



AUSTRALIAN DEFENCE FORCE PUBLICATION

OPERATIONS SERIES

ADFP 6

OPERATIONS

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Australian Defence Force Publication 6 (ADFP 6)—*Operations* is issued for use by the Australian Defence Force and is effective forthwith. This edition supersedes ADFP 6, first edition of 28 March 1996, all copies of which should be destroyed in accordance with current security instructions.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'C.A. Barrie'.

C.A. BARRIE
Admiral, RAN
Chief of the Defence Force

Australian Defence Headquarters
CANBERRA ACT 2600

11 November 1998

FOREWORD

1. Australian Defence Force Publication 6 (ADFP 6)—*Operations* promulgates doctrine to assist the planning and conduct of Australian Defence Force (ADF) operations both in peace and conflict. It outlines the fundamental doctrine which guides joint operations and is the basis on which other doctrinal and procedural publications are developed.
2. The contents of this publication have been derived from operational experience and a wide range of theoretical publications on the art of war. ADFP 6 is suitable for use at all levels of conflict and within all strata of command.
3. ADFP 6 describes operational art and campaigning. The publication is complemented by three supplements which address the operational level considerations for joint operations conducted in the sea, land and air environments:
 - a. Supplement 1—*Maritime Operations*;
 - b. Supplement 2—*Land Operations*; and
 - c. Supplement 3—*Air Operations*.
4. Chief of the Defence Force is the approval authority for ADFP 6. Head Strategic Command Division is the sponsor of the publication while the Commandant Australian Defence Force Warfare Centre (ADFWC) is responsible for its continued development, amendment and production. Further information of ADFPs is promulgated in Defence Instruction (General) ADMIN 20-1—*Production and Control of Australian Defence Force Publications*.
5. Users of the publication should examine its contents, applicability and currency. If deficiencies or errors are found, amendment action is to be taken. ADFWC invites assistance, from whatever source, to improve this publication.
6. **ADFP 6 is not to be released to foreign countries without the written approval of the Head Strategic Command Division.**

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ADFP 19	<i>Intelligence</i>	7610-66-139-4147
ADFP 20	<i>Logistic in Support of Joint Operations</i>	7610-66-139-4148
ADFP 21	<i>Movements</i>	7610-66-139-4149
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ADFP 41	<i>Defence Public Information Policy During Periods of Tension and Conflict</i>	7610-66-139-6630
ADFP 43	<i>Evacuation Operations</i>	7610-66-139-4157
ADFP 44	<i>Civil Military Cooperation</i>	7610-66-141-6921
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ADFP 53	<i>Health Support</i>	7610-66-139-3258
ADFP 56	<i>Explosive Ordnance Disposal</i>	7610-66-139-4159

CONTENTS

	Page
Authorisation	iii
Foreword	v
Amendment Certificate	vii
Australian Defence Force Publications—Operations Series	ix
List of Figures	xv
Symbols of Protection	xvii
	Paragraph
CHAPTER 1	
INTRODUCTION	
NATURE OF CONFLICT	
Friction	1.5
Offence and Defence	1.7
Centre of gravity	1.9
Human factor	1.11
Principles of war	1.12
SCOPE OF MILITARY ACTION	
Operational continuum	1.13
Definitions	1.19
AUSTRALIA'S GEOSTRATEGIC CIRCUMSTANCES	
Warning	1.27
Military support operations	1.30
CHAPTER 2	
LEVELS OF CONFLICT	
INTRODUCTION	
COMMAND	
Command at the national strategic level	2.4
Command at the military strategic level	2.6
Command at the operational level	2.8
Command at the tactical level	2.11
Annexes:	
A. Levels of command	
B. Strategy in the South–West Pacific Area—1942	
CHAPTER 3	
OPERATIONAL ART	
Introduction	3.1
Approaches to the operational level of war	3.2
Decision cycles	3.5
Components	3.7
Operational objectives and the end-state	3.9
Centre of gravity	3.12
Critical vulnerabilities	3.18
Decisive points	3.20
Lines of operation	3.22
Operational milestones	3.25
Sequencing	3.26
Command and control warfare	3.34
Manoeuvre	3.39
Tempo	3.47
Operational pauses	3.51
Culminating point	3.52
Contingency planning	3.54
Annex:	
A. Command and control warfare elements	

CHAPTER 4	CAMPAIGN PLANNING	
	Operational art and the campaign	4.1
	Resources	4.2
	Planning sequence	4.6
	INITIATION AND CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT	
	Commander's appreciation	4.9
	Campaign concept of operations	4.12
	Resources in concept development	4.15
	PLAN DEVELOPMENT	
	IMPLEMENTATION AND MONITORING	
	Campaign and staff processes	4.21
CHAPTER 5	COMMANDING THE CAMPAIGN	
	Introduction	5.1
	Stages of the campaign	5.8
	DEPLOYMENT	
	ACHIEVEMENT OF OPERATIONAL OBJECTIVES	
	Synchronising	5.11
	Offence	5.12
	Defence	5.14
	Commander's intent	5.17
	Main effort	5.20
	Leadership	5.22
	CONCLUDING THE CAMPAIGN	
	COMMAND RELATIONSHIPS	
	Chain of command	5.35
	Status of command	5.37
	COMMAND AND CONTROL ARRANGEMENTS	
	Component method	5.41
	Directive control	5.43
CHAPTER 6	LOGISTIC SUPPORT FOR THE CAMPAIGN	
	General	6.1
	Levels of logistic support	6.3
	STRATEGIC LEVEL LOGISTICS	
	Responsibilities	6.5
	OPERATIONAL LEVEL LOGISTICS	
	Responsibilities	6.11
	TACTICAL LEVEL LOGISTICS	
	Responsibilities	6.13
	Logistic support for combined operations	6.15
CHAPTER 7	COMBINED, COALITION AND MILITARY SUPPORT OPERATIONS	
	Introduction	7.1
	COMMAND OF COMBINED OPERATIONS	
	Combined headquarters	7.5
	National command arrangements	7.7
	Language	7.10
	Liaison	7.11
	COMPOSITION OF COMBINED FORCES	
	PLANNING AND CONDUCT OF COMBINED OPERATIONS	
	WAR AS A COALITION PARTNER	

MILITARY SUPPORT OPERATIONS	
Peace operations	7.34
Principles	7.38
Specific planning considerations	7.40
Command and control of peace operations	7.41
Supplementary information	7.44
Glossary	
Acronyms and Abbreviations	

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Title	Page
2-1	Command levels	2-2
2A-1	Assigned assets	2A-1

SYMBOLS OF PROTECTION

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Understanding war is not simply a matter of drawing lessons from past experiences. Unless those lessons are related to current circumstances, it might be more harmful to try to apply such lessons than simply to ignore the past. The knowledge that underlies the profession of arms evolves, in the main, from appreciating war's intrinsic nature; knowing its guiding principles, doctrine and laws; and studying the conflict potential of various nations. Reasoned judgments and decisions about the application of military force are most likely to be made by individuals with a deep knowledge of their profession. Acquiring that knowledge is the duty of every member of the profession of arms.

1.2 The most fundamental and vital task for the military professional is to understand conflict. Success in the military field, whether in preliminary planning or in the actual conduct of operations, is largely a matter of judgment. Judgment, though partly intuitive, is based mainly on knowledge.

NATURE OF CONFLICT

Every age has its own kind of war, its own limiting conditions and its own peculiar preconceptions.

Major General Carl von Clausewitz

1.3 A knowledge of the nature of war and the reasons for success or failure in past campaigns, when correctly related to modern conditions, will assist a commander to make the right decisions. At the same time, a commander must be flexible in the application of knowledge from past experiences. Slavish adherence to the lessons of the past can be dangerous and can lead to preparing for the wrong war.

1.4 Conflict is a complex phenomenon. Conflict is an armed struggle between organised parties to achieve defined political objectives. It is not ordered, nor does it follow a set of rules. Beyond the danger, exertion, fear, uncertainty and chance that permeate warfare, there are four significant components that characterise its nature. First and foremost, war and conflict contain chaos and confusion that often cloud predictability and outcome. This confusion and uncertainty create a condition which is generally referred to as 'friction'. Secondly, conflict's actions are controlled by the seemingly opposed, but closely interrelated, concepts of offence and defence. Thirdly, its outcome depends on the ability to affect an opponent's central elements, or centres of gravity, while protecting one's own centres of gravity. Finally, irrespective of the type of conflict or the weapons used, wars ultimately are won or lost by people.

Friction

1.5 In theory, conflict might appear to be a simple enterprise. In practice, its conduct is difficult and complex because of the many factors that impinge on it. Those factors have been described by Carl von Clausewitz, as the 'friction of war'. Friction encompasses those countless factors and incidents, perhaps minor in themselves, which singularly and collectively tend to reduce the effectiveness and overall efficiency of military efforts. Friction can be the breakdown in communications that prevents orders getting through or the unforeseen design defect that makes weapons malfunction. Friction is the sum of all of the unexpected factors and elements of chance that retard or prevent the achievement of conflict objectives. Its sources lie in the paralysing effects of danger, the extraordinary demands for exertion, the uncertainties of information and actions and the overall influence of chance on each of the antagonists. Friction, the cumulative effect of all these factors, distinguishes real conflict from theoretical conflict; yet friction is one feature of conflict that is often overlooked or underestimated.

1.6 Thus, conflict can be viewed as a contest of opposing wills that are influenced to varying degrees by friction. It follows that the task of the combat leader is to impose their will on the enemy while containing the singular and collective effects of friction within their own force. Actions taken to increase an adversary's friction are as vital to success as those taken to minimise one's own. Friction remains an important ingredient in the nature of conflict which can never be totally eliminated by human or technical endeavour. Its insidious influence must never be underestimated by commanders.

Friction is the only concept that more or less corresponds to the factors that distinguish real war from war on paper. The military machine ... is composed of individuals, every one of whom retains his potential for friction ... the least important of whom may chance to delay things or somehow make them go wrong.

Major General Carl von Clausewitz

Offence and Defence

1.7 Within warfare there are two interacting components—the offence and the defence. Philosophically, the objective of offence is to destroy or neutralise while the aim of defence is to preserve. Neither can assume absolute primacy in combat and they continually interact. Consequently, each must be accounted for in all aspects of military operations.

In war, the defensive exists mainly that the offensive may act more freely.

Rear Admiral Alfred Thayer Mahan

1.8 Neither successful offence or defence exists in pure form; each posture in practice contains elements of the other. On land, past technology has made it intrinsically easier to defend than to attack, while historically in the air and at sea the converse has been true. Paradoxically though, it is only through offensive action that decisive victory is likely to be attained because usually the most that defence can achieve is a condition of stalemate, which may be the desired national or military strategic end-state. This stalemate would allow the offence to be pursued at the national strategic level through diplomacy, economic sanctions and the other tools of state craft. While the defender may hold the stronger position in most military operations, the attacker has decided advantages. An aggressor can take the initiative by deciding the time, place, strength and method of attack, while the defender must prepare for all contingencies. If a defender seeks a favourable result beyond a stalemate, at some time they probably will have to take the initiative and change to the offensive. The offensive will generally involve higher rates of resource consumption.

Centre of gravity

1.9 There is more to gaining victory than simply taking the offence. Offensive action must be directed in such a way that it will have the greatest impact on an enemy's capacity and will to continue the conflict. There are vital elements within a nation or an alliance that, in comparison with others, are more important to the sustainment of the conflict. Termed the centres of gravity, these elements provide strength and balance to a nation and its armed forces. Centres of gravity can be physical, material, organisational or psychological. Each level of conflict contains vital elements which contribute to a centre of gravity.

1.10 Pressure, or force, applied against an adversary's centre of gravity produces maximum disruption of their ability to fight. Identifying the correct centres of gravity for oneself and one's adversary is critical for the best use of one's capabilities. They might be a critical capability, a strong leader, national will, a command and control centre, perhaps cohesion within an alliance, or a key economic resource or locality. Every armed force has a centre of gravity, but like all others it may be difficult to identify and, moreover, it may change with time.

The strategic centre of gravity was seen as Iraqi command and control, variously described as the Iraqi national command authorities, Saddam Hussein and Ba'athist leadership ... At the operational level, the centre of gravity was seen as the Republican Guard divisions ...

Colonel William W. Mendel
1991 Gulf War

Human factor

1.11 Above all else, conflict is a human enterprise. Wars are fought with machines but are won by people. Ultimately, the human factor is the decisive element in battle. Sound leadership and highly skilled and courageous people operating in cohesive well-trained units are the essential components of that decisive factor. Proper training, sound doctrine, strong and imaginative leadership and high levels of readiness and discipline all generate high morale and, together with firepower, incorporating a technological advantage and manoeuvre, constitute combat power. As success in conflict depends more on the state of morale of the force than on physical qualities, the nature of war demands attention to the human element before any other single factor.

I have written much of generals and staff officers ... the war in Burma was a soldier's war. There comes a moment in every battle against a stubborn enemy when the result hangs in the balance. Then the general, however skilful and farsighted he may have been, must hand over to his soldiers, to the men in the ranks and to their regimental officers and leave them to complete what he has begun.

Field Marshal Viscount Slim
Burma Campaign in WW II

Principles of war

1.12 The principles of war are maxims about waging war at all levels. In some cases they overlap and, on first examination, may appear contradictory. They are not absolute. There is no standardised list of principles between nations. Indeed, nations change their principles from time to time. Unlike the laws of natural science where observance of certain conditions produces a predictable result, the principles of war simply represent a series of fundamental factors that in the past successful commanders have found necessary to consider. Their practical value will depend very much on the individual's skill and understanding of conflict. The principles involve risk and do not guarantee success. The principles of war which guide the planning and conduct of all operations by the Australian Defence Force (ADF) are covered in detail in Australian Defence Force Publication (ADFP) 1—*Doctrine* and can be summarised as:

- a. selection and maintenance of the aim,
- b. concentration of force,
- c. cooperation,
- d. economy of effort,
- e. security,
- f. offensive action,
- g. surprise,
- h. flexibility,
- i. administration, and
- j. morale.

SCOPE OF MILITARY ACTION

Operational continuum

1.13 At the strategic level a range of military operations are conducted within the operational continuum. Inevitably nations will reassess their objectives, both political and military, as conflict progresses; consequently moving to different states in the operational continuum. The five general states are:

- a. peacetime engagement,
- b. tension,
- c. conflict,
- d. war, and
- e. peace.

1.14 Peacetime engagement is a state in which diplomatic and economic measures are employed to achieve national objectives. Cooperative military activity is undertaken in support of diplomacy. Peacetime engagement seeks to avoid violence and promote stability through such measures as joint training exercises, peace operations, regional confidence building or, where necessary, provision of security assistance.

1.15 Tension is a state short of conflict. In times of tension military measures become competitive. Military measures may be covert or attributable and could include limited combat operations in pursuit of political or military objectives. Tension involves a period of uncertainty between organised parties such as nation states and may be a precursor to more extensive military operations.

1.16 Conflict is an armed struggle between organised parties to achieve defined political objectives. Conflict occurs when diplomacy fails to achieve national strategic objectives and hostile military action is initiated. Usually conflict is confined to hostilities short of war and may be protracted, confined to a restricted geographic area and constrained in weaponry or level of violence. Conflict is limited and localised and includes counter-terrorism, counterinsurgency operations and peacetime contingency operations such as Services protected evacuation (SPE) or Services assisted evacuation (SAE).

1.17 When the level of violence increases and is sustained over time conflict approaches the state of war. War is sustained armed conflict between nations or organised groups involving regular and irregular forces in a series of connected campaigns and battles to achieve national objectives. War may be limited or general; it may be declared or undeclared.

1.18 Peace should be the ultimate objective of any national strategic plan and the terms of that peace will be determined by government interpreting the national will.

Definitions

1.19 Military support. The use of military forces or material to assist or sustain another military or non-military effort (Defence assistance to the civil community) or another civil power (Defence Force aid to the civil power) is defined as military support. Examples include airlift support for disaster relief, military engineering, medical or communications support, logistic support or provision of training advisers to a foreign nation.

1.20 Operation. A military action or the carrying out of a strategic, tactical, Service, training or administrative military mission; the process of carrying on combat including movement, supply, attack, defence and manoeuvres needed to gain the objectives of any battle or campaign.

1.21 Campaign. A military campaign is a controlled series of simultaneous or sequential operations designed to achieve an operational commander's objective, normally within a given time or space.

1.22 Theatre. A designated geographic area for which an operational level joint or combined commander is appointed and in which a campaign or series of major operations is conducted. A theatre may contain one or more joint force areas of operations. [Chapter 4—'Campaign planning'](#) and [chapter 5—'Commanding the campaign'](#) of this publication describe the planning and conduct of a campaign within a theatre.

1.23 Joint force area of operations. A joint force area of operations is part of a theatre in which joint force operations are planned and conducted to support the theatre commander's campaign. Some expansion on this definition, relative to particular operational environments, is shown in [paragraph 5.10](#) and each of the supplements to ADFP 6.

AUSTRALIA'S GEOSTRATEGIC CIRCUMSTANCES

1.24 Australia is an island continent isolated from major world powers and with no common land frontier with any other country. While the nature of possible future conflict will always be hard to predict, the enduring nature of Australia's land, sea and air environment provides the long-term basis for our defence planning. Australia's geography continues therefore to be a central factor in deciding the characteristics of our military forces and our concepts for their employment. It is fundamental that any external threat to Australian sovereignty must pass through Australia's maritime approaches.

1.25 The population of Australia is small relative to its area and to other populations in the region, is predominantly urban, has low growth rate and is technologically advanced. Little change is anticipated to the basic pattern of population distribution or density. The relatively low population density outside the south-eastern coastal fringes does not support an extensive infrastructure of roads, railways, telecommunications, ports and airports. Defence planners will continue to find the support of forces in remote areas a difficult and challenging task.

1.26 Australia's industrial base has provided the ADF with a technological edge in defence matters in regional terms. However, it is likely that this technological advantage will be eroded over time as the economies of regional nations expand to allow more sophisticated military technology to be acquired and effectively employed.

Warning

1.27 There is no evidence to suggest that conflicts will always develop predictably and progressively. Rather, history has shown that conflict may start with a surprise attack to enable disproportionate strategic, tactical, material or political advantage.

To be defeated is pardonable; to be surprised—never.

Napoleon

1.28 Judgments about warning are fundamental to Australia's defence posture. Intent and capability are critical elements of warning. Intent alone is an insufficient basis for defence planning, since intentions can change relatively quickly. Consideration should also be given to the capabilities that could be brought to bear and the time scales involved.

1.29 Australia's national strategy addresses the development of military contingencies that could be focused against Australia and its interests. The strategy is to maintain forces capable of responding to threats at short notice as well as a broader range of contingencies over time.

Military support operations

1.30 There are a range of scenarios which may involve the ADF in operations other than the defence of Australian sovereignty. Such operations are likely to be initiated to fulfil international obligations under established treaties and agreements or at the request of the United Nations (UN). Other operations may be mounted to protect Australian interests and Australian citizens overseas. UN peacekeeping, SPE and SAE are examples of such operations.

CHAPTER 2

LEVELS OF CONFLICT

A prince or general can best demonstrate his genius by managing a campaign exactly to suit his objectives and his resources, doing neither too much nor too little.

Major General Carl von Clausewitz

INTRODUCTION

2.1 Conflict and war have been perceived as action on three broad levels: strategic, operational and tactical. Clausewitz distinguished the three levels by relativity in time, space and mass. Modern strategists view the levels as functions of the degree of significance, extent of hostilities and size of military force committed. While each level is definitive in broad terms, all levels are interrelated. It is normal for conflict to be planned and prosecuted at all three levels concurrently. While technology can help the commander, it is their intellectual capacity to sift information, perceive intentions and to conceive and craft a plan that is the critical factor in achieving success. One of the keys to achieving strategic objectives is a thorough understanding of levels of conflict and of the skill of operational art. Operational art is the skilful employment of military forces to attain strategic goals through the design, organisation, sequencing and direction of campaigns and major operations.

2.2 The Australian Defence Force recognises three broad levels of conflict:

- a. **Strategic level of conflict.** The strategic level of conflict is concerned with the art and science of employing national power in a synchronised fashion to secure national objectives. The strategic level of conflict includes:
 - (1) **National strategic level of conflict.** National strategy is the application of national resources to achieve national objectives. This will include diplomatic, information, psychological, economic and military resources.
 - (2) **Military strategic level of conflict.** Military strategy is the application of military resources to achieve national strategic objectives. The military strategic level encompasses the art and science of employing armed force to achieve a political objective.
- b. **Operational level of conflict.** Campaigns and major operations are constructed and directed at the operational level in fulfilment of a strategic directive. It is the operational level that provides the link between military strategic objectives and all tactical activity in the theatre of operations. The focus at this level is on operational art—the use of military forces to achieve strategic goals through the design, organisation and execution of campaigns and major operations.
- c. **Tactical level of conflict.** Battles and engagements within a sequence of major operations are planned and executed at the tactical level in order to achieve the operational objectives of a campaign.

COMMAND

2.3 The matching of command authorities to the levels of conflict is complex and in most cases presents an inexact description due to the overlap of responsibilities between levels; however, some alignment serves to aid an understanding of how key command authorities fit within the levels of conflict. [Figure 2–1](#) shows the relationship of command to the three levels of conflict. Further examples of the relationship between the different levels of command are given in [annex A](#).

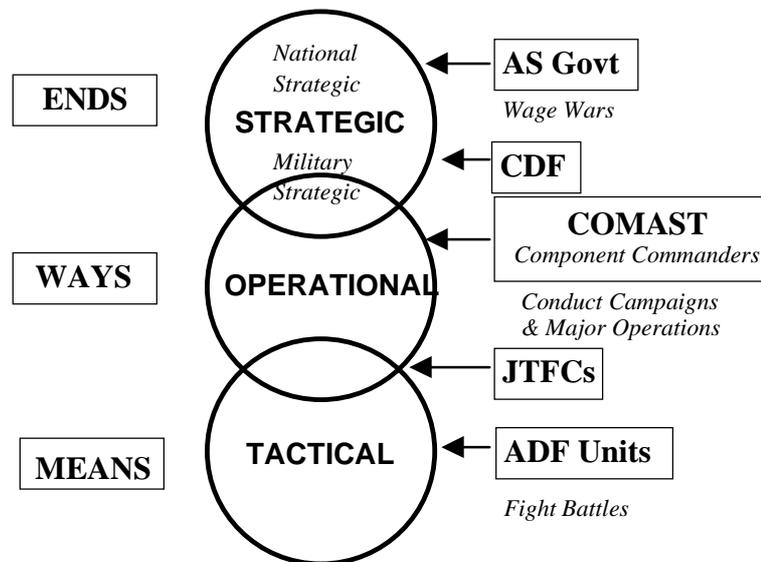


Figure 2-1: Command levels

Command at the national strategic level

The national strategy of any war, that is, the selection of national objectives and the determination of the general means and methods to be applied in obtaining them, as well as development of the broad policies applicable to the prosecution of the war, are decisions that must be made by the head of state, acting in conformity with the expressed will of the Government ...

General of the Army Douglas MacArthur

2.4 The purpose of national strategy is to direct and provide coherence to overall national, alliance or coalition policy, including military and non-military aspects. National strategy is therefore the exclusive province of governments, whether acting independently or in concert with other governments through a multinational organisation such as the United Nations, an alliance established by treaty such as the Australian, New Zealand and United States Treaty or an ad hoc coalition such as that formed to prosecute the 1990–91 Gulf War. National strategic responsibilities are to:

- a. determine the political objectives to be achieved and monitor progress towards their achievement;
- b. stipulate and monitor the limitations and conditions to be imposed on the military, including the circumstances in which military activity should cease (ie end-state); and
- c. make available the requisite resources, including the direction of the national industrial base.

2.5 In short, national strategy defines objectives in terms of what government wishes to be achieved. It provides resources needed to achieve the desired objective without detailing how these resources are to be employed and it may impose broad political limitations. At this level the authority lies with government. Strategic level military objectives must be matched against national military capability. A national strategic or military strategic objective must be achievable. Chief of the Defence Force (CDF) and the Secretary provide the advice needed by government to assist in deriving national strategic objectives and to assign realistic military strategic objectives.

Command at the military strategic level

2.6 Military strategy is the application of military resources to achieve the military aspects of national interests and objectives ie, the ends. In multinational or alliance operations national authorities in consultation with the other partners in the operation will determine the level and type of military contribution. CDF commands at this level and is responsible for:

- a. assessing the national military strategies available to achieve strategic objectives in light of those political, humanitarian and economic imperatives which constrain the application of military force;
- b. identifying the military strategic objectives and assessing their feasibility;
- c. identifying the end-state and providing operational planning guidance for Commander Australian Theatre to develop operational objectives which will constitute success;
- d. considering any political, financial or legal limitations on the use of military force, with particular regard to alliance or coalition partners;
- e. allocating forces and resources to each campaign and appointing commanders who will exercise degrees of operational authority over their command;
- f. approving the operational level commander's operational objectives and concept of operations and where necessary adjusting resources, and monitoring the execution of the campaign; and
- g. establishing the military strategic command organisation specific to the campaign.

2.7 Military strategic planning must include proactive contingency planning and the development of military strategic options that will subsequently affect tasking to the operational level.

Command at the operational level

2.8 The theatre commander is the senior operational level commander for the theatre. Dependent upon the size and nature of the level of conflict subordinate joint task force commanders may be allocated, any one of whom could also be designated as a combined force commander. The distinction between command at the military strategic and operational levels of conflict will rarely be tidy. In seeking to differentiate between these two levels the key distinction is that:

... whereas the operational level commander orders the activities of his assigned formations and units in pursuit of his own campaign plan, the military strategic authority is confined to allocating objectives and resources and setting necessary limitations.

General of the Army Douglas MacArthur

2.9 Campaigns and operations are planned and directed at the operational level to achieve strategic objectives. It is the level which links military strategic objectives and all tactical activity in the theatre. It is at the operational level that military resources are directed to campaign objectives to achieve the end-state. The theatre commander (Commander Australian Theatre) will design a campaign plan within a designated theatre, command assigned forces, direct major operations of the campaign and be responsible for:

- a. determining what operational objectives are necessary to achieve the end-state;
- b. determining in what sequence operational objectives should be achieved;
- c. determining the concept of operations, which normally should be endorsed at the military strategic level;
- d. determining the resources required to achieve the operational objectives and allocating those resources as necessary for subordinate commanders to achieve their tactical missions;
- e. setting priorities for the provision of combat and logistic support to sustain tactical battles;
- f. directing the activities of those formations, ships, aircraft and other units or assets not delegated to subordinate commanders, especially those earmarked as operational level reserves; and
- g. keeping the military strategic commander informed of their actions, problems and future plans and maintaining awareness of considerations affecting the military strategic commander and the latter's possible future intentions.

2.10 The link between the strategic and tactical levels must provide the ways of using the tactical means to achieve strategic/national ends. To do this the operational commander develops a concept of operations, drafts a campaign plan and conducts major operations. A campaign plan provides:

- a. the anticipated sequence of activities;
- b. key milestones to be achieved;
- c. a definition of what constitutes success;
- d. guidance to subordinate commanders for taking action in the absence of specific orders, designed to engender initiative in order to maintain operational momentum; and
- e. branches and sequels.

Command at the tactical level

2.11 Battles and engagements within a sequence of major operations are planned and executed at the tactical level in order to achieve the operational objectives of a campaign. It is at the tactical level that fighting units and combat personnel are deployed for combat. Tactical success can rarely overcome ill-conceived or poorly directed approaches or strategies at the higher levels of conflict.

2.12 Command at the tactical level is exercised by formation and unit commanders who must be given maximum flexibility by the operational level commander to exercise tactical command of assigned forces. Command at the tactical level may be thought of as the ordering of formations and units to fight battles and engagements, ie achieving operational objectives to meet strategic/national ends.

The Japanese won a tactical victory in the Battle of the Coral Sea, in the sense that they inflicted greater losses than they sustained. However, most significantly they suffered a strategic defeat—their first major setback of the war.

Colonel E.G. Keogh

2.13 The South-West Pacific Area at the tactical level commanders who have been given the maximum flexibility to act are obliged to ensure that they remain informed of the factors affecting the operational and strategic level commanders above them to ensure that their actions remain in accordance with the planned end-state.

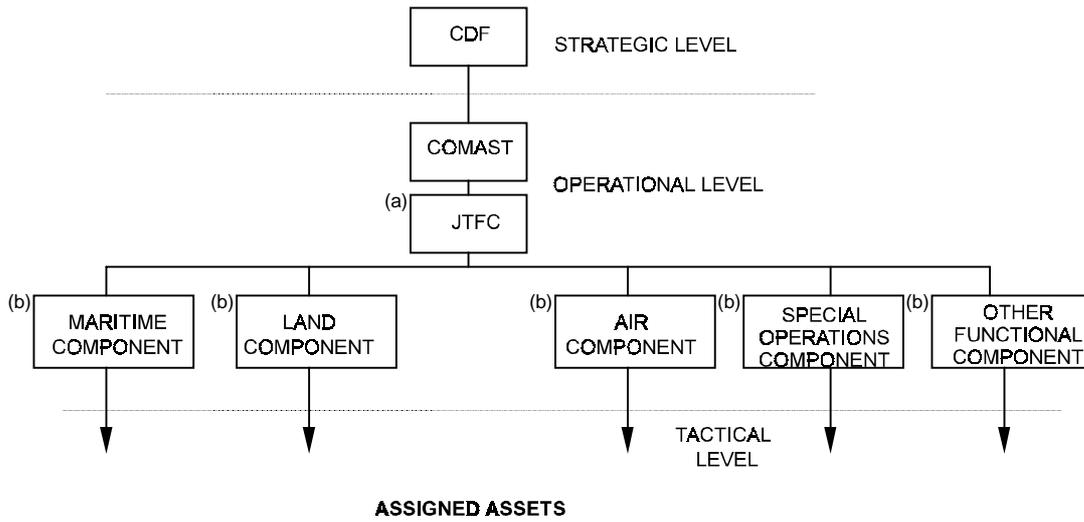
2.14 An overview of the strategy for the South-West Pacific campaign, in [annex B](#), provides an insight into command at the various levels of conflict and their interrelationship.

Annexes:

- A. [Levels of command](#)
- B. [Strategy in the South–West Pacific Area—1942](#)

LEVELS OF COMMAND

1. The following diagram is generic and might be used to indicate possible appointments and levels of command.



Notes

- (a) COMAST may be the JTFC or may appoint a JTFC depending on the scale of the operation.
- (b) Depending on the type of operation, not all component commanders may be required.

Figure 2A-1: Assigned assets

STRATEGY IN THE SOUTH–WEST PACIFIC AREA—1942

Scene

1. The South-West Pacific Campaign employed a maritime strategy in which control of the sea was to determine success. The first part of the campaign was to secure Port Moresby. For the Japanese, Port Moresby would have safeguarded Rabaul and their positions in New Guinea while the Allies needed to retain Port Moresby as it was deemed essential for the security of Australia but it would also serve as a springboard for future offensives. This appreciation was not lost on the Australian Government.

National strategic level

It was the Australian Government which took the initiative in proposing a strategy for the war in the South Pacific; it was not based on the continental defence of Australia and the decisions were reached some three weeks before General MacArthur arrived here.

John Dedman
Member of the War Cabinet

2. Curtin was appreciative of the position that Japan's entry into the war placed on continental Australia. However, he agreed that if Japan was to be defeated then Australia and New Zealand were 'the only bases for offensive action by the Allied nations against the Japanese from the Western Pacific'. Australia's national strategy was that the war had to be fought in the South Pacific and not on the Australian mainland. An interesting note is that it was not the intention of the Japanese Imperial General Headquarters to invade Australia but rather to seize the islands to the north and north-east thereby effectively isolating Australia.

Military strategic level

From the outset it had been agreed between General MacArthur and myself that as soon as possible we would move to the offensive against Japan as far north as we could proceed. But it was essential first to ensure that the defence of vital areas should be secured.

General Sir Thomas Blamey

3. Thus on 31 March 1942, Blamey presented proposals to the War Cabinet for the creation of two armies covering eastern and southern Australia, a corps in Western Australia and the reinforcement of Darwin. Having secured Australia, the planning staff examined the situation; they recognised that the successful defence of Port Moresby would be a decisive point in the campaign.

Operational level

4. Both the Australian and American headquarters staff discounted the possibility of an overland approach on Port Moresby, even after the Japanese had landed at Buna on 22 July 1942 and advanced towards Kokoda. MacArthur later wrote that in anticipation of the Japanese attack in New Guinea, he:

moved headquarters forward to Brisbane and then to Port Moresby. If I could secure Moresby, I would force the enemy to fight on ground of my selection—across the barrier of the Owen Stanley Range.

What actually happened was noted by A.J. Sweeting:

The truth surely is that the early conduct of the Papua operations was directed by the enemy with the allied forces under General MacArthur responding, sometimes belatedly, to known enemy plans.

5. The Kokoda campaign was a response to unexpected offensive action. The culminating point for the Japanese came at Imita Ridge.

Confirm your orders to Eather (Brigadier K.W. Eather). Stress the fact that however many troops the enemy has, they must have walked from Buna. We are now so far back that any further withdrawal is out of the question and Eather must fight it out at all costs. I am playing for time until the 16 Inf Bde arrives.

General S. Rowell
16 September 1942

Tactical level

6. Brigadier Eather made a skilful and orderly withdrawal, his rear parties inflicting severe casualties on the Japanese. By 20 September the Australians were firmly established on Imita Ridge. From Imita Ridge he covered his front with very strong fighting patrols to keep the Japanese at a distance while he made his preparations for a counter offensive.

7. The Japanese were now so weary and hungry that General Horii doubted that they could hold their ground. Their lines of communications had extended beyond their breaking point, with scarcely a crumb to eat in the forward area. The Australians had a relatively short line of communication and were able to be resupplied both overland and by air. Horii had taken an administrative risk, but his luck ran out at Ioribaiwa.

8. Eather's counterattack commenced on 28 September as planned, but encountered no opposition. At the last moment the Japanese had slipped away, Horii having been ordered to fall back on Buna.

Acknowledgments

Colonel E.G. Keogh—*The South West Pacific 1941–45*, Grayflower Productions Melbourne 1965, chapter 4.

Potter and Nimitz—*Seapower*, Prentice and Hall Inc, Englewood Cliffs NJ 160, p 662.

CHAPTER 3

OPERATIONAL ART

Introduction

3.1 Operational art is the skilful employment of military forces to attain strategic goals through the design, organisation, sequencing and direction of campaigns and major operations. Operational art translates strategy into operational and ultimately tactical action. It requires a commander to: identify the military conditions—or end-state—that constitute their given strategic objective; decide the operational objectives that must be achieved to reach the desired end-state; order a sequence of actions that lead to fulfilment of the operational objectives; and apply the military resources allocated to sustain the commander's desired sequence of actions.

Approaches to the operational level of war

3.2 When a campaign plan is being constructed either a direct or indirect approach will be developed. In the direct approach, the basic concept is that military force is brought to bear via the quickest and most direct route; attrition is generally high. The direct approach should only be adopted when a superiority of force exists or circumstances preclude an indirect approach. This superiority can be in either the quantity or quality of the force and particularly with a technological advantage. The design, organisation, sequencing and application of those superior forces is intended to grind an enemy down through attrition.

3.3 An indirect approach is the basis of all forms of conflict in which a decision is sought, not directly by means of a clash between forces but by less direct methods which might include political, economic or types of military force, particularly with technological advantage, interspersed with negotiations.

The expert approaches his objective indirectly. By selection of a devious and distant route he may march a thousand li without opposition and take his enemy unaware. Such a commander prizes above all freedom of action. He abhors a static situation and therefore attacks cities only when there is no alternative. Sieges, wasteful in both lives and time, entail abdication of the initiative.

Sun Tzu

3.4 During the South-West Pacific Campaign General MacArthur did not have the maritime or air forces to adopt a direct approach. In his indirect approach at the strategic and operational levels MacArthur designed, organised and sequenced his forces in such a way as to penetrate the outer defences of the Japanese and bypass/isolate the Japanese strongpoints. These strongpoints were left to wither on the vine and consequently this indirect approach minimised allied casualties. At the tactical level his land forces occasionally adopted a direct approach when necessary to achieve a particular objective.

Decision cycles

3.5 A command and control system encompasses all the capabilities and actions that: allow a commander to observe a theatre of operations; assess what those observations imply about the campaign; use that assessment to make timely, effective decisions; and communicate those decisions as orders to subordinate commanders to control the course of the campaign. The implementation of orders by both sides changes the situation in the area of operations. These changes, in turn, must be observed, assessed and acted upon in a continuous process. This process is a 'decision cycle'.

3.6 Time taken to observe, orient, decide and act varies between military organisations and is a function of technology, training, leadership and to some extent culture. The commander who can gather and process information, and initiate action to affect operations most quickly, will have a decided military advantage. Conceptually, the ability to process information into action via the cycle at a quicker pace than the opposition is known as 'getting inside' the opponent's decision cycle by making the friendly force cycle shorter than the enemy's. A commander may achieve a tighter decision cycle by:

- a. disrupting the opponent's decision cycle;
- b. slowing down the processing of information through an opponent's decision cycle;

- c. influencing the opponent's perception of 'reality' in the theatre or joint force area of operations;
- d. preventing the opponent from disrupting, slowing down or influencing the friendly force decision cycle; and
- e. facilitating our own decision-making process.

Components

3.7 In seeking to structure major operations, battles and engagements in pursuit of the strategic objective, theatre commanders should design their campaign plans around a number of 'building blocks', which help visualise how the campaign will unfold. Utilising the 'building blocks' to achieve operational objectives is the essence of operational art. The 'building blocks' of operational art are listed below (and described in greater detail in [paragraphs 3.9](#) to 3.55):

- a. **Operational objectives.** These are the objectives that need to be achieved in the campaign to reach the military strategic end-state. Correct assessment of operational objectives is crucial to success at the operational level.
- b. **End-state.** End-state is identified at the national and military levels as follows:
 - (1) The national end-state is the set of desired conditions, incorporating the elements of national power, that will achieve the national objectives.
 - (2) The military end-state is the set of desired conditions beyond which the use of military force is no longer required to achieve national objectives.
- c. **Centre of gravity.** The key characteristic, capability or locality from which a military force, nation or alliance derives its freedom of action, strength or will to fight at that level of conflict. The centre of gravity at each level of conflict may be diffuse or surrounded by competing decisive points.
- d. **Critical vulnerabilities.** Those characteristics from which a military force, nation or alliance derives its freedom of action, strength or will to fight at that level of conflict.
- e. **Decisive points.** The attack on a critical vulnerability, if successful, results in a decisive point. Decisive points are those events, the successful outcome of which contributes to the necessary fundamental change to the centre of gravity.
- f. **Lines of operation.** Lines of operation describe how military force is applied in time and space through decisive points on the path to the enemy's centre of gravity. The progress towards the enemy's centre of gravity and the destruction of the enemy's decisive points may be measured by operational milestones.
- g. **Operational milestones.** Aids to understanding the pace and sequencing process are operational milestones. They are specific goals which impact critically on the sequence of the campaign.
- h. **Sequencing.** Sequencing is the arrangement of events within a campaign in the order most likely to achieve the elimination of the enemy's centre of gravity.
- i. **Command and control warfare.** An approach to military operations which employs all measures (including but not limited to operations security, military deception, psychological operations, electronic warfare, computer operations and targeting) in a deliberate and integrated manner, mutually supported by intelligence and communications and information systems, to disrupt or inhibit an adversary's ability to command and control the forces while protecting and enhancing our own.
- j. **Manoeuvre.** The concept of manoeuvre fully embraces the indirect approach and its application across maritime, land and air environments is explained in [paragraphs 3.39](#) to 3.46 and within the supplements to Australian Defence Force Publication 6. However,

due to the higher mobility of air assets and the rapidity with which they can change their tasking or offensive/defensive stance, manoeuvre is normally a tactical action for military air assets. An extract of the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation definition is:

Employment of forces ... through movement in combination with fire or fire potential, to achieve a position of advantage in respect to the enemy in order to accomplish the mission.

- k. **Tempo.** Tempo is the rate or rhythm of activity relative to the enemy. It incorporates the capacity of the force to transition from one operational posture to another. Tempo is a critical determinant of operational logistics.
- l. **Attrition.** Attrition is the reduction of military effectiveness or capability of either friendly or enemy forces caused by the continued loss of personnel or material. Rates of attrition determine the progress and likely ultimate outcome of a campaign embracing the direct approach.
- m. **Leverage.** This refers to possessing a marked advantage in a particular capability and the advantage that can be gained by exploiting that capability.
- n. **Operational pauses.** Operations cannot be conducted continuously and there may be a need for periodic pauses to consolidate.
- o. **Culminating points.** A culminating point is the point in time and location where a force will no longer be stronger than the enemy and risk losing the initiative. This may be due to reduced combat power, attrition, logistics, dwindling national will or other factors. To be successful, the operation must achieve its objectives before reaching its culminating point.
- p. **Contingency planning.** Contingency plans are designed to provide responses for events which can reasonably be anticipated in an area of responsibility.

3.8 A thorough understanding of these key concepts is essential for operational art.

Operational objectives and the end-state

3.9 Operational objectives are the military goals that need to be achieved to satisfy the end-state. Therefore, a crucial early task facing the commander at the operational level is to determine what military conditions constitute success in relation to the end-state as defined by the military strategic commander. Once identified, these conditions remain paramount. Analysis of strategic direction as part of a rigorous appreciation process is a vital prelude. This suggests the need for dialogue between the theatre commander and Australian Defence Headquarters to ensure unity of effort and the early and unequivocal establishment of operational objectives that can then become a firm basis for campaign planning. Chief of the Defence Force will approve operational objectives and the campaign plan.

3.10 Poorly defined or competing objectives can place commanders in a dilemma, possibly giving the enemy increased freedom of action. Failure by the British Government to agree or correctly identify the military strategic objectives foiled attempts by General Wavell to achieve total control in North Africa.

The British ignored an elementary principle of 'always hit where you're winning' by not consolidating their Cyrenaica victory and possibly extending their advance to Tripoli. They chose instead to embark upon an adventure that had no chance of success.

Colonel E.G. Keogh
Middle East 1939-43

3.11 The British Government concluded that they should retain the ability to intervene in the Balkans and adhered to their policy of halting Wavell's advance when a secure flank for Egypt had been gained by the capture of Benghazi. The decision to send an expeditionary force to Greece precluded the possibility of pushing on to Tripoli and defeat the Italian Army in North Africa. General O'Connor had been keen to press on to Sirte with his forces, and if the situation warranted it, to capture Tripoli also. Indeed the Italian and German General Staffs were astonished that the British did not pursue their move further westward. The first desert campaign concluded on the morning of 7 February 1941 with the surrender of the Italians at Beda Fomm. Five days later, the commander designate of the *Deutsche Afrika Korps*, Lieutenant General Erwin Rommel arrived in Tripoli.

Centre of gravity

3.12 The centre of gravity is that vital element of the enemy's and *our own* overall capability that, if destroyed or neutralised, will lead to defeat and at the national strategic level the wish to sue for peace. A more complete definition is: that key characteristic, capability or locality from which a military force, nation or alliance derives its freedom of action, strength or will to fight at that level of conflict. It is a concept which must always relate to our strategic and operational objectives. At the strategic level the centre of gravity may be an abstraction such as the enemy's public opinion or perhaps the strength of political purpose. Ideally, and by definition, there should only be one centre of gravity; but in practice, the centre of gravity may be so diffuse or undiscernible that it may be unwise to identify one single facet as the enemy's centre of gravity. In other circumstances the enemy's centre of gravity may not be accessible. Correctly identifying the strategic centre of gravity of the adversary should be the primary responsibility of national intelligence agencies.

3.13 Where one centre of gravity is discernible and accessible it becomes the focus for which a campaign is planned. As a consequence, the selection of the operational centre of gravity may require a readjustment of strategic goals. There should only be one centre of gravity in any one level of conflict; this becomes the highest priority target while critical vulnerabilities will be targeted to create decisive points indirectly effect the centre of gravity. There is an obvious interrelationship between the strategic centre of gravity and the operational centre of gravity, as destruction of an operational centre of gravity that is more accessible may contribute significantly to the elimination of the strategic centre of gravity. This was well illustrated by a quotation from the principal planner for DESERT STORM:

At the strategic level we decided that Saddam Hussein was the key, but that we could do nothing about him legally or ethically. We could and did isolate him and cause the battle to be fought without centralised command. The Republican Guard was the focus at the operational level. If we could mass our ground forces on the Republican Guard without fighting any other force, we had perfect success. Also, if the Republican Guard left the theatre, surrendered, or were defeated, we still had, in our opinion, dealt appropriately with the centre of gravity.

G. Waters
Gulf Lesson One—The Value of Air Power

Saddam Hussein's power base was heavily dependent on the continued existence of the Republican Guard, as was his ability to defend Kuwait. Neutralising the Republican Guard was the key to achieving the operational objective—the mandated liberation of Kuwait—and, if totally successful, would have eliminated a major source of his power.

3.14 The relationship between strategic and operational centres of gravity can also be illustrated in the Malayan campaign. The strategic centre of gravity for the insurgents was their dependence on the disaffected Chinese Malay population. Templer countered this by identifying the need to make the Chinese population feel they had a stake in the future of the country; this required a commitment to independence. At the operational level the terrorists dependency on logistics derived from the same source and directed Templer to isolate the terrorists from that support. Once this had been established, the necessary elements of the subsequent campaign were easily identifiable.

3.15 Should the centre of gravity at the strategic level be identified as physical, for example a vital installation, or at the operational level as say, a military formation, then the military approach is clearer. However, if it is identified as an abstraction such as the enemy's cohesion, then its elimination is less straightforward. Destroying the enemy's cohesion may require a combination of attacks on specific segments of the enemy's combat power. In these circumstances an enemy force may find it difficult to conceal and protect the source of its cohesion. The enemy's command, control and communications system or the morale of their troops may be the key to the cohesion of their force and therefore a possible centre of gravity. At the tactical level, the destruction of the enemy's centre of gravity is likely to be the only decisive point, which once identified will become the focus of the current battle or engagement. However, an irregular military force conducting operations to achieve political objectives may appear amorphous and have diverse military objectives, means and methods, thus presenting a less easily identified centre of gravity.

3.16 Just as a commander needs to assess the enemy's centre of gravity and its vulnerability, they must also be aware of their centre of gravity and its fragility. During the 1991 Gulf War the integrity of the Coalition was arguably its strategic centre of gravity. That integrity might have been imperilled had Israel embarked upon military operations against Iraq. Saddam Hussein's provocation of Israel was a well-judged attack on what Saddam Hussein perceived to be the coalition's strategic centre of gravity.

The prompt dispatch to Israel of a high-level United States negotiating team and of Patriot missiles was a deft response which was significantly reinforced by the high priority subsequently allocated to 'SCUD hunting'.

The essence of operational art lies in being able to mass, in some way, our resources against the enemy's main source of power—his centre of gravity, so that we can destroy or neutralise it.

United States publication FM 100–5

3.17 There is no reason why a centre of gravity must be attacked directly, especially if it is judged to be the enemy's major combat element. An indirect approach, which applies pressure to critical vulnerabilities on which that centre of gravity depends will offer an alternative to direct attack on the centre of gravity and may improve the prospects for success.

Critical vulnerabilities

3.18 The destruction or neutralisation of the centre of gravity is made possible by successfully attacking critical vulnerabilities that allow access to it. It follows that an enemy vulnerability is probably not worth attacking unless it relates to their centre of gravity.

3.19 Critical vulnerabilities will be selected to allow access towards the enemy centre of gravity; they are part of the core function of striking. Most will be pre-planned. For example, it was the fixing operations of the British Second Army in the eastern part of the Normandy bridgehead around Caen in 1944 that allowed the US First Army the freedom of action to develop decisive operations to the West. Some may be opportunistic, for example, the premature commitment of the 4th and 21st Egyptian Division across the Suez Canal in 1973 allowed the Israeli divisions of Generals Sharon and Adan access to the Egyptian operational centre of gravity, the air defence assets on the West Bank of the Suez Canal.

Decisive points

3.20 Exploiting critical vulnerabilities achieves decisive points which are the key events to unlocking the enemy's and our own centre of gravity. Decisive points may not have a geographical relevance and may not involve battle. The key consideration is the effect on the enemy and ourselves. Identifying decisive points is a fundamental part of campaign planning. During the course of the campaign new opportunities and changing circumstances may occur which require a rapid reappraisal or an adjustment to previously determined decisive points. Conversely, the term decisive point may be used to describe an event required to protect one's own campaign plan.

3.21 Decisive points may sometimes appear to have little immediate relevance, but their significance may lie in the preconditions they establish to the successful unfolding of the campaign plan. The following example of a highly successful tactical mission had a marked effect at the operational level in the New Guinea campaign. In the battle of the Bismark Sea an attack on Japanese troop transports by:

13 Beaufighters (RAAF), each armed with four cannons in the nose and six machine guns in the wings, 'went into the target with flights in line astern'. Flying at 500 feet when they came within the reach of anti-aircraft fire, they 'then lost height rapidly and using rated power attacked in line abreast at a speed of 220 knots'. 13 B-17s had come into position above to drop their bombs just as the Beaufighters began their sweep. 13 B-25s followed the Beaufighters in for a standard bombing attack from medium altitude. Then came 12 of the 90th Squadron's B-25 C1's in probably the most successful attack of all. Coming down to 500 feet above the now widely dispersed and rapidly manoeuvring vessels, the new strafers broke formation as each pilot sought his own targets. The forward-firing .50s beat down opposing AA, and 500 pound bombs struck ship after ship. Out of the 37 bombs dropped, 17 were claimed as direct hits.

Odgers
Air War Against Japan

In the action above 12 vessels were sunk, and out of a total of 6900 troops loaded at Rabaul, about 3600 soldiers of the 51st Division were lost. Only 950 reached Lae. The real significance of the victory lay in the importance of air power to an effective South-West Pacific Campaign and the denial to the Japanese thereafter of any hope of swiftly building up their bases in the Lae-Salamaua area by sea.

Lines of operation

3.22 Lines of operation describe how military force is applied in time and space through decisive points on the path to the centre of gravity. However, lines of operation are not synonymous with physical axes of advance. Furthermore, air power may be used to bypass physical lines of operation by applying military force against an adversary's centre of gravity.

3.23 Lines of operation establish the relationship between decisive points and ensure that events are tackled in a logical progression. The approach to the centre of gravity may be direct or indirect and the best approach may be along multiple lines of operation, a concept which has common usage in the term a 'twin-track approach'. Trying to respond to multiple lines of operation will ultimately overload the enemy commander—the object of simultaneity. Where decisive points are physical, a line of operation can be defined in physical terms; connecting the force from its base of operations (from which it draws its combat power) to operational objectives (where it applies its combat power against the enemy). Where the decisive points are equally substantive but intangible, the linkages between them will be harder to define. Furthermore, exploitation of these decisive points by, inter alia, electromagnetic, psychological or moral attack may be more protracted and a successful outcome will be harder to confirm with precision.

3.24 Lines of operation may be interior or exterior. A force (at whatever level) inside separated enemy forces enjoys the advantage of interior lines and by moving quickly, could defeat each opposing force in turn. At the strategic level, the concept was of great value to Germany, often faced with enemies on both flanks. At the operational and tactical levels, a commander can use manoeuvre to exploit enemy dispersion, achieving interior lines of operation and defeating a larger force in detail.

Operational milestones

3.25 In operations, operational milestones have particular relevance, especially where there are a number of quite separate activities independent and complementary of one another. The rate at which operational milestones are achieved is a direct measure of the success of the campaign.

Sequencing

3.26 Sequencing is the arrangement of events within a campaign in the order most likely to achieve the elimination of the enemy's centre of gravity. When considering physical lines of operation, sequencing is the conduct of a logical progression of operations, battles and engagements fought through decisive points. However, airpower can be used as an alternative to sequential operations by applying military force against an adversary's centre of gravity.

3.27 Sequencing is often critical when assets are limited. It is unlikely that a commander will be able to achieve success by a single operational gambit. The commander must therefore have a clear conception of the relationship between events in terms of time, space and resources. Without this, the commander cannot establish which events can be done simultaneously, which events have to be done in sequence and the order in which events should occur. For example, in the Gulf War the sequence of operations outlined below was followed with targets being attacked simultaneously within each operation:

	Sequence	Simultaneous Targets
a.	Air operations	Command systems Counter air—Air Force and air defence systems Biological and chemical capabilities
b.	Air operations	Logistic targets Communications (transport) and isolation of the battlefield
c.	Air operations	Ground forces, Republican Guard
d.	Land/air operations	Republican Guard

As the campaign unfolded, unexpected success allowed the sequence to be altered, thereby increasing the simultaneous conduct of operations.

3.28 In 1940, the original plan for the Luftwaffe campaign to gain air supremacy over Britain prior to a possible invasion had a similarly clear sequence: destruction of the Chain Home Radar system, elimination of the Fighter Command Sector stations, drawing in the reserve squadrons from northern England—leading to air supremacy. In the event, they were distracted by a tactically insignificant Royal Air Force raid on Berlin, which in itself became a decisive point because the Germans abandoned their logical sequence of events and furthermore diverted resources to escorting bombers attacking London—a new and irrelevant operational objective made worse for its impact on hardening British and Commonwealth resolve.

3.29 Phasing. If a military strategic objective is not attainable by a single tactical action at a single place and time, the theatre commander designs a campaign or major operation comprising several related phases sequenced over time to achieve that aim. Phasing is a way of organising the extended and dispersed activities of the campaign or major operation into more manageable parts that allow flexibility and concentration of force in execution. The major operation anticipates a series of actions that will lead to the operational level objective. The first phase of a major operation may be defined in great detail, while actions that follow may be less clear. However, clarity of the operational objectives is absolutely essential to operational level success.

3.30 Phases may occur simultaneously as well as sequentially. The theatre commander devises the operational combination of actions that most effectively and quickly achieves the strategic objective. Phases of a campaign are usually driven by events, not time. However, political considerations may also trigger phase changes. Examples of events that may trigger phase changes include the following:

- a. operational objectives for that phase have been met and reallocation of resources are required for a subsequent phase,
- b. additional friendly forces are available,
- c. changes in command relationships or areas of responsibility are needed,
- d. the enemy reacts in an anticipated and desired manner, or
- e. changes in the theatre main effort by component or function.

3.31 Each phase must be generally distinguishable from the others as a distinct episode, but it is linked to the others and gains significance only in the larger context of the major operations or campaign. Each phase is an essential component in a connected string of events related in cause and effect. In considering the phasing of the campaign, the operational commander looks closely at deployment to ensure that forces arrive at times and places that support the campaign.

3.32 Branches. Campaign plans also offer options for current operations and for the period following the coming battle. Branches to the plan, or options for changing dispositions, orientations or direction of movement and accepting or declining battle, preserve the commander's freedom of action. Such provisions for flexibility anticipate the enemy's likely actions and give the commander a means of dealing with them quickly. Expressed as contingency plans, such branches from the plan can be of

decisive importance since they shorten the friendly decision cycle and may allow the commander to act faster than the opponent. Preservation of a commander's freedom of action or initiative is a fundamental objective of any commander.

3.33 Sequels. The commander must adjust operations to the outcomes of tactical engagements. These actions after battle, or sequels, are an important means of anticipating courses of action and accelerating the decision cycle. Sequels to a future battle are based on possible outcomes—victory, defeat, stalemate or partial achievement of objectives. Sequels establish general dispositions, objectives, and missions for subordinate units after the battle which can be amended as necessary and ordered into effect.

Command and control warfare

3.34 Command and control warfare is defined as:

An approach to military operations which employs all measures (including but not limited to operations security, military deception, psychological operations, electronic warfare, computer operations and targeting) in a deliberate and integrated manner, mutually supported by intelligence and communications and information systems, to disrupt or inhibit an adversary's ability to command and control his forces while protecting and enhancing our own.

3.35 The concept of command and control warfare is not new, but the application of modern methods and equipment have greatly increased the range of options available to disrupt an enemy's command process. Command and control warfare embraces, but is not necessarily limited to, a number of specialised warfare disciplines such as psychological operations, operations security, physical attack, electronic warfare and deception which, when combined with accurate and timely intelligence, produce a synergistic effect. The elements of command and control warfare are discussed in greater detail in [annex A](#).

3.36 Command and control warfare is applicable at all three levels of conflict and is divided into attack and protection categories. The philosophy centres on the identification of an enemy's key command and control nodes and subjecting them to selective attack, neutralisation or exploitation while at the same time identifying the vulnerability of own forces and taking appropriate steps to protect or reduce such vulnerability.

3.37 Command and control attack. Offensive command and control warfare can be particularly effective, and often the most economical way of reducing an adversary's combat effectiveness. Command and control attack is applicable at all levels of war. The primary objectives of command and control attack are to:

- a. sever a commander from their forces (or deny a commander the ability to command their forces);
- b. degrade the enemy commander's command and control cycle;
- c. deny the enemy commander vital information or provide misleading information;
- d. slow down the tempo of the enemy's operations; and
- e. disrupt the enemy commander's ability to generate combat power.

3.38 Command and control protection. Safeguarding friendly command and control systems is a fundamental consideration, as failure is likely to result in loss of freedom of action and initiative, misdirection of effort or total failure of the operation. The primary objectives of command and control protection are to:

- a. reduce the vulnerability of command and control assets and installations to attack to preserve the commander's ability to command their forces;
- b. reduce the effects of enemy deception against friendly command and control systems;
- c. nullify the effect of enemy electronic warfare against friendly command and control installations;
- d. deny the enemy's ability to exploit friendly command and control systems; and
- e. ensure that the enemy's psychological operations are ineffective.

Manoeuvre

3.39 At the operational and strategic levels, the aim of manoeuvre is to manipulate the conflict environment and forces to achieve a position of advantage with respect to the enemy from which force can be threatened or applied. Such manoeuvre will invariably be directed towards a decisive point or directly at the centre of gravity. Manoeuvre is the means of concentrating force to achieve surprise, psychological shock, physical momentum and moral dominance. At the operational and strategic levels manoeuvre involves more than just movement; it requires an attitude of mind that seeks to do nothing less than unhinge the entire basis of the enemy's operational plan. While the application of manoeuvre in each environment is further described in each of the supplements, campaign commanders should have a fundamental understanding of the unique aspects of:

- a. manoeuvre from the sea;
- b. the techniques of penetration, envelopment and infiltration; and
- c. the manoeuvre and firepower characteristics of air power.

3.40 Manoeuvre has historically been adopted as an alternative to attrition. Instead of seeking to destroy an enemy's physical substance by cumulative effect of superior firepower (attrition), the goal of manoeuvre is to incapacitate an enemy by disruption of their fighting system by avoiding the enemy's strength and concentrating superior force against the enemy's weaknesses. Manoeuvre offers the possibility of results disproportionately greater than the resources applied to the effort. Manoeuvre can fail completely if disruption does not occur as predicted. In the simplest terms it is the low cost high risk option. Attrition, alternatively, can be the high cost and low risk option.

3.41 The forms of manoeuvre can be readily applied when operating in or across the land, sea and air environments. The Pacific campaigns plan sought to envelop and isolate Japanese forces by a two-pronged attack, one through the New Guinea–Philippine axis and one along the Solomon–Marianas axis.

... the three pronged ground-air-surface offensive

1. *North Pacific forces to eject the Japanese from the Aleutians.*
2. *Central Pacific forces to advance westward from Pearl Harbour.*
3. *South and Southwest Pacific forces to cooperate in a drive on Rabaul. Southwest Pacific forces then to press westward along the north coast of New Guinea.*

Potter and Nimitz Seapower

The South-West Pacific Campaign, through the New Guinea–Philippine axis planned and conducted under MacArthur was a maritime campaign, with islands as 'aircraft carriers'. In the conduct of the campaign ground forces were used to seize islands, amphibious ships to manoeuvre past Japanese strongpoints and aircraft to operate from them.

3.42 For much of history, manoeuvre has been relevant primarily in the tactical context. At Leuctra in 371 BC, the Theban commander Epaminondas recognised that pushing head-on against the Spartan phalanx, which outnumbered his own by almost two to one, would inevitably result in his defeat. Accordingly, he concentrated his best troops in a great block on his left: they turned the Spartans' right flank and then pressed in on their shieldless side, thereby crumpling their phalanx.

3.43 At the operational level, the notions of fixing and striking are complementary. In 1864 the Union Army of the Potomac fought a campaign to distract and fix the Confederate Army of Northern Virginia, with General Grant, the overall Union commander, announcing: 'I intend to fight it out on this front if it takes all summer.' However, if the Union armies were attritional on one front, they manoeuvred on another. In what ranks as a classic preamble to an operational mission order, Grant told his subordinate Sherman, who was ordered to disembowel the Confederacy in his march from Atlanta to the coast:

I do not propose to lay down for you a plan of campaign ... but simply to lay down the work it is desirable to have done and leave you free to execute it in your own way.

General U.S. Grant

Had the Army of Northern Virginia not been pinned to destructive battles in the northern theatre of operations, resources might have been diverted to deal with Sherman. Attrition and manoeuvre were essential ingredients of the overall Union plan.

3.44 Predicting an enemy's course of action and manoeuvring to impede their freedom of action are the essential ingredients of the indirect approach. In an era when the limitation of casualties (the enemy's as well as one's own) and a timely ending of hostilities are likely to be political imperatives, a plan that decapitates or unhinges an enemy force by manoeuvre is likely to be more acceptable than one that destroys it by attrition. However, the pursuit of manoeuvre at the operational level is not a replacement for attrition. The most successful plans involving manoeuvre are likely to include elements of attrition through the devastating application of firepower and the paralysing effects of lethal and non-lethal weapons. It is of course the threat of actual delivery of selective but overwhelming attrition against a key vulnerability that brings about systemic disruption sought by manoeuvre. Additionally a series of successful manoeuvre actions at one level of war may bring about cumulative effects of destruction that will wear down an enemy at a higher level.

3.45 Freedom of action. A related concept to manoeuvre is that of freedom of action. To retain freedom of action, a commander must ensure that primary fighting elements are available for rapid deployment and concentration. If this concept is not adhered to and adequate intelligence of enemy intentions cannot be obtained, then that commander's freedom of action may be lost. Although freedom of action is desirable at the tactical level, it can be seen as an essential characteristic of the operational level of conflict. Without freedom of action there can be no manoeuvre.

3.46 Opportunity. Another concept related to manoeuvre is that of opportunity. Certain assumptions must be made in conflict and whilst they may not be quantifiable, they are identifiable and hinge on the predictability of an enemy's response. In making assumptions, a military commander will always introduce certain elements of risk; however, the degree of risk must be counterbalanced by skill and judgment. There are three elements to seizing opportunity: the creation of opportunity, the recognition of opportunity, and the exploitation of opportunity. Only in the second element does pure chance really play a part. Good intelligence and communications, and a strong command and control structure will significantly influence the other two elements. The creation and exploitation of opportunity can be enhanced through surprise.

Tempo

3.47 Tempo is the rate or rhythm of activity relative to that of the enemy, within tactical engagements and battles and between major operations. It incorporates the capacity of the force to transition from one operation to another. Tempo seeks to impose threats to which the enemy is increasingly unable to react; their responses are made inappropriate in terms of either time or space. The enemy reacts too late or in the wrong place. Successful commanders have long recognised the importance of time in battle: Napoleon declared that he could recover ground but never time. Tempo involves attacking an enemy at a point when time—rather than a material or moral resource—is scarce, for instance before they are ready or after they have reached a culminating point. At the operational level tempo is profoundly influenced by the speed with which a force is ready for the next major operation. It is the ability of the force to prosecute the next operation, while still fighting the current one and being able to transit from one to the other without delay. At the tactical level this speed is relevant to the capacity of the force to transition between operations within battles and engagements. At both levels, tempo hinges on responsiveness and agility, which in turn depends on the decision-making process. It also embodies spatial dislocation that may involve one of the classic manoeuvre ploys such as an outflanking movement.

3.48 Tempo can only be measured in relative terms. A force that acts slowly but at a higher rate than the enemy has superior tempo. In the opening phase of the Franco–Prussian War of 1870–71, the Germans were so much faster than the French that they outflanked the northern Corps of the Armée du Rhine. More significantly, they unbalanced an already unstable French high command, which flirted with a number of plans before deciding to fall back on Metz and then on Verdun. It was, writes Sir Michael Howard, 'the panic reaction of morally defeated men seeking safety in flight'.

3.49 High tempo can be achieved at the operational level by conducting tactical activity simultaneously rather than phasing it. A significant contributor to high tempo is directive control—a style of command exemplified by Guderian's XIX Panzer Corps in France in May 1940. The operation order for the Meuse crossing on 13 May was less than three pages long, embodying Guderian's view that: 'Good looking operation orders are immaterial. What counts are clearly stated intentions which can be executed with all one's heart and determination.' In its subsequent advance the Corps crashed through

French forces in the process of still deploying to meet it, with directive control assisting rapid movement. The French, in contrast, reacted slowly. General Touchon, commander of an army sized force, was only able to issue orders for the defence of a line well after the Germans had passed it.

3.50 Fighting reduces tempo. A further precept for the operational commander is therefore only to fight when necessary. Moreover, the maintenance of high tempo reduces the enemy's ability to join battle on their terms. General James H. Polk wrote of Patton that: 'on many occasions [he] drove his command to exhaustion when he sensed a time advantage and never permitted his enemy to have the hours or days to mount a coordinated counterattack or prepare a solid defensive position'.

Operational pauses

3.51 Because operations cannot be conducted continuously, there may be a need for periodic pauses, while retaining the initiative in other ways. Operational pauses may be needed when an operation has temporarily reached the end of its sustainability; this could be because the crews and troops involved are exhausted; sea state, terrain and climate compel a halt; the character of the campaign has changed (for instance a pursuit meets a hardening defence) or due to a combination of these factors including the need for logistics to catch up with the force. The initiative is retained by ensuring that when an operational pause is imposed on one line of operations, activity on another must be stepped up. This in itself contributes to the simultaneous conduct of operations. Thus sequencing involves activity conducted at different rates (tempo)—periods of relatively high activity, followed by periods where activity is relatively lower. Operational pauses are useful control measures to help synchronise operations and do not imply the abandonment of the quest for superior tempo overall.

In the early autumn of 1944 the United States 3rd Army advanced from Verdun towards Metz without adequate resources and instead of an operational pause on the Meuse, it received a bloody nose on the Moselle beyond.

Brauer
History of WW II

Culminating point

3.52 An operation reaches its culminating point in time and location where forces will no longer be stronger than the enemy and risk losing the initiative. This may be due to reduced combat power, attrition, logistics, dwindling national will or other factors. In the offence, the attacker reaches their culminating point when they can no longer sustain offensive operations and switches onto the defensive. In the defence, the defender reaches their culminating point when they can no longer maintain the defence and is compelled to disengage and withdraw or risk inevitable defeat. Identifying a culminating point is one of the operational commander's hardest tasks, because there is always the temptation to make one further effort to achieve the aim. That extra effort may, however, be beyond the culminating point and spell disaster for the commander. The culminating point is therefore an involuntary operational pause, but one that a commander must anticipate.

On 18 October, Admiral Toyoda gave the execute order for the Japanese navy's 'Philippine Battle Plan', which was designed to once more annihilate the Americans, but which led instead to the Battle of Leyte Gulf. Overall, Japanese losses in the battle were so heavy that the Imperial navy virtually ceased to exist as an offensive force.

Brauer
History of WW II

3.53 It is notoriously difficult to recognise a culminating point at the moment it is reached, particularly in action involving high rates of attrition, for a commander's instincts may impel them to press matters to a conclusion that seems tantalisingly close. The commander who pushes on regardless, risks doing so without sufficient momentum. It requires all the experience and judgment of a seasoned campaign commander to make the appropriate decision that a culminating point has been reached, conflict should not be seen as a gamble but as a calculated risk. To be successful, the operation must achieve its objectives before reaching its culminating point.

Contingency planning

3.54 Contingency planning is the process by which options are built into a campaign plan to anticipate most likely opportunities or reverses. Contingency planning covers branches and sequels and provides the commander with the flexibility to retain the initiative. The elder von Moltke warned that no plan survived first contact with the enemy. Inherent in sequencing is the requirement for a commander to be prepared to adjust the stepping stones, to change the order in which they are used, or to create new ones. In sequencing operations, the commander avoids foreclosing future options through constant contingency planning. Options can be built into the initial plan, enabling the commander to adjust lines of operation or to vary between offering or declining battle. A commander should also aim to orchestrate operations that logically follow one another. A withdrawal might be followed by a period of defence; that period of defence might be followed by a counteroffensive, and so on. The process of contingency planning must be continuous so that a commander is never without options. This enables the commander to control the tempo of operations. However, contingency planning should always have a logical basis, rooted in the appreciation process, and not rely on 'Operational Micawberism'—going on in the hope that something will turn up.

3.55 An example of the lack of campaign planning is reflected in Blamey's comment on the risk associated with the 1941 Greek Campaign. Blamey's comments also highlighted some of the contingencies that were either not fully considered or adequately explored:

The Greek expedition hadn't a dog's chance from the start. The Greek campaign was a bad one and our plan to support them was equally bad. I am sure our proper role would have been to give them all possible assistance and to have seized Rhodes and maintained Crete, with a division in each. With a properly organised formation in each place, they could never have got us out. I feel and always will that the position and possibilities were not adequately explored.

General Sir Thomas Blamey

In contrast, in September 1950 General MacArthur mounted the Inchon landings in spite of warnings that the environmental factors (tides) made the operation extremely hazardous. The successful landing of infantry and mechanised forces at Inchon was a brilliant stroke which transformed the Korean War.

Annex:

A. [Command and control warfare elements](#)

COMMAND AND CONTROL WARFARE ELEMENTS

Victory smiles upon those who anticipate the changes in character of war, not upon those who wait to adapt themselves after changes occur.

Air Marshal Giulio Douhet

Targeting

1. Targeting is defined as:

The process of identifying targets for possible engagement and determining the attack system to capture, destroy, degrade or neutralise them.

Traditionally, targeting has been associated with physical destruction. The contemporary view is that minimal collateral damage is highly desirable and that soft kill options such as weapon degradation by corruption of information systems may be more acceptable than mechanical or electrical destruction. In command and control warfare, the desired outcome, method of attack and permanency of effect are considerations in the targeting process and will affect the success of a command and control warfare campaign. For example, performance degradation, providing misinformation or preserving a source of intelligence may be preferred to physical destruction.

Electronic warfare

2. Any adversary is likely to make use of a full range of modern communications, surveillance and weapon systems operating across the electromagnetic spectrum. Both sides will attempt to dominate the spectrum by whatever means at their disposal. Modern warfare demands that each echelon of command effectively uses the electromagnetic spectrum for its own purpose while preventing effective use by the enemy. Electronic warfare (EW) is an important resource available to military commanders as it impacts on all warfare activities. EW is covered in detail in Australian Defence Force Publication (ADFP) 24—*Electronic Warfare*.

3. Electronic warfare is military action involving:

- a. the use of electromagnetic or directed energy to attack an adversary's combat power (electronic attack);
- b. protection of friendly combat power capability against friendly or enemy use of the electromagnetic spectrum (electronic protection); and
- c. surveillance of the electromagnetic spectrum for immediate threat recognition in support of electronic warfare operations and other tactical actions such as threat avoidance, targeting and homing (electronic support).

Deception

4. Deception seeks to manipulate perceptions and expectations in order to mislead the enemy into acting in a way beneficial to friendly interests. The main effort must therefore be concealed until it is too late for effective reaction. The effects are increased security, surprise and ultimately economy of effort. Deception operations should therefore be integral to any campaign. Timing is critical in achieving deception at the operational level. The objective is to influence the decisions of enemy commanders before battle occurs in order to ensure their favourable outcome and subsequent exploitation. Deception early in a campaign can lead the enemy to draw incorrect conclusions about objectives, force composition, groupings and dispositions. The enemy can therefore be induced to adopt a plan that is exploitable from the outset.

5. The Allied deception operation prior to the Normandy invasion of World War II convinced the German High Command that the landings would take place in the Pas de Calais area. They remained firm in this belief for several weeks after the actual invasion, delaying until too late the move of their operational reserves to counter the landings. This deception plan was especially effective as it reinforced the German's preconceived ideas on where the landings would take place.

6. A balance will have to be struck between the availability of resources for deception and the importance of such action. Prolonged deception cannot really be achieved by simulated activity alone in view of the number of enemy systems and possible levels of command that have to be fed false information. Real forces must therefore be allocated to the deception effort in order to achieve the necessary credibility and consistency. Commanders must coordinate their deception plans with their higher commander to prevent compromise of higher level deception efforts. Any forces allocated to deception must be capable of conducting purposeful action in support of the overall plan if compromised.

Psychological operations

7. Psychological operations are planned activities carried out in both peace and conflict and can be directed at friendly, enemy and neutral audiences. Their purpose is to influence attitudes and behaviour thereby enhancing the achievement of one's own political and military objectives. Specifically, psychological operations seek to undermine an enemy's will to fight, strengthen the support of the loyal and gain the support of the uncommitted. More detail on psychological operations is contained in ADFP 25—*Psychological Operations*.

8. Psychological operations must be an integral part of the campaign plan and will be coordinated at the strategic or operational level in order to ensure theatre-wide consistency and compatibility with public information activities. The attack must use credible themes based on weak points in the enemy's character and capability and, where appropriate, the legitimacy of the enemy's action.

9. Psychological operations require time to take effect and ideally should begin as early as possible with the intention of coming to fruition in time to avoid a conflict descending into hostilities. It is, therefore, a pre-emptive measure that aims to reduce the enemy's will to fight prior to the commencement of battle. The ideal is to avoid the battle altogether. Psychological operations can also be used to reduce the enemy's ongoing will to fight.

After the cease fire, an Iraqi division commander stated that next to the Coalition bombing operations, psychological operations were the greatest threat to his troops' morale. Psychological operations leaflets and radio broadcasts undermined unit morale, provided instructions on how to surrender, instilled confidence that prisoners would be treated humanely, and provided advanced warning of impending air attacks, thus successfully encouraging desertion.

Gulf Lesson One—The Value of Air Power

Operations security

10. Operations security (OPSEC) enhances freedom of action by limiting vulnerability to hostile activities and threats. Active and passive measures help to deny critical information to the enemy, to deceive the enemy and to counter their actions throughout the area of operations (AO). Attempts to protect against every threat could, however, result in weakness. Risk will inevitably have to be accepted and quantified in order to achieve a balance between those operations that enhance security, in particular offensive action and deception, and the allocation of resources to security itself. The key security measures involve protection and OPSEC.

11. Protection preserves the fighting potential of a total force, including the preservation of interoperability among participating force elements and allies, so that the total force can be applied at a decisive time and place. In its narrower security sense it encompasses the physical protection of a force, the limiting of non-combat losses and the prevention of fratricide:

- a. Forces, including their integral command and control centre, can be protected by making them difficult to locate, strike or destroy, from the ground and air, throughout their AO. Some survivability measures may degrade operational performance and risks must therefore be balanced in order to prevent combat power being dissipated by an over-emphasis on protection. At the operational level, the means available for protection include air and maritime superiority operations, air defence and electromagnetic activity.
- b. The morale component of combat power can be protected by effective leadership. The provision of health services and welfare facilities also assist to preserve cohesion. Systems are needed to provide preventive medicine, adequate medical care and the speedy return of minor casualties to duty. The physical component of combat power is protected by preventive maintenance and quick repair of equipment and replacement of equipment and supplies.

- c. Fratricide is exacerbated by the growing possibility of allies and enemies having the same equipment and the rapid tempo and fluidity of operations. The practical means available to minimise fratricide include: common procedural and positive control measures, particularly for offensive support and movement; a common identification aid and accurate and timely information on dispositions and intentions. The risk of fratricide can be reduced without unnecessarily limiting boldness or audacity in combat.

12. OPSEC seeks to deny operational information to the enemy. However, it will be difficult to conceal everything and effort may need to be focused on those military activities whose security is fundamental to the campaign plan. This can be turned to advantage by allowing the enemy access to information which helps to confirm their perception of our intentions, thereby contributing to the deception plan. This recognises that the enemy will probably have considered which courses we may adopt and therefore the selection of a less ideal (and therefore less obvious) option may paradoxically increase the overall chances of success. Operations security can be implemented in both a positive and negative fashion. The enemy can be denied the ability to gather information by physical attack on their information gathering capability. Alternatively, operations security may influence the timing and sequencing of operations in order to make the enemy's response inappropriate.

13. Media. Public information concerns that information which is released or published for the primary purpose of keeping the public informed, thereby gaining their understanding and support. However, although operational commanders will expect to be given a public information directive in order to develop a public information plan, they may need to take a pragmatic approach governed by the level of public interest in the operations and the numbers of media representatives that appear in theatre. The influence of the media has become a major factor affecting operational judgments and therefore demands close and careful personal attention by operational commanders. They should construct public information plans in order to maintain a positive relationship with all elements of the media. The relationship between the military and the media should be based on trust, cooperation and a thorough understanding of the requirements of the correspondents who in turn should be left in no doubt as to any restrictions on their freedom of action.

Computer operations

- 14.** Computing systems can be attacked using computer operations such as:
- a. **Hacking.** This is the unauthorised access to computer systems to destroy, alter or retrieve data or software.
 - b. **Virus planting.** These are elicited code fragments which copy themselves into host computer programs and can destroy or degrade an information system.
 - c. **Chipping.** This is the engineering of integrated circuits which creates adverse modes of operation and are triggered by time or event.

These techniques are primarily aimed at targeting the enemy's broad information environment. However, they may also be used to attack the enemy's computer-based weapon systems and computer-based platforms. Although generally strategic in nature computer operations may be applied to the operational and tactical components of the operations environment.

SUPPORT OF COMMAND AND CONTROL WARFARE

Intelligence

15. Intelligence is the key foundation which underpins the six main elements of command and control warfare. Since command and control warfare is an ongoing process, the intelligence staff must provide continuous support to the operations staff throughout the campaign. All aspects of command and control warfare planning and execution require access to specific and current intelligence products. The intelligence staff should undertake the analysis of command and control nodes and assess the effectiveness of command and control warfare efforts.

16. The operational commander's intelligence effort should identify the personal characteristics of the opposing commander and relationships with their superiors and subordinates. More detail on intelligence procedures and practices are contained in ADFP 19—*Intelligence*. The intelligence effort needs to assess:

- a. the opposing commander's freedom of action;
- b. the degree of compliance expected of enemy subordinates;
- c. the key elements of the enemy's capabilities;
- d. the enemy's long-range options, resources and most likely course of action; and
- e. the enemy's perception of themselves and their own force actions.

17. All aspects of command and control warfare planning and execution require access to accurate and timely intelligence products of a basic and specific nature. To ensure this occurs, two issues should be addressed:

- a. The potential mix of strategic and tactical collection and fusion systems, integrated into a coherent intelligence architecture, makes the provision of all-source, near-real-time intelligence a reality for operational and tactical commanders. However, for this reason the function of collection, coordination and intelligence requirements management has to be controlled centrally at the highest practical level and be fully responsive to operational needs.
- b. An objective of operational staff and planners must be to prevent tactical considerations alone from initiating attacks on targets which are being exploited as significant sources of strategic intelligence. In addition, with careful planning, an enemy can be induced to move from secure systems to those more readily exploited. This command and control warfare function relies on liaison at the operational headquarters between intelligence and operations staff and between the operational headquarters and higher formations.

Communications and information systems

18. Command and control warfare itself is dependent upon timely information as well as intelligence. To ensure that information is effectively collected, processed and disseminated, robust and reliable communications and information systems must be employed to support the command and control warfare effort. Communications are vital to command and control and are therefore a prime object of attack. An understanding of systems, nodes and architecture is an essential element in successful command and control warfare.

CHAPTER 4

CAMPAIGN PLANNING

Operational art and the campaign

4.1 The components of operational art are explained in [chapter 3—‘Operational art’](#). Operational art translates strategy into operational and, ultimately, tactical action. Operational art requires a strength of will, broad vision, the ability to anticipate, a careful understanding of the relationship of means to ends, and effective joint and combined cooperation. Reduced to its essentials, operational art requires that a theatre commander:

- a. has a clear understanding of stated government objectives;
- b. understands what military strategic end-state must be attained in the theatre to achieve the national strategic end-state (ie what environment is necessary to end hostilities);
- c. identifies the operational objectives that will produce the desired military strategic end-state;
- d. determines the sequence of actions most likely to achieve the operational objectives; and
- e. organises and applies the resources of the force to accomplish that sequence of actions.

Resources

4.2 A campaign planner must consider several aspects in applying resources to the campaign design. One of these is that a campaign plan should not be totally constrained by strategic plan force allocation. The campaign plan should be designed to accomplish the operational objectives as established in the strategic plan and also justifies any requests for additional forces. Planning a campaign is thus an iterative process, with forces being requested and approved for certain early phases, while still more forces may need approval for later phases.

4.3 In addition to requesting forces, the campaign planner must also consider withholding some resources and reserves. Operational reserves are the commander’s primary means of influencing the situation and achieving flexibility in the face of uncertainties and thus campaigns often depend on their skilful establishment. Reserve stock requirements need to be based on endorsed activity levels and usage rates expected in the work-up to the operational level of capability, at the operational level of capability and during the period of contingency. Additionally, assessment of the duration and geographical spread over which operations may extend is necessary for the determination of total stockholding requirements and to ascertain where, when and which elements of the Australian Defence Force (ADF) logistics system must be in place to support operations.

4.4 The commander must consider not only the resources needed for carrying out the operation at hand but also the generation of replacements and resources for subsequent operations. Force generation for future operations is a military strategic level responsibility, and operational commanders must make their intentions and requirements known to the Chief of the Defence Force (CDF).

4.5 The level of sustainment within or available to the campaign may place limits on timing and sequencing of operations and battles. The operational commander’s logistic posture may force phasing and sequencing of operations to maintain the tempo of the campaign, ensure retention of the initiative and keep the opposition off balance until all operational objectives are achieved. Early identification of critical logistic constraints to planned operations is indispensable both to initiate efforts to find alternative solutions and to modify plans as required on a timely basis. Logistic considerations which affect sustainment of a campaign are addressed in [chapter 6—‘Logistic support for the campaign’](#).

Planning sequence

4.6 Campaigns will usually be conducted as joint, if not combined operations. Australian Defence Force Publication (ADFP) 9—*Joint Planning* details deliberate and immediate planning processes. Accordingly, campaign planning involves the following sequence:

- a. initiation and concept development,
- b. plan development, and
- c. implementation and monitoring.

INITIATION AND CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT

4.7 Campaign planning will be initiated by the issue of a CDF warning order which enables preliminary planning for the campaign. The warning order will be developed from the military strategic estimate which permits concurrent planning. The warning order will direct an operational level headquarters to develop campaign options and concept for operations. While the tactical commander's appreciation is used for near-term decisions, the campaign appreciation engenders a broad statement of what is to be done. This appreciation leads to formulation of the campaign concept of operations. The operational level commander must have a clear understanding of the military end-state in the mission analysis part of the appreciation.

4.8 The campaign appreciation should list specific courses of action for each concept of operations and compare each with a threat or condition. The appreciation gives decisions that outline recommendations on each course of action for approval. The format for this appreciation is shown in chapters 7 and 8 of ADFP 9.

Commander's appreciation

4.9 The appreciation forms the basis of the theatre commander's campaign plan and should be constantly reviewed to confirm its validity in the light of changing circumstances. The ADF has adopted a staff appreciation process which is underpinned by the Joint Intelligence Preparation of the Battlespace and necessarily requires clear guidance from the commander and the concurrent input from all staff branches. This process, the Joint Military Appreciation Process, is described in chapter 8 of ADFP 9.

4.10 The initial and most important part of the appreciation process is determination of the aim of the appreciation, which may be developed from the military end-state contained in the CDF Warning Order, but in any case will be confirmed by mission analysis and agreed by the commander before the appreciation is developed. Mission analysis ensures that commanders and staff understand the intent of their superior commanders and provides direction to operational level headquarters which enables concurrent planning from an early stage. Further detail on mission analysis is in chapters 4 and 8 of ADFP 9.

4.11 Considerations during the appreciation process may include but are not limited to the following:

- a. mission analysis, to include:
 - (1) CDF intent,
 - (2) essential implicit and explicit tasks,
 - (3) constraints upon freedom of action, and
 - (4) response to changes to the situation;
- b. Australian interests;
- c. political considerations;
- d. economic considerations;
- e. command and control warfare;

- f. combined/coalition warfare;
- g. personalities;
- h. cultural/religious environment;
- i. geography and climate;
- j. end-states;
- k. centre of gravity;
- l. critical vulnerabilities;
- m. rules of engagement;
- n. lines of operation;
- o. culminating points;
- p. phasing;
- q. media;
- r. own forces; and
- s. enemy.

Campaign concept of operations

The general concept of operations is to improve all presently occupied forward air bases; occupy and implement air bases which can be secured without committing large forces; employ air forces from these bases to soften up and to gain air superiority over the initial attack objectives along the two axes; neutralise with appropriate aviation supporting hostile air bases and destroy hostile naval forces and shipping within range; move land forces forward covered by air and naval forces to obtain first objectives (existing and potential hostile air bases) and consolidate same; displace aviation forward onto captured aerodromes. This process is repeated to successive objectives, neutralising by air action, or by air, land and sea action, intermediate hostile installations which are not objectives of immediate attack. The entire movement will be covered by air attack on Japanese air and sea bases along the perimeter Buka, Rabaul, Kavieng and Wewak with the objective of interrupting and denying sea supply and/or support or reinforcement of objectives under attack.

Colonel E.G. Keogh

4.12 The campaign concept of operations is based upon the theatre commander's appreciation and is drawn from the preferred course of action. The concept emphasises the rationale behind the preferred course and is expressed as the 'commander's intent' for courses of action for the accomplishment of specified or implied missions. The issue of operational level objectives to planning staffs enables the development of the campaign concept of operations.

4.13 The campaign concept of operations is the instrument for seeking approval from CDF through the Chiefs of Service Committee and forms the basis for concurrent detailed planning and includes:

- a. assumptions;
- b. CDF intentions;
- c. military strategic end-state;
- d. assessment of likely enemy options;
- e. centre of gravity and decisive points;
- f. mission statement;
- g. concept of manoeuvre/conduct of operations (lines of operations and milestones);

- h. concept of targeting;
- i. concept of deception and security;
- j. key dates;
- k. key logistics priorities and resources;
- l. command arrangements;
- m. task organisation; and
- n. sensitive parameters and vulnerabilities.

4.14 General MacArthur's concept of operations which was approved at a major conference in Washington in late March 1943 by the Joint Chiefs of Staff agreed the following operational level objectives:

- a. establish airfields on Kiriwina and Woodlark;
- b. seize Lae, Salamaua, Finschhafen, Madang and the Cape Gloucester region of New Britain; and
- c. seize the Solomon Islands including the southern portion of Bougainville (this task was to be given to the forces of the South Pacific Area operating under MacArthur's operational direction).

These operational objectives required MacArthur to convert them into a campaign plan. That plan was issued from General Headquarters South-West Pacific Area on 26 April 1943 as ELKTON III.

Resources in concept development

4.15 Defence preparations in peacetime are directed at contingencies defined by strategic guidance and detailed in the ADF preparedness directive. Whilst periodic strategic assessments provide a framework for the assessment of warning and subsequent development of defence policy, the ADF's response to contingencies will need to be reviewed and refined at the onset of warning as specific threats are identified.

4.16 A central theme of strategic policy is that are likely to emerge at short notice It is nevertheless necessary to undertake defence planning to ensure appropriate response options will be available to government in the event such levels of threat develop in the future. Such planning includes an ongoing assessment of requisite stockholdings and advice of such decisions to single Service chiefs, from whom advice is provided to strategic and operational level planning staffs.

PLAN DEVELOPMENT

4.17 The theatre commander's intent is captured in detail in the campaign plan, and reflects the sequence of operations needed to attain the operational objectives. By means of a campaign plan, operational commanders provide CDF with information needed to support the campaign from the strategic level. ADFP 9, chapter 4 provides a recommended format.

4.18 A campaign plan:

- a. gives the commander's concept of operations, defines the operational objectives and defines the means by which they are to be achieved;
- b. synchronises air, land, sea, and special operations forces;
- c. concentrates on the enemy's centre of gravity;
- d. phases a series of related operations;
- e. establishes task organisation, details subordinate forces and establishes command relationships;

- f. gives operational direction and tasks to subordinates including provision of logistics; and
- g. serves as the basis for subordinate planning and clearly defines what constitutes success.

IMPLEMENTATION AND MONITORING

4.19 The culmination of campaign planning is the implementation and monitoring of developed plans. As required, the campaign plan will be issued as a directive, operation order or operation instruction by the theatre commander to subordinate operational commanders.

4.20 The commander's conduct of the campaign is a succession of decisions and actions, both large, and small and the approach to them is an iterative process which allows for significant situational changes and maintains the momentum of the campaign. Such changes may be reflected in the issue of subsequent campaign plans.

Campaign and staff processes

4.21 The following campaign and staff processes should be considered as part of implementation and monitoring:

- a. **Command and control.** Operational command and control is the exercise of authority and direction by a properly designated commander over assigned forces in the accomplishment of the mission. The command and control process is the means commanders employ to plan the actions needed to achieve the objective, direct assigned forces to carry out those actions, coordinate the actions with other involved commanders and control the campaign once it has been initiated. Command and control arrangements are addressed further in [chapter 7—'Combined, coalition and military support operations'](#). In setting up command and control processes operational commanders are likely to have three primary concerns:
 - (1) whether they have made adequate provision to ensure that they will be informed of significant events that will affect the campaign or operation;
 - (2) whether they will be able to cope with the information received and transform it into timely decisions; and
 - (3) whether the directives that reflect their decisions will be received, properly understood and executed by subordinates in time to affect the outcome of the campaign or operation.
- b. **Intelligence.** This entails the collection, processing and dissemination of information concerning operationally significant military and non-military events. Operational intelligence is the thread which binds the operational commander's decisions concerning the other functional areas into a cohesive plan centred on a common objective. Intelligence must be timely, objective, usable, ready, complete, accurate and relevant.
- c. **Targeting.** Targeting is the process of selecting targets and assigning the appropriate system against them taking into account operational requirements and capabilities. This involves attack on targets to achieve an operationally significant objective. Operational attack should not be considered as offensive support and operational manoeuvre does not depend on such attack. Attack concerns itself with targeting at the operational level. Operational attack should be furnished by the agency most appropriate to achieve the desired result within the limits of strategic guidance. An operational commander should establish a joint targeting coordination board to organise this aspect of the campaign.
- d. **Manoeuvre.** This involves the disposition of forces to create a decisive impact on the conduct of a campaign or operation.

CHAPTER 5

COMMANDING THE CAMPAIGN

Introduction

5.1 The concluding step of campaign planning is implementation and monitoring of the plan. In response to issued directives, operation orders or operation instructions, assigned forces are directed to achieving the operational objectives which support the military strategic end-state. Commanding the campaign in the modern highly dynamic theatre over vast distances requires flexibility and a sensitivity to the multitude of factors that could impinge upon the conduct of the campaign.

5.2 Command at the operational level of war has been described as being more of an art than a science. This observation underlines the conceptual dimension of planning required at this level. Implicit in this is the personal influence of the theatre and subordinate commanders on the campaign design and, as importantly, their personal influence over the conduct of the campaign. There is probably far more scope at the operational level than at the tactical level for commanders to vary their style of command. Not only are there more resources under command and control, but increased time to develop the concept for operations. In addition, commanders may have greater leeway in deciding their sphere of influence than their tactical counterpart.

5.3 A critical responsibility of the commander is one of focus. They must remain focused on the operational objective and on the enemy's centre of gravity. Their responsibility is to ensure that actions lead to the achievement of the end-state. This entails a thorough understanding of the strategic commander's perspective and intent. If this focus is lost, commanders may become actively involved in the tactical activity of command, and lose perspective; the commander may win battles but fail to execute the mission. The identification of the enemy's centre of gravity and the focus on the logical development and execution of activities necessary to expose and destroy it are the essence of operational art.

5.4 A starting point for examining the operational level of command is 'professional mastery'. A successful campaign commander must possess a deep professional knowledge based upon a clear understanding of the nature of war. This understanding demands an insight of the enemy and a detailed appreciation of own forces. To be successful at the operational level of conflict, a commander must:

- a. possess resolve and a strength of will;
- b. conduct operations as developed in the strategic plan by higher authority;
- c. define the operational level objectives of the campaign in consultation with strategic authority;
- d. select the means by which the operational objectives are attained at minimum cost;
- e. develop a concept of operations, communicate it to their subordinates and monitor its translation into orders;
- f. act as a focal point for all-source intelligence in the theatre;
- g. execute operations and monitor their progress;
- h. be prepared to make adjustments as operations progress; and
- i. initiate and supervise contingency planning.

5.5 The enemy may have different philosophies, policies, doctrines, standards, priorities and an independent sovereign will. Their actions may frustrate, surprise, astonish, or demoralise. Moltke's maxim that if there are two courses open to the enemy, they will undoubtedly take the third, suggests the correct approach is to expect, at least be ready for, the unexpected.

5.6 The natural corollary is that the commander must have an intimate and deep knowledge of the enemy, which can only be gained by close study. The employment of all intelligence assets to predict future enemy action becomes fundamental to successful campaigning.

5.7 Similarly, the campaign commander must have a detailed and realistic understanding of their own forces. At the tactical level the commander has the opportunity to observe the capability of their force, whereas at the operational level they will be more distant and dependent on their staff or subordinate commanders to make judgments. The commander must keep himself informed of events at the tactical level. The allocation of other joint or combined elements will require an accurate understanding of their capabilities and limitations. This in itself may be a very demanding task.

Stages of the campaign

5.8 There are three distinct stages to the conduct of a military campaign:

- a. deployment,
- b. achievement of operational objectives, and
- c. concluding the campaign.

While distinct, the stages are not exclusive; it may be that a successful deployment results in partial or complete attainment of an operational objective.

DEPLOYMENT

5.9 A key element in the successful application of force to achieve operational objectives is the initial deployment of the force. Careful consideration of a number of factors are necessary to devise a deployment plan that is defensible, enables timely commitment of the force, permits force sustainment and enables the commander to gain the initiative in a timely fashion. Failure to achieve a successful deployment will cast doubt on the possibility of success of any campaign plan. Key considerations will be:

- a. identification of joint force areas of operation (JFAO);
- b. identification of points of entry;
- c. identification of force deployment areas;
- d. modes of transport and quantity required;
- e. sequenced deployment of combat elements;
- f. sequenced deployment of logistic elements; and
- g. sustainment policy/priorities.

5.10 JFAO. The Australian Defence Force (ADF) definition of a JFAO is:

That portion of a theatre necessary for joint military operations and their administration as part of a campaign.

The campaign commander's identification and assignment of JFAO will be based on the advice given by their specialist subordinates. It is important that in assigning JFAO for maritime and air operations that the boundaries acknowledge the requisite room to manoeuvre and that it is understood such boundaries are more flexible and transient than those for land operations.

ACHIEVEMENT OF OPERATIONAL OBJECTIVES

Synchronising

5.11 On completion of deployment and having built up an adequate intelligence picture of the enemy a commander will seek success by synchronising assigned land, air, sea and electronic capabilities, ideally striking the enemy simultaneously throughout the depth and breadth of the theatre. The commander may well seek to create decisive points early by striking enemy critical vulnerabilities to eliminate the enemy's operational centre of gravity. Where large-scale manoeuvre is necessary, it will require protection of the force from enemy land, maritime or air attack.

Offence

5.12 Synchronisation is the key to successful offensive operations. For the land battle, the commander will consider the use of airborne, air mobile or amphibious operations and deep penetration by armoured forces or special forces (SF) to prevent the enemy from organising and maintaining a coherent defence. Ideally, a commander should seek to concentrate force to achieve a break-in to the enemy's defences and then to conduct a ruthless exploitation. For the maritime battle, task groups and elements will be coordinated so as to provide maximum application of force to identified enemy critical vulnerabilities and centres of gravity. Interdiction will be synchronised with manoeuvre elements, possibly seeking to carry out one of the classic forms of manoeuvre. However, it will not always be possible to out-manoeuve the enemy and force may have to be applied either directly or indirectly to the enemy to remove them from a defended area that cannot be bypassed. The air battle embraces the same forms as those in land and maritime. Penetration, manoeuvre and accurate strike are its essential features. Technology continues to improve weapons and systems which in turn allows the commander more options. Attacks can be directed with greater accuracy at previously unreachable targets. As Liddell-Hart's study into apparent decisive battles throughout history showed, it is destruction through surrender or a force in-flight which turns campaigns rather than numerical destruction through attrition.

5.13 As the decisive operation of war, the offensive is the commander's ultimate means of imposing will upon the enemy. It may be possible to take the offensive at the start of operations but often it will only be realistic to do so after a period of defence, force build-up and preliminary operations. Although offensive operations follow different patterns, they are all likely to exhibit a number of common characteristics: seizure and retention of the initiative; irresistible momentum; fluidity—as the main effort is changed to take advantage of fleeting opportunities; controlled tempo—as the intensity and nature and sequence of operations is varied to keep the enemy off balance; and continual deep operations of all types. The commander will expect to conduct close, deep and rear operations simultaneously, coordinating a wide range of tactical battles and engagements. Some parts of the force may go on to the defensive to allow a concentration of force for an offensive elsewhere. Risk will have to be accepted to achieve the necessary correlation of forces. Conversely, the initial stages of a campaign may require that land forces are deployed and employed in a defensive role, while emphasis and corresponding resource allocation is dedicated to the carriage of the offence by maritime and air assets. Maritime and air assets focussed successfully against the enemy's centre of gravity may reduce or avoid the collision of land forces.

Defence

5.14 The commander may be denied the freedom to initiate offensive action, either for national strategic reasons or because of an inability to generate or sustain adequate combat power. The major challenge of the defence is to overcome the advantage that the attacker has in their ability to dictate where and when to attack. While maintaining the integrity and cohesion of their force, the defender seeks to hold the enemy, to deceive the enemy, to encourage enemy committal to a plan that is inappropriate and to force the enemy's culminating point. The defender seeks to lure the enemy into situations to exploit the advantage of surprise; the commander denies them information, both actively and passively. The commander denies the enemy the ability to pass orders by attacking enemy command systems and thereby fixes the enemy. Deep operations will be conducted to deny the enemy freedom of action and to isolate current battles.

5.15 An effective defence is therefore rarely passive. The defender resists and contains the enemy only where and when it is necessary, while seeking every opportunity to move onto the offensive, to the degree that the strategic directive allows. Such opportunities may be limited early in a defensive campaign or operation but the campaign plan should seek to ensure that as the situation develops they become more numerous. As soon as the attacker can be forced to make a wrong move or be held at a decisive point in time or place, the defender is able to manoeuvre then hit the enemy, always with the aim of breaking their cohesion. The defender's intelligence capability must be tasked to uncover enemy vulnerabilities and to predict culminating points which may become the opportunities at which the offensive is launched.

5.16 Having interdicted the enemy's movement and reduced their freedom of action through deep operations, the defender will transition from the defence to the offence. Unleashing a carefully synchronised maritime, land and air operation aimed at identified enemy vulnerabilities, the defender will seize the initiative, seeking to exploit the advantages previously enjoyed by the enemy. Thereafter, the fundamentals of the offence must be followed until the enemy seeks to end the conflict.

Commander's intent

5.17 Decisive action requires unity of effort—getting all parts of a force to work together. Rapid action, on the other hand, requires a large degree of decentralisation, directive control, giving those closest to the problem the freedom to solve it. The best commander will be the commander who has a clear vision of the way the campaign should unfold and the alternatives available to them for the achievement of the envisaged end-state.

5.18 The operational commander's intent conveys the military end-state, or the desired result of the overall campaign. The campaign plan details the operational commander's estimated sequence of actions to achieve this military end-state and contains essential elements of their plan, ie what is to be done and how the operational commander plans to do it. A significant change in the situation may alter the concept of operations, whereas the commander's intent is overarching and usually remains unchanged. Contingency plans are developed to achieve the commander's intent for various alternative outcomes. The commander's intent reflects their vision and conveys their thinking through mission-type orders, in which subordinate commanders are encouraged to exercise their initiative and are given certain freedom of action.

5.19 The operational commander's intent is particularly important in cases where the situation that gave rise to orders has changed and, as a result, the original orders are no longer applicable. In such cases, subordinates can structure their decisions by asking such questions as 'What would my commander want me to do in this situation?' and 'What can I do to help my commander attain the objectives?'

Main effort

5.20 The 'main effort' is determined by the theatre commander to be the central thrust of their campaign plan which is crucial to the attainment of their military end-state (and therefore the strategic end-state). Designating the main effort is an important initial decision designated by the theatre commander in their 'commander's intent'. There is only one main effort at any one time. Designating a main effort does not imply that the offensive is limited to a single attack, or series of attacks.

5.21 A campaign commander may shift designation of the main effort as necessary and that designation may assign the bulk of the force, or only a small fraction of the resources available. Whatever the size, designation as the main effort means that this element is central to the complete success of the overall campaign and commanders are obligated to do everything they can to ensure that the main effort succeeds. The main effort is supported directly and indirectly by all parts of the force.

Leadership

5.22 Having prepared the appreciation and organised the campaign plan, the operational commander is then responsible for carrying it through to a successful conclusion. This entails:

- a. monitoring progress;
- b. influencing action to accomplish the mission;
- c. advising subordinate, adjacent, supporting, and higher authorities of developments of direct concern to them; and
- d. consolidating in planning for the next task.

5.23 Supervising. Both the operational commander and the staff supervise the conduct of the campaign. This is, in fact, a continuing assessment of the situation, seeking information through direct observation and reports. The staff attempts to maintain the picture as a whole; the commander focuses on the decisive effort that may, once the enemy is engaged, be in a different area than originally anticipated.

5.24 Influencing the action. The operational commander must never become a slave to the plan but should nevertheless be slow to change a plan with which all are familiar unless the changing situation creates problems or opportunities that cannot be overlooked. The commander must accept the inevitability of confusion and take advantage of it before the enemy commander does. When the situation demands, the commander may use a quick appreciation for decision making in the minute-to-minute, hour-to-hour conduct of operations. For a quick appreciation, the commander should ask the following questions:

- a. What has changed (mission, enemy, friendly or environmental situations)?
- b. Is it possible to carry out the mission?
- c. Must a new decision be made now?
- d. What are the options or existing contingency plans?
- e. Which promises the most success? The least cost?
- f. What are the consequences if this new action succeeds? If it fails? If we do nothing?

5.25 The commander delegates authority, but never responsibility; accordingly, they must retain the means to influence the action at their level. Inevitably, the fighting progresses at the tactical level, and the commanders at higher level must demonstrate the requisite command patience to allow subordinates to do their jobs. This does not mean abdication of the right to interfere. Sometimes a potential opening or disaster can be seen only from the higher perspective; at that point, the commander intercedes as necessary. The vision to act decisively at the right moment often is attributed to luck; luck is never assured, but it is encouraged by good intelligence and a clear head.

5.26 There are various means by which operational commanders can influence the action and they should think each through before the event to consider consequences and the time required for each to take effect. The general means available to the operational commander for influencing this action include the following:

- a. change of objectives and tasks,
- b. regrouping,
- c. reallocation of support,
- d. change to areas of responsibility of components,
- e. change to the time schedule,
- f. commitment of reserves,
- g. change of subordinate commanders,
- h. arrangement of support from higher or adjacent authorities, and
- i. insulation of subordinates from unnecessary high level interference.

5.27 Advising others. A fundamental responsibility of command is ensuring unity of effort by giving others the information they require to do their job. Developments and potential developments within the theatre that affect others must be made known to them. This is one of the purposes of liaison and reporting.

5.28 Public information. Public information concerns that information which is released or published for the primary purpose of keeping the public informed, thereby gaining their understanding and support. The relationship between the military and the media should be based on trust, cooperation and a thorough understanding of the requirements of the correspondents who in turn should be left in no doubt as to any restrictions on their freedom of action. Public relations and public information staff can provide significant assistance in ensuring the maintenance of harmonious relations between the media and the operational commander. Further detail on public information considerations may be found in Australian Defence Force Publication (ADFP) 41—*Defence Public Information Policy during Periods of Tension and Conflict*.

5.29 Future operations. The theatre staff must be well along with planning and preparation for the next task or phase for such contingencies as might occur, even as the theatre forces are embarked on the current operation. Operational vision must be maintained and opportunities exploited. Consequently, while executing one phase of the campaign, the theatre staff is completing the plan for the next phase, and the operational commander and a few key planners are conceptualising the remaining phases. The theatre commander's staff must develop plans for post-conflict operations at the conclusion of the campaign. These plans could include assistance in the re-establishment of services, including utilities and civil law and order, or the relocation and humanitarian aid to refugees.

CONCLUDING THE CAMPAIGN

There is nothing certain about war except that one side won't win.

General Sir Ian Hamilton
Gallipoli Diary, 1920

5.30 Defining success. The commander must review all operations within the theatre in the light of the defined operational objectives. Sound intelligence and a thorough grasp of the state of mind of opposing forces and their leadership will contribute to judgments on the progress of the campaign towards the conclusion of hostile activities. The commander must ensure that planning staff are prepared to accommodate the change in emphasis required to implement the transition from combat operations to post-conflict activities without prejudicing operational security.

5.31 Post-conflict activities. Inherent in the nature of a crisis involving a military response is the concept of parallel political, diplomatic and military activity. Military planning must always be conducted against the expectation of the need to fight. Resolution of the conflict may, however, be achieved at any stage during military planning and deployment. Indeed these activities may in themselves contribute to the resolution of the conflict. Furthermore, conflict may be terminated before the originally envisaged end-state is reached. These uncertainties will bear heavily on the operational commander who, while prosecuting the campaign, must consider the consequences of a premature termination and the need for their force to be able to undertake new missions, possibly of a humanitarian or peace support nature. Contingency planning to cope with any of the above circumstances should be undertaken by plans staff to ensure a smooth culmination of operations in all circumstances.

5.32 In any event operational commanders may well be the conduit for negotiations with the enemy political and military leaders as part of the conflict termination process. The deployed force may be the only element capable of providing a measure of internal stability within the theatre. The force may also be required to provide a wide range of support measures including the restoration of communication systems, essential services, refugees, prisoners of war, military government and humanitarian relief and may have to assume a temporary peacekeeping role.

5.33 Redeployment and reconstitution. Overlaid on these post-conflict activities may be pressures on the commander for part of the force that has been engaged in conflict, to be withdrawn from the theatre—a factor of greatest relevance in combined operations. Thus redeployment plans will be needed, which must take account of the degree to which the force must remain ready to meet a new crisis and also be capable of the protection of misplaced civilians and the control of prisoners of war. Redeployment should therefore not be considered as a final activity but rather as movement designed to support a subsequent operation. The maintenance of unit and formation integrity will be important during the whole period of redeployment, as will be the availability of strategic transport and the continued requirement to protect the force against any resurgence of violence. Reconstitution of the force is an important aspect of sustainability.

COMMAND RELATIONSHIPS

5.34 The two key aspects of command on which the operational commander should focus are: first, the chain of command that applies to the campaign; and secondly, the state of command of the components of their force.

Chain of command

5.35 Command and control arrangements for the overall campaign will normally form part of the initiating directive issued by the strategic headquarters. These arrangements will be based on either existing agreed joint or combined procedures, or will be designed to suit particular circumstances.

5.36 Organisation of command. Within a joint and possibly combined force, the theatre commander may have subordinate component (or national) commanders supporting them. These may be commanders of the maritime, land, air and possibly SF components, as well as joint force commanders. Unity of effort will be enhanced if the theatre commander gives clear guidance on the relationships between the various subordinates; specifically, to establish which are the lead commanders and which are the supporting commanders.

Status of command

5.37 Status of command describes the degree of operational authority between headquarters, formations and units. There is no direct relationship between the status of command and levels of command. Status of command is concerned with assigning missions and tasks for particular circumstances. To establish the status of a formation or unit placed under their command, an operational commander must seek clarification on the following:

- a. Can they assign missions and tasks?
- b. Can they assign it tasks within their stated mission (ie direct the execution of it)?
- c. Can they reassign it or must it retain national integrity?
- d. Are there any caveats on use, eg 'for hostilities only' or 'for a specified duration'?

5.38 According to these criteria, the following are the definitions for status of command (for further detail see ADFP 1—*Doctrine*, chapter 7):

- a. **Full command.** Full command is defined as the military authority and responsibility of a superior officer to issue orders to subordinates. It covers every aspect of military operations and administration and exists only within national Services. The term command, as used internationally, implies a lesser degree of authority than when it is used in a purely national sense. It follows that no international commander has full command over the forces that are assigned to them.
- b. **Operational command.** This is the highest degree of authority which can be assigned to the commander of a joint force (JF) operation and is usually retained for the duration of the operation or campaign. It would be normal for the national military strategic authority to place assigned forces under operational command of a national commander who will then have the requisite authority to assign, deploy or reassign forces. For ADF operations, opcomd may be delegated to a subordinate commander and will normally include responsibility for administration and logistics.
- c. **Operational control.** This degree of command gives a nominated commander the authority to direct forces assigned to achieve a specific mission within agreed limitations, usually related to function, time or location. The commander may delegate operational and tactical control to another commander but does not have the authority to assign separate employment to components of the formation or units concerned. It does not include responsibility for administration or logistics.
- d. **Tactical command.** This degree of command allows a commander to assign tasks to forces under their command for the accomplishment of the mission assigned by higher authority. The commander may delegate tactical control of the asset.
- e. **Tactical control.** A force assigned to a commander under tactical control allows local direction and control of movements or manoeuvres necessary to accomplished missions or tasks as directed by the assigning higher commander.
- f. **Direct support.** The support provided by a force not attached to, or assigned under a degree of operational authority of the supported force, which may be withdrawn only with the agreement of the supported force or direction of superior authority. Detailed planning and tasking remain with the supporting force's parent command. The support provided is to include the provision of advice, liaison and communications.
- g. **In support of.** In support of is the lowest level of control and is defined as assisting another formation, unit or organisation while remaining under original command. It does not confer on the supported HQ any responsibility or authority for administration or movement of the supporting unit. The commander of the supporting force assigns priority to the support given in accordance with their own judgment or advice given by the supported force.

5.39 Transfer of authority. Having established the status of command, the operational commander must determine at which point they become effective; a procedure commonly known as the transfer of authority. Transfer of authority applies to the formal transfer of a specified degree of authority over designated forces between a nation or between commanders. Forces can be assigned or attached to another force or unit. Assigned units or personnel to another organisation is relatively permanent, whereas attach is usually of a temporary nature.

COMMAND AND CONTROL ARRANGEMENTS

5.40 In general, the requirements of the mission determine what resources must be allocated to a commander and the degree of control they will require over them. The control method, or combination of methods selected for a particular operation, depends on: the resources being used; the degree of operational authority delegated to the commander; the nature of their current mission or task; and the operational situation.

Component method

5.41 With the component method of command, assigned units are normally grouped under the authority of a functional component commander. While components may be grouped along single Service lines, there may also be a requirement to group various assets on a functional or role basis for the conduct of specific missions, or tasks. In this situation, assets from one Service will be grouped with assets from another Service with appropriate changes of command status, eg assignment of tactical fighter aircraft to a maritime component commander for maritime strike missions.

5.42 Some resources have considerable utility across the three levels of conflict and have limited expert control cells. These resources are referred to as scarce resources and it is essential that they are carefully managed in an operation. Examples within the ADF include submarines, F-111 aircraft and SF elements. Scarce resources usually have their own command organisation which suits their temporary assignment to a JF. An example of such a command organisation is a special operations command and control element for the command of assigned SF.

Directive control

5.43 The fundamental problem faced by military planners is well illustrated by the renowned Von Moltke, Prussian commander during the Franco-Prussian War 1870-71, who commented that no plan survives the first contact with the enemy. Directive control is a philosophy of command and a system for conducting operations in which subordinates are given clear direction by their superior of their intentions and are assigned specific tasks. Directive control requires a high level of trust and confidence between commanders at all levels. The critical factor in directive control is that subordinates are fully aware of their superior's intentions.

5.44 Further consideration of the philosophy and exercise of command can be found in chapter 7 to ADFP 1.

CHAPTER 6

LOGISTIC SUPPORT FOR THE CAMPAIGN

Without supplies neither a general nor a soldier is good for anything.

Clearchus, 401 BC

General

6.1 Logistics is an essential element in the development of combat power. National and single Service capability to initiate and sustain logistics support to a joint force (JF) bears a direct relationship to the size, scope and duration of operations which that force may undertake. In combined operations, the coordination of cooperative logistics support with allied nations is essential to ensure limited national logistics resources are not wasted and to avoid duplication of effort.

6.2 The objective of logistics planners is to ensure that campaign plans fully integrate all the elements of logistics including movement with operational requirements. An operational commanders logistics priorities must be clearly identified as these will influence the manner in which logistics support is managed. Logistics limitations must also be identified and made known to operational commanders and campaign planners as these may determine the success or otherwise of a joint or combined operation. Detailed consideration of the logistics support for operations is contained in Australian Defence Force Publication (ADFP) 20—*Logistics in Support of Joint Operations*. Detailed consideration of the movements aspects of planning for operations is contained in ADFP 21—*Movements*.

Levels of logistic support

6.3 Consistent with all military operations, logistics support operates in a continuum through the strategic, operational and tactical levels of war. This continuum comprises an integrated network of logistics processes, systems, installations and organisations, all of which contribute to enhancing combat power. At the strategic and operational levels, this involves significant civil as well as military effort, while tactical level logistics involve primarily military effort.

STRATEGIC LEVEL LOGISTICS

6.4 Strategic level logistics provides the bridge between the nation's economy and combat forces. Strategic level logistics planning is necessary to ensure that the nation's capability and limitations in delivering logistic resources for combat forces are known, and that mobilisation requirements to increase national capacity are determined. Strategic level policy and planning to maintain stockholdings and infrastructure for providing support to deployed forces during sustained commitment, contributes significantly to the ability of the Australian Defence Force (ADF) to provide government with a broad range of military options in response to a developing situation.

Responsibilities

6.5 At the strategic level, the Head Strategic Command Division (HSCD) is responsible for ensuring that logistics support requirements are included in planning for operations, while the Commander Support (COMSPT), single Service chiefs and the Head National Support Division (HNSD) are responsible for ensuring that support required for operations is provided.

6.6 The logistics support requirements which HSCD must consider in contingency and crisis planning include finance, personnel, material support and maintenance, health support, conditions of service and movements and transport. These requirements are formulated by the Director Joint Logistics Operations and Plans in consultation with a range of specialist staff officers representing various Defence programs, who meet formally as the Strategic Logistics Planning Group (SLPG). The results of the SLPG process are, inter alia, the allocation of funds, the administration and logistics content of the Chief of the Defence Force (CDF) warning order, alert order, execute order, the ADF movement warning order and ADF movement instruction and Cabinet submission. In times of major conflict the SLPG process can result in preparation of a logistics preparedness assessment and the issuing of CDF mobilisation orders to generate additional resources to support an extensive campaign.

6.7 The Service chiefs and COMSPT are responsible for preparing forces for operations and for their sustainment during operations, against the requirements of the operation plan. At the strategic level this responsibility involves maintaining appropriate single Service logistics policy and ensuring single Service strategic planning occurs to enable readiness and sustainment requirements to be met. HNSD has long-term national and international responsibilities that extend beyond those of the single Service chiefs. These responsibilities include:

- a. establishing logistic support arrangements with other countries to support ADF systems and equipment, and access to host country support capabilities;
- b. providing access to the national infrastructure;
- c. providing tri-Service logistics policy; and
- d. providing advice on industry mobilisation and alternate sources of supply.

OPERATIONAL LEVEL LOGISTICS

6.8 Operational level logistics consists of activities required to support forces in campaigns and major operations within a theatre or joint force area of operations (JFAO), to ensure continuity of operations through all phases of a campaign. At this level, logistics planning links the strategic level to the tactical level. Logistics planning at the operational level includes the need to build up logistic support for subsequent operations, lengthening lines of communications (LofC) and staging logistic support forward to maintain the tempo of operations. In addition to the common logistic functions—moving and maintaining material, personnel, facilities and services—operational logistics functions may include maintaining forward sustainment bases, conducting aid to civil power operations, evacuating noncombatants and obtaining logistic support from other than ADF sources (eg, host-nation or allied support).

6.9 The operational commander applies logistic resources to generate, produce and support theatre combat power. The theatre commander's concept of operations establishes the interrelationship between operations and logistics and this relies on the exchange of information between operations and logistics planners. The theatre commander's influence is essential in bridging the operations-logistics gap.

6.10 Operational level logistic planning should be carried out concurrently with strategic level planning but generally before tactical level planning. To be of greatest benefit, planning by logistics staff must occur in conjunction with, as well as in support of, planning by operations staff to identify and resolve support problems/limitations before a concept of operations is endorsed. Once the operational concept is endorsed, the logistic support concept can be defined in detail. The logistics support concept must make clear the operational commander's logistic priorities, as these will influence the manner in which logistics support is provided.

Responsibilities

6.11 At the operational level the interdependent nature of many logistics activities requires close liaison between the operational commander and the support commander. Provision of support from the Australian support area (ASA) to the theatre/JFAO should be coordinated on behalf of the joint task force commander by Headquarters Australian Theatre J4 staff. J4 staff are responsible for ensuring that logistic support to the JF remains responsive to the lead joint commander/joint force commander requirements and for coordinating the resolution of logistic support problems between the ASA and the JFAO. Subordinate headquarters at the operational level should keep J4 informed of requirements to ensure that logistic support provided by the COMSPT meets the campaign requirements. The operational commander must be able to react quickly to changing operational requirements and in turn, set priorities for movement along the LofC.

TACTICAL LEVEL LOGISTICS

6.12 Tactical level logistics is normally left to the tactical commander and is heavily dependent upon the provision of logistic support from the operational level of war. The application of this support is termed combat service support.

Responsibilities

6.13 Force element groups operating within a JFAO at the tactical level will usually develop their own plans based on the initial assessment or requirements from the operational level. These plans will usually follow single Service procedures. Where it is apparent that support could be provided by another Service then this should be requested through the joint task force headquarters (JTFHQ) to Commander Australian Theatre.

6.14 Coordination of logistic support between the operational and tactical levels is crucial to the support of tactical formations. Coordination of logistic support for tactical operations should be undertaken by a logistics coordination branch which should be established at JTFHQ within the theatre/JFAO. The joint movement coordination centre should, where possible, be collocated with the logistics coordination cell to facilitate movement of material to tactical units operating within the theatre/JFAO.

Logistic support for combined operations

6.15 Logistics in support of combined operations is complicated by differences in logistic capabilities, doctrine and equipment between the nations involved. Logistic support to a combined force is, in principle, a national responsibility. In practice however, combined logistics is concerned with the effective coordination and control of national logistic elements and, within limitations imposed by different national systems and equipments, the integration of logistic support to combined operations. In order to minimise unnecessary duplication, combined logistic planning is required to establish common logistic support arrangements whenever possible. ADFP 20 provides detail on logistics support for combined operations.

CHAPTER 7

COMBINED, COALITION AND MILITARY SUPPORT OPERATIONS

Know your enemy and know your own allies.

Sun Tzu

Introduction

7.1 The Australian Defence Force (ADF) has the capacity to both defend Australia and its interests, and contribute significantly to regional stability. Approaches for assistance might be made by regional states in times of tension or need. Australia is unlikely to seek involvement if its vital interests are not threatened.

7.2 In coalition operations the political dimension remains paramount and is also more diverse. In combined operations nations may not have identical interests but there will be a sufficient coincidence to ensure a common purpose. Individual goals and objectives will be harmonised through consensus to form the key criteria for the campaign, in particular those regarding resolution or termination of the conflict. The resulting military objectives given to the theatre commander will reflect the common purpose. Inevitably nations will reassess their objectives, both political and military, as the conflict progresses. The need to maintain consensus within the alliance or coalition will be important in order to preserve political and military cohesion. The disagreements between Auchinleck and Blamey over the relief of the Australians in Tobruk illustrate the difficulties faced by both commanders and politicians alike, when operating in an alliance:

The incident of the relief underlines the reality of coalition warfare involving allies of unequal strengths. When the minor ally is unable to alter allied strategy by persuasion, its last resort is to deny the use of its troops. The episode also highlights the difficult role of the commander of a national component of an allied force. He has a loyalty to both his superior and his government. Since Australia was not represented in the British War Cabinet it had no option but to accept the advice of its most senior representative in the allied strategic decision-making machinery.

D.M. Horner
High Command

7.3 Unity of command in national operations guarantees the commander's unity of effort. In combined operations, even though nations will be united by a common purpose, contingents will have different motivations, constraints, organisations, equipment, doctrine and cultures. Nations will tend to ascribe only the minimum necessary authority to the coalition commander to achieve the common objective. This should facilitate unity of effort but nations may retain the power of veto. In spite of these difficulties, it will be in all participating nation's interests to make the alliance or coalition work. Consensus will be important to ensure a unity of effort, without which the commander cannot achieve success. Personalities and relationships between senior commanders will have an important part in this aspect by producing the necessary level of cooperation and goodwill. Equities of hardship, risk and reward are also critical requirements. The commander will need to pay particular attention to sustaining unity and cohesion.

COMMAND OF COMBINED OPERATIONS

Problems of language, differing concepts of operations and dispositions plagued early attempts to structure a unified command during the Java campaign.

G.H. Gill
The Royal Australian Navy 1939–1942

7.4 It is preferable to use an existing headquarters (HQ) for command of combined operations. The specific tailoring of this HQ should be kept to a minimum and should use existing procedures to ensure stability and simplicity, particularly during the early stages of the operation. It is likely to be based or modelled on an existing multinational arrangement or make use of an extant model.

Combined headquarters

7.5 Multinational model. If nations are similar in culture, military ethos, doctrine, training and equipment, or if extensive experience exists in working with each other, a multinational HQ may be most appropriate. However, such HQ tend to be relatively large and unwieldy, primarily because many of the functions are duplicated to allow an equitable division of responsibility between different nations. Over a long period, benefit may accrue from nations being treated as partners and receiving, planning and implementing missions together.

7.6 Framework nation. Alternatively, one nation may be tasked to provide the framework of the HQ. As such it will provide the force commander, the core of the combined HQ staff and the command systems to support the HQ. The advantage of this approach is that the HQ functions efficiently at an early stage and the staff of other nations can be readily integrated.

National command arrangements

7.7 Relationship with national HQ. The combined force commander should desirably be given the highest degree of operational authority of other nations assigned, subject to limitations which might be specified in their initiating directive.

7.8 Relationship with combined HQ. The combined force commander will usually discuss specific issues with national component commanders on a bilateral basis as part of the planning process. In this way, they can avoid competition, detect problems early and in particular, be made aware of any national concerns or sensitivities. This allows the combined HQ to produce plans that will be acceptable well in advance and to coordinate activities to achieve unity of effort.

7.9 Combat service support. Combat service support will usually remain a national responsibility despite the limitations this might place on the combined commander's overall freedom of action. In operations with forces of other nations interoperability through commonality of material, stores and equipment should be stressed.

Language

7.10 The scope and magnitude of potential language difficulties in combined operations is self-evident. Australian forces are used to operating with United States, New Zealand and other Commonwealth nations where English is both common and the operational language. This may not necessarily be true of a coalition. Time must be allowed for translation and for the resolution of differences in terminology. Interpreters and linguists should be readily available, particularly for less widely spoken languages. Language can therefore be a significant limitation in combined operations both for staff and units and will dictate the overall level of integration that can realistically be achieved.

Liaison

7.11 Effective liaison in combined operations is a key factor which fosters understanding of missions, concepts, doctrine and procedures, provides for the accurate and timely transfer of vital information and enhances mutual trust, respect and confidence. Liaison officers represent the views of their commanders. They need to be selected with particular care and will often require specialised training. Where possible these officers should be fully integrated into the staff of the HQ to which they are sent and will be particularly effective if employed in the intelligence, logistics or operations staffs. Unfortunately, this was not fully exploited during the Pacific campaign. Relations between the Australian Imperial Force and the Americans were, at times, less than cordial. Blamey proposed an exchange of liaison officers between American and Australian units in an attempt to overcome some of the misunderstandings; this was politely but definitely rejected.

7.12 Combined forces employing other nation's units or equipment with which they are not familiar should exchange specialist officers, for example, aviation staff, engineers or intelligence specialists. Such liaison officers should be familiar with the requisite staff and operational organisations, doctrine and procedures of the force to which they are attached. They should also speak the language of that force or be accompanied by an interpreter.

COMPOSITION OF COMBINED FORCES

7.13 Organisation of combined forces. The capabilities likely to be required by the coalition or alliance set the criteria against which nations will assign forces. The allocation of resources is ultimately a national issue but if the combined force is not provided with the capabilities needed to achieve its strategic objectives, it will lack credibility. Achieving this may be politically difficult and protracted. All national contributions irrespective of size must be given an appropriate and achievable mission in order to bind them into the alliance or coalition. The factors to be taken into account include the unit or formation's combat power, sustainability and intelligence collection assets as well as its preparedness and ability to operate in special environments, including nuclear or chemical.

7.14 Role specialisation. To overcome political difficulties or differences in doctrine, training and equipment, a single coalition partner may elect to undertake a selected role or roles, for example, air defence or second-line medical facilities. Certain nations may prefer to structure their contributions along such lines as a means of retaining closer control over their forces and of limiting their participation while still satisfying both their national and international obligations.

7.15 Standardisation. The Services must be capable of achieving levels of interoperability and standardisation as required by the standardisation programs. These include the American, British, Canadian and Australian (ABCA) Armies' Standardisation Program, the Technical Cooperation Program, the ABCA Naval Quadripartite Standardisation Program, the Air Standardisation Coordination Committee, the Combined Communications Electronics Board, the Command and Control Interoperability Board and the Australia, Canada, New Zealand, United Kingdom and United States Naval Command and Control and Communication Board.

7.16 The lack of standardisation may create difficulties. The key to resolving them will lie in the early identification of the level of command at which a particular level of standardisation is critical and providing the resources or procedures to enable adequate interfaces to be established. For example, interoperable communications are only needed at the level of command at which information or orders need to pass between two or more nations. Common procedures and protective measures will be needed where one nation needs to draw on the resources of another. The command level interface will become critical in friendly and enemy command and control warfare planning. Differences in tactical doctrine will frequently be irrelevant providing they are recognised in the missions allocated to national components. However, a common approach to warfighting will greatly assist dialogue between different nations as well as enhancing cohesion.

PLANNING AND CONDUCT OF COMBINED OPERATIONS

7.17 Mounting and deployment. Mounting and deploying is a national responsibility but assistance may be required of other nations. The mounting authority would need to specify equipment levels, logistic/sustainability requirements, command status and liaison requirements before deployment in order to enhance interoperability. Additionally, the mission, roles and deployment of national components would also need to be negotiated prior to deployment. The combined HQ will need to coordinate point of entry facilities and initial deployment areas to ensure as far as is possible the sequenced arrival of the force and its security in the theatre.

7.18 Intelligence. Intelligence systems tend to be national and as such are operated in support of national policies and requirements, though there is some sharing of intelligence on a multilateral basis. In combined operations, commanders will need to establish systems and procedures from the outset to harness the capabilities and product of national collection means in order to provide the necessary level of intelligence support to commanders at all levels. This is best achieved through the formation of a combined intelligence staff at theatre level. The staff will require the support of an integrated intelligence network including interfaces with the major national systems, dedicated communications support and liaison teams to link all the key HQ in the coalition. National systems will vary widely in terms of scope, sophistication, focus and capability but will have something to contribute—often human intelligence—which must be used and exploited for the benefit of the coalition as a whole. Similarly, all partners should be served by coalition intelligence assets. Special arrangements may have to be made at the highest levels to provide the necessary access to certain sensitive collection means. Combined intelligence staffs must be aware of system capabilities and assign them throughout the force.

7.19 Communications. Interoperability aspects of communications including secure communications must be comprehensively addressed in the planning phases of combined and coalition operations. The selection and distribution of appropriate cryptographic material must be timely and cater for planned operations and contingencies.

7.20 Administration and logistic support. A fundamental consideration when planning coalition or combined operations is the level of support available from the host nation. Support and the negotiation of host nation support arrangements are a national responsibility. However, by closely coordinating the efforts of the personnel and logistics staffs of participating nations, it may be possible to achieve economies by, for example, agreeing to share common items such as medical, legal and repair facilities and supplies, equipment spares, petrol, oils and lubricants, and some ammunition. The distribution of supplies, the handling of prisoners of war and the evacuation of casualties will also require coordination, especially where the infrastructure is unsophisticated. The combined HQ should seek to ensure that demands placed on the local infrastructure are kept in perspective and that there is an equitable split of resources such as medical, water, food and construction materials between national contingents.

7.21 Handling of the media. A common public information policy will be highly desirable. The purpose of such a policy is to balance the need to maintain the cohesion of the coalition, while at the same time safeguarding the security of operations in hand.

7.22 Termination of conflict. Conditions for conflict termination should be agreed by the alliance or coalition prior to committal of military force. They should be a principal factor in the formation of the force structure and overall campaign plan. As political and military events unfold, nations will review those conditions based on their own perceptions and expectations. The combined force commander will need to be aware of national sensitivities and conditions which might result in a component of the force being prematurely withdrawn.

7.23 Redeployment. The redeployment of national forces will be a national responsibility but theatre level coordination will be necessary. The time to complete this should not be underestimated. The commander will need to balance the wish of national governments to get their forces home quickly after hostilities cease with the need to preserve stability in the former conflict area. During protracted campaigns and operations, the rotation of troops should be discussed and a common policy agreed at the outset.

WAR AS A COALITION PARTNER

7.24 Participation in coalition operations embrace aspects of combined operations tempered by the circumstances that has created the coalition. In considering the planning of coalition operations the following additional considerations should be noted:

- a. consensus,
- b. equity,
- c. goodwill,
- d. cultural differences,
- e. training,
- f. rehearsals, and
- g. personalities.

7.25 Consensus. The strongest nations in the coalition will often dictate its real strength not only in terms of the bond between nations but also through their physical contributions. Smaller partners may feel overshadowed which could give rise to perceptions of unequal risk and burden sharing particularly when setbacks occur. The cumulative effect can be debilitating and can, in extremis, lead to the breakdown of the coalition or alliance. Consensus is therefore crucial to the maintenance of cohesion and unity of effort. It requires a clear recognition and understanding of other nations' capabilities and perceptions as well as concessions to accommodate them as appropriate.

7.26 Equity. There should be equity of hardship, risk and reward or credit given within the alliance or coalition according to the various forces' capabilities and characteristics. This will be hard to achieve particularly where the combined force is based on a disparate and diverse grouping of nations. All will tend to judge equity subjectively and often with the benefit of hindsight. Hardship and risk are essentially synonymous and often assessed in terms of casualties and equipment losses. Reward or credit given is perhaps the hardest to achieve equitably. It may require some orchestration on the part of combined force planners to ensure that all nations are seen to be successful both internationally and domestically. It will be critical in terms of national pride. However, despite the obvious importance of equity to the maintenance of cohesion and unity within a combined force, it must not be allowed to prejudice the operation as a whole.

7.27 Goodwill. There must be goodwill at all levels within an alliance or coalition and in particular there must be a readiness to cooperate and support other nations. Compromise will inevitably be required if consensus is to be achieved. It has been said that it is prudent to remember that:

when an ally is proving difficult to deal with, it is well to remind oneself that one is also an ally.

Sun Tzu

7.28 Cultural differences. Nations with similar cultures based on the same language, like moral and ethical values and compatible social and economic outlooks tend to have comparable aspirations and objectives. Coalition forces comprising solely such nations will tend to face fewer problems in the planning and conduct of combined operations. However coalitions are not formed on this basis alone. Political strength, cohesion and influence are key characteristics and not just military expedients. Nations may only be able to make small and hence relatively inconsequential military contributions but their willingness to be identified politically with the coalition may be significant by comparison. Campaign planners must recognise the cultural differences of the constituent nations in a coalition if they are to achieve a consensus and therefore maximise cohesion rather than undermine it. National pride will be significant in this respect. Other differences may involve work ethics, religion and dietary restrictions. These may be seen as relatively unimportant by some but, unless handled sensitively, they could cause friction, misunderstanding and cracks in cohesion. Planners will need to be aware of and sensitive to these differences.

7.29 Training. As participants in a coalition may not have worked together before, it may be necessary to establish training teams. For example, between 1950 and 1953 Korean soldiers were given 16 weeks basic training in American methods at the Republic of Korea Army Replacement Centre before being allocated to their assigned divisions. Similarly in the 1990-91 Gulf War, General Schwarzkopf realised that the Saudi Army, although it was equipped with modern weaponry, was not well versed in the art of offensive operations. As a result United States training teams were dispatched to the Gulf to practise, in particular, ground-to-air control and liaison procedures with American artillery.

7.30 Rehearsals. Commanders should carefully consider combined rehearsals. The value of such activities was forcefully driven home to 1st United Kingdom Armoured Division in the Gulf in January 1991 when, three weeks prior to the start of ground operations, they conducted a night forward passage of lines rehearsal with the Americans. This was followed by further liaison visits during which time map studies, procedural exercises and sand model exercises took place down to sub-unit level.

7.31 Personalities. Sustaining consensus in a coalition is very much the responsibility of commanders and staffs. It requires vision, honesty and respect as well as effort and a clear willingness to cooperate on the part of those involved. Commanders' personalities and interrelationships will therefore influence the balance within the coalition and, as a result, its cohesiveness and strength. However, commanders of coalition forces are not necessarily prepared for such challenges, primarily because they do not normally encounter them in single nation operations. The political dimension is important noting particularly that the senior national commander of each contingent within a coalition, irrespective of their rank and the size of their nation's military contribution, will effectively be commanding at the operational level from a national perspective. This can place considerable pressure on the individual commanders themselves and strain on command relationships, especially when they are also involved at the tactical level in coalition terms. If all participating nations understand the purpose of the coalition and have trust and confidence in its command and leadership, consensus and cohesion can be sustained.

MILITARY SUPPORT OPERATIONS

7.32 Military support operations is defined as:

The use of military forces for purposes other than combat operations usually associated with war.

7.33 These operations are wide ranging and include, but are not limited to, the following:

- a. law enforcement, which will usually be in the form of Defence Force aid to the civil power. For example, counter-terrorist operations, and assistance to customs and immigration authorities (see Australian Defence Force Publication (ADFP) 44—*Civil Military Cooperation* and ADFP 45—*Special Operations*);
- b. Defence assistance to the civil community, which includes disaster relief, and search and rescue (see ADFP 43—*Evacuation Operations* and ADFP 44); and
- c. peace operations, in either United Nations (UN) or other coalition force. As peace operations are more complex and diverse, more detail is provided below.

Peace operations

7.34 As a member state of the UN, Australia endeavours to pursue international cooperation in keeping with the UN Charter. The Charter prescribes to solve international economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems and encourage respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. Australia supports the activities of the UN and is an active member of the General Assembly and other UN bodies. In keeping with this support, the ADF has frequently been called upon to assist UN sponsored and other multinational (combined) peace operations. Both types of operations are likely in the future. It is highly likely that any type of peace operation, unilateral, combined, coalition or regional, would be established under the legitimacy of the UN Charter.

7.35 Peace operations aid diplomatic efforts to resolve potential or actual conflict as well as, increasingly, to provide a framework for humanitarian relief operations. A wide range of peace operations have been established and the nature of many of them has been beyond the scope of traditional peacekeeping. Military force may be employed to aid peace building, peacemaking, preventive diplomacy, peacekeeping or peace enforcement initiatives.

7.36 The ADF divides peace operations into:

- a. **Peace building**—is a set of strategies which aim to ensure that disputes, armed conflicts and other major crises do not arise in the first place—or if they do arise that they do not subsequently recur.
- b. **Preventive diplomacy**—is action to prevent disputes from developing between parties, to prevent existing disputes from escalating into conflict and to limit the expansion of conflicts when they occur.
- c. **Peacemaking**—is diplomatic action to bring hostile parties to a negotiated agreement through such peaceful means as those foreseen under chapter VI of the UN Charter.
- d. **Peacekeeping**—is a non-coercive instrument of diplomacy, where a legitimate, international civil and/or military coalition is employed with the consent of the belligerent parties, in an impartial, noncombatant manner, to implement conflict resolution arrangements or assist humanitarian aid operations.
- e. **Peace enforcement**—is the coercive use of civil and military sanctions and collective security actions, by legitimate, international intervention forces, to assist diplomatic efforts to restore peace between belligerents, who may not consent to that intervention.

7.37 The complex nature of these multi-dimensional operations also requires specific approach or philosophy, supported by appropriate doctrine, although it should be noted that peace operations are nothing more than another form of combined military operation, albeit with particular principles and considerations.

Principles

7.38 While the principles of war remain applicable to a greater or lesser degree, there are additional, specific principles for the conduct of peace operations. Commanders and all members of a peace force must be aware of these principles so that their actions do not unwittingly or unknowingly escalate the operation from one of peacekeeping to one of peace enforcement.

7.39 The UN's principles for peace operations are:

- a. consent,
- b. impartiality,
- c. minimum necessary force,
- d. legitimacy,
- e. respect for sovereignty,
- f. credible force structure and composition,
- g. mutual respect,
- h. transparency,
- i. unity of command,
- j. interoperability, and
- k. freedom of movement.

The ADF applies different weighting to the principles in planning for the range of peace operations. For example, consent is not a requirement for a peace enforcement operation, but is essential for a peacekeeping mission.

Specific planning considerations

7.40 Planning for peace operations conforms with procedures for joint and combined planning within the ADF. The following specific considerations are noteworthy:

- a. operations are likely to be remote from Australia;
- b. operations will most likely be conducted in conjunction with other national contingents who may not be traditional allies (procedures, equipment and language will be key considerations);
- c. ADF planning is likely to be confined to the deployment phase and to policy matters concerned with a Status of Forces Agreement and Rules of Engagement;
- d. ADF contingency plans will need to address security, medical evacuation, maintenance and unilateral extraction or evacuation of the Australian contingent; and
- e. once deployed the Australian contingent will be employed and operate in accordance with UN Security Council or Multinational Force's mandate and directives.

Command and control of peace operations

7.41 An Australian contingent, as part of a UN sponsored force, will be placed under the operational control of the UN force commander who is appointed by the UN Security Council. The UN force commander is responsible for operational tasking and administrative and logistic support provided by the UN. UN support arrangements vary from mission to mission. The Australian contingent commander remains the national force commander and their specific national command responsibilities will be included in the national command directive issued to them. This directive will be issued directly by the Chief of the Defence Force or Commander Australian Theatre.

7.42 It is possible that operations may be conducted by forces other than a UN force. In this arrangement, individual states or alliances, perhaps regional, may take the lead or provide a framework organisation on behalf of the UN. This is particularly the case in peace enforcement operations.

7.43 Problems associated with multinational operations such as language, interoperability, logistics and doctrine may be exacerbated if large numbers of small national contingents are brought together into a coalition. Force structures involving forces that subscribe to similar doctrine and practices are therefore preferable, particularly in peace enforcement.

Supplementary information

7.44 Further guidance concerning planning for peace operations can be found in chapters 6 and 9 of ADFP 9—*Joint Planning*.

GLOSSARY

Australian support area

That part of Australia, established on the Australian continent, which provides the manpower, resources (civil and military) and materials required to raise, train, mobilise, deploy and sustain forces.

attrition

Attrition is the reduction of military effectiveness or capability of either friendly or enemy forces caused by the continued loss of personnel or material. Rates of attrition determine the progress and likely ultimate outcome of a campaign embracing the direct approach.

campaign

A controlled series of simultaneous or sequential operations designed to achieve an operational commander's objective, normally within a given time or space.

centre of gravity

That characteristic, capability or locality from which a military force, nation or alliance derives its freedom of action, strength or will to fight at that level of conflict. The centre of gravity at each level of conflict may consist of an number of key elements.

coalition operation

An operation conducted by forces of two or more nations, which may not be allies, acting together of the accomplishment of a single mission.

combat service support

The support provided to the combat forces, primarily in the fields of administration and logistics.

combined operation

An operation conducted by forces of two or more allied nations action together for the accomplishment of a single mission.

command and control warfare

An approach to military operations which employs all measures (including but not limited to operations security, military deception, physiological operations, electronic warfare, computer operations and targeting) in a deliberate and integrated manner, mutually supported by intelligence and communications and information systems, to disrupt or inhibit an adversary's ability to command and control their forces while protecting and enhancing our own.

contingency plan (NATO)

A plan for contingencies which can reasonably be anticipated in an area of responsibility.

critical vulnerabilities

A characteristic of key element of a force that if destroyed, captured or neutralised will significantly undermine the fighting capability of the force and its centre of gravity. A critical vulnerability is not necessarily a weakness but any source of strength or power that is capable of being attacked or neutralised. A successful attack on a critical vulnerability should aim to achieve a decisive point in an operation or campaign. A force may have a number of critical vulnerabilities.

culminating point

A culminating point is the point in time and location where a force will no longer be stronger than the enemy and risk losing the initiative. This may be due to reduced combat power, attrition, logistic, dwindling national will or other factors. To be successful, the operation must achieve its objectives before reaching its culminating point.

deception (NATO)

Those measures designed to mislead the enemy by manipulation, distortion, or falsification of evidence to induce him to react in a manner prejudicial to his interests.

decisive points

A major event that is a precondition to the successful disruption or negation of a centre of gravity of either combatant. A decisive point is created normally by successfully attacking or neutralising a critical vulnerability. Operational level planning aims to exploit an enemy's critical vulnerabilities in a sequence or matrix of decisive points known as lines of operation.

defence in depth (NATO)

The siting of mutually supporting defence positions designed to absorb and progressively weaken attack, prevent initial observations of the whole position by the enemy, and to allow the commander to manoeuvre his reserve.

deployment (NATO)

1. The extension or widening of the front of a military unit, extending from a close order to a battle formation.
2. In naval usage, the change from a cruising approach, or contact disposition to a disposition for battle.
3. In a strategic sense, the relocation of forces to desired areas of operation.

direct support

The support provided by a force not attached to, or assigned under a degree of operational authority of the supported force, which may be withdrawn only with the agreement of the supported force or direction of superior authority. Detailed planning and tasking remain with the supporting force's parent command. The support provided is to include the provision of advice, liaison and communications.

end-state

1. End-state is identified at the national and military levels as follows:
 - a. The national end-state is the set of desired conditions, incorporating the elements of national power, that will achieve the national objectives.
 - b. The military end-state is the set of desired conditions beyond which the use of military force is no longer required to achieve national objectives.

full command

Full command is defined as the military authority and responsibility of a superior officer to issue orders to subordinates. It covers every aspect of military operations and administration and exists only within national Services. The term command, as used internationally, implies a lesser degree of authority than when it is used in a purely national sense. It follows that no international commander has full command over the forces that are assigned to him.

guerrilla warfare (NATO)

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

in support of

In support of is the lowest level of control and is defined as assisting another formation, unit or organisation while remaining under original command. It does not confer on the supported headquarters any responsibility or authority for administration or movement of the supporting unit. The commander of the supporting force assigns priority to the support given in accordance with his own judgment or advice given by the supported force.

joint (NATO)

Connotes activities, operations, organisations, etc in which elements of more than one Service of the same nation participate.

joint force area of operations

That portion of a theatre necessary for joint military operations and their administration as part of a campaign.

leverage

This refers to possessing a marked advantage in a particular capability and the advantage that can be gained by exploiting that capability.

lines of operation

Lines of operation describe how military force is applied in time and space through decisive points on the path to the enemy's centre of gravity.

manoeuvre (NATO)

Employment of forces through movement, in combination with fire or fire potential, to achieve a position of advantage in respect to the enemy in order to accomplish the mission.

military strategy (NATO)

That component of national or multinational strategy, presenting the manner in which military power should be developed and applied to achieve national objectives or those of a group of nations.

military support operations

The use of military forces for purposes other than combat operations usually associated with war.

mobilisation (NATO)

1. The act of preparing for war or other emergencies through assembling and organising national resources.
2. The process by which the armed forces or part of them are brought to a state of readiness for war or other national emergency. This includes assembling and organising personnel, supplies and material for active military service.

national objectives (US)

The aims, derived from national goals and interests, toward which a national policy or strategy is directed and efforts and resources of the nation are applied.

objective (NATO)

The physical object of the action taken, eg a definite tactical feature, the seizure and/or holding of which is essential to the commander's plan.

operation (NATO)

A military action or the carrying out of a strategic, tactical, Service, training or administrative military mission; the process of carrying on combat including movement, supply, attack, defence and manoeuvres needed to gain the objectives of any battle or campaign.

operational command

This is the highest degree of authority which can be assigned to the commander of a joint force operation and is usually retained for the duration of the operation or campaign. It would be normal for the national military strategic authority to place assigned forces under operational command of a national commander who will then have the requisite authority to assign, deploy or reassign forces. For Australian Defence Force operations operational command may be delegated to a subordinate commander and will normally include responsibility for administration and logistics.

operational control

This degree of command gives a nominated commander the authority to direct forces assigned to achieve a specific mission within agreed limitations, usually related to function, time or location. The commander may delegate operational and tactical control to another commander but does not have the authority to assign separate employment to components of the formation or units concerned. It does not include responsibility for administration or logistics.

operational level of conflict

The operational level of conflict is concerned with the planning and conduct of campaigns. It is at this level that military strategy is implemented by assigning missions, tasks and resources to tactical operations.

operational milestones

Aids to understanding the pace and sequencing process are operational milestones. They are specific goals which impact critically on the sequence of the campaign.

operational objectives

These are the objectives that need to be achieved in the campaign to reach the military strategic end-state. Correct assessment of operational objectives is crucial to success at the operational level.

operational pauses

Operations cannot be conducted continuously and there may be a need for periodic pauses to consolidate.

sequencing

Sequencing is the arrangement of events within a campaign in the order most likely to achieve the elimination of the enemy's centre of gravity.

strategic level of conflict

The strategic level of conflict is that level of war which is concerned with the art and science of employing national power.

tactical level of conflict

The tactical level of conflict is concerned with the planning and conduct of battle and is characterised by the application of concentrated force and offensive action to gain objectives.

tactical command

This degree of command allows a commander to assign tasks to forces under his command for the accomplishment of the mission assigned by higher authority. The commander may delegate tactical control of the asset.

tactical control

A force assigned to a commander under tactical control allows local direction and control of movements or manoeuvres necessary to accomplish missions or tasks as directed by the assigning higher commander.

targeting

Targeting is the process of identifying targets for possible engagement and determining the attack system to capture, destroy, degrade or neutralise them.

tempo

Tempo is the rate or rhythm of activity relative to the enemy. It incorporates the capacity of the force to transition from one operational posture to another. Tempo is a critical determinant of operational logistics.

theatre

A designated geographic area for which an operational level joint or combined commander is appointed and in which a campaign or series of major operations is conducted. A theatre may contain one or more joint force areas of operations.

vulnerability study

An analysis of the capabilities and limitations of a force in a specific situation to determine vulnerabilities capable of exploitation by an opposing force.

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ABCA	American, British, Canadian and Australian (armies)
ACAUST	Air Commander Australia
ACC	air component commander
ACHQ	air component headquarters
ADF	Australian Defence Force
ADHQ	Australian Defence Headquarters
ADFWC	Australian Defence Force Warfare Centre
ADOA	air defence operations area
AHQ	Air Headquarters
AJSP	Australian Joint Service Plan
ANZUS	Australia, New Zealand and United States
AO	area of operations
APM	ANZUS Planning Manual
AS	Australia
ASA	Australian support area
ASC	Australian Contingent (used in a United Nations context)
ASCC	Air Standardisation Coordinating Committee
CAF	Chief of Air Force
CA	Chief of Army
C2W	command and control warfare
CATF	commander amphibious task force
CDF	Chief of the Defence Force
CFC	Combined force commander
CFHQ	combined force headquarters
CN	Chief of Navy
CINCPAC	Commander-in-chief Pacific
COMAST	Commander Australian Theatre
COMFLOT	Commander Flotillas
COMNORCOM	Commander Northern Command
COSC	Chiefs of Staff Committee
CPD	CDF Preparedness Directive
DACC	Defence assistance to the civil community
DFACP	Defence Force aid to the civil power
DGJOP	Director-General Joint Operations and Plans
DJLOP	Director Joint Logistics Operations and Plans
DJFC	deployed joint force commander
EA	electronic attack
EP	electronic protection
ES	electronic support
EW	electronic warfare
FEG	force element group
FMB	forward mounting base
HQAST	Headquarters Australian Theatre
IW	information warfare
JAPG	Joint Administrative Planning Group
JC	joint commander
JF	joint force
JFAO	joint force area of operations
JFC	joint force commander
JFHQ	joint force headquarters
JFLC	joint force logistics coordinator
JHQ	joint headquarters
JIC	Joint Intelligence Centre
JOPG	Joint Operations Planning Group
JPS	joint planning staff

HSCD	Head Strategic Command Division
HNSD	Head National Strategic Division
LCAUST	Land Commander Australia
LHQ	Land Headquarters
LofC	lines of communication
MAOR	maritime area of responsibility
MCAUST	Maritime Commander Australia
MHQ	Maritime Headquarters
mil	military
MILREPS	ANZUS military representative
MOU	memorandum of understanding
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
NATPOL	national policy
NCA	national command authority
opcomd	operational command
opcon	operational control
opconcepts	operational concepts
opinst	operational instruction
oplan	operational plan
opord	operational order
PI	public information
PR	public relations
ROE	rules of engagement
SAE	Services assisted evacuation
SP	special forces
SPE	Services protected evacuation
tacomd	tactical command
tacon	tactical control
TAOR	tactical area of responsibility
UN	United Nations
UNF	United Nations Force
UNHQ	United Nations Headquarters

Authorisation	iii
Foreword	v
Amendment Certificate	vii
Australian Defence Force Publications—Operations Series	ix
List of Figures	xv
Symbols of Protection	xvii
	Paragraph
CHAPTER 1	INTRODUCTION
	NATURE OF CONFLICT
	Friction 1.5
	Offence and Defence 1.7
	Centre of gravity 1.9
	Human factor 1.11
	Principles of war 1.12
	SCOPE OF MILITARY ACTION
	Operational continuum 1.13
	Definitions 1.19
	AUSTRALIA'S GEOSTRATEGIC CIRCUMSTANCES
	Warning 1.27
	Military support operations 1.30
CHAPTER 2	LEVELS OF CONFLICT
	INTRODUCTION
	COMMAND
	Command at the national strategic level 2.4
	Command at the military strategic level 2.6
	Command at the operational level 2.8
	Command at the tactical level 2.11
	Annexes:
	A. Levels of command
	B. Strategy in the South–West Pacific Area—1942
CHAPTER 3	OPERATIONAL ART
	Introduction 3.1
	Approaches to the operational level of war 3.2
	Decision cycles 3.5
	Components 3.7
	Operational objectives and the end-state 3.9
	Centre of gravity 3.12
	Critical vulnerabilities 3.18
	Decisive points 3.20
	Lines of operation 3.22
	Operational milestones 3.25
	Sequencing 3.26
	Command and control warfare 3.34
	Manoeuvre 3.39
	Tempo 3.47
	Operational pauses 3.51
	Culminating point 3.52
	Contingency planning 3.54
	Annex:
	A. Command and control warfare elements

CHAPTER 4	CAMPAIGN PLANNING	
	Operational art and the campaign	4.1
	Resources	4.2
	Planning sequence	4.6
	INITIATION AND CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT	
	Commander's appreciation	4.9
	Campaign concept of operations	4.12
	Resources in concept development	4.15
	PLAN DEVELOPMENT	
	IMPLEMENTATION AND MONITORING	
	Campaign and staff processes	4.21
CHAPTER 5	COMMANDING THE CAMPAIGN	
	Introduction	5.1
	Stages of the campaign	5.8
	DEPLOYMENT	
	ACHIEVEMENT OF OPERATIONAL OBJECTIVES	
	Synchronising	5.11
	Offence	5.12
	Defence	5.14
	Commander's intent	5.17
	Main effort	5.20
	Leadership	5.22
	CONCLUDING THE CAMPAIGN	
	COMMAND RELATIONSHIPS	
	Chain of command	5.35
	Status of command	5.37
	COMMAND AND CONTROL ARRANGEMENTS	
	Component method	5.41
	Directive control	5.43
CHAPTER 6	LOGISTIC SUPPORT FOR THE CAMPAIGN	
	General	6.1
	Levels of logistic support	6.3
	STRATEGIC LEVEL LOGISTICS	
	Responsibilities	6.5
	OPERATIONAL LEVEL LOGISTICS	
	Responsibilities	6.11
	TACTICAL LEVEL LOGISTICS	
	Responsibilities	6.13
	Logistic support for combined operations	6.15
CHAPTER 7	COMBINED, COALITION AND MILITARY SUPPORT OPERATIONS	
	Introduction	7.1
	COMMAND OF COMBINED OPERATIONS	
	Combined headquarters	7.5
	National command arrangements	7.7
	Language	7.10
	Liaison	7.11
	COMPOSITION OF COMBINED FORCES	
	PLANNING AND CONDUCT OF COMBINED OPERATIONS	
	WAR AS A COALITION PARTNER	

MILITARY SUPPORT OPERATIONS	
Peace operations	7.34
Principles	7.38
Specific planning considerations	7.40
Command and control of peace operations	7.41
Supplementary information	7.44
Glossary	
Acronyms and Abbreviations	

2-1
2A-1

Command levels
Assigned assets

2-2
2A-1

