DATE:	
3. DISCIPLINARY ACTIONS:		
DATE OF OFFENSE:	TYPE OF TRIAL:	PUNISHMENT:

Figure C-3. Data card—personnel and training record (continued)

Appendix D

Special Forces Caching

Caching is the process of hiding equipment or materials in a secure storage place with the intent of recovering the items for future operational use. The ultimate success of caching depends upon attention to details that may seem unimportant to the untrained eye. Security factors—such as cover for the caching party, sterility of the items cached, and removal of any traces of the caching operation—are vital. There are two other factors vital to successful caching. First, personnel must observe the technical factors governing the preservation of the items that maintain their usability. Second, personnel must accurately record data that is essential for recovery. Successful caching entails careful adherence to the basic principles of clandestine operations, as well as familiarity with the technicalities of caching.

CACHING CONSIDERATIONS

D-1. Personnel must consider the purpose of their caches. For example, some cached supplies must meet the emergency needs of personnel unable to access their normal supply sources because of sudden developments. Caching may help to resolve the supply problems of long-term operations conducted far from a secure base. Caching could also provide for some anticipated needs of wartime operations in areas the enemy is likely to overrun.

PLANNING FOR A CACHING OPERATION

D-2. Caching involves selecting the items for caching, procuring those items, and selecting a cache site. Selection requires a close estimate of items a unit will need for particular operations. Procurement of the items does not usually present a problem. In fact, the relative ease of procurement before an emergency arises is one of the prime considerations in favor of caching. When selecting a cache site, planners should always ensure that the site is accessible not only for emplacement but also for recovery. When planning a caching operation, the planner must consider the following six basic factors:

- Purpose and contents of the cache.
- Anticipated enemy action.
- Activities of the local population.
- Intended actions by allied forces.
- Packaging and transportation.
- Personnel assets.

PURPOSE AND CONTENTS OF THE CACHE

D-3. Planners must determine the purpose and contents of each cache because these basic factors influence the location of the cache and the method of hiding. For instance, personnel can cache small barter items at any secure, accessible site because personnel can easily conceal the items once recovered. However, it would be difficult for a guerrilla band to conceal rifles once it recovers them. Therefore, personnel must locate a rifle cache site in an isolated area where they can establish temporary control. Certain items, such as medical stock, have limited shelf life and require periodic rotation or special storage considerations, which necessitates the guerrillas having easy access to these items for servicing. Sometimes it is impossible to locate a cache in the most convenient place for an intended user. Planners must

compromise between logistical objectives and actual possibilities when selecting a cache site. Security is always the overriding consideration.

ANTICIPATED ENEMY ACTION

D-4. In planning the caching operation, units must consider the capabilities of any intelligence or security services not participating in the operation. They should also consider the potential hazards the enemy and its witting or unwitting accomplices present. If the purpose of caching is for wartime operational purposes, its ultimate success will depend largely on if planners anticipate the various recovery obstacles the enemy and its accomplices will create if they occupy the area. What are the possibilities that the enemy will preempt an ideal site by denying access to it? A vacant field surrounded by brush may seem ideal for a particular cache because it is near several highways, but such a location may also invite the enemy to locate an ordnance depot in the same place.

ACTIVITIES OF THE LOCAL POPULATION

D-5. Chance circumstances that result in the discovery of the cache are more likely than discovery by deliberate enemy action. Normal activity, such as building construction, may uncover the cache site or impede access to it. Planners cannot anticipate these circumstances, but they can attempt to avoid them by careful and imaginative observation of the prospective cache site and of the people who live near the site. If planners intend the cache for wartime use, they must project how the residents will react to the pressures of war and conquest. For example, one likely reaction is caching by the residents to protect their personal funds and valuables. If caching becomes popular, any likely cache site will receive unusual attention.

INTENDED ACTIONS BY ALLIED FORCES

D-6. Using one cache site for several clandestine operations involves a risk of mutual compromise. Therefore, planners should rule out suitable caching sites if they have selected them for other clandestine purposes, such as drops or safe houses. Planners should not locate a site where bombing or other allied military action will render it inaccessible if occupied. If planners intend the cache for wartime use, the caching party should avoid key areas, such as locations near key bridges, railroad intersections, power plants, and munitions factories.

PACKAGING AND TRANSPORTATION

D-7. Asset planners should assess the security needs, potential obstacles, and hazards that a prospective cache site can present. They should also consider whether they could use the operational assets for packaging and transporting the package to the site. Caching personnel obtain the best results when packaging center experts construct the package. Planners must first decide whether the caching party can securely transport the package from the HQ or the field-packaging center to the cache site in time to meet the operational schedules. If not, the planners must get the packaging done locally, perhaps in a safe house located within a few miles of the cache site. If such an arrangement is necessary, limited safe house possibilities may restrict the choice of cache sites.

PERSONNEL ASSETS

D-8. All personnel directly participating in the emplacement will know the cache location. Therefore, planners should use their most reliable individuals and minimize the number of participants. Planners must consider the distance from the person's residence to the prospective cache site. Participants must consider their reason or story for conducting this activity. Sometimes transportation and cover difficulties require planners to locate the cache site within a limited distance of the person's residence. The above considerations also apply to the recovery personnel.

CACHING METHODS

D-9. The caching method depends on the situation, which makes it unsound to lay down general rules, with the exception of suitability. Planners should always think in terms of suitability. For example, the method most suitable for each cache, considering its specific purpose, the actual situation in the particular locality, and the changes that may occur if the enemy gains control.

CONCEALMENT

D-10. Concealment requires the use of permanent man-made or natural features to hide or disguise the cache. Concealment has several advantages. Personnel can usually employ and recover a concealed cache with minimum time and labor. In addition, dry cave or building caching protects the package from the elements and requires less-elaborate packaging. In some cases, personnel can readily inspect a concealed cache from time to time to ensure that it is still usable. However, the chance of accidental discovery—in addition to all the hazards of wartime—may result in destruction or denial of access to a concealed cache site. The concealment method, therefore, is most suitable in cases where an exceptionally secure site is available or where a need for quick access to the cache justifies a calculated sacrifice in security. Concealment may range from securing small gold coins under a tile in the floor to walling up artillery in caves.

BURIAL

D-11. Planners can find adequate burial sites almost anywhere. Once in place, a properly buried cache is generally the best way of achieving lasting security. In contrast to concealment, however, burial in the ground is a laborious and time-consuming method of caching. The disadvantages of burial are that—

- Burial usually requires a high-quality container or special wrapping to protect the cache from moisture, chemicals, and bacteria in the soil.
- Emplacement or recovery of a buried cache usually takes so long that the operation must be done after dark unless the site is exceptionally secluded.
- Identification and location of a buried cache is especially difficult.

SUBMERSION

D-12. Secure concealment submersion sites are difficult to find. In addition, the packager must use a container that meets such high standards for waterproofing and resistance to external pressure that the use of field expedients is seldom a workable option. To ensure that a submerged cache remains dry and in place, planners must determine not only the depth of the water but also the type of bottom, as well as the currents and other facts that are relatively difficult to obtain.

SITE SELECTION

D-13. The most careful estimates of future operational conditions cannot ensure the accessibility of a cache when personnel need it. The following paragraphs address site selection considerations.

SELECTION CRITERIA

D-14. Planners consider a site for a cache if it meets the certain qualifications. Cache site selection must allow personnel to—

- Locate the site by simple instructions that are unmistakably clear to someone who has never visited the location. A site may be ideal in every respect, but if it has no distinct, permanent landmarks within a readily measurable distance, planners must rule it out.
- Access and egress the site by at least two secure routes. Both primary and alternate routes should provide natural concealment so that the emplacement party and the recovery party can visit the site without casual observation.

● Emplace and recover the cache at the site in all seasons. Snow and frozen ground create special problems. Snow on the ground is a hazard because it is impossible to erase a trail in the snow. Planners must consider whether seasonal changes in the foliage will leave the site and the route dangerously exposed.

MAP SURVEY

D-15. Finding a cache site is often difficult. Usually, a thorough systematic survey of the general area designated for the cache is required. The survey is best done with a large-scale map of the area, if available. By scrutinizing the map, the planners can determine whether a particular sector must be ruled out because of its proximity to factories, homes, busy thoroughfares, or probable military targets in wartime. A good military-type map will show the positive features in the topography, proximity to adequate roads or trails, natural concealment (for example, surrounding woods or groves), and adequate drainage. Maps also show the natural and man-made features in the landscape, which provide indispensable reference points for locating a cache site, such as confluences of streams, dams and waterfalls, road junctures and distance markers, villages, bridges, churches, and cemeteries.

PERSONAL RECONNAISSANCE

D-16. A map survey should normally show the location of several promising sites within the general area planners designate for the cache. To select and pinpoint the best site, a well-qualified observer must examine each site firsthand. If possible, the individual examining the site should carry adequate maps, a compass, a drawing pad or board for making sketch maps or tracings, and a metallic measuring line. (A wire knotted at regular intervals is adequate for measuring. Personnel should not use twine or cloth measuring tapes because stretching or shrinking will make them inaccurate if they get wet.) If the observer can carry it securely, he should also carry a probe rod for probing prospective burial sites.

D-17. Since the observer seldom completes a field survey without local residents noticing him, the explanation for his actions is of importance. The observer's story must offer a natural explanation for his exploratory activity in the area. Ordinarily, this means that an observer who is not a known resident of the area can pose as a tourist or a newcomer with some reason for visiting the area. However, the observer must develop this story over an extended period before he conducts the actual reconnaissance. If the observer is a known resident of the area, he cannot suddenly begin hunting, fishing, or wildlife photography without arousing interest and perhaps suspicion. The observer must build up a reputation for involvement in the sport or hobby.

REFERENCE POINTS

D-18. When the observer finds a suitable cache site, he prepares simple and unmistakable instructions for locating the reference points. These instructions must identify the general area (the names of general recognizable places, from the country to the nearest village) and an immediate reference point. The observer can use any durable landmark personnel can easily identify by its title or a simple description (for example, the only Roman Catholic church in a certain village or the only bridge on a named road between two villages). The observer must include a final reference point (FRP) in his instructions. The FRP must meet four requirements. The FRP must be—

● Identifiable and include at least one feature that personnel can use as a precise reference point.
● An object that will remain fixed as long as personnel use the cache.
● Near enough to the cache to pinpoint the exact location of the cache by precise linear measurements from the FRP to the cache.
● Related to the immediate reference point by a simple route description, which proceeds from the immediate reference point to the FRP.

D-19. Since the observer should reduce the route description to the minimum essentials, the ideal solution for locating the cache is to combine the immediate reference point and the FRP into one readily identifiable

landmark that is also sufficiently secluded. The following objects, when available, are sometimes ideal reference points:

- Small, unfrequented bridges and dams.
- Boundary markers.
- Kilometer markers and culverts along unfrequented roads.
- A geodetic survey marker.
- Battle monuments and wayside shrines.

D-20. When such reference points are not available at an otherwise suitable cache site, FRPs may be natural or man-made objects, such as distinct rocks, posts for power or telephone lines, intersections in stone fences or hedgerows, and gravestones in isolated cemeteries.

PINPOINTING TECHNIQUES

D-21. Recovery instructions must identify the exact location of the cache. These instructions must describe the point where the cache is located in terms that relate it to the FRP. When the emplacement team uses the concealment method, it ordinarily places the cache inside the FRP and pinpoints the cache by a precise description of the FRP. Personnel usually pinpoint a submerged cache by precisely describing the securing method of the moorings in reference to the FRP. Any of the following pinpointing techniques may be used with a buried cache.

PLACING THE CACHE DIRECTLY BESIDE THE FINAL REFERENCE POINT

D-22. The simplest method is for personnel to place the cache directly beside the FRP. Pinpointing is then reduced to the observer specifying the precise reference point of the FRP.

SIGHTING THE CACHE BY PROJECTION

D-23. Personnel may sight the cache by projection if the FRP has one flat side long enough to permit precise sighting by projecting a line along the side of the object. The emplacement party places the cache a measured distance along the sighted line. Personnel may also use this method if two precise FRPs are available by projecting a line sighted between the two objects. In either case, the instructions for finding the cache must state the approximate direction of the cache from the FRP. Since small errors in sighting are magnified as the sighted line is extended, the emplacement team should place the cache as close to the FRP as other factors permit.

Note: This method ordinarily becomes unreliable if the sighted line is extended beyond 50 meters.

PLACING THE CACHE AT THE INTERSECTION OF MEASURED LINES

D-24. If two FRPs are available within several paces, personnel can cache the package on one line projected from each of the FRPs. If the team uses this method, they must state the approximate direction of the cache from each FRP. To ensure accuracy, the emplacement team should not make either of the projected lines (from the FRPs to the point of emplacement) more than twice as long as the baseline (between the two FRPs). If personnel maintain this proportion, the only limitation on the length of the projected lines is the length of the measuring line that the recovery party carries. The recovery party should carry two measuring lines when the emplacement team uses this method.

SIGHTING THE CACHE BY COMPASS AZIMUTH

D-25. If the above methods of sighting are not feasible, personnel may project one measured line by taking a compass azimuth from the FRP to the cache placement point. To avoid confusion, personnel should use

an azimuth to a cardinal point of the compass (north, east, south, or west). Since compass sightings are often inaccurate, personnel should not place caches pinpointed by this method more than 10 meters from the FRP.

MEASURING DISTANCES

D-26. The observer should express all measured distances in a linear system that the recovery party is sure to understand—ordinarily, the standard system for the country where the cache is located. He should use whole numbers (6 meters, not 6.3 or 6.5) to keep his instructions as brief and simple as possible. To get an exact location for the cache in whole numbers, the observer should take sightings and measurements first.

D-27. If the surface of the ground between the points to be measured is uneven, the observer should measure the linear distance on a direct line from point to point, rather than by following the contour of the ground. This method requires a measuring line long enough to reach the full distance from point to point and strong enough to be pulled taut without breaking.

MARKING TECHNIQUES

D-28. The team can simplify the emplacement operation and save critical time if the observer marks the cache point during his reconnaissance. If the team plans a night burial, personnel may need to mark the point of emplacement during a daylight reconnaissance. Personnel should only use this method when operational conditions permit. The marker must be an object that is easily recognizable but that is meaningless to an unwitting observer. For example, the observer can use a small rock or place a branch with its butt at the point of emplacement as a marker.

D-29. Since marking information is also essential to the recovery operation, personnel must compile it after emplacement and include it in the final cache report. Therefore, the observer should be thoroughly familiar with the cache report before he starts a personal reconnaissance. This report is a checklist for the observer to record as much information as possible. The observer's personal reconnaissance also provides an excellent opportunity for a preliminary estimate of the time necessary to get to the site.

ALTERNATE SITE

D-30. As a rule, planners should select an alternate site in case unforeseen difficulties prevent the use of the chosen site. Unless the primary site is in a completely deserted area, there is always some danger that the emplacement party will find it occupied as they approach or that locals will observe the party as they near the site. Planners should ensure the alternate site is far enough from the initial site to not be visible, but near enough so that the party can reach it without making a second trip.

CONCEALMENT SITE

D-31. Ideal concealment sites will also attract enemies looking for cache sites and local civilians in occupied territories seeking to hide their valuables. The only key to identifying the ideal concealment site is careful observation of the area combined with great familiarity with local residents and their customs. The following is a list of likely concealment sites:
- Walls (hidden behind loose bricks or stones or a plastered surface).
- Abandoned buildings.
- Infrequently used structures (stadiums and other recreational facilities, and spur line railroad facilities).
- Memorial edifices (mausoleums, crypts, and monuments).
- Public buildings (museums, churches, and libraries).
- Ruins of historical interest.
- Culverts.
- Natural caves, caverns, abandoned mines, and quarries.
- Sewers.
- Cable conduits.

D-32. Planners must ensure the concealment site is equally accessible to the person emplacing and the person recovering the cache. However, visits by both individuals to certain interior sites may compromise their cover. For instance, while a site in a house owned by a relative of the emplacer is suitable for the emplacer, if the recovery person has no connection with the owner, an adequate excuse for him to enter the house may not exist.

D-33. The site must remain accessible as long as the force needs the cache. If access to a building depends upon a personal relationship with the owner, the death of the owner or the sale of the property might render it inaccessible.

D-34. Personnel must ensure that discovery of the cache will not compromise individuals on the site. Even if a cache is completely sterile, as every cache should be, the mere fact that it has been placed in a particular site may compromise certain persons. For example, if the police discover the cache, they might suspect the emplacer because it was found in the home of his relative.

D-35. Planners must not locate the site in a place that potentially hostile persons frequently visit. For instance, a site in a museum is not secure if police guards or curious visitors frequently enter the museum.

D-36. To preserve the cache material, the emplacer must ensure the site is physically secure for the preservation of the cached material. For example, most buildings involve a risk that fire may damage or destroy the cache, especially in wartime. The emplacer should consider all risks and weigh them against the advantages of an interior site. A custodian may serve to ease access to a building or to guard a cache. However, the use of such a person is inadvisable because a custodian poses an additional security risk. He may use the contents of the cache for personal profit or reveal its location.

BURIAL SITE

D-37. In selecting a burial site, consider the following factors along with the basic considerations of suitability and accessibility.

DRAINAGE

D-38. Drainage considerations include the elevation of the site and type of soil. The importance of good drainage makes a site on high ground preferable unless other factors rule it out. Moisture is one of the greatest natural threats to the contents of a cache. Swamp muck is the most difficult soil to work in. If the site is near a stream or river, the emplacer should ensure that the cache is well above the all-year high-water mark so that rising water does not uncover and wash away the cache.

GROUND COVER

D-39. The types of vegetation at the site will influence the emplacer's choice. Roots of deciduous trees make digging difficult. Coniferous trees have less extensive root systems. In addition, the presence of coniferous trees usually means that the site drains well. Does the vegetation show paths or other indications that people visit the site too frequently for secure caching? Can the emplacer easily restore the ground cover to its normal appearance after burial of the cache? Tall grasses reveal trampling, but the emplacer can easily replace an overlay of leaves and humus that effectively conceals a freshly refilled hole.

NATURAL CONCEALMENT

D-40. The vegetation or the surrounding terrain should offer natural concealment for emplacement and recovery parties working at the site. Planners should carefully consider seasonal variations in the foliage.

TYPES OF SOIL

D-41. Burial in sandy loam is ideal because it is easy to dig and drains well. Planners should avoid clay soil because it becomes sticky in wet weather and too hard to dig in dry weather.

SNOWFALL AND FREEZING

D-42. If the personnel must emplace or recover the cache in winter, data on the normal snowfall, the depth of ground freeze, and the usual freeze and thaw dates will influence the site choice. Frozen ground impedes digging and requires additional time for burial and recovery. Snow on the ground is especially hazardous to the burial operation. It is almost impossible to restore snow over a burial site to its normal appearance unless there is more snowfall or a brisk wind. In addition, it is difficult for an emplacer to ensure that he leaves no trace of the operation after the snow has melted.

ROCKS AND OTHER SUBSURFACE OBSTRUCTIONS

D-43. To some extent, an emplacer can locate large obstructions that might prevent the use of a site before digging by probing with a rod or stake at the exact spot he is considering for the cache.

SUBMERSION SITE

D-44. A body of water must possess certain characteristics to be suitable for a submerged cache. The emplacer can only determine the presence of these characteristics by a thorough survey of the site. Emplacers will understand the importance of these characteristics after becoming familiar with the technicalities of submersion.

EMPLACEMENT

D-45. Submersion usually requires a boat, first for reconnoitering and then for emplacement. Thus, the availability of a boat and a plausible cover story generally determine the choice of submersion for a site. If no fishing or pleasure boating occur at the site, the emplacer may not have a workable cover story for the submersion. In tropical areas, seasonal rainfall often changes the course of streams or rivers and creates difficulties for the recovery team. Planners should keep this fact in mind when choosing the site and selecting reference points.

RECOVERY

D-46. Because the method for recovering a cache is generally similar to the method for emplacing a cache, it does not need a full description. However, planners should stress several important considerations in training for a recovery operation.

PACKAGING

D-47. Packaging usually involves packing the cache items, as well as the additional processing to protect the items from adverse storage conditions. Proper packaging is important because inadequate packaging is likely to render the items unusable. Because special equipment and skilled technicians are necessary for best results, planners should accomplish packaging at HQ or a field-packaging center whenever possible. However, to familiarize operational personnel with the fundamentals of packaging and enable them to improvise field expedients for emergency use, this section discusses determining factors, packaging steps, wrapping materials, and container criteria.

DETERMINING FACTORS

D-48. The first rule of packaging is that the packager tailors all processing to fit the specific requirements of each cache. The cache items determine the size, shape, and weight of the package, the method of packaging, the recovery process, the cache method, and the use of the cache. For instance, if circumstances require one man to recover the cache alone, he can carry a container no larger than a small suitcase and no heavier than 30 pounds. Of course, some equipment precludes small containers, but planners should weigh the need for larger packages against the difficulties and risks of handling them. Even if more than one person is available for recovery, planners should divide the material, whenever possible, into separate packages of a size and weight readily portable by one man.

D-49. Another important factor for packagers to consider is adverse storage conditions. Any of the following conditions may be present at the cache site:

- Moisture.
- External pressure.
- Freezing temperatures.
- Bacteria and corrosive chemicals found in soil and water.
- Animal life that may pose a hazard, such as burrowing insects and rodents. If planners conceal the cache in an exterior site, large animals may also threaten it.

D-50. Whether or not the packaging is adequate usually depends upon how carefully the observer analyzed the conditions at the site and incorporated that information into the package design. For this reason, planners should determine the method of caching (burial, concealment, or submersion) before constructing the package.

D-51. It is also important for planners to consider how long they need to maintain the equipment cache. Because planners seldom know when they will need a cache, a sound rule is to design the packaging to withstand adverse storage conditions for at least the normal shelf life of the cached contents.

STEPS IN PACKAGING

D-52. The exact procedure for packaging depends upon the specific requirements for the cache and the available packaging equipment. The following eight steps are almost always necessary in packaging:

- Inspecting.
- Cleaning.
- Drying.
- Coating with preservative.
- Wrapping.
- Packing.
- Enclosing user instructions for the cached equipment.
- Sealing and testing seals by submersion.

Inspecting

D-53. Personnel must inspect the cache items immediately before packaging to ensure they are complete, serviceable, and free of corrosive or contaminated substances.

Cleaning

D-54. Personnel must thoroughly clean all corrodible items immediately before applying the final preservative coating. Personnel should completely remove all foreign matter, including any preservative applied before shipment of the item to the field. Throughout the packaging operation, personnel should handle all contents of the cache with rubber or freshly cleaned cotton gloves. Special handling is important because even minute particles of human sweat will corrode metallic equipment. In addition, any fingerprints on the contents of the cache may enable the enemy to identify the packagers.

Drying

D-55. When personnel complete the cleaning, they must remove every trace of moisture from corrodible items. Methods of drying include wiping with an absorbent cloth, heating, or applying desiccant (a drying agent). Heating is usually the best drying method, unless heat can damage the items in the package. To dry by heating, the packager should place the cache items in an oven for at least 3 hours at a temperature of about 110 degrees Fahrenheit (F). Personnel can improvise an oven using a large metal can or drum. In humid climates, it is especially important to dry the oven thoroughly before using it by preheating it to at least 212 degrees F. After preheating, personnel should reduce the heat, waiting until the oven reaches

110 degrees F before inserting the equipment they want to cache. If personnel use a desiccant, they should not let it touch any metallic surface. Silica gel is a satisfactory desiccant and is commonly available.

Coating With a Preservative

D-56. Personnel may apply a light coat of oil to weapons, tools, and other items with unpainted metallic surfaces. A coat of paint may suffice for other metal items.

Wrapping

D-57. After completing the drying and coating, the packager wraps the cache items in a suitable material. The packager ensures the wrapping is as waterproof as possible. He wraps each item separately to prevent one perforation in the wrapping from exposing all items in the cache. The wrapping should fit tightly to each item, eliminating air pockets. The packager also seals all folds with a waterproof substance.

Packing

D-58. The packager must observe the following rules when packing items in the container:
- Remove all moisture from the interior of the container by heating or applying desiccant. Pack a long-lasting desiccant inside the container to absorb any residual moisture. If the packager uses silica gel, he must calculate the required amount by using the ratio of 15 kilograms of silica gel to 1 cubic meter of storage space within the container. (This figure is based on the assumption that the container is completely moisture-proof and the contents are slightly moist when inserted.) Therefore, the ratio allows an ample margin for incomplete drying, and the packager can reduce the amount if he knows the drying process was highly effective.
- Eliminate air pockets as much as possible by tightly packing items. The packager should use thoroughly dried padding liberally to fill air pockets and to protect the contents from shock. If possible, he should use clothing and other items for padding, which the recovery party may find useful. Items made of different metals should never touch, since continuous contact may cause corrosion through electrolytic action.

Enclosing Instructions for Using Cached Equipment

D-59. The packager includes written instructions and diagrams if they facilitate the assembly or use of cached items. Instructions must be written in a language that recovery personnel can understand. The wording should be as simple as possible and unmistakably clear. Diagrams should be self-explanatory because the eventual user may not understand written instructions due to language barriers.

Sealing and Testing Seals by Submersion

D-60. When the packager is done packing, he must seal the lid of the container, making it watertight. He can test the seal by entirely submerging the container in water and watching for escaping air bubbles. If possible, hot water should be used because hot water will uncover leaks that cold water will not.

WRAPPING MATERIALS

D-61. The most important requirement for wrapping material is that it is moisture-proof. In addition, the wrapping material should self-seal or adhere to a sealing material. It should be pliable enough to fit closely, with tight folds, and tough enough to resist tearing and puncturing. If the packager cannot find one material to meet his needs, he can use one wrapping material for pliability and another for toughness. He should use the thin, pliable material as the inner wrapper and the heavier, tough material as the outer layer. A tough outer wrapping is essential unless the container and the padding are adequate to prevent items from scraping together inside the cache. Five wrapping materials are recommended for field-expedient use because personnel can often obtain them locally and use them effectively, even if personnel are unskilled.

Aluminum Foil for Use as an Inner Wrapping

D-62. Aluminum foil is the best of the widely available materials. It is moisture-proof as long as it does not become perforated and the folds are adequately sealed. The drawback of tin foil for caching is that thin foil perforates easily and heavy foil (over 2 millimeters thick) tends to admit moisture through the folds. The heavy-duty grade of aluminum foil sold for kitchen use is adequate when the packager uses an outer wrapping. Scrim-backed foil, which is heat-sealable, is widely used commercially to package articles for shipment or storage. Portable heat sealers that are easy to use are available commercially, or the packager can seal the foil with a standard household iron.

Moisture-Resistant Papers

D-63. Several commercial brands of wrapping papers resistant to water and grease are available. Alone they do not provide lasting protection against moisture, but they are effective as an inner wrapping to prevent rubber, wax, and similar substances from sticking to the items in the cache.

Rubber Repair Gum

D-64. Rubber repair gum is a self-sealing compound mechanics generally use for repairing tires. Rubber repair gum makes an excellent outer wrapping. Standard commercial brands come in several thicknesses, but the 2-millimeter gum is best for caching. The packager can easily produce a watertight seal by placing two rubber surfaces together and applying pressure. The seal should be at least ½-inch wide. Because rubber repair gum has a tendency to adhere to items, the packager must use an inner wrapping of nonadhesive material and leave the backing on the rubber material to keep it from sticking to other items in the cache.

Grade C Barrier Material

D-65. Grade C barrier material is a cloth impregnated with microcrystalline wax that distributors use extensively for packing items for overseas shipment. This material is widely available and is self-sealing. Although not as effective as rubber repair gum, packagers can use grade C barrier material as an outer wrapping over aluminum foil to prevent perforation of the foil. If the packager is not using an inner wrapping, packages require three layers of grade C barrier material, which may keep the contents dry for as long as three months, but is highly vulnerable to insects and rodents. In addition, the wax wrapping of the material has a low melting point and adhesive properties, so packagers should not use it without an inner wrapping unless it is an emergency.

Wax Coating

D-66. If no wrapping material is available, packagers can use an outer coating of microcrystalline wax, paraffin, or a similar waxy substance to protect the contents from moisture. A wax coating will not provide protection against insects and rodents. The packager should hot-dip the package in the waxy substance or apply the hot wax with a brush.

CONTAINER CRITERIA

D-67. The outer container protects the contents during exposure to shock, moisture, and other natural hazards. The ideal container is—
- Watertight and airtight upon sealing.
- Noiseless when handled. Handles should not rattle against the body of the container.
- Lightweight in construction.
- Equipped with a sealing device that personnel can easily and repeatedly close and open.
- Resistant to—
  - Shock and abrasion.
  - Crushing pressure.

- Rodents, insects, and bacteria.
- Highly acidic or alkaline soil or water.

Stainless Steel Container

D-68. The standard stainless steel container comes in several sizes. Because the stainless steel container is better than any container the packager could improvise in the field, it should be used whenever possible. Ideally, he should pack the container at HQ or at a field-packaging center. If personnel must obtain caching items locally, it is still advisable to use a stainless steel container because it is highly resistant to moisture. In addition, stainless steel containers do not require an outer wrapping. However, even when using a stainless steel container, the packager should use a single inner wrapping to protect the contents from any residual moisture present in the container when he seals it.

Field-Expedient Container

D-69. Although Soldiers cannot improvise an ideal container in the field, standard military and commercial containers can meet caching requirements if Soldiers use care and resourcefulness while adapting them. First, a container must be strong enough not to puncture and keep its shape through rough handling or crushing pressure. (Even a slight warping may cause a joint around a lid to leak.) Second, if the lid is not already watertight and airtight, Soldiers must improvise a sealing device. The most common type of sealing device is a rubber-composition gasket or lining and a sharp, flat metal rim pressed against a threaded lid. Soldiers can increase this device's effectiveness by applying heavy grease to its threads. (Soldiers should not use metallic solder for sealing because it corrodes metal surfaces when exposed to moisture.) Whenever Soldiers use any nonstainless metal container, they must apply several coats of high-quality paint to all exterior surfaces.

Instrument Containers

D-70. Distributors normally ship aircraft and other precision instruments in steel containers with a waterproof sealing device. Standard instrument containers range from 1/2 gallon to 10 gallons. If Soldiers can find one that is the right size, they only need to make minimum modifications to use it as a cache container. The only weak point in the most common type of instrument container is the nut and bolt that tighten the locking band around the lid. Soldiers should replace the original nut and bolt with a stainless steel set.

Ammunition Boxes

D-71. Several types of steel ammunition boxes have rubber gasket closing devices and are satisfactory for buried caches. An advantage of using ammunition boxes is that they are usually available at military depots.

Steel Drums

D-72. Soldiers may find a caching container of suitable size among the commercial steel drums businesses use to ship oil, grease, nails, soap, and other products. However, because most steel drums lack adequate sealing devices, Soldiers will need to treat them with waterproof materials. Fully removable head drums with lock-ring closures generally give a satisfactory seal.

Glass Jars

D-73. The advantage of using glass is that it is waterproof and does not allow chemicals, bacteria, and insects to pass through it. Although glass is highly vulnerable to shock, glass jars of a sturdy quality can withstand the crushing pressure caching involves. However, glass jars do not have adequate sealing devices for the joint around the lid. Standard commercial canning jars with spring clamps and rubber washers are watertight, but the metal clamps are vulnerable to corrosion. This vulnerability makes these jars adequate expedients for short-term caching of small items, but Soldiers should not rely upon them to resist moisture for more than one year.

Paint Cans

D-74. Standard cans with reusable lids require a waterproof adhesive around the lids. Apply several coats of paint to the exterior of standard commercial cans because the metal in these cans is not as heavy as that in metal drums. Even when the exterior is thoroughly painted, paint cans are unable to resist moisture for more than a few months.

METHODS OF EMPLACEMENT

D-75. Because burial is the most frequently used method of emplacement, this section describes first the complete procedure for burial, followed by a discussion of emplacement procedures peculiar to submersion and concealment. The last area discussed is the preparation of the cache report—a vital part of a caching operation.

BURIAL

D-76. When planners complete the design and selection of items for a cache, they must carefully work out every step of the burial operation in advance.

Horizontal and Vertical Caches

D-77. Ordinarily, the emplacement team buries the cache vertically (it digs a hole straight down from the surface). Sometimes a horizontal cache, with the hole dug into the side of a steep hill or bank, provides a workable solution when a suitable site on level or slightly sloping ground is not available. A horizontal cache may provide better drainage in areas of heavy rainfall, but it is more likely to be exposed by soil erosion and more difficult to refill and restore to normal appearance.

Dimensions of the Hole

D-78. The exact dimensions of the hole, either vertical or horizontal, depend on the size and shape of the cache container. As a general rule, the emplacer should make the hole large enough for him to easily insert the container. He should make the hole's horizontal dimensions about 30 centimeters longer and wider than the container. Most importantly, he should make the hole deep enough so that he can cover the container with about 45 centimeters of soil. Normally, this depth is deep enough to decrease the risk of soil erosion or indigenous activities uncovering the container. A deeper hole makes probing for recovery more difficult and unnecessarily prolongs the time necessary for burial and recovery.

Excavation Shoring

D-79. If there is a risk that the surrounding soil will cave in during excavation, the emplacer can use boards or bags filled with subsoil to shore the sides of the hole. The emplacer may need to use permanent shoring to protect improvised containers from pressure or shock.

Equipment

D-80. Depending upon site conditions, the emplacer will find the following items helpful for burying a cache:
- Measuring instruments (a wire or metal tape and compass) for pinpointing the site.
- Paper and pencil for recording the measurements.
- Probe rod for locating rocks, large roots, or other obstacles in the subsoil.
- A minimum of two ground sheets for placing sod and loose soil on. If nothing else is available, the emplacer may use an article of clothing in place of a ground sheet for small excavations.
- Sacks (sandbags, flour sacks, or trash bags) for holding subsoil.
- Spade or pickax for digging ground that is too hard for spading.
- Hatchet for cutting roots.
- Crowbar for prying rocks.
- Flashlight or lamp for burying at night.

Burial Party

D-81. Aside from locating, digging, and refilling the hole, the most important factor at this phase of emplacement is personnel. Because it is impossible to prevent every member of the burial party from knowing the location of the cache, each member is a security concern for as long as the cache remains intact. Planners must use extreme care in their selection of burial party personnel. Once planners select a team, each person must have an adequate story to explain his absence from home or work during the operation, his trip to and from the site, and his possession of whatever equipment he cannot conceal on the trip. Depending on the number of people, the length of the trip and the equipment necessary for the operation, transportation for the burial party may present a problem for planners. Once planners finish working out the operational details, they must brief each member of the burial party on their tasks for the entire operation.

Operational Schedule

D-82. The final step in planning the emplacement operation is to make a schedule that sets the date, time, and place for every step of the operation that requires advance coordination. The schedule will depend mainly on the circumstances, but it must include a realistic estimate of how long it will take to complete the burial. Generalizations in the schedule are worthless, and the only sure guide is actual experience under similar conditions.

D-83. A careful burial job probably will take longer than most novices will expect. Therefore, if circumstances require a tight schedule, a dry run or test exercise before taking the package to the site is advisable. Unless the site is exceptionally well concealed or isolated, the burial should occur at night to avoid detection. Because of the difficulties of working in the dark, the burial party should conduct a nighttime practice exercise.

D-84. The schedule should permit waiting for advantageous weather conditions. The difficulties of snow have already been mentioned. Rainy weather makes digging problematic and complicates cover stories. Planners should plan night burials on moonless or heavily overcast nights.

Site Approach

D-85. Regardless of how effective an individual's story is during the trip to the cache site, he must ensure he remains unobserved during his immediate approach to the site to prevent others from detecting the burial. To prevent observation, planners must carefully select the point at which the burial team is to disappear, perhaps by turning off a road into woods. They should also carefully select the reappearance point. In addition, the party should use a different return route. The burial party should strictly observe the rules for concealed movement. The party should proceed cautiously and silently along a route that makes the best use of natural concealment. Concealed movement requires foresight, with special attention to using natural concealment while reconnoitering the route and preventing rattles when preparing the package and contents.

Security Measures at the Site

D-86. The burial party must maintain maximum vigilance at the cache site because detection can be disastrous. The time spent at the site is the most critical. At least one lookout should constantly be on guard. The emplacer should frequently pause to look and listen. The burial party should minimize the use of flashlights or lanterns and take special care to mask the glare. Planning should include emergency actions in case the burial party is interrupted. Thorough briefing permits the party to respond instantly to any sign of danger. Planners should consider escape routes and decide whether the party will attempt to retain the package or conceal it along the escape route if the operation is disrupted.

Steps in Digging and Refilling

D-87. Although procedures will vary slightly with the design of the cache, persons involved in caching operations must never overlook basic steps. The whole design of the procedure is to enable the emplacer to restore the site to its original appearance as much as possible.

Site Sterilization

D-88. When the burial party refills the hole, they must make a special effort to ensure that they sterilize and restore the site, leaving no indication of the burial or the burial party's visit to the vicinity. Because sterilization is most important for the security of the operation, the schedule should allow ample time to complete these final steps in a deliberate and thorough manner. The final steps of the burial are to—

- Dispose of any excess soil far enough away from the site to avoid attracting attention to the site. Flushing the excess soil into a stream is the ideal solution.
- Check all tools and equipment against a checklist to ensure that nothing is left behind. The checklist should include all personal items that may drop from pockets. To minimize this risk, members of the burial party should only carry items essential for doing the job and disguising their actions.
- Make a final inspection of the site for any traces of the burial. Because this is more difficult on dark nights, it is essential emplacers carefully prepare a checklist and use it. If an emplacer can safely return to the site during daylight, he can inspect it for any evidence of the operation.

SUBMERSION

D-89. Emplacing a submerged cache always involves two basic steps: weighting the container to keep it from floating to the surface and mooring it to keep it in place.

Anchors and Moorings

D-90. Ordinarily, container weights rest on the bottom of a lake or river functioning as anchors, and moorings connect these anchors to the container. Moorings also serve as handles for recovering a cache. If the moorings are not accessible for recovery, another line must extend from the cache to a fixed, accessible object in the water or on shore. The four types of moorings are buoy, line-to-shore, spiderweb, and structural.

Buoy Mooring

D-91. Buoy mooring uses a line run from the weighted container to a buoy or other fixed, floating marker that is fastened well below the waterline. This method is secure only as long as nobody moves the buoy. Buoys are generally inspected and repainted every 6 months or so. Planners must determine the inspection schedule before selecting a buoy for mooring.

Line-to-Shore Mooring

D-92. Line-to-shore mooring uses a line run from a weighted container to an immovable object along the shore. The emplacer must bury or otherwise conceal the section of line that extends from the shore to the container when using this method.

Spiderweb Mooring

D-93. Spiderweb mooring uses several mooring cables that attach to the container and radiate to anchors around it, forming a web. The container must have enough buoyancy to lift the cables far enough off the bottom for emplacers to readily secure it by grappling. Emplacers must locate the site exactly at the time of emplacement by visual sightings to fixed landmarks in the water or along the shore using several FRPs to establish a point where two sighted lines intersect. The recovery party locates the site by taking sightings on the reference points when they engage a mooring cable by dragging the bottom while diving. This method of mooring is the most difficult to recover. Emplacers can only use this method in bodies of water with smooth bottoms firm enough for dragging. Planners should also ensure the water at the site is not too deep, cold, or murky for diving.

Structural Mooring

D-94. Structural mooring uses a retrieval line run from the weighted container to a bridge pier or other solid structure in the water. The emplacer must fasten this line well below the low-water mark.

Essential Data for Submersion

D-95. Whatever method of mooring planners designate, they must carefully consider certain data before designing a submersible cache. If planners overlook any of the critical factors in the following paragraphs, they are likely to lose the cache.

Buoyancy

D-96. Many containers are buoyant even when filled. If the contents do not provide enough weight to submerge and secure the container in place, the emplacer must attach enough weight to the container to accomplish this. Table D-1 shows the approximate weight necessary to attain zero buoyancy.

Table D-1. Zero buoyancy chart

Zero Buoyancy Guide		
Container Dimensions (Inches)	**Empty Container Weight (Pounds)**	**Approximate Weight to Attain Zero Buoyancy (Pounds)**
7 x 9 x 8 1/2	5	15
7 x 9 x 16 1/2	8	31
7 x 9 x 40	16	77
7 x 9 x 45	17 1/2	88
7 x 9 x 50	19	97

D-97. The previous table utilizes several stainless steel container sizes. Soldiers can calculate the weight necessary to attain zero buoyancy for any container if they know the displacement of the container and the gross weight of the container and its contents. Planners find this calculation useful for designing anchors, but it should not be relied upon for actual emplacement. To avoid hurried improvisation during emplacement, emplacers should always test buoyancy in advance by actually submerging the weighted container. This test determines only that a submerged cache will not float to the surface. Emplacers may need to attach additional weight to keep the container from drifting along the bottom. As a rule, the emplacer should add at least 1/10th of the gross weight required to sink the container and even more weight if strong currents exist in the area.

Submersion Depth

D-98. Planners must first determine the submersion depth of the container to calculate the water pressure that the container must withstand. The greater the depth, the greater the danger that water pressure will crush the container. For instance, the standard stainless steel burial container buckles at a depth of approximately 4.3 meters. The difficulty of waterproofing also increases with depth. Thus, planners should only use the minimum depth necessary to avoid detection. Generally, 2.2 meters is the maximum advisable depth for caching. If seasonal or tidal variations in the water level require deeper submersion, planners should test the container by actual submersion at the maximum depth it must withstand.

Depth of the Water

D-99. Emplacers must accurately measure the water depth at the emplacement point. If planners design the cache to rest on the water bottom, this depth is the same as the submersion depth. Planners may design the container for suspension some distance above the bottom, but the emplacer must know the depth of the water to determine the length of moorings connecting the container to the anchors.

High- and Low-Water Marks

D-100. Emplacers must estimate any tidal or seasonal changes in the depth of the water as accurately as possible. They must consider the low-water mark to ensure that low water will not expose the cache.

Emplacers must also consider the high-water mark to ensure that the increase in depth will not crush the container or prevent recovery.

Type of Bottom

D-101. Emplacers should probe as thoroughly as possible the bed of the lake or river near the cache. If the bottom is soft and silty, the cache may sink into the muck, become covered with sediment, or drift out of place. If the bottom is rocky or covered with debris, the moorings may become snagged. Any of these conditions may make recovery very difficult.

Water Motion

D-102. Emplacers should consider tides, currents, and waves because any water motion will put additional strain on the moorings of the cache. Moorings must be strong enough to withstand the greatest possible strain. If the water motion tends to rock the cache, emplacers must take special care to prevent the moorings from rubbing and fraying.

Clearness of the Water

D-103. When deciding how deep to submerge the cache, emplacers must first determine how far the cache can be seen through the water. If the water is clear, emplacer may need to camouflage the container by painting it to match the bottom. (Emplacers should always paint shiny metallic fixtures a dull color.) Very murky water makes recovery more difficult.

Water Temperature

D-104. Planners must consider seasonal changes in the temperature of the water. Recovery may be impossible in the winter if the water freezes. Planners should determine as accurately as possible, the dates when the lake or river usually freezes and thaws.

Saltwater

D-105. Since seawater is much more corrosive than fresh water, personnel should not use tidal estuaries and lagoons for caching unless they are conducting a maritime resupply operation. Maritime resupply operations involve temporarily submerging equipment along the seacoast until a shore party can recover it.

CONCEALMENT

D-106. There are many ways to conceal a cache in natural or ready-made hiding places. For instance, if a caching party was hiding weapons and ammunition in a cave and was relying entirely on natural concealment, the emplacement operation would entail simply locating the site. The party would only need paper, a pencil, and a flashlight. However, if the party was sealing a packet of jewels in a brick wall, it would require a skilled mason, his tools, and a supply of mortar expertly mixed to match the original brick wall.

D-107. When considering concealment, planners must know the local residents and their customs. During the actual emplacement, the caching party must ensure no one observes the operation. The final sterilization of the site is especially important since a concealment site is usually open to frequent observation.

CACHING COMMUNICATIONS EQUIPMENT

D-108. As a rule, planners should include all equipment for a particular purpose (for example, demolitions or survival) in one container. Some equipment, however, is so sensitive from a security standpoint that personnel should pack it in several containers and cache them in different locations to minimize the danger of discovery by the enemy. This is particularly true of communications equipment since, under some circumstances, anyone who acquires a whole RT set with a signal plan and cryptographic material could play back the set. This is an especially dangerous type of penetration. With this in mind, personnel should never place the signal plan and the cryptographic material in the same container. Ideally, personnel should

distribute a communications kit among three containers and cache the containers in different locations. An example of the distribution is as follows:

- Container one could hold the RT set.
- Container two could hold the signal plan and operational supplies for the RT operator, such as currency, barter, and small arms.
- Container three could hold the cryptographic materiel.

D-109. When personnel use several containers for one set of equipment, they must place the containers far enough apart so that the discovery of one does not lead to the detection of the others in the immediate vicinity. However, they should place the containers close enough together so that they can conveniently recover all three containers in one operation. The distance between containers will depend on the particular situation, but they should be at least 10 meters apart. Personnel ordinarily use one final reference point for a multiple cache. The caching party should avoid placing multiple caches in repeating patterns, which could lead to the discovery of one multiple cache-causing the enemy to probe for other similarly placed caches.

CACHING MEDICAL EQUIPMENT

D-110. Planners must perform a feasibility study to determine the need for caching medical supplies. The purpose of medical caches is to store excess medical supplies to maintain mobility and deny access to the enemy. In addition, caching large stockpiles of medical supplies allows the force to position vital supplies in advance of planned operations.

CACHE REPORT

D-111. The final step vital to every emplacement operation is the preparation of a cache report. This report records the data essential for recovery. The cache report must provide all of the information that someone unfamiliar with the locality needs to find his way to the site, recover the cache, and safely return. The purpose of the report is to point out the minimum-essential data. The importance of attention to detail is the critical aspect of the cache report. A careless error or omission may prevent recovery of the cache when personnel need it.

CONTENT

D-112. The cache report must include instructions for finding and recovering the cache. It should also include any other information that will ease the planning of a recovery operation. Because the details will depend upon the situation and the particular needs of each organization, the exact format of the report may vary slightly.

PROCEDURES

D-113. The observer should collect as much data as possible during the personal reconnaissance to assist in selecting a site and planning emplacement and recovery operations. It is advisable that the observer draft the cache report before the emplacement operation. Following these procedures will reveal omissions. In this way, personnel can then obtain the missing data at the site. This procedure reduces the preparation of the final cache report to an after-action check. This check ensures that personnel actually placed the cache precisely where the observer planned and that all other descriptive details are accurate. Although personnel may not always accomplish this ideal, they must always observe the following two procedures:

- The caching party should complete the final cache report as soon as possible after emplacement while details are fresh in mind.
- A person who has never visited the site should check the instructions by using them to find the site. When no such person is available, the site should then be visited shortly after emplacement, provided it can be done securely. If personnel emplaced the cache at night, a visit to the site in daylight may also provide an opportunity to check on the sterilization of the site.

CACHE RECOVERY

D-114. Practical exercises, equipment, a sketch of the site, preliminary reconnaissance, a probe rod, and site sterilization are all components of successful cache recovery. The following paragraphs discuss these components for recovery operations.

PRACTICAL EXERCISES

D-115. If planners can arrange secure field exercises, they should ensure all possible recovery team members get experience recovering actual dummy caches. It is especially desirable for the recovery person to master pinpointing techniques. Personnel achieve mastery when they practice selecting points of emplacement, drafting recovery instructions, and following recovery instructions.

EQUIPMENT

D-116. Although the equipment used in recovery is generally the same as that used in emplacement, it is important to include any additional items that may be required in recovery in the cache report. A probe rod may not be essential for emplacement, but it is necessary to have some object roughly the same size as the cache container to fill the cavity left in the ground by removal of a buried cache. Some sort of container of wrapping material may be needed to conceal the recovered cache while it is being carried from the cache site to a safe house. Recovery of a submerged cache may require grappling lines and hooks, especially if it is heavy.

SKETCH OF THE SITE

D-117. If possible, the observer should provide the recovery person with sketches of the cache site and the route to the cache site. If the recovery person must rely exclusively on verbal instructions, as in the case when communications are limited to RT messages, he should draw a sketch of the site before starting on the recovery operation. He should use all the data in the verbal instructions to make the sketch as realistic as possible. Drawing a sketch will help to clarify any misunderstanding of the instructions. In addition, personnel can follow a sketch more easily than verbal instructions. It is also helpful for the recovery person to draw a sketch of the route from the immediate reference point to the site. The observer should not carry this sketch on his person, because if the enemy apprehends him, the sketch might direct the enemy to the cache.

PRELIMINARY RECONNAISSANCE

D-118. It is advisable that the observer check the cache location instructions, especially when the recovery team must perform under stringent enemy controls or with no extra time to search for the location. Careful analysis of the best available map can minimize reconnoitering activity near the cache, which reduces the danger of arousing suspicion. If the recovery team must operate at night, the team should first find the cache during daylight and place an unnoticeable marker directly over it as a visual reference.

PROBE ROD

D-119. The recovery person can avoid digging at the wrong spot by using a probe rod before starting to dig. He should push and turn the probe rod into the ground by hand, so that it will not puncture the cache's container. The recovery person should never pound the probe rod with a hammer.

D-120. The recovery procedure is the same as for the burial, except for the following two points: the recovery person–

- Should never use a pickax for digging because it might puncture the container and damage the cached items.
- May need to fill the hole with other objects in addition to soil after he removes the cache.

D-121. Sometimes it is possible for the recovery person to fill the hole with rocks, sticks, or other readily available objects at the site. If the recovery person does not find filler objects during his preliminary reconnaissance, he should carry an object roughly the size of the cache to the site during recovery.

STERILIZATION OF THE SITE

D-122. As with emplacement, the recovery person must perform the recovery operation without leaving any trace of the operation. Although sterilization is not as important for recovery as for emplacement, the recovery person should perform sterilization as thoroughly as time permits. Evidence of a recovered cache may alert the enemy to clandestine activity in the area and provoke countermeasures.

Glossary

ADA	Antideficiency Act
AM	amplitude modulation
AO	area of operations
AOB	advanced operations base
ARNG	Army National Guard
ARNGUS	Army National Guard of the United States
ARSOF	Army special operations forces
BMNT	begin morning nautical twilight
C2	command and control
CA	Civil Affairs
CAO	Civil Affairs operations
CBRNE	chemical, biological, radiological, nuclear, and high-yield explosives
CMO	civil-military operations
DA	Department of the Army
DOD	Department of Defense
DODD	Department of Defense Directive
DZ	drop zone
EENT	end of evening nautical twilight
F	Fahrenheit
FHA	foreign humanitarian assistance
FID	foreign internal defense
FM	field manual; frequency modulation
FRP	final reference point
FY	fiscal year
GTA	graphic training aid
HA	humanitarian assistance
HF	high frequency
HN	host nation
HQ	headquarters
IAW	in accordance with
ICC	International Criminal Court
IGO	intergovernmental organization
IPOE	intelligence preparation of the operational environment
IW	irregular warfare
JP	joint publication
JSOA	joint special operations area

JSOTF	joint special operations task force
LOC	line of communications
LZ	landing zone
METT–TC	mission, enemy, terrain and weather, troops and support available time available, civil considerations
MIS	Military Information Support
MISO	Military Information Support operations
MOE	Measures of effectiveness
MSS	mission support site
NGO	nongovernmental organization
O&M	operation and maintenance
PE	practical exercise
PW	prisoner of war
PRC	populace and resources control
ROE	rules of engagement
RT	radio-telephone
SecDef	Secretary of Defense
SF	Special Forces
SFOD	Special Forces operational detachment
SFODA	Special Forces operational detachment A
SFODB	Special Forces operational detachment B
SFODC	Special Forces operational detachment C
SOE	special operations executive
SOF	special operations forces
SOI	signal operating instructions
SOP	standing operating procedure
SOTF	special operations task force
TAACOM	theater Army area command
TC	training circular
TSOC	theater special operations command
TV	television
UCMJ	Uniform Code of Military Justice
U.S.	United States
USAJFKSWCS	United States Army John F. Kennedy Special Warfare Center and School
USAR	United States Army Reserve
USC	United States Code
USG	United States Government
USSOCOM	United States Special Operations Command
UW	unconventional warfare
UWOA	unconventional warfare operational area

SECTION II – TERMS

area command

A command which is composed of those organized elements of one or more of the Armed Services, designated to operate in a specific geographical area, which are placed under a single commander. In unconventional warfare, the organizational structure established within an unconventional warfare operational area to command and control irregular forces. It consists of the area commander, his staff, representatives of the irregular organization, and ARSOF elements after infiltration.

auxiliary

The support element of the irregular organization whose organization and operations are clandestine in nature and whose members do not openly indicate their sympathy or involvement with the irregular movement.

cache

A source of subsistence and supplies, typically containing items such as food, water, medical items, and/or communications equipment, packaged to prevent damage from exposure and hidden in isolated locations by such methods as burial, concealment, and/or submersion, to support isolated personnel.

Commando Solo

A specially configured aircraft used to conduct information operations, MISO, and CA broadcasts in AM, FM, HF, TV, and military communications bands.

general war

Armed conflict between major powers in which the total resources of the belligerents are employed, and the national survival of a major belligerent is in jeopardy.

government-in-exile

A government that has been displaced from its country, but remains recognized as the legitimate sovereign authority.

guerrilla

A combat participant in guerrilla warfare.

guerrilla base

A temporary site where guerrilla installations, headquarters, and some guerrilla units are located. A guerrilla base is considered to be transitory and must be capable of rapid displacement by personnel within the base.

guerrilla warfare

Military and paramilitary operations conducted in enemy-held or hostile territory by irregular, predominantly indigenous forces.

insurgency

An organized movement aimed at the overthrow of a constituted government through use of subversion and armed conflict.

intelligence preparation of the operational environment

The analytical process used by intelligence organizations to produce intelligence estimates and other intelligence products in support of the commander's decision-making process. It is a continuous process that includes defining the operational environment, describing the impact of the operational environment, evaluating the adversary, and determining adversary courses of action.

limited war

Armed conflict just short of general war, exclusive of incidents involving the overt engagement of the military forces of two or more nations.

mission support site

A preselected area used as a temporary base or stopover point. The mission support site is used to increase the operational range within the joint special operations area.

pilot team

A deliberately structured composite organization comprised of SFOD members, with likely augmentation by interagency or other skilled personnel, designed to infiltrate a desginated area to conduct sensitive preparation of the environment activities and assess the potential to conduct unconventional warfare in support of U.S. objectives.

resistance movement

An organized effort by some portion of the civil population of a country to resist the legally established government or an occupying power and to disrupt civil order and stability.

shadow government

Governmental elements and activities performed by the irregular organization that will eventually take the place of the existing government. Members of the shadow government can be in any element of the irregular organization (underground, auxiliary, or guerrilla force).

unconventional warfare

Activities conducted to enable a resistance movement or insurgency to coerce, disrupt, or overthrow a government or occupying power by operating through or with an underground, auxiliary, and guerrilla force in a denied area.

underground

A covert unconventional warfare organization established to operate in areas denied to the guerrilla forces or conduct operations not suitable for guerrilla forces.

References

REQUIRED REFERENCES

These documents must be available to intended users of this publication.

None

RELATED PUBLICATIONS

These documents contain relevant supplemental information.

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