SMALL WARS MANUAL

UNITED STATES MARINE CORPS

1940

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INDEX

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

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GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

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1–1. **Small wars defined.**—*a.* The term "Small War" is often a vague name for any one of a great variety of military operations. As applied to the United States, small wars are operations undertaken under executive authority, wherein military force is combined with diplomatic pressure in the internal or external affairs of another state whose government is unstable, inadequate, or unsatisfactory for the preservation of life and of such interests as are determined by the foreign policy of our Nation. As herein used the term is understood in its most comprehensive sense, and all the successive steps taken in the development of a small war and the varying degrees of force applied under various situations are presented.

b. The assistance rendered in the affairs of another state may vary from a peaceful act such as the assignment of an administrative assistant, which is certainly nonmilitary and not placed under the classification of small wars, to the establishment of a complete military government supported by an active combat force. Between these extremes may be found an infinite number of forms of friendly assistance or intervention which it is almost impossible to classify under a limited number of individual types of operations.

c. Small wars vary in degrees from simple demonstrative operations to military intervention in the fullest sense, short of war. They are not limited in their size, in the extent of their theater of operations nor their cost in property, money, or lives. The essence of a small war is its purpose and the circumstances surrounding its inception and conduct, the character of either one or all of the opposing forces, and the nature of the operations themselves.

d. The ordinary expedition of the Marine Corps which does not involve a major effort in regular warfare against a first-rate power

may be termed a small war. It is this type of routine active foreign duty of the Marine Corps in which this manual is primarily interested. Small wars represent the normal and frequent operations of the Marine Corps. During about 85 of the last 100 years, the Marine Corps has been engaged in small wars in different parts of the world. The Marine Corps has landed troops 180 times in 37 countries from 1800 to 1934. Every year during the past 36 years since the Spanish-American War, the Marine Corps has been engaged in active operations in the field. In 1929 the Marine Corps had two-thirds of its personnel employed on expeditionary or other foreign or sea duty outside of the continental limits of the United States.

1–2. **Classes of small wars.**—*a.* Most of the small wars of the United States have resulted from the obligation of the Government under the spirit of the Monroe Doctrine and have been undertaken to suppress lawlessness or insurrection. Punitive expeditions may be resorted to in some instances, but campaigns of conquest are contrary to the policy of the Government of the United States. It is the duty of our statesmen to define a policy relative to international relationships and provide the military and naval establishments with the means to carry it into execution. With this basis, the military and naval authorities may act intelligently in the preparation of their war plans in close cooperation with the statesman. There is mutual dependence and responsibility which calls for the highest qualities of statesmanship and military leadership. The initiative devolves upon the statesmen.

b. The legal and military features of each small war present distinctive characteristics which make the segregation of all of them into fixed classifications an extremely difficult problem. There are so many combinations of conditions that a simple classification of small wars is possible only when one is limited to specific features in his study, i. e., according to their legal aspects, their military or naval features, whether active combat was engaged in or not, and many other considerations.

1–3. **Some legal aspects of small wars.**—*a.* According to international law, as recognized by the leading nations of the world, a nation may protect, or demand protection for, its citizens and their property wherever situated. The President of the United States as the Chief Executive is, under the Constitution, primarily charged with the conduct of foreign relations, including the protection of the lives and property of United States citizens abroad, save insofar as the Constitution expressly vests a part of these functions in some other branch of the Government. (For example, the participation of the

Senate in the making of treaties.) It has been an unbroken policy of the President of the United States so to interpret their powers, beginning with the time of President Jefferson down to the present with the exception of President Buchanan.

b. The following pertinent extracts from U. S. Navy Regulations are cited:

On occasion where injury to the United States or to citizens thereof is committed or threatened, in violation of the principles of international law or treaty right, the Commander in Chief shall consult with the diplomatic representative or consul of the United States and take such steps as the gravity of the case demands, reporting immediately to the Secretary of the Navy all the facts. The responsibility for any action taken by a naval force, however, rests wholly upon the commanding officer thereof.

The use of force against a foreign and friendly state, or against anyone within the territories thereof, is illegal. The right of self-preservation, however, is a right which belongs to states as well as to individuals, and in the case of states it includes the protection of the state, its honor, and its possessions, and lives and property of its citizens against arbitrary violence, actual or impending, whereby the state or its citizens may suffer irreparable injury. The conditions calling for the application of the right of self-preservation cannot be defined beforehand, but must be left to the sound judgment of responsible officers, who are to perform their duties in this respect with all possible care and forbearance. In no case shall force be exercised in time of peace otherwise than as an application of the right of self-preservation as above defined. It must be used only as a last resort, and then only to the extent which is absolutely necessary to accomplish the end required. It can never be exercised with a view to inflicting punishment for acts already committed.

Whenever, in the application of the above-mentioned principles, it shall become necessary to land an armed force in foreign territory on occasion of political disturbance where the local authorities are unable to give adequate protection to life and property, the assent of such authorities, or of some one of them, shall first be obtained, if it can be done without prejudice to the interests involved. Due to the ease with which the Navy Department can be communicated from all parts of the world, no commander in chief, flag officer, or commanding officer shall issue an ultimatum to the representative of any foreign government, or demand the performance of any service from any such representative that must be executed within a limited time, without first communicating with the Navy Department except in extreme cases where such action is necessary to save life. (U. S. Navy Regulations. NR. 722, 723, and 724.)

c. The use of the forces of the United States in foreign countries to protect the lives and property of American citizens resident in those countries does not necessarily constitute an act of war, and is, therefore, not equivalent to a declaration of war. The President, as chief executive of the nation, charged with the responsibility of the lives and property of United States citizens abroad, has the authority to use the forces of the United States to secure such protection in foreign countries.

d. The history of the United States shows that in spite of the varying trend of the foreign policy of succeeding administrations, this Government has interposed or intervened in the affairs of other states with remarkable regularity, and it may be anticipated that the same general procedure will be followed in the future. It is well that the United States may be prepared for any emergency which may occur whether it is the result of either financial or physical disaster, or social revolution at home or abroad. Insofar as these conditions can be predicted, and as these plans and preparations can be undertaken, the United States should be ready for either of these emergencies with strategical and tactical plans, preliminary preparations, organization, equipment, education, and training.

1–4. **Functions of headquarters Marine Corps.**—*a.* Small wars, generally being the execution of the responsibilities of the President in protecting American interests, life and property abroad, are therefore conducted in a manner different from major warfare. In small wars, diplomacy has not ceased to function and the State Department exercises a constant and controlling influence over the military operations. The very inception of small wars, as a rule, is an official act of the Chief Executive who personally gives instructions without action of Congress.

b. The President, who has been informed of a given situation in some foreign country through the usual agencies at his disposal, makes the decision concerning intervention. In appropriate cases this decision is communicated to the Secretary of the Navy. The senior naval officer present in the vicinity of the disturbance may then be directed to send his landing force ashore, or given authority to do so at his discretion; the Marine Corps may be ordered to have an expeditionary force ready to proceed overseas with the minimum delay. These instructions are communicated to the Marine Corps via the Secretary of the Navy or Assistant Secretary. Frequently a definite number of men is called for and not a military organization; for example, 500 men (not one battalion). It is desirable, however, that a definite military organization which approximates the required strength and characteristics for accomplishing the mission be specified, such as one infantry battalion; one infantry regiment (plus one motor transport platoon), etc. The word often comes very suddenly and calls for the immediate concentration of the forces, ready to take passage on a certain transport which will be made available at a given time and place. Generally there are no other instructions than that the force shall report to * * *, "the Commander Special Service Squad-

ron," for example. Thereupon Headquarters Marine Corps designates the force, its personnel, organization, arms, and equipment; all necessary stores are provided and orders issued for the commanding officer of the force to report in person or by dispatch to the SOP or other authority in the disturbed area. With the present organized Fleet Marine Force ready for movement at a moment's notice, the Marine Corps now has available a highly trained and well equipped expeditionary force for use in small wars, thus eliminating in a large measure the former practice of hastily organizing and equipping such a force when the emergency arose. Accompanying these simple organization and movement orders are the monograph, maps, and other pertinent intelligence data of the disturbed area, to the extent that such information is on file and can be prepared for delivery to the Force Commander within the time limit. Thereafter Headquarters confines itself to the administrative details of the personnel replacements and the necessary supply of the force in the field.

c. The operations of the Force are directed by the Office of the Naval Operations direct or through the local naval Commander if he is senior to the Force Commander.

1–5. **Phases of small wars.**—*a.* Small wars seldom develop in accordance with any stereotyped procedure. Certain phases of those listed below may be absent in one situation; in another they may be combined and undertaken simultaneously; in still others one may find that the sequence of events or phases may be altered.

The actual operations of small wars may be arbitrarily divided into five phases as follows:

Phase 1. Initial demonstration or landing and action of vanguard.
Phase 2. The arrival of reenforcements and general military operations in the field.
Phase 3. Assumption of control of executive agencies, and cooperation with the legislative and judicial agencies.
Phase 4. Routine police functions.
Phase 5. Withdrawal from the Theater of Operations.

b. First phase.—Initial demonstration or landing and action of vanguard.

(1) One of the most common characteristics of the small wars of the United States is that its forces "dribble in" to the countries in which they intervene. This is quite natural in view of the national policy of the government. It is not at war with the neighboring state; it proposes no aggression or seizure of territory; its purpose is friendly and it wishes to accomplish its objectives with as little military display as possible with a view to gaining the lasting friendship of the inhabi-

tants of the country. Thus our Government is observed endeavoring to accomplish its end with the minimum of troops, in fact, with nothing more than a demonstration of force if that is all that is necessary and reasonably sufficient. This policy is carried on throughout the campaign and reenforcements are added by "driblets," so many companies, or a battalion, or a regiment at a time, until the force is large enough to accomplish its mission or until its its peacetime limitations in personnel have been reached. Even after landing, instructions probably will be received not to exert any physical force unless it becomes absolutely necessary, and then only to the minimum necessary to accomplish its purpose. Thus orders may be received not to fire on irregulars unless fired upon; instructions may be issued not to fire upon irregular groups if women are present with them even though it is known that armed women accompany the irregulars.

(2) During the initial phase small numbers of troops may be sent ashore to assume the initiative, as a demonstration to indicate a determination to control the situation, and to prepare the way for any troops to follow. This vanguard is generally composed of marine detachments or mixed forces of marines and sailors from ships at the critical points. Owing to its limited personnel the action of the vanguard will often be restricted to an active defense after seizing a critical area such as an important seaport or other city, the capital of a country or disturbed areas of limited extent.

c. Second phase.—The arrival of reenforcements and general military operations in the field.

During this period the theater of operations is divided into areas and forces are assigned for each. Such forces should be sufficiently strong to seize and hold the most important city in the area assigned and to be able to send combat patrols in all directions. If certain neutral zones have not been designated in the first phase, it may be done at this time if deemed advisable. During this phase the organization of a native military and police force is undertaken. In order to release ships' personnel to their normal functions afloat, such personnel are returned to their ships as soon as they can be relieved by troops of the expeditionary force.

d. Third phase.—Assumption of control of executive agencies, and cooperation with the legislative and judicial agencies.

If the measures in phase 2 do not bring decisive results, it may be necessary to resort to more thorough measures. This may involve the establishment of military government or martial law in varying degree from minor authority to complete control of the principal agen-

cies of the native government; it will involve the further strengthening of our forces by reenforcements. More detachments will be sent out to take other important localities; more active and thorough patrolling will be undertaken; measures will be taken to intercept the vital supply and support channels of the opposing factions and to break the resistance to law and order by a combination of effort of physical and moral means. During this period the marines carry the burden of most of the patrolling. Native troops, supported by marines, are increasingly employed as early as practicable in order that these native agencies may assume their proper responsibility for restoring law and order in their own country as an agency of their government.

e. Fourth phase.—Routine police functions. (1) After continued pressure of the measures in phase three, it is presumed that sooner or later regular forces will subdue the lawless elements. Military police functions and judicial authority, to the extent that they have been assumed by our military forces, are gradually returned to the native agencies to which they properly belong.

(2) Our military forces must not assume any judicial responsibility over local inhabitants beyond that expressly provided by proper authority. The judicial powers of commanders of detached posts must be clearly defined in orders from superior authority. Furthermore, as long as the judicial authority rests squarely upon the shoulders of the civil authorities, the military forces should continually impress and indoctrinate them with their responsibility while educating the people in this respect. Each situation presents certain characteristics peculiar to itself; in one instance officers were clothed with almost unlimited military authority within the law and our treaty rights; in another, less authority was exercised over the population; and in the third instance the forces of occupation had absolutely no judicial authority. The absence of such authority is often a decided handicap to forces of occupation in the discharge of their responsibilities. If the local judicial system is weak, or broken down entirely, it is better to endow the military authorities with temporary and legal judicial powers in order to avoid embarrassing situations which may result from illegal assumption.

(3) During this phase the marines act as a reserve in support of the native forces and are actively employed only in grave emergencies. The marines are successively withdrawn to the larger centers, thus affording a better means for caring for the health, comfort, and recreation of the command.

f. Fifth phase.—Withdrawal from the theater of operations. Finally, when order is restored, or when the responsible native agencies are prepared to handle the situation without other support, the troops are withdrawn upon orders from higher authority. This process is progressive from the back country or interior outward, in the reverse order to the entry into the country. After evacuation of the forces of intervention, a Legation Guard, which assumes the usual functions of such a detachment, may be left in the capital.

1–6. **Summary.**—*a.* Since the World War there has been a flood of literature dealing with the old principles illustrated and the new technique developed in that war; but there always have been and ever will be other wars of an altogether different kind, undertaken in very different theaters of operations and requiring entirely different methods from those of the World War. Such are the small wars which are described in this manual.

b. There is a sad lack of authoritative texts on the methods employed in small wars. However, there is probably no military organization of the size of the U. S. Marine Corps in the world which has had as much practical experience in this kind of combat. This experience has been gained almost entirely in small wars against poorly organized and equipped native irregulars. With all the practical advantages we enjoyed in those wars, that experience must not lead to an underestimate of the modern irregular, supplied with modern arms and equipment. If marines have become accustomed to easy victories over irregulars in the past, they must now prepare themselves for the increased effort which will be necessary to insure victory in the future. The future opponent may be as well armed as they are; he will be able to concentrate a numerical superiority against isolated detachments at the time and place he chooses; as in the past he will have a thorough knowledge of the trails, the country, and the inhabitants; and he will have the inherent ability to withstand all the natural obstacles, such as climate and disease, to a greater extent than a white man. All these natural advantages, combining primitive cunning and modern armament, will weigh heavily in the balance against the advantage of the marine forces in organization, equipment, intelligence, and discipline, if a careless audacity is permitted to warp good judgment.

c. Although small wars present a special problem requiring particular tactical and technical measures, the immutable principles of war remain the basis of these operations and require the greatest ingenuity in their application. As a regular war never takes exactly

the form of any of its predecessors, so, even to a greater degree is each small war somewhat different from anything which has preceded it. One must ever be on guard to prevent his views becoming fixed as to procedure or methods. Small wars demand the highest type of leadership directed by intelligence, resourcefulness, and ingenuity. Small wars are conceived in uncertainty, are conducted often with precarious responsibility and doubtful authority, under indeterminate orders lacking specific instructions.

d. Formulation of foreign policy in our form of government is not a function of the military. Relations of the United States with foreign states are controlled by the executive and legislative branches of the Government. These policies are of course binding upon the forces of intervention, and in the absence of more specific instructions, the commander in the field looks to them for guidance. For this reason all officers should familiarize themselves with current policies. A knowledge of the history of interventions, and the displays of force and other measures short of war employed by our Government in the past, are essential to thorough comprehension of our relations with foreign states insofar as these matters are concerned.

SECTION II

STRATEGY

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1–7. **The basis of the strategy.**—*a.* The military strategy of small wars is more directly associated with the political strategy of the campaign than is the case in major operations. In the latter case, war is undertaken only as a last resort after all diplomatic means of adjusting differences have failed and the military commander's objective ordinarily becomes the enemy's armed forces.

b. Diplomatic agencies usually conduct negotiations with a view to arriving at a peaceful solution of the problem on a basis compatible with both national honor and treaty stipulations. Although the outcome of such negotiations often results in a friendly settlement, the military forces should be prepared for the possibility of an unfavorable termination of the proceedings. The mobilization of armed forces constitutes a highly effective weapon for forcing the opponent to accede to national demands without resort to war. When a time limit for peaceful settlement is prescribed by ultimatum the military-naval forces must be prepared to initiate operations upon expiration of the time limit.

c. In small wars, either diplomacy has not been exhausted or the party that opposes the settlement of the political question cannot be reached diplomatically. Small war situations are usually a phase of, or an operation taking place concurrently with, diplomatic effort. The political authorities do not relinquish active participation in the negotions and they ordinarily continue to exert considerable influence on the military campaign. The military leader in such operations thus finds himself limited to certain lines of action as to the strategy and even as to the tactics of the campaign. This feature has been so marked in past operations, that marines have been referred to as State Department Troops in small wars. In certain cases of this kind the State Department has even dictated the size of the force to be sent to the theater of operations. The State Department materially influ-

ences the strategy and tactics by orders and instructions which are promulgated through the Navy Department or through diplomatic representatives.

d. State Department officials represent the Government in foreign countries. The force generally nearest at hand to back up the authority of these agents is the Navy. In such operations the Navy is performing its normal function, and has, as a component part of its organization, the Fleet Marine Force, organized, equipped, and trained to perform duty of this nature. After the Force has landed, the commander afloat generally influences the operations only to the extent necessary to insure their control and direction in accordance with the policy of the instructions that he has received from higher authority. He supports and cooperates with the Force to the limit of his ability. In the latter stages of the operation the local naval commander may relinquish practically all control in order to carry out routine duties elsewhere. In such case the general operations plan is directed by, or through, the office of the Naval Operations in Washington.

e. Wars of intervention have two classifications; intervention in the internal, or intervention in the external affairs of another state. Intervention in the internal affairs of a state may be undertaken to restore order, to sustain governmental authority, to obtain redress, or to enforce the fulfilment of obligations binding between the two states. Intervention in the external affairs of a state may be the result of a treaty which authorizes one state to aid another as a matter of political expediency, to avoid more serious consequences when the interests of other states are involved, or to gain certain advantages not obtainable otherwise. It may be simply an intervention to enforce certain opinions or to propagate certain doctrines, principles, or standards. For example, in these days when pernicious propaganda is employed to spread revolutionary doctrines, it is conceivable that the United States might intervene to prevent the development of political disaffection which threatens the overthrow of a friendly state and indirectly influences our own security.

1–8. **Nature of the operations.**—*a.* Irregular troops may disregard, in part or entirely, International Law and the Rules of Land Warfare in their conduct of hostilities. Commanders in the field must be prepared to protect themselves against practices and methods of combat not sanctioned by the Rules of War.

b. Frequently irregulars kill and rob peaceful citizens in order to obtain supplies which are then secreted in remote strongholds. Seizure or destruction of such sources of supply is an important factor

in reducing their means of resistance. Such methods of operation must be studied and adapted to the psychological reaction they will produce upon the opponents. Interventions or occupations are usually peaceful and altruistic. Accordingly, the methods of procedure must rigidly conform to this purpose; but when forced to resort to arms to carry out the object of the intervention, the operation must be pursued energetically and expeditiously in order to overcome the resistance as quickly as possible.

c. The campaign plan and strategy must be adapted to the character of the people encountered. National policy and the precepts of civilized procedure demand that our dealings with other peoples be maintained on a high-moral plan. However, the military strategy of the campaign and the tactics employed by the commander in the field must be adapted to the situation in order to accomplish the mission without delay.

d. After a study has been made of the people who will oppose the intervention, the strategical plan is evolved. The military strategical plan should include those means which will accomplish the purpose in view quickly and completely. Strategy should attempt to gain psychological ascendancy over the outlaw or insurgent element prior to hostilities. Remembering the political mission which dictates the military strategy of small wars, one or more of the following basic modes of procedure may be decided upon, depending upon the situation:

(1) Attempt to attain the aims of the intervention by a simple, clear, and forceful declaration of the position and intention of the occupying force, this without threat or promise.

(2) By a demonstration of the power which could be employed to carry out these intentions.

(3) The display of the naval or military force within the area involved.

(4) The actual application of armed force. During the transitory stage or prior to active military operations, care should be taken to avoid the commission of any acts that might precipitate a breach. Once armed force is resorted to, it should be applied with determination and to the extent required by the situation. Situations may develop so rapidly that the transition from negotiations to the use of armed force gives the commander little or no time to exert his influence through the use of the methods mentioned in subparagraphs (2) and (3) above.

e. The strategy of this type of warfare will be strongly influenced by the probable nature of the contemplated operations. In regular

warfare the decision will be gained on known fronts and probably limited theaters of operations; but in small wars no defined battle front exists and the theater of the operations may be the whole length and breadth of the land. While operations are carried out in one area, other hostile elements may be causing serious havoc in another. The uncertainty of the situation may require the establishment of detached posts within small areas. Thus the regular forces may be widely dispersed and probably will be outnumbered in some areas by the hostile forces. This requires that the Force be organized with a view to mobility and flexibility, and that the troops be highly trained in the use of their special weapons as well as proper utilization of terrain.

f. Those who have participated in small wars agree that these operations find an appropriate place in the art of war. Irregular warfare between two well-armed and well-disciplined forces will open up a larger field for surprise, deception, ambuscades, etc., than is possible in regular warfare.

1-9. **National war.**—*a.* In small wars it can be expected that hostile forces in occupied territory will employ guerilla warfare as a means of gaining their end. Accounts of recent revolutionary movements, local or general, in various parts of the world indicate that young men of 18 or 20 years of age take active parts as organizers in these disturbances. Consequently, in campaigns of this nature the Force will be exposed to the action of this young and vigorous element. Rear installations and lines of communications will be threatened. Movements will be retarded by ambuscades and barred defiles, and every detachment presenting a tempting target will be harassed or attacked. In warfare of this kind, members of native forces will suddenly become innocent peasant workers when it suits their fancy and convenience. In addition, the Force will be handicapped by partisans, who constantly and accurately inform native forces of our movements. The population will be honeycombed with hostile sympathizers, making it difficult to procure reliable information. Such difficulty will result either from the deceit used by hostile sympathizers and agents, or from the intimidation of friendly natives upon whom reliance might be placed to gain information.

b. In cases of levees en masse, the problem becomes particularly difficult. This is especially true when the people are supported by a nucleus of disciplined and trained professional soldiers. This combination of soldier and armed civilian presents serious opposition

to every move attempted by the Force; even the noncombatants conspire for the defeat of the Force.

c. Opposition becomes more formidable when the terrain is difficult, and the resistance increases as the Force moves inland from its bases. Every native is a potential clever opponent who knows the country, its trails, resources, and obstacles, and who has friends and sympathizers on every hand. The Force may be obliged to move cautiously. Operations are based on information which is at best unreliable, while the natives enjoy continuous and accurate information. The Force after long and fatiguing marches fails to gain contact and probably finds only a deserted camp, while their opponents, still enjoying the initiative, are able to withdraw or concentrate strong forces at advantageous places for the purpose of attacking lines of communication, convoys, depots, or outposts.

d. It will be difficult and hazardous to wage war successfully under such circumstances. Undoubtedly it will require time and adequate forces. The occupying force must be strong enough to hold all the strategical points of the country, protect its communications, and at the same time furnish an operating force sufficient to overcome the opposition wherever it appears. Again a simple display of force may be sufficient to overcome resistance. While curbing the passions of the people, courtesy, friendliness, justice, and firmness should be exhibited.

e. The difficulty is sometimes of an ecouomical, political, or social nature and not a military problem in origin. In one recent campaign the situation was an internal political problem in origin, but it had developed to such a degree that foreign national interests were affected; simple orderly processes could no longer be applied when it had outgrown the local means of control. Iu another instance the problem was economic and social; great tracts of the richest land were controlled and owned by foreign interests; this upset the natural order of things; the admission of cheap foreign labor with lower standards of living created a social condition among the people which should have been remedied by orderly means before it reached a crisis.

f. The application of purely military measures may not, by itself restore peace and orderly government because the fundamental causes of the condition of unrest may be economic, political, or social. These conditions may have originated years ago and in many cases have been permitted to develop freely without any attempt to apply corrective measures. An acute situation finally develops when condi-

tions have reached a stage that is beyond control of the civil authorities and it is too late for diplomatic adjustment. The solution of such problems being basically a political adjustment, the military measures to be applied must be of secondary importance and should be applied only to such extent as to permit the continuation of peaceful corrective measures.

g. The initial problem is to restore peace. There may be many economic and social factors involved, pertaining to the administrative, executive, and judicial functions of the government. These are completely beyond military power as such unless some form of military government is included in the campaign plan. Peace and industry cannot be restored permanently without appropriate provisions for the economic welfare of the people. Moreover, productive industry cannot be fully restored until there is peace. Consequently, the remedy is found in emphasizing the corrective measures to be taken in order to permit the orderly return to normal conditions.

h. In general, the plan of action states the military measures to be applied, including the part the forces of occupation will play in the economic and social solution of the problem. The same consideration must be given to the part to be played by local government and the civil population. The efforts of the different agencies must be cooperative and coordinated to the attainment of the common end.

i. Preliminary estimates of the situation form the basis of plans to meet probable situations and should be prepared as far in advance as practicable. They should thereafter be modified and developed as new situations arise.

SECTION III

PSYCHOLOGY

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1–10. **Foreword.**—*a.* While it is improbable that a knowledge of psychology will make any change in the fundamentals of the conduct of small wars, it will, however, lead to a more intelligent application of the principles which we now follow more or less unconsciously through custom established by our predecessors.

b. Psychology has always played an important part in war. This knowledge was important in ancient wars of masses; it becomes more so on the modern battlefield, with widely dispersed forces and the complexity of many local operations by small groups, or even individuals, making up the sum total of the operation. In former times the mass of enemy troops, like our own, was visible to and under the immediate control of its leaders. Now troops are dispersed in battle and not readily visible, and we must understand the psychology of the individual, who operates beyond the direct control of his superiors.

c. This difficulty of immediate control and personal influence is even more pronounced and important in small wars, on account of the decentralized nature of these operations. This fact is further emphasized because in the small wars we are dealing not only with our own forces, but also with the civil population which frequently contains elements of doubtful or antagonistic sentiments. The very nature of our own policy and attitude toward the opposing forces and normal contacts with them enable the personnel of our Force to secure material advantages through the knowledge and application of psychologieal principles.

d. This knowledge does not come naturally to the average individual. A study of men and human nature supplemented by a thorough knowl-

edge of psychology should enable those faced with concrete situations of this type to avoid the ordinary mistakes. The application of the principles of psychology in small wars is quite different from their normal application in major warfare or even in troop leadership. The aim is not to develop a belligerent spirit in our men but rather one of caution and steadiness. Instead of employing force, one strives to accomplish the purpose by diplomacy. A Force Commander who gains his objective in a small war without firing a shot has attained far greater success than one who resorted to the use of arms. While endeavoring to avoid the infliction of physical harm to any native, there is always the necessity of preventing, as far as possible, any casualties among our own troops.

e. This is the policy with which our troops are indoctrinated; a policy which governs throughout the period of intervention and finds exception only in those situations where a resort to arms and the exercise of a belligerent spirit are necessary. This mixture of combined peaceful and warlike temperament, where adapted to any single operation, demands an application of psychology beyond the requirements of regular warfare. Our troops at the same time are dealing with a strange people whose racial origin, and whose social, political, physical and mental characteristics may be different from any before encountered.

f. The motive in small wars is not material destruction. It is usually a project dealing with the social, economic, and political development of the people. It is of primary importance that the fullest benefit be derived from the psychological aspects of the situation. That implies a serious study of the people, their racial, political, religious, and mental development. By analysis and study the reasons for the existing emergency may be deduced; the most practical method of solving the problem is to understand the possible approaches thereto and the repercussion to be expected from any actions which may be contemplated. By this study and the ability to apply correct psychological doctrine, many pitfalls may be avoided and the success of the undertaking assured.

g. The great importance of psychology in small wars must be appreciated. It is a field of unlimited extent and possibilities, to which much time and study should be devoted. It cannot be stated in rules and learned like mathematics. Human reactions cannot be reduced to an exact science, but there are certain principles which should guide our conduct. These principles are deduced by studying the history of the people and are mastered only by experience in their practical application.

1–11. **Characteristics.**—The correct application of the principles of psychology to any given situation requires a knowledge of the traits peculiar to the persons with whom we are dealing. The individual characteristics as well as the national psychology are subjects for intensive study. This subject assumes increasing importance in minor operations. A failure to use tact when required or lack of firmness at a crucial moment might readily precipitate a situation that could have been avoided had the commander been familiar with the customs, religion, morals, and education of those with whom he was dealing.

1–12. **Fundamental considerations.**—The resistance to an intervention comes not only from those under arms but also from those furnishing material or moral support to the opposition. Sapping the strength of the actual or potential hostile ranks by the judicious application of psychological principles may be just as effective as battle casualties. The particular methods and extent of the application of this principle will vary widely with the situation. Some of the fundamental policies applicable to almost any situation are:

1. Social customs such as class distinctions, dress, and similar items should be recognized and receive due consideration.

2. Political affiliations or the appearance of political favoritism should be avoided; while a thorough knowledge of the political situation is essential, a strict neutrality in such matters should be observed.

3. A respect for religious customs.

Indifference in all the above matters can only be regarded as a lack of tact.

1–13. **Revolutionary tendencies.**—*a.* In the past, most of our interventions have taken place when a revolution was in full force or when the spirit of revolution was rampant. In view of these conditions (which are so often encountered in small wars) it may be well to consider briefly some of the characteristics of revolutions.

b. The knowledge of the people at any given moment of history involves an understanding of their environment, and above all, their past. The influence of racial psychology on the destiny of a people appears plainly in the history of those subject to perpetual revolutions. When composed largely of mixed races—that is to say, of individuals whose diverse heredities have dissociated their ancestral characteristics—those populations present a special problem. This class is always difficult to govern, if not ungovernable, owing to the absence of a fixed character. On the other hand, sometimes a people who have been under a rigid form of government may affect the most violent revolutions. Not having succeeded in developing progressively, or in

adapting themselves to changes of environment, they are likely to react violently when such adaptation becomes inevitable.

c. Revolution is the term generally applied to sudden political changes, but the expression may be employed to denote any sudden transformation whether of beliefs, ideas, or doctrines. In most cases the basic causes are economic. Political revolutions ordinarily result from real or fancied grievances, existing in the minds of some few men, but many other causes may produce them. The word "discontent" sums them up. As soon as discontent becomes general a party is formed which often becomes strong enough to offer resistance to the government. The success of a revolution often depends on gaining the assistance or neutrality of the regular armed forces. However, it sometimes happens that the movement commences without the knowledge of the armed forces; but not infrequently it has its very inception within these forces. Revolutions may take place in the capital, and by contagion spread through the country. In other instances the general disaffection of the people takes concrete form in some place remote from the capital, and when it has gathered momentum moves on the capital.

d. The rapidity with which a revolution develops is made possible by modern communication facilities and publicity methods. Trivial attendant circumstances often play highly important roles in contributing to revolution and must be observed closely and given appropriate consideration. The fact is that beside the great events of which history treats there are the innumerable little facts of daily life which the casual observer may fail to see. These facts individually may be insignificant. Collectively, their volume and power may threaten the existence of the government. The study of the current history of unstable countries should include the proper evaluation of all human tendencies. Local newspapers and current periodicals are probably the most valuable sources for the study of present psychological trends of various nations. Current writings of many people of different classes comprise a history of what the people are doing and thinking and the motives for their acts. Thus, current periodicals, newspapers, etc., will more accurately portray a cross section of the character of the people. In studying the political and psychical trends of a country, one must ascertain whether or not all news organs are controlled by one political faction, in order to avoid developing an erroneous picture of the situation.

e. Governments often almost totally fail to sense the temper of their people. The inability of a government to comprehend existing condi-

tions, coupled with its blind confidence in its own strength, frequently results in remarkably weak resistance to attack from within.

f. *The outward events of revolutions are always a consequence of* changes, often unobserved, which have gone slowly forward in men's minds. Any profound understanding of a revolution necessitates a knowledge of the mental soil in which the ideas that direct its course have to germinate. Changes in mental attitude are slow and hardly perceptible; often they can be seen only by comparing the character of the people at the beginning and at the end of a given period.

g. A revolution is rarely the result of a widespread conspiracy among the people. Usually it is not a movement which embraces a very large number of people or which calls into play deep economic or social motives. Revolutionary armies seldom reach any great size; they rarely need to in order to succeed. On the other hand, the military force of the government is generally small, ill equipped, and poorly trained; not infrequently a part, if not all of it, proves to be disloyal in a political crisis.

h. The majority of the people, especially in the rural districts, dislike and fear revolutions, which often involve forced military service for themselves and destruction of their livestock and their farm produce. However, they may be so accustomed to misgovernment and exploitation that concerted effort to check disorderly tendencies of certain leaders never occurs to them. It is this mass ignorance and indifference rather than any disposition to turbulence in the nation as a whole, which has prevented the establishment of stable government in many cases.

i. Abuses by the officials in power and their oppression of followers of the party not in power, are often the seeds of revolution. The spirit which causes the revolution arouses little enthusiasm among the poor natives at large unless they are personally affected by such oppression. The revolution, once started, naturally attracts all of the malcontents and adventurous elements in the community. The revolution may include many followers, but its spirit emanates from a few leaders. These leaders furnish the spark without which there would be no explosion. Success depends upon the enthusiastic determination of those who inspire the movement. Under effective leadership the mass will be steeped in revolutionary principles, and imbued with a submission to the will of the leader and an enthusiastic energy to perform acts in support thereof. Finally, they feel that they are the crusaders for a new deal which will regenerate the whole country. In extremely remote, isolated, and illiterate sections an educated revolu-

tionary leader may easily lead the inhabitants to believe that they, in the act of taking up arms, are actually engaged in repelling invasion. Many such ruses are employed in the initial stages and recruiting is carried on in this manner for long periods and the inhabitants are in a state of ignorance of the actual situation.

j. How is this situation to be met? A knowledge of the laws relating to the psychology of crowds is indispensible to the interpretation of the elements of revolutionary movements, and to their conduct. Each individual of the crowd, based on the mere fact that he is one of many, senses an invincible power which at once nullifies the feeling of personal responsibility. This spirit of individual irresponsibility and loss of identity must be overcome by preventing the mobilization or concentration of revolutionary forces, and by close supervision of the actions of individuals.

k. Another element of mob sentiment is imitation. This is particularly true in people of a low order of education. Attempt should be made to prevent the development of a hero of the revolutionary movement, and no one should be permitted to become a martyr to the cause. Members of a crowd also display an exaggerated independence.

l. The method of approaching the problem should be to make revolutionary acts nonpaying or nonbeneficial and at the same time endeavor to remove or remedy the causes or conditions responsible for the revolution. One obstacle in dealing with a revolution lies in the difficulty of determining the real cause of the trouble. When found, it is often disclosed as a minor fault of the simplest nature. Then the remedies are also simple.

m. The opposing forces may employ modern weapons and technique adapted to regular organized units, but the character of the man who uses these weapons remains essentially the same as it always was. The acts of a man are determined by his character; and to understand or predict the action of a leader or a people their character must be understood. Their judgments or decisions are based upon their intelligence and experience. Unless a revolutionary leader can be discountenanced in the eyes of his followers, it may be best to admit such leadership. Through him a certain discipline may be exercised which will control the actions of a revolutionary army; for without discipline, people and armies become barbarian hordes.

n. In general, revolutionary forces are new levies, poorly trained, organized, and equipped. Yet they can often be imbued with an ardent enthusiasm and are capable of heroism to the extent of giving their lives unhesitatingly in support of their beliefs.

1–14. **Basic instincts.**—*a.* It is perfectly natural that the instinct of self-preservation should be constantly at work. This powerful influence plays an important part in the attitude of the natives in small wars. It is not surprising that any indication of intervention or interposition will prompt his instinct of self-preservation to oppose this move. Every means should be employed to convince such people of the altruistic intention of our Government.

b. Fear is one of the strongest natural emotions in man. Among primitive people not far removed from an oppressed or enslaved existence, it is easy to understand the people's fear of being again enslaved; fear of political subjugation causes violent opposition to any movement which apparently threatens political or personal liberty.

c. Another basic instinct of man is self-assertion. This is a desire to be considered worthy among his fellow beings. Life for the individual centers around himself. The individual values his contacts as good or bad according to how he presumes he has been treated and how much consideration has been given to his own merits. This instinct inspires personal resentment if his effort is not recognized. Pride, which is largely self-assertion, will not tolerate contradiction. Self-respect includes also the element of self-negation which enables one to judge his own qualities and profit by the example, precept, advice, encouragement, approval, or disapproval of others. It admits capacity to do wrong, since it accepts the obligation of social standards. In dealing with foreign peoples credit should be readily accorded where merited, and undue criticism avoided.

d. There are also peoples and individuals whose instinctive reaction in contact with external influence is that of self-submission. Here is found a people who, influenced by the great power of the United States, are too willing to shirk their individual responsibility and are too ready to let others shoulder the full responsibility for restoring and, still worse, maintaining order and normalcy. In this event, if the majority of the natives are thus inclined, the initial task is quite easy, but difficulty arises in attempting to return the responsibility to those to whom it rightfully belongs. As little local responsibility as possible to accomplish the mission should be assumed, while the local government is encouraged to carry its full capacity of responsibility. Any other procedure weakens the sovereign state, complicating the relationship with the military forces and prolonging the occupation.

e. States are naturally very proud of their sovereignty. National policy demands minimum interference with that sovereignty. On occasion there is clash of opinion between the military and local civil power in a given situation, and the greatest tact and diplomacy is required to bring the local political authorities to the military point of view. When the matter is important, final analysis may require resort to more vigorous methods. Before a compromise is attempted, it should be clearly understood that such action does not sacrifice all the advantages of both of the opposing opinions.

f. The natives are also proud individually. One should not award any humiliating punishments or issue orders which are unnecessarily hurtful to the pride of the inhabitants. In the all-important interest of discipline, the invention and infliction of such punishments no matter how trivial must be strictly prohibited in order to prevent the bitterness which would naturally ensue.

g. In revolutions resort may be had to sabotage. Unless the circumstances demand otherwise, the repair of damage should be done by civilian or prison labor. This will have a more unfavorable psychological effect on the revolutionists than if the occupying forces were employed to repair the damage.

h. Inhabitants of countries with a high rate of illiteracy have many childlike characteristics. In the guidance of the destinies of such people, the more that one shows a fraternal spirit, the easier will be the task and the more effective the results. It is manifestly unjust to judge such people by our standards. In listening to peasants relate a story, whether under oath or not, or give a bit of information, it may appear that they are tricky liars trying to deceive or hide the truth, because they do not tell a coherent story. It should be understood that these illiterate and uneducated people live close to nature. The fact that they are simple and highly imaginative and that their background is based on some mystic form of religion gives rise to unusual kinds of testimony. It becomes a tedious responsibility to elicit the untarnished truth. This requires patience beyond words. The same cannot be said for all the white-collar, scheming politicians of the city who are able to distinguish between right and wrong, but who flagrantly distort the truth.

i. The "underground" or "grapevine" method of communication is an effective means of transmitting information and rumors with unbelievable rapidity among the natives. When events happen in one locality which may bring objectionable repercussions in another upon receipt of this information, it is well to be prepared to expect the

speedy transmission of that knowledge even in spite of every effort to keep it localized or confidential. The same means might be considered for use by intelligence units in disseminating propaganda and favorable publicity.

j. Often natives refuse to give any information and the uninitiated might immediately presume that they are members of the hostile forces or at least hostile sympathizers. While the peasant hopes for the restoration of peace and order, the constant menace and fear of guerrillas is so overpowering that he does not dare to place any confidence in an occasional visiting patrol of the occupying forces. When the patrol leader demands information, the peasant should not be misjudged for failure to comply with the request, when by so doing, he is signing his own death warrant.

k. Actual authority must not be exceeded in demanding information. A decided advantage of having military government or martial law is to give the military authorities the power to bring legal summary, and exemplary punishment to those who give false information. Another advantage of such government is the authority to require natives to carry identification cards on their persons constantly. It has been found that the average native is not only willing and anxious, but proud to carry some paper signed by a military authority to show that he is recognized. The satisfaction of this psychological peculiarity and, what is more important or practical, its exploitation to facilitate the identity of natives is a consideration of importance. This also avoids most of the humiliating and otherwise unproductive process often resorted to in attempting to identify natives or their possible relationship to the opposing forces.

l. There are people among whom the spirit of self-sacrifice does not exist to the extent found among more highly civilized peoples or among races with fanatical tendencies. This may account for the absence of the individual bravery in the attack or assault by natives even where their group has a great preponderance of numbers; among certain peoples there is not the individual combat, knifing, machete attacks by lone men which one encounters among others. This may be due to the lack of medical care provided, lack of religious fanaticism, lack of recognition for personal bravery, or lack of provision for care of dependents in case of injury or death. Psychological study of the people should take this matter into consideration and the organization, tactics, and security measures must be adapted accordingly.

m. It is customary for some people to attempt to place their officials under obligation to them by offering gifts, or gratuitous services of

different kinds. This is their custom and they will expect it to prevail among others. No matter how innocent acceptance may be, and in spite of the determination that it shall never influence subsequent actions or decisions, it is best not to be a party to any such petty bribery. Another common result of such transaction is that the native resorts to this practice among his own people to indicate that he is in official favor, and ignorant individuals on the other hand believe it. Needless to say, when it is embarrassing, or practically impossible to refuse to accept a gift or gratuity, such acceptance should not influence subsequent decisions. To prevent subsequent requests for favors the following is suggested: Accept the gift with the proper and expected delight; then, before the donor has an opportunity to see you and request a favor, send your servant with a few American articles obtainable in our commissaries and which are considered delicacies by the natives. The amount should be about equal in value, locally, to the gift accepted; and usually the native will feel that he has not placed you under an obligation.

n. Sometimes the hospitality of the natives must be accepted, and it is not intended to imply that this should not be done on appropriate occasions. On the contrary, this social intercourse is often fruitful of a better mutual understanding. Great care must be exercised that such contacts are not limited to the people of any social group or political party. This often leads to the most serious charges of discrimination and favoritism which, even though untrue, will diminish the respect, confidence, and support of all who feel that they are not among the favored. If opportunities are not presented, they should be created to demonstrate clearly to all, that contacts are not discriminatory and that opinions and actions are absolutely impartial.

1–15. **Attitude and bearing.**—*a.* A knowledge of the character of the people and a command of their language are great assets. Political methods and motives which govern the actions of foreign people and their political parties, incomprehensible at best to the average North American, are practically beyond the understanding of persons who do not speak their language. If not already familiar with the language, all officers upon assignment to expeditionary duty should study and acquire a working knowledge of it.

b. Lack of exact information is normal in these operations, as is true in all warfare. Lack of information does not justify withholding orders when needed, nor failing to take action when the situation demands it. The extent to which the intelligence service can obtain information depends largely on the attitude adopted toward the

loyal and neutral population. The natives must be made to realize the seriousness of withholding information, but at the same time they must be protected from terrorism.

c. From the very nature of the operation, it is apparent that military force cannot be applied at the stage that would be most advantageous from a tactical viewpoint. Usually turbulent situations become extremely critical before the Government feels justified in taking strong action. Therefore, it is of the utmost importance to determine the exact moment when the decision of a commander should be applied. In a gradually developing situation the "when" is often the essence of the decision. Problems which illustrate the results of too hasty or tardy decisions will be of value in developing thought along these lines. The force commander should determine his mission and inform all subordinates accordingly. Commands should be kept fully informed of any modification of the mission. The decisions of subordinate commanders should be strictly in accordance with the desires of their commanders. For the subordinate commander, the decision may be to determine when he would be justified in opening fire. For example, the patrol leader makes contact with a known camp and at the last moment finds that women camp followers are present in the camp. Shall he fire into the group? Insofar as it is practicable, subordinate military leaders should be aided in making such decisions by previously announced policies and instructions.

d. Delay in the use of force, and hesitation to accept responsibility for its employment when the situation clearly demands it, will always be interpreted as a weakness. Such indecision will encourage further disorder, and will eventually necessitate measures more severe than those which would have sufficed in the first instance. Drastic punitive measures to induce surrender, or action in the nature of reprisals, may awaken sympathy with the revolutionists. Reprisals and punitive measures may result in the destruction of lives and property of innocent people; such measures may have an adverse effect upon the discipline of our own troops. Good judgment in dealing with such problems calls for constant and careful surveillance. In extreme cases, a commanding officer may be forced to resort to some mild form of reprisal to keep men from taking more severe action on their own initiative. However, even this action is taken with the full knowledge of possible repercussions.

e. In dealing with the native population, only orders which are lawful, specific, and couched in clear, simple language should be

issued. They should be firm and just, not impossible of execution nor calculated to work needless hardship upon the recipient. It is well to remember this latter injunction in formulating all orders dealing with the native population. They may be the first to sense that an order is working a needless hardship upon them, and instead of developing their support, friendship, and respect, the opposite effect may result.

f. An important consideration in dealing with the native population in small wars is the psychological approach. A study of the racial and social characteristics of the people is made to determine whether to approach them directly or indirectly, or employ both means simultaneously. Shall the approach be by means of decisions, orders, personal appeals, or admonitions, unconcealed effort, or administrative control, all of which are calculated to attain the desired end? Or shall indirect methods by subtle inspiration, propaganda through suggestion, or undermining the influential leaders of the opposition be attempted? Direct methods will naturally create some antagonism and encourage certain obstruction, but if these methods of approach are successful the result may be more speedily attained. Indirect approach, on the other hand, might require more time for accomplishment, but the result may be equally effective and probably with less regrettable bitterness.

g. Propaganda plays its part in approach to the people in small wars, since people usually will respond to indirect suggestion but may revolt against direct suggestion. The strength of suggestion is dependent upon the following factors:

(1) *Last impression*—that is, of several impressions, the last is most likely to be acted upon.

(2) *Frequency*—that is, repetitions, not one after another but intervals separated by other impressions.

(3) *Repetition*—this is distinguished from frequency by being repetitions, one after the other, without having other kinds of impressions interspersed.

h. The strongest suggestion is obtained by a combination of "frequency" and "last impressions." Propaganda at home also plays its part in the public support of small wars. An ordinary characteristic of small wars is the antagonistic propaganda against the campaign or operations in the United States press or legislature. One cannot afford to ignore the possibilities of propaganda. Many authorities believe that the Marine Force should restrict publicity to a minimum in order to prevent the spread of unfavorable and antagonistic prop-

aganda at home. However, it is believed that when representatives of the press demand specific information, it should be given to them, if it is not of a confidential nature or such as will jeopardize the mission. Sometimes marines are pressed with the question: "Why are you here?" The best method to follow when a question of public policy is involved is to refer the individual to appropriate civil authorities.

i. There is an axiom in regular warfare to strike the hardest where the going is the easiest. In small wars also, it is well to strike most vigorously and relentlessly when the going is the easiest. When the opponents are on the run, give them no peace or rest, or time to make further plans. Try to avoid leaving a few straggling leaders in the field at the end, who with their increased mobility, easier means of evasion, and the determination to show strength, attempt to revive interest by bold strokes. At this time, public opinion shows little patience in the enterprise, and accepts with less patience any explanation for the delay necessary to bring the operation to a close.

j. In street fighting against mobs or rioters, the effect of fire is generally not due to the casualties but due to the fact that it demonstrates the determination of the authorities. Unless the use of fire is too long delayed, a single round often is all that is necessary to carry conviction. Naturally one attempts to accomplish his mission without firing but when at the critical moment all such means have failed, then one must fire. One should not make a threat without the intention to carry it out. Do not fire without giving specific warning. Fire without specific warning is only justified when the mob is actively endangering life or property. In disturbances or riots when a mob has been ordered to disperse, it must be feasible for the mob to disperse. Military interventions are actually police functions, although warlike operations often ensue. There is always the possibility of domestic disturbances getting beyond the control of local police. Hence the necessity of employing regular forces as a reserve or reenforcements for varying periods after the restoration of normal conditions.

k. The personal pride, uniform, and bearing of the marines, their dignity, courtesy, consideration, language, and personality will have an important effect on the civilian attitude toward the forces of occupation. In a country, for example, where the wearing of a coat, like wearing shoes, is the outward and unmistakable sign of a distinct social classification, it is quite unbecoming for officers who accept the hospitality of the native club for a dance, whether local ladies and

gentlemen are in evening clothes or not, to appear in their khaki shirts. It appears that the United States and their representatives have lost a certain amount of prestige when they place themselves in the embarrassing position of receiving a courteous note from a people ordinarily considered backward, inviting attention to this impropriety. On the other hand, care should be exercised not to humiliate the natives. They are usually proud and humiliation will cause resentment which will have an unfavorable reaction. Nothing should be said or done which implies inferiority of the status or of the sovereignty of the native people. They should never be treated as a conquered people.

l. Often the military find themselves in the position of arbiters in differences between rival political factions. This is common in serving on electoral missions. The individual of any faction believes himself in possession of the truth and cannot refrain from affirming that anyone who does not agree with him is entirely in error. Each will attest to the dishonest intentions or stupidity of the other and will attempt by every possible means to carry his point of view irrespective of its merits. They are excitable beings and prone to express their feelings forcibly. They are influenced by personal partiality based upon family or political connections and friendship. Things go by favor. Though they may appear brusque at times they feel a slight keenly, and they know how to respect the susceptibilities of their fellows.

m. In some revolutions, particularly of economic origin, the followers may be men in want of food. A hungry man will not be inclined to listen to reason and will resort to measures more daring and desperate than under normal conditions. This should be given consideration, when tempted to burn or otherwise destroy private property or stores of the guerrillas.

n. In the interior there are natives who have never been 10 miles from their home, who seldom see strangers, and much less a white man or a foreigner. They judge the United States and the ideals and standards of its people by the conduct of its representatives. It may be no more than a passing patrol whose deportment or language is judged, or it may be fairness in the purchase of a bunch of bananas. The policy of the United States is to pay for value received, and prompt payment of a reasonable price for supplies or services rendered should be made in every instance. Although the natives of the capitals or towns may have a greater opportunity to see foreigners and the forces of occupation, the Marine Corps nevertheless represents the United States to them also, and it behooves every marine to conduct

himself accordingly. There is no service which calls for greater exercise of judgment, persistency, patience, tact, and rigid military justice than in small wars, and nowhere is more of the humane and sympathetic side of a military force demanded than in this type of operation.

1–16. **Conduct of our troops.**—*a.* In addition to the strictly military plans and preparations incident to the military occupation of a foreign country, there should be formulated a method or policy for deriving the greatest benefit from psychological practices in the field. To make this effective, personnel of the command must be indoctrinated with these principles. While it is true that the command will generally reflect the attitude of the commander, this will or desire of the supreme authority should be disseminated among the subordinates of all grades. The indoctrination of all ranks with respect to the proper attitude toward the civilian population may be accomplished readily by means of a series of brief and interesting lectures prepared under the direction of the military commander and furnished all units. These lectures may set forth our mission, the purpose of our efforts, our accomplishments to date in the betterment of conditions, our objectives of future accomplishment, etc.

b. Uncertainty of the situation and the future creates a certain psychological doubt or fear in the minds of the individual concerned; if the individual is entirely unaccustomed to it, and the situation seems decidedly grave, his conduct may be abnormal or even erratic. This situation of uncertainty exists, ordinarily to a pronounced degree in small wars, particularly in the initial phases of landing and occupation. The situation itself and the form of the orders and instructions which the marine commander will receive are often indefinite. In regular warfare, clear cut orders are given, or may be expected, defining situations, missions, objectives, instructions, and the like, in more or less detail; in small wars, the initial orders may be fragmentary and lack much of the ordinary detail. However unfortunate this may be, or how difficult it may make the task, this is probably the normal situation upon landing. In order to be prepared to overcome the usual psychological reaction resulting from such uncertainty, studies and instructions in small wars should be accompanied by practice in the issuance of orders.

c. The responsibility of officers engaged in small wars and the training necessary are of a very different order from their responsibilities and training in ordinary military duties. In the latter case, they simply strive to attain a method of producing the maximum

physical effect with the force at their disposal. In small wars, caution must be exercised, and instead of striving to generate the maximum power with forces available, the goal is to gain decisive results with the least application of force and the consequent minimum loss of life. This requires recourse to the principles of psychology, and is the reason why the study of psychology of the people is so important in preparation for small wars.

d. In major warfare, hatred of the enemy is developed among troops to arouse courage. In small wars, tolerance, sympathy, and kindness should be the keynote of our relationship with the mass of the population. There is nothing in this principle which should make any officer or man hesitate to act with the necessary firmness within the limitation imposed by the principles which have been laid down, whenever there is contact with armed opposition.

1–17. **Summary.**—*a.* Psychological errors may be committed which antagonize the population of the country occupied and all the foreign sympathizers; mistakes may have the most far-reaching effect and it may require a long period to reestablish confidence, respect, and order. Small wars involve a wide range of activities including diplomacy, contacts with the civil population and warfare of the most difficult kind. The situation is often uncertain, the orders are sometimes indefinite, and although the authority of the military commander is at time in doubt, he usually assumes full responsibility. The military individual cannot afford to be intimidated by the responsibilities of his positions, or by the fear that his actions will not be supported. He will rarely fail to receive support if he has acted with caution and reasonable moderation, coupled with the necessary firmness. On the other hand inaction and refusal to accept responsibility are likely to shake confidence in him, even though he be not directly censured.

b. The purpose should always be to restore normal government or give the people a better government than they had before, and to establish peace, order, and security on as permanent a basis as practicable. Gradually there must be instilled in the inhabitants' minds the leading ideas of civilization, the security and sanctity of life and property, and individual liberty. In so doing, one should endeavor to make self-sufficient native agencies responsible for these matters. With all this accomplished, one should be able to leave the country with the lasting friendship and respect of the native population. *The practical application of psychology is largely a matter of common sense.*

SECTION IV

RELATIONSHIP WITH THE STATE DEPARTMENT

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1–18. **Importance of cooperation.**—*a.* One of the principal obstacles with which the naval forces are confronted in small war situations is the one that has to do with the absence of a clean-cut line of demarcation between State Department authority and military authority.

b. In a major war, "diplomatic relations" are summarily severed at the beginning of the struggle. During such a war, diplomatic intercourse proceeds through neutral channels in a manner usually not directly detrimental to the belligerents. There are numerous precedents in small wars which indicate that diplomacy does not relax its grip on the situation, except perhaps in certain of its more formal manifestations. The underlying reason for this condition is the desire to keep the war "small," to confine it within a strictly limited scope, and to deprive it, insofar as may be possible, of the more outstanding aspects of "war." The existence of this condition calls for the earnest cooperation between the State Department representatives and naval authorities.

c. There are no defined principles of "Joint Action" between the State Department and the Navy Department by which the latter is to be restricted or guided, when its representatives become involved in situations calling for such cooperation. In the absence of a clearly defined directive, the naval service has for guidance only certain general principles that have been promulgated through Navy Regulations.

1–19. **Principles prescribed by Navy Regulations.**—*a.* The principles referred to as set forth in Navy Regulations, 1920, are, for ready reference, herein quoted:

718 (1) The Commander in Chief shall preserve, so far as possible, the most cordial relations with the diplomatic and consular representatives of the United States in foreign countries and extend to them the honors, salutes, and other official courtesies to which they are entitled by these regulations.

(2) He shall carefully and duly consider any request for service or other communication from any such representatives.

(3) Although due weight should be given to the opinions and advice of such representatives, a commanding officer is solely and entirely responsible to his own immediate superior for all official acts in the administration of his command.

719. The Commander in Chief shall, as a general rule, when in foreign ports, communicate with local civil officials and foreign diplomatic and consular authorities through the diplomatic or consular representative of the United States on the spot.

b. The attitude of the Navy Department towards the relationship that should exist between the naval forces and the diplomatic branch of the Government is clearly indicated by the foregoing quotations. Experience has shown that where naval and military authorities have followed the "spirit" of these articles in their intercourse with foreign countries, whether such intercourse is incident to extended nonhostile interposition by our forces or to minor controversies, the results attained have met with the approval of our Government and have tended towards closer cooperation with the naval and military forces on the part of our diplomats.

c. It should be borne in mind that the matter of working in cooperation with the State Department officials is not restricted entirely to higher officials. In many cases very junior subordinates of the State Department and the Marine Corps may have to solve problems that might involve the United States in serious difficulties.

1–20. **Contact with State Department representatives.**—The State Department representative may be of great help to the military commander whose knowledge of the political machinery of the country may be of a general nature. It is therefore most desirable that he avail himself of the opportunity to confer immediately with the nearest State Department representative. Through the latter, the commander may become acquainted with the details of the political situation, the economic conditions, means of communication, and the strength and organization of the native military forces. He will be able to learn the names of the governmental functionaries and familiarize himself with the names of the leading officials and citizens in the area in which he is to operate. Through the diplomatic representative the military commander may readily contact the Chief Executive, become acquainted with the government's leading officials and expeditiously accomplish many details incident to the occupation of the country.

SECTION V

THE CHAIN OF COMMAND—NAVY AND MARINE CORPS

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1–21. **Navy regulations.**—*a.* Article 575, Navy Regulations, 1920 states: "When serving on shore in cooperation with vessels of the Navy, brigade commanders or the officer commanding the detachment of marines shall be subject to the orders of the Commander in Chief, or, in his absence, to the orders of the senior officer in command of vessels specially detailed by the Commander in Chief on such combined operations so long as such senior officer is senior in rank to the officer commanding the brigade or the detachment of marines. When the brigade commander or the officer commanding the detachment is senior to the senior officer in command of the vessels specially detailed by the Commander in Chief on such combined operations, or when, in the opinion of the Commander in Chief, it is for any reason deemed inadvisable to intrust such combined command to the senior officer afloat, the Commander in Chief will constitute independent commands of the forces ashore and afloat, which forces will cooperate under the general orders of the Commander in Chief."

b. In article 576, it is provided that: "The brigade commander or other senior line officer of the Marine Corps present shall command the whole force of marines in general analogy to the duties prescribed in the Navy Regulations for the senior naval officer present when two or more naval vessels are serving in company, but the commander of each regiment, separate battalion, or detachment shall exercise the functions of command over his regiment, battalion, or detachment in like general analogy to the duties of the commander of each naval vessel."

1–22. **Control of joint operations.**—In a situation involving the utilization of a marine force in a small war campaign, the directive

for the marine force commander usually requires him to report to the senior officer present in the area of anticipated operations. The Major General Commandant exercises only administrative control over the marine force; its operations are controlled by the Chief of Naval Operations directly, or through the senior naval officer present, if he be senior to the marine force commander. Consequently, no operation plans or instructions with regard to the tactical employment of the marine force originate in the office of the Major General Commandant.

1–23. **The directive.**—*a.* In situations calling for the use of naval and marine forces in operations involving protection of life and property and the preservation of law and order in unstable countries, the burden of enforcing the policies of the State Department rests with the Navy. The decisions with regard to the forces to be used in any situation are made by the Secretary of the Navy as the direct representative of the President. Through the Chief of Naval Operations, the Secretary of the Navy exercises control of these forces. The directive issued to the naval commander who is to represent the Navy Department in the theater of operations is usually very brief, but at the same time, clearly indicative of the general policies to be followed. The responsibility for errors committed by the naval commander in interpreting these policies and in carrying out the general orders of the Navy Department rests with such naval commander.

b. If, as is the usual situation, the naval commander is the senior officer present in the theater of operations, his sole directive may be in the form of a dispatch. A typical directive of this type is set forth as follows:

INTERNAL POLITICAL SITUATION IN (name of country) HAS REQUIRED SENDING OF FOLLOWING NAVAL FORCES (here follow list of forces) TO ( ) WATERS WITH ORDERS TO REPORT TO SENIOR NAVAL OFFICER FOR DUTY POLICY OF GOVERNMENT SET FORTH IN OPNAV DISPATCHES ( ) AND ( ) YOU WILL ASSUME COMMAND OF ALL NAVAL FORCES IN ( ) WATER AND AT ( ) AND IN FULLEST COOPERATION WITH AMERICAN AMBASSADOR AND CONSULAR OFFICERS WILL CARRY OUT POLICY OF US GOVERNMENT SET FORTH IN REFERENCE DISPATCHES.

c. Under the provisions of the foregoing directive, a naval commander concerned would be placed in a position of great responsibility and in accomplishing his task, he would necessarily demand the highest degree of loyalty and cooperation of all those under his command. The usual procedure, adopted by the naval commander, would be first to make a careful estimate of the situation, then

arrive at a decision, draw up his plan based on this decision, and issue the necessary operation orders.

1–24. **Naval officer commanding ashore.**—If the force to be landed consists of naval and marine units and is placed under the direct command of a naval officer, matters with regard to the relationship between the forces ashore and the naval commander afloat will give rise to little or no concern. The naval officer afloat will, under such conditions, usually remain in the immediate vicinity of the land operations, maintain constant contact with all phases of the situation as it develops, and exercise such functions of command over both the forces ashore and those afloat as he considers conducive to the most efficient accomplishment of his task. Commanders of marine units of the landing force will bear the same relationship toward the naval officer in command of the troops ashore as it set down for subordinate units of a battalion, regiment, or brigade, as the case may be.

1–25. **Marine officer commanding ashore.**—*a.* When the force landed comprises a marine brigade or smaller organization under the command of a marine officer, and such forces become engaged in a type of operation that does not lend itself to the direct control by the naval commander afloat, many questions with regard to the relationship between the marine forces ashore and the naval forces afloat will present themselves. The marine force commander, in this situation, should not lose sight of, and should make every effort to indoctrinate those under his command with the idea that the task to be accomplished is a "Navy task"; that the responsibility for its accomplishment rests primarily with the immediate superior afloat; and that regardless of any apparent absence of direct supervision and control by such superior, the plans and policies of the naval commander afloat must be adhered to.

b. The vessels of the naval force may be withdrawn from the immediate theater of operations; the naval commander may assign certain vessels to routine patrol missions along the coast; while he, himself, may return to his normal station and maintain contact with the marine force and the vessels under his command by radio or other means of communication.

c. The directive issued to the marine force commander will usually provide that he keep in constant communication with the naval commander afloat in order that the latter may at all times be fully informed of the situation ashore. The extent to which the marine force commander will be required to furnish detailed information

to the naval commander will depend on the policy established by the latter. As a general rule, the naval commander will allow a great deal of latitude in the strictly internal administration of the marine force and the details of the tactical employment of the various units of that force. He should, however, be informed of all matters relative to the policy governing such operations. In case the naval commander does not, through the medium of routine visits, keep himself informed of the tactical disposition of the various units of the marine force, he should be furnished with sufficient information with regard thereto as to enable him to maintain a clear picture of the general situation.

d. Usually the naval commander will be required to submit to the Navy Department, periodically, a report embracing all the existing economic, political, and tactical phases of the situation. The naval commander will, in turn, call upon the marine force commander for any reports of those matters as are within the scope of the theater in which the force is operating.

e. Estimates of this sort carefully prepared will often preclude the necessity of submitting detailed and separate reports on the matters involved and will greatly assist the naval commander in his endeavor, through the coordination of the other information at his disposal, to render to the Navy Department a more comprehensive analysis of the situation confronting him.

f. When questions of major importance arise, either involving a considerable change in the tactical disposition and employment of the marine force, or the policies outlined by the naval commander, the latter should be informed thereof in sufficient time to allow him to participate in any discussion that might be had between the political, diplomatic, and military authorities with regard thereto. It should be remembered that in making decisions in matters of importance, whether or not these decisions are made upon the advice of our diplomatic representatives, the marine-force commander is responsible to his immediate superior afloat.

g. In addition to the principles that are necessarily adhered to incident to the "chain of command," a marine-force commander on foreign shore habitually turns to the Navy for assistance in accomplishing the innumerable administrative tasks involved in the small-war situations. Matters with regard to water transportation for evacnation of personnel, matters concerning supply, matters involving intercourse with our diplomatic representatives in countries in the vicinity of the theater of operations, matters relating to assistance from the Army

in supply and transportation, and any number of other phases of an administrative nature can be more expeditiously and conveniently handled through the medium of the naval commander whose prerogatives and facilities are less restricted than those of the commander in the field.

1–26. **Marine—Constabulary.**—When there is a separate marine detachment engaged in the organization and training of an armed native organization, the commanding officer of this detachment occupies a dual position. Although he is under the supervision of the Chief Executive of the country in which he is operating, he is still a member of the naval service. In order that there may be some guide for the conduct of the relationship that is to exist between the marine-force commander and the marine officer in charge of the native organization, fundamental principles should be promulgated by the Secretary of the Navy.

1–27. **Direct control by Navy Department.**—If the naval vessels that participate in the initial phases of the operation withdraw entirely from the theater of operations, the command may be vested in the marine-force commander or in the senior naval officer ashore within the theater. In such case, the officer in command on shore would be responsible directly to the Chief of Naval Operations. His relationship with the Chief of Naval Operations would then involve a combination of those principles laid down for the relationship that exists between the forces on shore and the naval commander afloat, and the relationship that the latter bears to the Navy Department as its representative.

SECTION VI

MILITARY—CIVIL RELATIONSHIP

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1–28. **Importance.**—*a.* All officers of the naval establishment, whether serving with the force afloat, the forces ashore, or temporarily attached to the national forces of another country, are required by the Constitution and by Navy Regulations to observe and obey the laws of nations in their relations with foreign states and with the governments or agents thereof.

b. One of the dominating factors in the establishment of the mission in small war situations has been in the past, and will continue to be in the future, the civil contacts of the entire command. The satisfactory solution of problems involving civil authorities and civil population requires that all ranks be familiar with the language, the geography, and the political, social, and economic factors involved in the country in which they are operating. Poor judgment on the part of subordinates in the handling of situations involving the local civil authorities and the local inhabitants is certain to involve the commander of the force in unnecessary military difficulties and cause publicity adverse to the public interests of the United States.

1–29. **Contact with national government officials.**—*a.* Upon the arrival of the United States forces at the main point of entry the commander thereof should endeavor, through the medium of the United States diplomatic representative, to confer with the Chief Executive of the government, or his authorized representative and impart such information as may be required by the directive he has received. Such conference will invariably lead to acquaintance with the government's leading officials with whom the military commander may be required to deal throughout the subsequent operation.

b. Meetings with these officials frequently require considerable tact. These officials are the duly elected or appointed officials of the government, and the military commander in his association with them, represents the President of the United States. These meetings or conferences usually result in minimizing the number of officials to be

dealt with, and the way is thereby speeded to the early formulation of plans of action by the military commander. When the mission is one of rendering assistance to the recognized government, the relationship between its officials and the military commander should be amicable. However, if animosity should be shown or cooperation be denied or withdrawn, the military commander cannot compel the foreign government officials to act according to his wishes. Ordinarily an appeal to the Chief Executive of the country concerned will effect the desired cooperation by subordinate officials. Should the military commander's appeal be unproductive, the matter should be promptly referred to the naval superior afloat or other designated superior, who will in turn transmit the information to the Navy Department and/or the State Department as the case may be.

c. In most of the theaters of operations, it will be found that the Chief Executive maintains a close grip on all phases of the national government. The executive power is vested in this official and is administered through his cabinet and various other presidential appointees. Some of these appointed officials exercise considerable power within their respective jurisdictions, both over the people and the minor local officials. Some of them exercise judicial as well as executive functions, and are directly responsible to the President as head of the National Government.

d. It follows, therefore, that in the type of situation which involves the mission of assisting a foreign government, the military commander and his subordinates, in their associations with national governmental officials, as a rule will be dealing with individuals who are adherent to the political party in power. This situation has its advantages in that it tends to generate cooperation by government officials, provided of course, the Chief Executive, himself, reflects the spirit of cooperation. At the same time, it may have the disadvantage of creating a feeling of antagonism toward our forces by the opposite political party, unless the military commander instills in all members of his command the necessity for maintaining an absolute nonpartisan attitude in all their activities.

e. Political affiliation in most countries is a paramount element in the lives of all citizens of the country. Political ties are taken very seriously and serve to influence the attitude and action of the individual in all his dealings.

f. When subordinate military commanders are assigned independent missions which bring them into contact with local and national governmental officials, they should make every effort to acquaint them-

selves with the political structure of the locality in which they are to be stationed. The principal guide for the conduct of their associations with the civil officials will be, of course, the regulation previously referred to which governs the relations between members of the naval service and the agents of foreign governments. The amenities of official intercourse should be observed and the conventions of society, when and where applicable, should be respected. When assuming command within a district or department, an officer should promptly pay his respects to the supreme political authority in the area, endeavor to obtain from him the desired information with regard to the economic situation in that locality and indicate by his conduct and attitude that he is desirous of cooperating to the extent of his authority with those responsible for the administration of the foreign government's affairs.

g. In giving the fullest cooperation to the civil authorities, the military commander should insist on reciprocal action on their part toward the military forces. Interference with the performance of the functions of civil officials should be avoided, while noninterference on the part of those authorities with the administration of the military forces should be demanded. In brief, a feeling of mutual respect and cooperation between members of the military forces and civil officials on a basis of mutual independence of each other should be cultivated.

1–30. **Cooperation with law-enforcement agencies.**—*a.* United States forces, other than those attached to the military establishment of the foreign country in which they are operating will not, as a rule, participate in matters concerning police and other civil functions. The military forces usually constitute a reserve which is to be made available only in extreme emergency to assist the native constabulary in the performance of its purely police mission.

b. The mission of our forces usually involves the training of native officers and men in the art of war, assisting in offensive operations against organized banditry and in such defensive measures against threatened raids of large organized bandit groups as are essential to the protection of lives and property. When the civil police functions are vested in the native military forces of the country, these forces are charged with the performance of two definite tasks—a military task involving the matters outlined above and a police task involving in general the enforcement of the civil and criminal laws. The native military forces control the traffic of arms and ammunition; they see that the police, traffic, and sanitary regulations are observed; they assume the control and administration of government prisons; and they per-

form numerous other duties that, by their nature, may obviously, directly or indirectly, play an important part in the accomplishment of the military mission.

c. It follows, therefore, that by cooperating to the fullest extent of his authority with the native forces in the performance of civil police functions, the military commander will, without actually participating in this phase of the picture, be rendering valuable assistance towards the accomplishment of the ultimate mission assigned to the combined military forces. Due to the fact that in most cases the individuals occupying the important positions in those native organizations performing police duties, are United States officers and enlisted men, questions arising with regard to cooperation and assistance are easy of solution. Adherence, on the part of our personnel, to the dictates of the local laws and regulations, and a thorough knowledge of the scope of authority vested in the native police force is essential to the end that we do not hamper this force in the performance of its duty, and to the end that we maintain the respect and confidence of the community as a whole.

d. With regard to the contact that is had with those connected with the judicial branch of the government, very little need be said. The magistrates and judges of the various courts are usually political appointees, or are elected to the office by the national congress. Consequently, they are affiliated politically with the party in power, national and/or local. In most situations, the civil courts will continue to function. Although this procedure is not always conducive to the best interests of the military forces, it is a situation that normally exists and must be accepted. The manner in which the judiciary performs its functions may have a profound effect on the conduct of a small war campaign. In the first place, the apprehension and delivery of criminals, including guerrillas, by the armed forces to the courts will serve no useful purpose if these courts are not in sympathy with the military authorities; and in the second place, a lack of cooperation on the part of the courts, insofar as the punishment of outlaws is concerned, may have a tendency to place the local inhabitants in fear of assisting the military forces. In view of this situation, every endeavor should be made to generate a friendly attitude on the part of these law-enforcement officials in order that their cooperation may be had.

1–31. **Contact with inhabitants.**—*a.* Whether a military commander be stationed at a headquarters in a metropolis or assigned to the smallest outpost, he must necessarily come into contact with

the civilian population. By "contact" in this case is implied intercourse in daily life. The transaction of daily routine involves the association with the civilian element, even in the most tranquil territory. The purchase of fresh provisions, fuel, and other necessities of camp life involve the relationships with merchants, bankers, those in charge of public utilities, and many others. In relations with these persons, whether they be business or social, a superiority complex on the part of the military commander is unproductive of cooperation. The inhabitants are usually mindful of the fact that we are there to assist them, to cooperate with them in so doing, and while dignity in such relationship should always obtain, the conduct of the military authority should not be such as to indicate an attitude of superiority.

b. Association with civilians may be other than business or social. The same daily occurrences that take place in the United States between members of the naval forces and our own police and civilian population frequently take place on foreign soil. Damage to private property by the military forces is frequently the cause of complaints by members of the civilian population. Dealings with civilians making claims for damages incurred through the conduct of our personnel should be as equitable as the facts warrant. Even where the responsibility rests with the United States, the settlement of such claims is necessarily protracted by the required reference to the Navy Department, and the lack of facilities through which to afford prompt redress is oftentimes the cause of bad feelings. If the military commander were supplied with a fund to be used for the prompt adjustment of limited claims, the foregoing condition might be materially improved. However, under existing laws and regulations the amicable adjustment of matters involving injury and damage to the civilian population and their property calls for the highest degree of tact and sound judgment.

c. Cordial relationship between our forces and the civilian population is best maintained by engendering the spirit of good will. As previously stated, a mutual feeling of dislike and aversion to association may exist between members of rival political parties. Conservatives and liberals, or by whatever label they may be known, are frequently prone to remain "die hards" when their political candidate is unsuccessful at the polls. It is, therefore, highly important for a military commander to ascertain the party affiliation of the persons with whom he comes into contact. The homely advice: "Don't dabble in politics" is wise, and military authorities should scrupulously avoid discussing the subject.

d. Akin to politics is the subject of religion. The people of many countries take their religion as seriously as their politics. Consequently members of the United States forces should avoid any attitude that tends to indicate criticism or lack of respect for the religious beliefs and practices observed by the native inhabitants.

e. Relations between our military forces and the civilians might easily be disturbed if the former were to get into altercations with the public press. Freedom of speech is another liberty of which the inhabitants of many countries are not only proud, but jealous. Editors of the local newspapers are not always averse to criticizing the actions of troops other than their own. Nothing can be gained by the marine commander in jumping into print and replying to such newspaper articles, other than possibly starting a controversy which may make his further retention in that locality undesirable. When a matter is so published and it is considered detrimental, the subordinate marine commander should bring it to the attention of his immediate superior for necessary action by higher authority.

f. Every endeavor should be made to assure the civilian population of the friendliness of our forces. No effort should be spared to demonstrate the advantage of law and order and to secure their friendly cooperation. All ranks should be kept mindful of the mission to be accomplished, the necessity for adhering to the policy of the United States and of observing the law of nations.

g. Foreign nationals are often the underlying cause of intervention; almost invariably they are present in the country during the occupation. Generally their concern is for the security of their lives and property; sometimes they have an exaggerated opinion of their importance and influence. Generally the condition of political unrest does not react directly against foreigners, and it often happens that the foreign resident does not consider himself in any danger until he reads of it in a foreign newspaper, whereupon his imagination becomes active. Foreign cooperation may at times be a greater obstacle to success than the foreign mercenaries in a revolutionary party, when, for equally unworthy purposes, they render aid openly or secretly to the revolutionists in order to assure themselves of the protection or favor of any new government. Any discontented faction of natives can usually secure the sympathy or support from some group of investors or speculators who think they can further their own interests or secure valuable concessions by promoting a revolution. In any event, in dealing with these corporations and in

receiving reports from them, it may often be wise to scrutinize their actions carefully to determine if they have any ulterior motives. In interventions, the United States accords equal attention to the security of life and property of all foreign residents.

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SMALL WARS MANUAL
UNITED STATES MARINE CORPS
1940

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CHAPTER II
ORGANIZATION

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UNITED STATES MARINE CORPS

CHAPTER II

ORGANIZATION

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SECTION I

THE ESTIMATE OF THE SITUATION

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2–1. **General.**—*a.* It has been stated in the previous chapter that the President, as the Chief Executive, makes the decision which initiates small war operations and that this decision is promulgated through the regular channels to the commander of the intervening force. Upon the receipt of instructions from higher authority, it is incumbent on each commander in the chain of command to make an estimate of the situation to determine the best course of action and how it is to be carried out.

b. This estimate follows the general outline of a normal "Estimate of the Situation" although certain points which are peculiar to small war operations should be emphasized. In particular decisions must be made as to: the composition of the staff; the size of the force required to accomplish the mission, or how to employ the force available most advantageously; the proportion of the infantry, supporting arms and services best suited for the situation; and the requisition and distribution of special weapons and equipment which are not included in the normal organization but which are considered necessary.

c. If sufficient information of the probable theater of operations has not been furnished, maps, monographs, and other current data concerning the country must be obtained, including information on the following: past and present political situation; economic situation; classes and distribution of the population; psychological nature of the inhabitants; military geography, both general and physical; and the military situation.

THE ESTIMATE OF THE SITUATION

2–2. **The mission.**—In a major war, the mission assigned to the armed forces is usually unequivocal—the defeat and destruction of the hostile forces. This is seldom true in small wars. More often than not, the mission will be to establish and maintain law and order by supporting or replacing the civil government in countries or areas in which the interests of the United States have been placed in jeopardy, in order to insure the safety and security of our nationals, their property and interests. If there is an organized hostile force opposing the intervention, the primary objective in small wars, as in a major war, is its early destruction. In those cases where armed opposition is encountered only from irregular forces under the leadership of malcontents or unrecognized officials, the mission is one of diplomacy rather than military. Frequently the commander of a force operating in a small wars theater of operations is not given a specific mission as such in his written orders or directive, and it then becomes necessary for him to deduce his mission from the general intent of the higher authority, or even from the foreign policy of the United States. In any event, the mission should be accomplished with a minimum loss of life and property and by methods that leave no aftermath of bitterness or render the return to peace unnecessarily difficult.

2–3. **Factors to be considered in estimating enemy strength.**—*a. Political status.*—(1) In the majority of our past small wars operations, intervention has been due to internal disorder which endangered foreign lives and property, or has been undertaken to enforce treaty obligations.

(2) In the first instance, the chaotic condition usually has been brought about as a result of the tyrannical measures adopted by the party in control of the government, by the unconstitutional usurpation of power by a political faction for the sake of gain, or because of intense hatred between rival factions which culminated in a revolt against the recognized government. As the result of such action, a state of revolution existed which was detrimental to internal and external peace and good will. The intervening power was faced usually with one of two alternatives; either to intervene between the warring factions, occupy one or more proclaimed neutral zones, and endeavor by pacific or forceful action to make the rival parties accept mediation and settlement of the controversy; or to assist, by pacific or forceful action, one side or the other, or even to support a new party, in the suppression of the disorders.

d. The medical personnel with the force is one of the strongest elements for gaining the confidence and friendship of the native inhabitants in the theater of operations. So long as it can be done without depleting the stock of medical supplies required for the intervening troops, they should not hesitate to care for sick and wounded civilians who have no other source of medical attention.

e. If the campaign plan contemplates the organization of armed native troops, additional medical personnel will have to be provided with the force or requested from the United States, as required.

f. See Chapters 12 and 14, Landing Force Manual, United States Navy, and Field Manuals 8–40 and 21–10, United States Army, for detailed instructions regarding military hygiene, sanitation, and first aid.

2–49. **Artillery.**—*a.* The amount of artillery to be included in the strength of a force assigned a small wars mission will depend upon the plan for the employment of the force, the nature of the terrain in the theater of operations, the armament and equipment of the prospective opponents, and the nature of the opposition expected. As a general rule, some artillery should accompany every expedition for possible use against towns and fortified positions, and for the defense of towns, bases, and other permanent establishments. The morale effect of artillery fire must always be considered when planning the organization and composition of the force. If the hostile forces employ modern tactics and artillery, aud the terrain in the country permits, the proportion of artillery to infantry should be normal.

b. The role of artillery in small wars is fundamentally the same as in regular warfare. Its primary mission is to support the infantry. Light artillery is employed principally against personnel, accompanying weapons, tanks, and those material targets which its fire is able to destroy. Medium artillery reinforces the fire of light artillery, assists in counterbattery, and undertakes missions beyond the range of light artillery. Unless information is available that the hostile forces have heavy fortifications, or are armed with a type of artillery requiring other than light artillery for counterbattery work, the necessity for medium artillery will seldom be apparent. Antiaircraft artillery, while primarily for defense against air attack, may be used to supplement the fire of light artillery.

c. The artillery must be able to go where the infantry can go. It must be of a type that can approach the speed and mobility of foot troops. The 75-mm. gun and the 75-mm. pack howitzer fulfill

(3) In the second instance, that of enforcing treaty obligations, the immediate cause of intervention usually has been the neglect and repeated refusal of the local government to carry out its obligations under the terms of a commercial or political treaty. The intervening forces sought, by show of force or by actual field operations, to enforce those obligations. If such action was unsuccessful, the intervening power in some cases deposed the party in control and established a *de facto* or *de jure* government which would carry out the provisions of the treaty. This often resulted in active opposition by the ousted party against the intervening forces who were giving aid, force, and power to the new government.

(4) It is evident from the above that the internal political organization of the country concerned, the strength of the forces which may oppose the intervention, and the external obligations of the country as a member of the family of nations, should be carefully considered in the estimate of the situation. In addition, the estimate must include the probable effect which the intervention will have upon the public opinion of the citizens of the intervening power and upon the good will of other countries. The latter, in particular, is of great importance since the friendship and trade relations of countries which are not sympathetic to the intervention may be alienated by such action.

b. Economic status and logistic support available.—The ability of a hostile force to oppose the intervening force may be limited by the availability of subsistence, natural resources, finances, arms, equipment, and ammunition. The forces opposing the intervention often live off the country by forcing contributions of money, subsistence, and other supplies from the peaceful inhabitants, or by donations from local civilians sympathetic to their cause. Even though the country concerned may be heavily indebted to their own citizens as well as to foreign powers, funds are often diverted from the state treasury or may be received from foreign sources for the purchase of modern arms and munitions of war. As a result, the intervening force usually finds the forces opposing them armed and equipped with modern weapons and capable of sustaining themselves in the field for an unlimited period. This is especially true if, as is usually the case, the hostile forces resort to guerrilla warfare.

c. Geographical features.—That part of the estimate of the situation which considers the geographical features of the theater of operations is fully as important in small wars as in a major war. It covers the general terrain features, the geographical divisions of the

country as fixed by relief, suitable debarkation places, the character and suitability of routes of communication, the distribution of population, the location of principal cities, the political divisions of the state, and the strategical and tactical aspects of the frontiers. The location and extent of plain, plateau, and mountain regions, and of open, wooded, or jungle areas will affect the organization, equipment, and field operations of the intervening force. If a state of revolution is the basic cause of intervention, the political divisions within the country are particularly important and may in themselves, determine the strategic plan of operation. Of special significance, also, are those areas in which the majority of foreign citizens and interests are concentrated, since the establishment of *neutral zones* and similar protective operations usually will be initiated in those localities.

d. Climatic conditions.—Climatic conditions in the probable theater of operations will affect the organization, clothing, equipment, supplies, health, and especially the operations of the intervening forces. A campaign planned for the dry season may be entirely different from one planned for the rainy season. This is particularly true in countries where the road system is primitive, or where dependence is placed on river transportation for the movement of troops and supplies. Weather conditions during certain seasons of the year may increase the difficulties of combat operations in the theater of operations, but if properly evaluated, they should not be considered as insurmountable obstacles.

e. Information and security service of the enemy.—It can be stated as an accepted premise that, in small wars, the intelligence service of the opposing forces will be superior initially to that of the intervening force. From the point of view of the intervening power, the intervention is usually considered a friendly effort to assist the occupied country to reestablish peace and order within its boundaries. From the viewpoint of the majority of the citizens of the occupied country, however, this action by an alien power is an unfriendly one. Although the majority of these inhabitants will not actively oppose the intervention, many of them will indirectly assist the native forces with information relative to the movements of the intervening forces. This is especially true of those citizens who have relatives among the native forces operating in the field. To off-set this situation, recourse must be had to propaganda clearly stating the definite purpose of the intervening forces in order to show the friendly aid that is being offered to the country. Friendships should be made with the inhabitants in an honest and faithful endeavor to assist them to

2–6. **Own courses of action.**—The intervening force commander must choose the best course of action to follow in order to accomplish his mission. This will necessarily result in a scheme of maneuver, either strategical or tactical. To accomplish this mission, it may be necessary to make a show of force in occupying the State capital, for often the history of the country will indicate that he who holds the capital holds the country. Again, he may be forced to occupy the principal cities of the country, or a certain area, the economic resources of which are such that its possessor controls the lifeblood of the country. More frequently, it will be necessary to initiate active combat operations against the large groups of opposing forces which occupy certain areas. The entire scheme of maneuver will frequently result in the occupation of the coastal area initially with a gradual coordinated movement inland, thus increasing the territory over which control and protection may be established. As this territory extends, it will be necessary to create military areas within it under the control to subordinate commanders. The area commander in turn will seek to control his area by use of small detachments to protect the towns and to conduct active operations against irregular groups until the area becomes completely pacified.

2–7. **The decision.**—When the force commander has finally selected the best course of action and determined, in general terms, how it may be executed, he makes his decision, which consists of a statement of his course of action followed by how it is to be carried out, and why. The decision indicates the commander's general plan of action as expressed in paragraph 2 of an operation order. The basic principle underlying any decision in a small-wars operation is that of initiating immediately energetic action to disband or destroy the hostile forces. This action should hasten the return of normal peace and good order to the country in the shortest possible time.

2–8. **Supporting measures.**—After the basic decision has been reached, the Force Commander must consider carefully the supporting measures which are required to put it into effect. The mission; the operations required to carry out the scheme of maneuver; the organization, armament, and leadership of the opposing forces; the terrain, geography, and climate in the theater of operations; the natural resources and routes of communication within the country to be occupied; all must be considered and all will affect the formulation of the campaign and operation plans. These factors will determine the size and composition of the commander's staff; the organiza-

tion of the force; the type of infantry weapons and the proper proportion of aircraft, artillery, and other supporting arms and services required; and the administrative and logistic details. When these supporting measures have been determined, the commander evolves his campaign and operation plans.

2–9. **Campaign and operation plans.**—*a.* In military operations of small wars, strategical and tactical principles are applied to attain the political objective of the government. The political objective indicates the general character of the campaign which the military leader will undertake. The campaign plan indicates the military objective and, in general terms, the nature and method of conducting the campaign. It will set forth the legal aspects of the operations and the corelated authority and responsibilities of the force. If military government or some form of political control is to be instituted, the necessary directives are included in the campaign plan. This plan also indicates the general nature of employment of the military forces. It indicates what use, if any, will be made of existing native forces or of those to be organized.

b. The operation plan prescribes the details of the tactical employment of the force employed and the important details of supply and transportation for that force. It may indicate the territorial division of the country for tactical or administrative control. It provides also for the most efficient employment, maintenance, and development of the existing signal communication system. If the campaign plan calls for the organization of a native constabulary, detailed plans must be made for its early organization and training. If the campaign plan calls for the employment of local armed civilians or guards, or if such action is considered necessary or advisable, plans must be made for the organization, training, equipment, supply, clothing, subsistence, pay, shelter, and employment of such troops. If the mission calls for the supervision of elections, this plan must include the necessary arrangements for the nonmilitary features of this duty as well as the tactical disposition of the force in the accomplishment of the task.

c. Tactical operations of regular troops against guerrillas in small wars are habitually offensive. Even though operating under a strategic defensive campaign plan, regular combatants in contact with hostile forces will emphasize the principle of the offensive to gain psychological supremacy. Isolated forces exposed to possible attack by overwhelming numbers must be well protected in positions pre-

pared to develop the greatest possible effect of their weapons. Reverses, particularly at first, must be avoided at all costs.

d. The initiation of a campaign before adequate preparations have been made, may well be as fatal in a small war as in regular warfare. Prolonged operations are detrimental to the morale and prestige of the intervening forces. They can be avoided only by properly estimating the situation and by evolving as comprehensive, flexible, and simple a plan as possible before the campaign begins.

SECTION II

THE STAFF IN SMALL WARS

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2–10. **Command and staff responsibility in small wars.**—A force engaged in small wars operations, irrespective of its size, is usually independent or semi-independent and, in such a campaign, assumes strategical, tactical, and territorial functions. Strategical decisions and territorial control are usually matters for the attention of the high command in major warfare. In small wars the Force Commander must be prepared to make or recommend decisions as to the strategy of the operation, and his staff must be able to function as a GHQ staff. In short, the force must be prepared to exercise those functions of command, supply, and territorial control which are

required of the supreme command or its major subdivisions in regular warfare. More extensive planning is required than would ordinarily be expected of the same size unit that is part of a higher command. For these reasons, it is obvious that a force undertaking a small wars campaign must be adequately staffed for independent operations even if the tables of organization do not specify a full staff complement. Whether or not the executive staff is relieved of all operative functions will depend on the size and composition of the force and the situation. It is possible to visualize an independent regiment in such a situation that the demands placed upon the organization would make it inadvisable for a member of the Executive Staff to operate the various activities pertaining to his Executive Staff section. Likewise it is possible that the Executive Staff of a much larger force can operate the activities of their sections after the situation is thoroughly under control. The staff organization must be fitted to the unit after consideration of its size, composition, and the situation confronting it.

2–11. **The Force Commander.**—One of the first decisions of the force commander must make is the size and composition of his staff. He then considers the extent to which he will decentralize authority to his staff and to subordinate commanders. This decision will greatly influence his assignments of officers to specific staff and command duties. The assignment of officers according to their attainments, temperaments, and special qualifications, is one of the most important measures to insure smooth and efficient operation of the organizations or establishments. The larger the unit, the more important this becomes. The force commander must be able to issue directives only, leaving the details to his subordinates. He contents himself with seeing that the work is properly done and that the principle of the directive is not departed from, always holding himself ready to rule on doubtful points and to advise subordinates who are having difficulty.

2–12. **Staff procedure.**—*a.* The staff of a unit or organization consists of those officers specifically provided for the purpose of assisting the commander in exercising his command functions. It is divided into two groups: the Executive, or General, Staff (Chief of Staff; F–1, Personnel; F–2, Intelligence; F–3, Plans and Training; and F–4, Supply), who comprehend all the functions of command; and the Special Staff, which includes the heads of technical, supply, and administrative services, and certain technical specialists. Usually, the Executive Staff is not an operating agency; in a small force, Executive Staff officers may, or may not, actually operate one or

more of the services under their sections. The organization of the staff is shown diagrammatically in Plate 1. Staff principles and functions, as defined in the "War Department Field Manual 101–5," remain fundamentally the same irrespective of the type of operation.

b. The staff, in close cooperation, works out the plans enunciated by the commander, formulates the orders and instructions for putting the plans into execution, and by observation and inspection insures proper execution. Staff officers must keep themselves informed of the situation at all times, and be able to place before the commander information in such thoroughly digested form as will enable him to come to a sound and prompt decision without having to consider an infinite number of details.

c. Staff conferences, staff visits, staff inspections, measures to insure adequate liaison, and provision for administrative details are the usual methods employed by all staff organizations to facilitate the proper performance of their specific duties. This procedure unifies the efforts of the staff in furthering the accomplishment of the will of the commander.

d. Administrative procedure and the details of the organization and routine of the various staff offices are largely dependent on the requirements of the particular situation. It is important that essential information be immediately available and that every item coming under the cognizance of the staff section or special staff officer concerned receive proper attention and be disseminated to individuals concerned. This entails the formulation of a systematic office routine and proper allocation of duties to individuals. Executive staff sections are not offices of permanent record. Each of these sections keeps a journal (Plate II) which is the daybook of the section. It contains briefs of important written and verbal messages, both received and sent, and notations of periodic reports, orders, and similar matters that pertain to the section. If an item is received or issued orally, it is entered in detail; if written, the entry may be either a reference to the file number of the document or a brief of its contents. A brief notation is also made of instructions and directions pertaining to the section which have been given by the commander or a member of the section to someone outside of the section. The journal is closed when directed by the commander, at the end of the day, a phase, or other period. These journals are the permanent records of the activities of the sections; combined, they form the record of events of the organization. For further details, see FM 101–5.

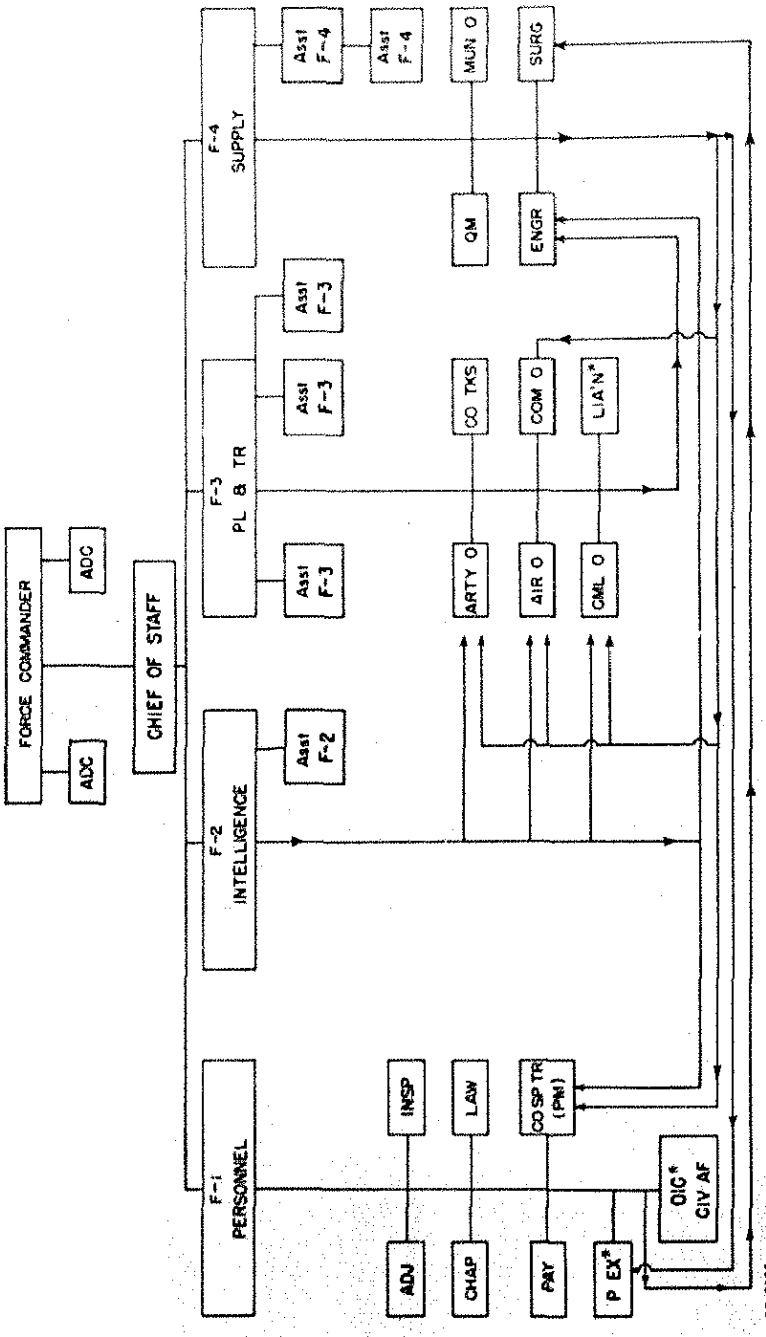

PLATE I—FORCE STAFF

The foregoing diagram shows the staff of a small wars force consisting of a reinforced brigade. Special Staff Officers are here grouped under Executive Staff Sections under which they would normally perform the major portion of their functions. The diagram presumes a situation in which the function of the Executive Staff is that of direction, and the function of the Special Staff is that of operation.

Arrows indicate important functions with other staff sections.

Asterisks indicate assignments of staff officers in certain situations, although their functions may be assumed by other members of the staff if not of sufficient importance to warrant the detail of a separate officer.

JOURNAL[1]

Hq ..... (Unit.)
..... (Place.)
..... (Date.)

From: ..... (Date and hour.)
To: ..... (Date and hour.)

Time[2]	Serial No.	Time dated[3]	Incidents, messages, orders, etc.		Dispositions	Remarks
			In	Out		

[1] Insert F–1, F–2, F–3, F–4, or "Consolidated," as appropriate.
[2] Refers to time of receipt or sending in the office keeping the journal.
[3] Refers to time the information was sent and thus calls attention to how old it is.

2–13. **The chief of staff.**—*a.* In a force no greater than a regiment or a reinforced regiment, the executive officer may perform all of the duties of chief of staff. In larger forces, the chief of staff usually will be an officer specially detailed for the purpose. His principal duties are to act as military adviser to the commander and to coordinate the activities of the staff. (See "War Department Field Manual 101–5.") He conducts all routine business in order to enable the commander to devote his time and efforts to more important matters. During the temporary absence of the commander, the chief of staff makes such decisions as the situation may demand; in each case he is guided by the policies, general instructions, or his intimate knowledge of the commander's wishes.

b. The chief of staff prescribes the internal organization of the various sections so as to fix responsibility for the initiation and supervision of work in order to secure efficiency and teamwork. He decides which members of one staff section will understudy the members of another staff section. He makes sure that the special staff is properly organized. Each chief of section will be so engrossed in his own work that, at times, one section will infringe on the duties of another. The chief of

staff must adjust this at once. His diplomacy and tact in adjusting such situations at the start will have a favorable reaction on the entire command.

c. As the organization progresses, it often develops that certain duties should be shifted from one unit to another. The chief of staff should see that such changes are made promptly. The map section of the engineers has been shifted logically, at times, from that unit to the second section. If a military government has not been established, civil relations may be shifted from the first to the second section.

d. During the concentration period, the chief of staff will be particularly interested in the plans of the staff sections and their arrangements for:

(1) Receiving incoming details and individuals.

(2) Prompt issue of equipment.

(3) Prompt completion of medical and other administrative inspections.

(4) Facilities for training.

(5) Coordination of training of all units.

(6) Organization of the Intelligence Service to meet the probable requirements of the situation.

(7) Organization of the Provost Service to meet adequately the probable demands that will be made upon it in the theater of operations.

e. The chief of staff should supervise the plans for increasing the intelligence personnel and for the establishment of provost services if it can be foreseen that the operations may result in the occupation of a country or a large section of it. The forces of occupation have four weapons with which to act: (*a*) Moral effect of the presence of troops; (*b*) intelligence service; (*c*) provost service (including Exceptional Military Courts); and finally (4) offensive action. The intelligence and provost services should be carefully considered in connection with "peaceful occupation." In the past, scant attention has been given to these services in the preparation of operation plans for small wars operations. As a rule, they have been established only when the necessities of operation forced it upon the higher command. In most cases an increase of personnel in intelligence units will be required over that allowed in organization tables when the operations include the complete occupation of a country or of large areas of it.

f. The provost service, including the exceptional military-court system, represents the military government to the mass of the people, with whom it comes in direct contact, and is the normal active instru-

ment for the maintenance of tranquillity, freeing the natives from agitation and intimidation by their own countrymen. The provost service, more than any other element of the forces except the Intelligence Service, should understand the people, their temperament, customs, activities, and the everyday working of the average native mind. It warrants a well-founded and complete organization, including provost marshals and judges with legal knowledge, good and loyal interpreters, and sufficient clerical assistance to dispatch business with justice and celerity.

2–14. **The first section (personnel)—F–1.**—*a.* The assistant chief of staff, F–1, coordinates the activities of those agencies performing the functions that he is charged with in the "War Department Field Manual 101–5." He cooperates with the second section on matters pertaining to prisoners of war, espionage, etc., and with the third and fourth sections in regard to quartering, priorities of replacement, and allotment of time for recreational work. He is responsible for certain provisions of the administrative order, and must cooperate with the fourth section in this matter. Because he is charged with those functions which relate to the personnel of the command as individuals, he is brought into close contact with the adjutant, the inspector, the chaplain, the law officer, the surgeon, the provost marshal, the paymaster, the communications officer, the exchange officer, and the commanding officer, special troops.

b. The first section organizes the personnel of the staff section, and makes assignments of the clerical personnel, orderlies, and specialists therein.

c. Prior to leaving the United States, this section formulates a plan covering the replacements to accompany the force, numbers and classes of replacements to be dispatched later, dates that such replacements are desired, and priorities. This plan may appear as an annex to an appropriate administration order. In determining the number of replacements to be provided, the losses which may be incurred among the various classes of troops must be estimated. An ample margin should be allowed for casualties in transit and during the landing, and consideration given to the climatic and sanitary conditions en route and within the area of operations, the types of operations contemplated, the branch of service, and the time required for replacements to arrive. After arrival in the theater of operations, F–1 should insure by timely planning that complete information as to the needs of the force reaches the appropriate headquarters in the United States in sufficient time for replace-

ments to arrive when needed. He should cooperate closely with the third section in estimating, well in advance of actual needs, changes in conditions that will require replacements, augmentation, or reduction of the Force. When replacements or reenforcements are recieved, they are distributed in accordance with priorities formulated by the third section.

d. F–1, in collaboration with the Commanding Officer, Special Troops, is charged with the allocation of space to the various headquarters' offices. Whatever the contemplated duration of the occupation, force headquarters should be so located and space so allocated thereat as to facilitate either the expansion or the reduction of its activities. In selecting and allocating office space, the first section confers with all members of the staff relative to their needs, and particularly with the fourth section, which supervises rentals and purchases.

e. Until personnel is specifically designated to take active charge of military government, the first section prepares plans as necessary for its establishment. Usually it will be advisable to organize a special staff section for this purpose. If the military government is an independent organization apart from the force, the first section acts as the liaison agent between the force commander and the staff of the military governor. For details, see Chapter XIII, "Military Government."

f. Since post exchanges are established for the welfare and convenience of the enlisted men, supervision of this activity comes under the first section. See paragraph 2–36.

g. The first section is charged with the rendition of reports concerning, and the handling of, civilian prisoners or prisoners taken from hostile forces. If a local constabulary is operating in cooperation with the intervening force, such prisoners usually are turned over to the former for trial by the constabulary courts martial or by civil courts; otherwise they are held at the disposal of the force commander.

h. The first section prepares and promulgates regulations governing the conduct of personnel in their associations with friendly natives in an effort to further cordial public relations. Social customs in countries in which small wars operations usually occur differ in many respects from those in the United States. Violation of these customs, and thoughtless disrespect to local inhabitants, tend to create animosity and distrust which makes our presence unwelcome and the task of restoring law and order more difficult.

i. The first section prepares and transmits to the fourth section such parts of the force administrative orders as affect the activities of the first section. These are principally: Replacements; military police; postal service; care and disposition of civilian prisoners and prisoners taken from the hostile forces; payment of the command; and post exchange supplies.

j. The records kept in the office of the first section should be reduced to the minimum. See paragraph 2–12, *d*. The following documents are needed in order to function efficiently:

(1) Section journal.

(2) A suspense file of orders, memoranda, and letters of instructions, which later are turned over to the adjutant.

(3) Copies of important communications which affect the force continuously. (The originals are kept in the adjutant's files.)

(4) A situation map should be kept posted, showing the status of matters pertaining to the first section at all times.

2–15. **The second section (intelligence) F–2.**—*a. General.*—(1) The assistant chief of staff F–2 constitutes the Bureau of Enemy Information. This section must keep in close touch with all other staff sections and is responsible for the dissemination of enemy information which may affect the operations of those agencies. This includes not only information of the military situation, but the political, economic, and social status of the occupied area, together with the attitude and activities of the civil population and political leaders insofar as those elements may affect the accomplishment of the mission.

(2) The duties of the intelligence officer are outlined in "War Department Field Manual 101–5." In addition, the following are of special importance in small wars operations:

(*a*) The names and descriptions of leaders, areas in which they operate, and the methods and material means which they employ in combat.

(*b*) Hostile propaganda in occupied territory, adjacent territory or countries, and our own country; and the methods, means, and agents used for its propagation.

(*c*) Liaison with government and local officials of the occupied country or areas, and with the civil representatives of our own and foreign governments therein.

(*d*) Close liaison with the commander of aviation in arranging for aerial reconnaissance.

(*e*) Maintenance of cordial relations with the local, American, and foreign press, and censoring of all press releases.

b. Duties prior to embarkation.—(1) During the concentration phase prior to embarkation, the second section will be primarily concerned with obtaining all available information relative to the country in which it is proposed to operate. Monographs, maps, and other pertinent information normally should be furnished by the Force General Staff. In no type of warfare is the latest current information more vital. For this reason the second section should immediately establish liaison with the corresponding sections of the naval and military services and with the nearest representatives of the State Department.

(2) The selection, organization, and training of the commissioned and enlisted intelligence personnel of both the headquarters and combat units should be carried on concurrently with the F–2 estimate of the situation. (See paragraph 2–13, *e*.) Every effort should be made to obtain personnel conversant with the language of the country. The force of interpreters will generally be augmented by the employment of natives. The second section, in conjunction with F–4, should compile and obtain approval of an "Allowance and Pay Table for Interpreters," based on the scale of wages of the country concerned, and funds should be allocated for payment thereunder prior to embarkation.

(3) A résumé of the available information of the theatre of operations should be completed as soon as practicable and reproduced and disseminated throughout the command. The following form is suggested for compiling this information. Some items listed therein may not be applicable in every situation, and additional items may be of great value in certain situations.

A FORM FOR A STUDY OF THE THEATER OF OPERATIONS

1. POLITICAL.—*a. History.*
   b. System of Government.
      (1) Form of government (dictatorship, republic, etc.).
      (2) Organization and method of operation.
      (3) Political subdivisions.
   c. Internal political situation.
      (1) Present government (head of state and other political leaders; personalities).
      (2) Political issues.
      (3) Analysis of parties.
      (4) Regional and social differences.
      (5) The press.

1. POLITICAL.—*a. History*—Continued.
   d. International politics.
      (1) Bearing of internal political situation on international policies.
      (2) Foreign policies.
      (3) Foreign relations.
   e. Summation (How does this affect the contemplated operations?).

2. ECONOMIC.—*a. General economic characteristics.*
      (1) Natural resources.
      (2) Degree of economic development.
      (3) Dependence on foreign trade.
   b. National productive capacity.
      (1) Agriculture.
      (2) Mining.
      (3) Manufacture.
      (4) Shipbuilding.
   c. Commerce.
      (1) Domestic trade.
      (2) Foreign trade.
   d. Transportation.
      (1) Railroads.
      (2) Highways.
      (3) Water.
      (4) Air.
   e. Communication.
      (1) Cables.
      (2) Radio.
      (3) Telegraph.
      (4) Telephone.
   f. Finance (method of financing government).
   g. Population (economic aspects; present population analysis of population, labor, and social conditions).
   h. Plans for industrial mobilization.
   i. Economic penetration by foreign interests.
   j. Influence of economic situation on foreign relations.
   k. General conclusions (reference to economic self-sufficiency, capacity for production of war supplies and food supplies, and degree of dependence on maintenance of trade routes).

3. GEOGRAPHY (PHYSICAL).[1]—*a. General topography and hydrography.*
   b. Rivers and water supply.
   c. Climatic conditions.
   d. Critical areas (areas the loss of which would seriously hamper the country under consideration).
   e. Vital areas (*areas essential to the country concerned*).
      (1) Routes of approach.
      (2) Roads, trails, and railroads.
      (3) Harbors and beaches near critical areas.

[1] Such geographical items as have been considered under political or economic headings should be omitted.

3. GEOGRAPHY (PHYSICAL).—*a. General topography and hydrography.*—Contd.
   (4) Communications.
   (5) General terrain considerations.
   f. Conclusions (the effect of general terrain considerations on operations. The most favorable theater of operation from a standpoint of physical geography).

4. PSYCHOLOGICAL SITUATION.[2]—*a. General racial characteristics; types, races, etc.*
   b. Education.
   c. Religion.
   d. Attitude of inhabitants toward foreigners.
   e. Susceptibility to propaganda (influence of church, press, radio, or other agency).
   f. Conclusions.

5. COMBAT ESTIMATE.—*a. Coordination of national defense.*
   (1) Military forces (government and opposition).
   (2) Supreme commander (government and opposition).
   b. Personnel.
   (1) Estimated strength of components of both government and hostile forces.
   (2) Government forces and leaders.
   (3) Hostile forces and leaders.
   c. Training, efficiency, and morale (government and hostile forces).
   (1) Individual.
   (2) Unit and combined training.
   (3) Training of reserves.
   (4) System of promotion of officers.
   (5) Efficiency.
   (6) Morale.
   d. Recruiting methods.
   (1) Government forces.
   (2) Hostile forces.
   e. Equipment and supplies available.
   (1) To government forces.
   (*a*) On hand.
   (*b*) Replacement possibilities and sources.
   (2) To hostile forces.
   (*a*) On hand.
   (*b*) Replacement possibilities and sources.
   f. Method of conducting combat.
   g. Navy.
   (1) Strength.
   (2) Organization.
   (3) Training, efficiency, and morale.
   h. Conclusions.

6. GENERAL CONCLUSION (Relative value should be given to all factors and final conclusions must be based on the study as a whole).

[2] Discuss only such items as are not covered fully elsewhere in the study. Refer to other paragraphs where appropriate.

(4) (*a*) Available maps are usually inaccurate and of small scale; their procurement is costly and the supply limited. They have often proved so unreliable as to detail as to be valueless except for the purpose of correction. It is often more practical and economical to obtain maps only for headquarters and executive staff sections of all units, providing means for the reproduction and distribution of corrected sections or of new maps made after arrival in the theater of operations. In small-wars operations where engineer troops have not been present, map reproduction has been made a responsibility of the second section; in other cases, the map-reproduction section of the engineers has been transferred to the force headquarters intelligence section. In any event, the second section is responsible for the procurement and distribution of maps.

(*b*) Aerial photography, in addition to its other military uses, will play an important part in the development of new maps and obtaining accurate information for the correction of old ones after reaching the theater of operations. The procurement of an initial supply of film and other materials for this purpose is essential.

(5) In order to establish favorable press relations at the start, and to avoid the publication of harmful and incorrect information, a definite policy must be adopted as to who will receive representatives of the press, what information will be furnished, and what means will be provided for obtaining it. Even though the campaign may be too insignificant to have correspondents and photographers attached for the entire operation, they will invariably be present at the beginning. In some cases, officers have been permitted to act as correspondents; if this is done, a definite agreement must be made relative to the class of information which will be furnished.

(6) If a military government is not established, civil relations with the local officials, native civilians, and foreign nationals, including citizens of the United States, become a function of the second section. Best results will be obtained if the policy for dealing with the various elements is established before the force arrives in the theater of operations. After arrival, the local representatives of the State Department should be consulted and such changes made in the policy as appear to be desirable.

(7) Organizations which are opposed to intervention in the affairs of other nations, regardless of the cause, have at times disseminated their propaganda to the force. The second section is responsible for guarding against this by locating the source and notifying, through official channels, the proper civilian officials. An early statement of

the facts relating to the situation, by the commander, will usually forestall any ill effects from such propaganda.

(8) Intelligence funds, which are not a part of the quartermaster allotment, are required for the proper functioning of the second section. F–2 is responsible for requesting the allotment of such funds prior to the embarkation of the force.

c. Duties in the theater of operations.—(1) The F–2 section is primarily an office for the consolidation of information supplied by lower units, special agents, and outside sources; and for the prompt distribution of the resulting information to other staffs, sections, and organizations concerned. If circumstances require the second section to assume the duties of the officer in charge of civil affairs or other functions, additional divisions must be organized within the section under competent assistants.

(2) The following intelligence agencies are available to F–2 for the collection of information: Secret agents, voluntary informers, aviation, intelligence agencies of lower organizations (brigades, regiments, areas, etc.), other governmental departments.

(*a*) Secret agents, hired from among the inhabitants in the theater of operations, have proved valuable collectors of information in the past. They must be carefully selected and, once employed, a close watch should be kept on their activities. Usually such agents have been politically opposed to the native forces whose activities have resulted in the intervention. If they attempt to use their position for their own aggrandizement or to embarrass personal enemies, they are useless as sources of information and handicap the intervening force in gaining the confidence of the population. However, when reliable agents have been obtained in past operations, they have provided extremely valuable information. It is often advisable to pay them low regular wages and to reward them with bonuses for timely and accurate information.

(*b*) The major portion of the information obtained from voluntary informers is often false, grossly distorted, or too late to be of value unless the informer has personal reasons for making the report. Liberal cash payments for information that proved correct and timely have sometimes brought excellent results. Hired agents and informers have been of assistance in the past in uncovering the hostile sources of supply. The source of the information must be kept inviolable in order to protect the informers and to insure an uninterrupted flow of information. The universal tendency of even

reliable hired agents and voluntary informers is to protect anyone with whom they are connected by politics, business, or blood.

(*c*) It is not improbable that high officials of both the party in power and the opposition may secretly support insurrectionary activities in order to insure themselves an armed following in the field in case the intervention should be ended suddenly. Such a condition increases the difficult task of securing agents who will report impartially on all disturbing elements.

(*d*) Excellent results have been obtained through the cooperation of business establishments which maintain branches or other contacts throughout the occupied areas. For financial reasons, the central office of such concerns must have timely and impartial knowledge of actual or prospective conditions throughout the country. In many cases they are dependent upon the intervening forces for protection of their personnel and property, and it is to their advantage to restore peaceful conditions as rapidly as possible. In seeking to establish such a contact, the intelligence officer should look for a business establishment with which the force normally does business. Liaison should be maintained through members of the command who visit the business house in the routine course of duty and who are publicly known to do so. It is unfair, as well as poor intelligence technique, to risk the life or the business career of a man in his community through carelessness or loose talk. Many companies have accurate and detailed maps or surveys on file which may be obtained and reproduced to supplement the small-scale maps available to the force.

(*e*) Aerial reconnaissance is invaluable in locating large movements, encampments, and affected areas. When the opposition has been broken into small groups, the lapse of time between gaining information and the arrival of a ground patrol is usually too great to give effective results. The use of observation aviation in close support of infantry patrols operating against small hostile forces is of doubtful value. The airplane discloses the presence and location of the patrols and enables the hostile groups to avoid them or to choose the time and place for making contact. Any ambush that can be located from the air should be uncovered in ample time by the exercise of a little care on the part of the patrol leader. Aerial photographic missions often will be the best or only means for securing accurate information of the terrain in the theater of operations. For further details, see Chapter IX, "Aviation."

(*f*) Subordinate units provide the force commander with detailed information on hostile activities, the terrain and geography, and the

political and economic situation in the areas in which they operate.

As combat intelligence for the purpose of gaining contact with and destroying hostile armed opposition, such information usually will be of value only to the unit first gaining it. But such information, when collected from the entire theater of operations and transformed into military intelligence, provides the commander with the information he must have to dispose his forces in accordance with the situation and to prepare for eventualities. F–2 should coordinate the activities of the intelligence sections of subordinate units. The second section of a subordinate organization, quartered in the same city or town as force headquarters, should not be used as an appendage to the force intelligence section, but should be permitted and required to function in its normal manner. However, F–2 should utilize every opportunity to develop a close understanding and personal relationship with subordinate intelligence officers.

(*g*) F–2 should maintain close liaison with other agencies of our government established in the theater of operations. Information from such agencies concerning the higher officials of the government of the occupied state and of the opposition party, as well as of the economic condition of the state, may be accepted as sound. But because of the limited circle within which they move, as well as for other reasons, their opinion concerning the effect of the national economy on the peace of the state, and of political and social trends to which the higher classes are unsympathetic, must be accepted with care. The same applies to the opinions of America businessmen domiciled in the country. An officer possessing a working knowledge of the language, a knowledge of the psychology of the people, good powers of observation, and who has associated with the average civilian in the outlying districts for a month, is in a position to possess a sounder knowledge of the fundamental disturbing factors at work in the country that an official or businessman who may have spent years in the capital only.

(*h*) Close contact should be maintained also with representataives of our government in bordering states, especially with naval and military attachés. This is particularly applicable when the affected area borders the frontier.

(3) The same agencies for securing information are available to brigade (if the force consists of more than a reenforced brigade) and regimental intelligence officers as are available to F–2, except that it will be unusual for them to contact representatives of our own or foreign governments directly. Reconnaissance aviation is usually

available on request. If a regiment is operating independently in a small wars situation, the regimental intelligence section should be strengthened to fulfill adequately the functions of the F-2 section.

(4) (*a*) Even the battalion in small wars rarely operates as a unit. Its companies often occupy the more important villages in the battalion area and, in turn, send out subdivisions to occupy strategically located settlements and outposts. The battalion intelligence officer should spend as much time as possible in the field in order that he may become thoroughly familiar with the situation throughout the area.

(*b*) As soon as it is established, every detached post or station must organize and develop its own intelligence system. Each garrison must initiate active patrolling for the purpose of becoming familiar with the routes of communication, topography and geography of the district, the inhabitants, and the economic and political forces at work in the community. Routine patrols over the same roads or trails and at regular intervals of time should be avoided; rather the objective should be to discover new trails and to explore new areas with each successive patrol and to confuse the opponents by varying the dates and hours of departure. Local garrisons must become so familiar with their subdistricts that any changes or unusual conditions will be immediately apparent. Local commanders and their noncommissioned officers should be able to proceed to any point in their subdistrict via the shortest and quickest route and without the assistance of a guide or interpreter.

(*c*) Maps furnished from the higher echelons must be supplemented by road sketches and the correction or addition of all pertinent military information. This work should be undertaken immediately upon arrival, beginning with the most important unmapped roads or trails and continuing throughout the occupation until accurate large-scale maps are available of all subdistricts. A supplementary chart should be compiled indicating the distances between all points of military importance and the time factor involved for each type of transportation available and for each season of the year.

(*d*) A record should be kept of all prominent citizens in the locality, whether friendly or hostile to the intervention. Each record should show: The full name of the individual as taken from the baptismal or birth certificate (both when these records differ); the name by which the person is customarily known; all known aliases, if any; and his reputation, character, and activities. Additional information should be entered on the record as it becomes available. Duplicates

are forwarded to the next higher echelon. It is only by this means that accurate and continuous information can be maintained on the inhabitants of the occupied areas, which will prove invaluable when questioning individuals, for orienting newly arriving officers, and for preparing charges when it is desired to bring suspects to trial for their activities.

(*e*) Intelligence activities are greatly handicapped if the officers attached to battalions and smaller units in the field are not familiar with the local language. This is especially true with Bn–2. Each officer should endeavor to learn the language sufficiently well to engage in social activities and to dispense with interpreters as soon as possible.

(*f*) Outpost commanders may obtain information by:

Establishing a service of information through the local mayor or senior civil official;

Weekly reports from the senior civil official in each settlement within the subdistrict;

Questioning commercial travelers;

Interrogating persons or the relatives of persons injured or molested by the hostile forces;

Close surveillance of relatives of hostile individuals;

Examination of prisoners; and

Constant observation of the movements of all able-bodied men in the district.

(*g*) Methods of extracting information which are not countenanced by the laws of war and the customs of humanity cannot be tolerated. Such actions tend to produce only false information and are degrading to the person inflicting them.

d. Intelligence records.—(1) *Study of the theater of operations.*—A thorough knowledge of the theater of operations in small wars is highly important to all officers from the force commander to the junior patrol or outpost commander. Information compiled prior to arrival in the theater must be supplemented by reconnaissance and research on the ground. See paragraph 2–15, b.

(2) *Special studies.*—From time to time the intelligence officer may be called upon to make special studies of particular localities, situations, or other factors arising during the course of the campaign.

(3) *The intelligence annex.*—A complete intelligence annex may be issued at the beginning of the operations to accompany the campaign plan. Such an annex is not usually necessary in small wars operations unless strong, organized resistance to the intervention is anticipated.

The form for the intelligence annex given in "War Department Field Manual 101–5" may be used as a guide.

(4) *The intelligence estimate.*—(*a*) The intelligence estimate during the early phases of intervention may closely parallel the F–2 estimate of a major war. It is that part of the commander's estimate of the situation which covers the hostile forces and their probable course of action. The following outline may be used as a guide for such an estimate:

F–2 ESTIMATE

(Heading)

File No.
Maps:

1. HOSTILE FORCES:
   Dispositions; strength; physical conditions; morale; training; composition; supply and equipment; assistance to be expected from other sources.
2. ENEMY'S CAPABILITIES:
   Enemy's mission; plans open to enemy; analysis of courses open to the enemy.
3. MOST PROBABLE COURSE OF ENEMY ACTION.

(Signature.)

(*b*) As the intervention continues and the hostile forces are dispersed into small groups, purely military operations usually become subordinate to civil problems. The following form may be used as a guide for an F–2 estimate of the political, economical, and civil situation:

ESTIMATE OF THE POLITICAL, ECONOMICAL, AND CIVIL SITUATION

From: Date and hour
To: Date and hour

Unit
Place
Date and hour

File No.
Maps:

1. GENERAL STATE OF TERRITORY OCCUPIED:
   State under the appropriate number of subparagraphs, a general summary of hostile activities as it exists in each subdivision of the state or territory, allotting a subparagraph to each geographic subdivision.
2. ATTITUDE OF CIVIL POPULATION:
   Discuss attitude of the leaders, whether political or military. The general attitude of the population, whether friendly, tolerant, apathetic, or hostile. Local assistance or obstruction we may expect to our efforts.

3. ECONOMIC SITUATION:
Condition of business. Employment situation. Price of foodstuffs. Condition of crops. Influx or outflow of laborers. Conditions amongst laborers.

4. POLICE OPERATION:
Police conditions. Coöperation of native forces and native Civil Police with our own. Type of crime for which most arrests are made, whether major or minor offenses. Amount and reliability of information furnished by local force or police. Arms in use by local police, type and number. If police are subject to local political leaders for their jobs. Sources of their pay and a comparison of it with other salaried positions in the locality.

5. MILITARY OPERATION:
Either discuss or refer to B–2 Reports.

6. POLITICAL SITUATION:
A discussion of the local political situation in various sections of the state or territory, as it affects the state as a whole. A discussion of national poltics and political questions. The statements or actions of national political leaders or the national political governing body. Political situation in adjacent states which may have an immediate bearing on the local situation.

7. MISCELLANEOUS:
Such items of interest bearing on the political, economic, and civil situation as does not come belong under the proceeding paragraphs.

(s) B
Major
F–2

(5) *The Journal.*—See paragraph 2–12, d.

(6) *The Intelligence Report.*—(*a*) The information which has been collected and evaluated during a given period is disseminated by means of an intelligence report or an intelligence memorandum. The period of time to be covered by the report is prescribed by higher authority, or by the unit commander. It is issued by all combat units down to and including the battalion or corresponding command for the purpose of informing superior, adjacent, and subordinate organizations of the situation confronting the unit preparing the report. It may be supplemented by a situation map or overlay. In small wars operations, it may be advisable to prepare separate reports on the military, economic, and political situations, or, if they interlock, a combined report may be submitted. The military report is similar to that given in "War Department Field Manual 101–5." The following form may be used as a guide in preparing a combined report:

PERIODIC REPORT OF INTELLIGENCE

From: Date and hour
To: Date and hour

File No.

CONFIDENTIAL

(Heading)

1. ATTITUDE OF CIVIL POPULATION TOWARD MILITARY GOVERNMENT OR OCCUPATION:
   Hostile, neutral, or friendly; by social classes.
2. POLITICAL ACTIVITIES:
   Activity of political parties during period—deductions.
3. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS:
   Condition of crops, prices of foodstuffs, if low or high, reason therefor, pests, epidemics, disasters, labor and wages, economic conditions which may tend to produce disorder and unrest.
4. LOCAL DISTURBANCES:
   Agitation or disorder caused by rumors, secret organizations, disputes over property, criminal element.
5. PROSECUTIONS:
   Prosecution of prominent people such as newspaper men, civil officials, etc.
6. HOSTILE FORCES:
   Names of leaders, strength; number and kinds of arms, localities frequented—activity during period, normal or abnormal—deductions.
7. HOSTILE ACTIVITIES:
8. MILITARY OPERATIONS:
   Synopsis of military activity to offset hostile operations and unsettled conditions.
9. ARMS AND EQUIPMENT:
   Number of arms and equipment captured, surrendered, or taken up, with general locality.
10. MISCELLANEOUS.
11. CONCLUSIONS:
    (*a*) General state of territory occupied.
    (*b*) Possible future trend of events or courses of action open to the opposition.
    (*c*) Most probable future trend and course of action, based on a sound estimate only.

(Signature.)

(*b*) Reports submitted by organization commanders in the field should be complete and detailed. It is better to send in too much information than too little. A report which is meaningless to the commander of a small detachment may be essential to the next higher echelon when considered with the information received from other sources. On the other hand, F-2 reports to higher authority may be

in the form of brief summaries, omitting the mass of detail collected by the combat organizations. Where the immediate transmission of items of information is necessary, the most rapid means of communication available is employed.

(*c*) The rapid dissemination of military intelligence to all organizations concerned is fully as important as the collection of original information. The distribution of intelligence reports should include the smallest separate detachment in the field. Because of the wide dispersion of troops in usual small wars operations, intelligence reports are often the only means by which a patrol commander can be kept informed of hostile activities, or plan his operations to intercept probable enemy movements.

(*d*) In view of the peculiar status of our forces in small wars operations, in which they frequently become involved for the sole purpose of providing military aid to the civil power of a foreign nation in order to restore peace within the boundaries of the state, the use of the term "enemy" should be avoided in all records, reports, and other documents.

(7) *The intelligence work sheet.*—As information is received by the second section, it must be recorded in an orderly fashion preliminary to the preparation of the intelligence report. This is done by means of the intelligence work sheet. No form for this is prescribed, but a convenient method is to classify the information as it is received under the headings used in the intelligence report, starting each heading with a new sheet. This provides a satisfactory means for segregating the information, and greatly facilitates the preparation of the intelligence report.

(8) *The intelligence situation map.*—A situation map, showing the latest reported disposition of the hostile forces, is kept by the second section.

2–16. **The third section (plans and training)—F–3.**—*a.* The assistant chief of staff F–3 performs the specific duties outlined in "War Department Field Manual 101–5."

b. One of the first duties of F–3 may be to prepare letters of instruction for the immediate subordinate organization commanders as outlined by the force commander. Such instructions are secret. They indicate the successive steps to be taken if the operations progress favorably, or contemplated plans in case of reverse or other eventualities. In major warfare, letters of instruction are not common in units smaller than a corps but in small wars situations, which are usually extremely vague and which present so many possibilities,

some instructions of this nature will assist the commander's immediate subordinates in the execution of his scheme of maneuver and campaign plan.

c. The third section prepares the necessary organization, movement, communications, and tactical plans. Organization of the combat units includes the priority of the assignment of replacements, and recommendations for desirable changes in armament and equipment. In conjunction with F–2, he estimates the strength, armament, equipment, and tactics of the opposing forces, and determines the necessity for the attached supporting arms with the Force such as aviation, artillery, tanks, etc., and the appropriate strength thereof. Every available means of communication must be utilized; generally additional equipment and personnel will be required as a shortage of communication material may influence the plan of campaign. The prompt preparation of an air-ground liaison code is very important.

d. In conjunction with the special staff and F–4, the third section determines the number of units of fire of normal and special ammunition to be carried with the force initially, and requests replacements from the United States as necessary.

e. F–3 prepares and issues orders for all troop movements. However, he prescribes only the general location and dispositions of the technical, supply, and administrative units and the actual movement orders for these units are issued by the staff section concerned after consultation with and approval of F–3. In considering the combat missions to be assigned to the various organizations, areas, or districts in the theater of operations, he makes appropriate redistribution of personnel or requests replacements when necessary. Because of the time factor involved in the redistribution of men or the arrival of replacements from the United States, troop movements must be planned farther in advance in small wars operations than in regular warfare.

f. In small wars, the units of the force are generally so widely distributed throughout the theater of operations that the commander may have difficulty in keeping abreast of the situations existing in the various elements. Operations orders should usually be phrased in general terms and the details of execution delegated to subordinate commanders. This necessary decentralization of authority is simplified by partition of the theater and the organization of the command into areas, districts, and subdistricts.

g. By intimate contact with other staff sections, F–3 keeps informed of all pertinent matters affecting the combat efficiency of the

force. He maintains close liaison with the special staff officers concerning all matters in which their duties, technical knowledge, and functions will affect the operations. He coordinates the efforts of subordinate units or the various area organizations, the supporting arms (aviation in particular), and armed native organizations, to the end that the greatest combat effectiveness is assured.

h. In addition to situation maps, overlays, and other data permitting a ready grasp of the tactical situation, the third section keeps a suspense file of all memoranda or orders emanating therefrom, and a work sheet and a section journal.

2–17. **The fourth section (supply)—F–4.**—*a.* The assistant chief of staff F–4 is charged with the preparation of plans, policies, priorities, and decisions incurred in the supervision and coordination of the technical, supply, and administrative services, in matters of supply, transportation, evacuation, hospitalization, and maintenance. F–4 must so exercise his supervision of these services that the troops will not be incapacitated by the lack of sufficient clothing, food, and ammunition, and so as to relieve their commanders of the worry as to whether these articles will be furnished. The specific duties of the fourth section are outlined in "War Department Field Manual 101–5."

b. F–4, in conjunction with the third section, recommends changes in types and amounts of individual, organization, combat, supplementary, and special equipment, and the units of fire of normal and special ammunition to be carried initially. In cooperation with the first section, F–4 estimates the civilian labor needed and obtainable in the theater of operations, and the number and composition of specialists units to be attached to the force for the service of supply, hospitalization, communication, and transportation. He determines the amount of supplies that can be obtained from local sources and prepares a schedule for shipment of replacements. The amounts and types of transport to be taken will depend upon the tactical and administrative requirements, the general nature of the terrain in the theater of operations, and the availability and suitability of native transport. In many situations, a large reduction in allowances or a complete change in type from that specified in organization tables, or both, may be required. See Chapter III, "Logistics."

c. The fourth section normally coordinates, supervises, and directs the supply services without in any way operating their specialities. Ordinarily these services deal directly with F–4, who settles routine matters and refers those which involve new policies to the chief of staff for decision.

d. Since our relations with the local government in the theater of operations is usually friendly, F–4 makes the necessary arrangements with the customs officials relative to the clearance of supplies and material for the force.

2–18. **The special staff.**—*a.* The special staff consists of all officers, other than the executive staff (chief of staff, F–1, F–2, F–3, and F–4), specifically provided for the purpose of assisting the commander in exercising his command functions. This special group includes the heads of the technical, supply, and administrative services, and certain technical specialists. In the Force, the executive staff and the special staff are separate and distinct, while in lower units they usually merge into each other, one officer frequently being charged with the duties of one or more special staff officers as well as with those of a member of the executive staff. Special staff officers normally assigned to a small wars force of a reinforced brigade or larger organization are listed in the succeeding paragraphs.

b. Although the special staff sections usually function under the coordination of the executive staff sections (See Plate I, paragraph 2–12, a), such staff officers are not precluded from dealing directly with the chief of staff or the force commander when necessary. Special staff officers are not "under" any one officer of the executive staff but function with any or all of them, and with each other.

2–19. **The adjutant.**—The functions of the adjutant correspond with those prescribed for the adjutant general in "War Department Field Manual 101–5." In lower units, these functions are combined with those of F–1.

b. (1) The Force postal service is operated, under orders of the adjutant, by the postal officer, or enlisted mail clerk when no postal officer is appointed. It is advisable, however, to place an officer in charge of the post office, particularly when a large portion of the force is in the field, and cash for the purchase and payment of money orders must be handled by messenger.

(2) The postmaster at the point of concentration or port of embarkation should be consulted for information on the postal forms required.

(3) Prior to sailing, and periodically thereafter as may be necessary, an order should be published giving the correct mailing address of the command, and recommending that officers and men advise their correspondents to send money only by domestic, rather than by international money orders.

(4) If the prompt and efficient dispatch and distribution of mail cannot be effected by the authorized postal section complement, the

adjutant should not hesitate to request the temporary or permanent assignment of additional personnel. Officers and men of the command must be able to send and receive mail with facility; valuables must be secure while in transit within the Force; and the mail clerk must receive promptly the signed receipt of the addressee for registered and insured articles on the postal form provided for that purpose.

c. Combat organizations conducting operations in the field should be relieved of as much routine administrative work as possible. Company first sergeants and company clerks may be assembled at battalion or area headquarters where, under the supervision of Bn–1, they are responsible for the preparation of muster rolls, pay rolls, service record-book entries, routine correspondence, etc.

2–20. **The inspector.**—*a.* In addition to the functions prescribed in "War Department Field Manual 101–5," the inspector in small wars operations is usually required to investigate claims for damages resulting from the occupation.

b. Inspections.—(1) Inspections should not interfere with tactical operations.

(2) When patrols escort the inspector from one outpost to another, they should be of a reasonable strength; it is preferable that the inspector accompany ordinary patrols demanded by routine operations.

(3) The inspector assumes no authority while making his inspection and issues no orders unless specifically authorized to do so by the force commander.

(4) No report should be made of minor discrepancies which can be and are corrected locally.

(5) When the inspector makes recommendations or notes deficiencies in his report, he should see that proper action is taken in accordance with the policy or orders of the force commander. This is particularly true with reference to matters affecting the morale and efficiency of the troops.

c. Investigations.—One of the most important duties of the inspector in small wars is to investigate matters which involve controversies between individuals of the force and local inhabitants. These investigations should be promptly, thoroughly, and fairly made, bearing in mind the interests of the individuals concerned and those of our Government. The finding of facts should be recorded and filed for future reference to meet those charges of impropriety which so often follow our withdrawal from the theater of operations.

d. Claims and damages.—(1) Claims and damages may be a source of embarrassment to the command if they are not investigated and acted upon promptly. When a special claim board is not designated, the inspector generally acts in that capacity.

(2) In every small war, claims, involving personal injury or property damage, are presented which could be settled immediately and at great savings to the Government if funds were made available for that purpose.

(3) If an injury has been done to any individual or private property is damaged, it should be reported to the proper authority without delay. The latter should order an immediate investigation even though no claim has been presented. Damages which are the result of neglect or misconduct on the part of members of the command should be determined before the departure of the individuals concerned from the locality. The investigation should determine whether the damages are the result of a wilful act, negligence, accident, unintentional injury, or of ordinary wear and deterioration. Private or public property occupied or employed by our forces should be inspected by the local commander or his representative and the native inhabitants concerned and a record made of all deficiencies or irregularities. Such an inspection is made upon taking possession of and upon vacating the property.

(4) Prior to withdrawal from the theater of operations, the force commander may issue a proclamation indicating that all claims for damages must be submitted to the designated authority before a given date. This enables the investigation and adjustment of the claims before the evacuation of the area. It has the disadvantage of encouraging a flood of unreasonable claims.

(5) No claims should be allowed for damage to property or for personal injury which is incident to military operations or the maintenance of public safety, when no criminal intent or carelessness is in question.

(6) Records of all data affecting claims, including receipts and releases, should be retained with the files of the Force or otherwise disposed of as directed by higher authority.

2-21. **The law officer.**—In small wars operations, the law officer is the legal adviser to the force commander and his staff on questions of local civil law, in addition to the functions prescribed for the "Judge Advocate" in "War Department Field Manual 101–5."

2-22. **The officer in charge of civil affairs.**—See "War Department Field Manual 101–5."

2–23. **The chaplain.**—See "War Department Field Manual 101–5."

2–24. **The paymaster.**—*a.* The paymaster is charged with those duties prescribed for "The Finance Officer" in the "War Department Field Manual 101–5," which pertain to the payment of the command, including mileage and traveling expenses of commissioned officers. In small wars operations, he must be prepared to advise the force commander regarding the trend of foreign exchange, especially whether the command shall be paid in whole or in part in United States currency or local currency.

b. The paymaster does not pay travel expenses of enlisted men, except when travel by air is involved, nor does he handle the expenses of transportation of dependents, which payments are made by the disbursing quartermaster. In the absence of a disbursing quartermaster, the paymaster may make disbursements of funds pertaining to the Quartermaster's Department, charging such disbursements to the quartermaster's appropriation involved.

2–25. **The provost marshal.**—*a.* In addition to the normal duties prescribed for the provost marshal in "War Department Field Manual 101–5," in small wars operations he has many functions relative to the control of the local civilian population, some of which are listed below:

(1) Control of circulation of civilian population.

(2) Detention of and bringing to justice offenders against the Executive Orders and the Proclamation of Intervention.

(3) Repression of crime.

(4) Enforcement of the Executive Orders and execution of the mandates of the military authority.

(5) Execution of sentences of military courts.

(6) Arrest and detention of suspects. Investigation of reports bearing on civilian activities.

(7) Special investigation of complaints made by civilians against the members of the occupation, municipal police, etc.

(8) Observe civil officials in performance of their duties and report any official violation of this trust.

(9) Custody of certain prisons and their inmates; enforcement of prison regulations; and supervision of prison labor.

(10) Issue and cancel firearms permits in accordance with Force Orders.

(11) Control the storage and release of firearms, ammunition, and explosives imported into the country. The sale of ammunition to persons possessing arms on permits in accordance with Force Orders.

b. Native prisoners should never be confined with personnel of the intervening force; separate prisons should be used. F–2 is permitted to have free access to all native prisoners for interrogation and examination. The first section is responsible for such action as may be necessary concerning prisoners in the hands of hostile forces, and for individuals who become embroiled with the friendly civil population or are arrested by the local authorities.

2–26. **The commanding officer of special troops.**—The commanding officer of special troops normally performs those duties prescribed for the "Headquarters Commandant" in "War Department Field Manual 101–5." In many cases he will also be the provost marshal, and charged with the duties of that officer.

2–27. **The artillery officer.**—The artillery officer has the functions set forth for the "Chief of Artillery" in "War Department Field Manual 101–5," and, in addition, normally serves in the dual capacity of commander of the artillery units with the force. If a landing against opposition is anticipated, the artillery officer is responsible for the artillery annexes attached to the operations orders.

2–28. **The air officer.**—See "War Department Field Manual 101–5." In his dual capacity of commander of the force aviation, he is responsible for the execution of all duties and operations assigned to such aviation by the force commander.

2–29. **The communications officer.**—*a. General duties.*—(1) The communications officer performs those functions prescribed for the "Signal Officer" in "War Department Field Manual 101–5." In addition he:

(*a*) Coordinates communication activities with the U. S. Naval Forces, native communication agencies, and communication establishments owned by commercial concerns.

(*b*) Assumes responsibility for all naval codes and ciphers.

(*c*) Supervises all encoding and decoding of dispatches.

(2) If the headquarters of the force is so located that its communication system becomes of primary importance in the chain of Naval Communication and is the principal agency for handling dispatches for the State Department, a separate communications officer with rank corresponding to that of the chiefs of section of the executive staff should be assigned to the special staff. This officer would not necessarily have to be a communications technician. By virtue of his rank and position he would be able to advise the force commander relative to communication matters, and in general

execute the communication policy, leaving the technical details of training and operation to a technical assistant or to the commander of the force communication unit.

b. Classes of communication.—The classes of communication to be handled as wire or radio messages, and the classes to be handled by letter, should be determined prior to embarkation. Authority to handle class E (personal messages) by radio should be obtained.

c. Additional communication personnel and equipment.—Organization tables do not provide sufficient personnel or material, especially radio equipment, to meet the normal requirements of small wars operations. The communication officer is responsible for augmenting the trained personnel and obtaining the additional equipment demanded by the situation.

d. Communication policy.—(1) Irrespective of the size of the force, there are certain duties relative to policy which fall to the communications officer in small wars. The more extended the force, the more involved the policy will be. Part of the policy will be dictated by the Naval Communication Service, as defined in Naval Communication Instructions, while a part will be incident to the type of intervention.

(2) The communications officer should ascertain whether the communication facilities of the country concerned are privately or publicly owned and operated, their extent, and the communication agencies employed. He should determine what, if any, communication agencies are devoted exclusively to military activities, obtaining the call signs and frequencies of the radio establishment. He should also ascertain what communication facilities are owned and operated by foreign companies. Upon arrival in the theater of operations, he should verify this information.

2–30. **The engineer officer.**—See "War Department Field Manual 101–5."

2–31. **The surgeon.**—*a.* See "War Department Field Manual 101–5."

b. In small wars operations, when the force may be widely dispersed, the force surgeon should consider:

(1) The necessity for additional medical personnel.

(2) Extra supplies of medical materials, quinine, and similar medicaments.

(3) Portable dental outfits.

(4) The preparation of medical supplies for airplane drops.

2–32. **The quartermaster.**—In addition to the functions prescribed in "War Department Field Manual 101–5," the force quartermaster is charged with:

a. The operation of sales stores.

b. The procurement of local transportation, including riding, draft, and pack animals, either by hire or purchase.

c. Recommending changes in existing system of accountability, when required.

d. Making estimates and requests for quartermaster funds, and supervising the allotment of funds as approved by the force commander.

e. Custody and disbursement of quartermaster funds, and funds from other branches of the naval service, as authorized.[3]

f. Payment for supplies and services purchased; and for damages and claims, when authorized.[3]

g. Payment for labor and transportation hired.[3]

2–33. **The chemical officer.**—See "War Department Field Manual 101–5."

2–34. **The tank officer.**—The commanding officer of the tank unit attached to the force is the technical and tactical advisor to the force commander in all matters pertaining to the use of tanks or armored cars, and to defense against mechanized forces.

2–35. **The munitions officer.**—The munitions officer performs those functions specified for the "Ordnance Officer" and the "Munitions Officer" in "War Department Field Manual 101–5."

2–36. **The post exchange officer.**—The post exchange officer is a distinct member of the force special staff. His duties are:

a. To obtain initial funds for establishment of the exchange.

b. To procure exchange supplies by purchase or on consignment.

c. To plan for the distribution of post exchange stores to outlying garrisons.

d. To conduct the exchange in accordance with regulations.

2–37. **The amusement and welfare officer.**—*a.* An officer may be specifically designated as the amusement and welfare officer and assigned to the force special staff, or these duties may be delegated to a staff officer in addition to his regular duties.

b. His duties are:

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[3] If an officer other the force quartermaster is designated as disbursing assistant quartermaster, the duties specified under *e*, *f*, and *g* are performed by that officer.

(1) To obtain amusement funds from proceeds of the post exchange, and from the government fund "Recreation for enlisted men."

(2) To procure and administer Red Cross and Navy relief funds.

(3) To establish libraries at the bases and hospitals.

(4) To purchase and distribute current periodicals.

(5) To obtain and distribute athletic equipment and material for other forms of recreation.

c. In the initial phases of a small wars operation, the duties of the amusement and welfare officer often may be assigned to the chaplain.

Section III

COMPOSITION OF THE FORCE

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2–38. **General.**—*a.* It can be assumed that the Fleet Marine Force in the Marine Corps, and the reenforced infantry or cavalry brigade in the Army, will be the basic organizations for small wars operations. Major changes in their strength, organization, armament, and equipment are neither essential nor desirable. However, some slight modifications in armament and equipment may be advisable, and the proportion of supporting arms and services attached to the force may vary from the normal.

b. A force assigned a small wars mission should be tactically and administratively a self-sustaining unit. It must be highly mobile,

and tactical units, such as the battalion, must be prepared to act independently as administrative organizations. The final composition of the force will depend upon its mission, the forces available, and the character of the operations.

c. The organization and armament of the opposing force may range from small, roving, guerrilla bands, equipped only with small arms, to a completely modern force armed with the latest types of material. The lack of preponderance of any arm or weapon by the opponent will be the material factor in determining what arms and weapons will be required by the intervening force. The force must be of sufficient strength and so proportioned that it can accomplish its mission in the minimum time and with the minimum losses.

d. The terrain, climatic conditions, transportation facilities, and the availability and source of supply will influence the types of arms and equipment and especially the classes of transportation required by the force.

2–39. **Infantry.**—*a. Importance.*—Infantry, the arm of close combat, has been the most important arm in small wars because, from the very nature of such wars, it is evident that the ultimate objective will be reached only by close combat. The policy that every man, regardless of his specialty, be basically trained as an infantryman has been vindicated time and again, and any tendency to deviate from that policy must be guarded against.

b. Training.—Infantry units must be efficient, mobile, light infantry, composed of individuals of high morale and personal courage, thoroughly trained in the use of the rifle and of automatic weapons and capable of withstanding great fatigue on long and often fruitless patrols. As they must assume the offensive under the most difficult conditions of war, terrain, and climate, these troops must be well trained and well led.

c. Rifle companies.—Sooner or later, it is inevitable that small wars operations will degenerate into guerrilla warfare conducted by small hostile groups in wooded, mountainous terrain. It has generally been found that the rifle platoon of three squads is the basic unit best suited to combat such tactics. Each platoon sent on an independent combat mission should have at least one and preferably two commissioned officers attached to it. It is desirable, therefore, that the number of junior officers assigned to rifle companies be increased above the normal complement authorized in the tables of organization. The number of cooks in a rifle company should also be increased to provide one for each platoon as the company often may be divided into

three separate combat patrols or outpost detachments. The attachment of a hospital corpsman to each detachment is essential.

d. Machine gun companies.—The infantry machine gun company fulfills its normal roles during the initial operations in small wars. In the later phases of guerrilla warfare and pacification, it will seldom be used as a complete organization. Squads and sections often will be attached to small combat patrols, or to detached outposts for the purpose of defense. In order to conserve personnel, some machine gun units in past small wars operations have been converted into rifle organizations, and their machine guns, minus the operating personnel, distributed among outlying stations. This is not good practice. Machine gun organizations should be maintained as such, and the smaller units detached to rifle platoons and companies as the necessity therefor arises. These remarks are also applicable to the 81 mm. mortar and antitank platoons.

2–40. **Infantry weapons.**—*a. General.*—(1) The nature of small wars operations, varying from landings against organized opposition in the initial stages to patrolling the remote areas of the country against poorly armed guerrillas in the later stages, may make some changes in the armament of the infantry desirable. Whether these changes should take place before leaving the United States, or whether they should be anticipated and effected in the theater of operations, must be determined during the estimate of the situation.

(2) The arming of the infantry for small war purposes is influenced by—

(*a*) Fighting power of the enemy, with particular reference to numerical strength, armament, leadership, and tactics.

(*b*) The short ranges of jungle warfare.

(*c*) The necessity for small units to defend themselves at close quarters when attacked by superior numbers.

(*d*) The method of transporting men, weapons, and ammunition.

(*e*) The strength of, and the offensive or defensive mission assigned to, a patrol or outpost.

(*f*) The personal opinions of the officers concerned. A company commander on an independent mission in a small war is generally given more latitude in the arming of his company than he would be permitted in a major war.

(3) Ammunition supply is a difficult problem in small wars operations. A detached post or a combat patrol operating away from its base cannot depend upon immediate, routine replacement of its ammunition expenditures. The state of training of the unit in fire dis-

cipline and fire control may be an influential factor in determining the number and type of infantry weapons assigned.

b. The U. S. rifle, caliber .30, M1903.—The bolt-action magazine fed, U. S. Rifle, caliber .30, M1903, often erroneously called the Springfield rifle, eventually will be replaced by the semiautomatic rifle as the standard arm of the infantry. Its rate of fire, accuracy, and rugged dependability in the field may influence its continued use in small wars operations. When fitted with a rifle grenade discharger, this rifle acts as the propellant for the rifle grenade.

c. The U. S. rifle, caliber .30, M1.—The U. S. Rifle, Caliber .30, M1, is a gas operated, semiautomatic, shoulder rifle. It has been adopted as the standard infantry weapon by the U. S. Army to replace the M1903 rifle. It weighs approximately a half pound more than the M1903 rifle. Its effective rate of fire is from 16 to 20 rounds per minute as compared to 10 to 20 rounds per minute for the bolt-action rifle. It is especially useful against low flying aircraft and rapidly moving terrestrial targets. It requires more care and attention than the M1903 rifle, the Browning automatic rifle, or the Thompson submachine gun. It cannot be used to propel rifle grenades of either the V. B. or rod type. Whether or not it entirely replaces the M1903 rifle, the characteristics of the M1 rifle make it definitely superior to the Browning automatic rifle M1917, and the Thompson submachine gun for small wars operations. A minimum of two U. S. rifles, caliber .30, M1, should be assigned to every rifle squad engaged in small wars operations and, in some situations, it may be desirable to issue them to every member of the squad.

d. The Browning automatic rifle, caliber .30, M1917.—With the advent of the M1 rifle and the adoption of the light machine gun as an accompanying weapon for rifle units, the Browning automatic rifle, caliber .30, M1917, with its cumbersome length, weight, and ammunition supply, should no longer be seriously considered as a suitable weapon for small-wars operations.

e. The Browning automatic rifle, caliber .30, M1917 (modified.)—The Browning automatic rifle, caliber .30, M1917 (modified), is essentially the same weapon as the BAR, fitted with a bipod mount and a reduced cyclic rate of fire which convert the weapon into an effective light machine gun capable of delivering accurate, full automatic fire. It can be carried by one man, and has the mobility of a rifle on the march and in combat. Two ammunition carriers are required, the team of three men making up a light-machine-gun group. Two groups, under a corporal, comprise a light-machine-gun

squad. Its characteristics make the Browning automatic rifle (modified) the ideal accompanying and supporting weapon for rifle units. Pending the development and adoption of some other standard light machine gun, two of these rifles should be provided for every rifle platoon of three squads in small-wars operations.

f. The Thompson submachine gun, caliber .45, M1928.—(1) Because of its light weight and short over-all length which facilitate carrying in wooded, mountainous terrain, the Thompson submachine gun has been used extensively in small-wars operations as a partial substitute for the Browning automatic rifle. It has the following disadvantages as a standard combat arm: it uses the caliber .45 cartridge which is employed in no other weapon in the rifle company except the pistol; special magazines must be carried which are difficult to reload during combat if the supply of loaded magazines is exhausted; its effective range is only 150 to 200 yards; the continuous danger space is quite limited; it is not particularly accurate. With the development of a satisfactory semiautomatic rifle, the Thompson submachine gun should no longer be considered as an organic weapon in the rifle squad in small wars.

(2) The Thompson submachine gun may be issued to messengers in place of the automatic pistol, and to a limited number of machine gun, tank, transport, aviation, and similar personnel for close-in defense in small-wars operations. In some situations it may be desirable as a military police weapon. The 20-round magazine is quieter, easier to carry and handle, and is not subject to as many malfunctions as the 50-round drum.

g. The V. B. rifle grenade, mark I.—The V. B. rifle grenade has been replaced by the 60-mm. mortar as an organic weapon of the rifle company. However, it has certain characteristics which may warrant its use in small-wars operations as a substitute for or supplementary to the mortar. The grenade weighs only 17 ounces as compared to 3.48 pounds for the mortar projectile. An M1903 rifle, a grenade discharger, and the necessary grenades may be issued to each rifle squad, thus tripling the number of grenade weapons with a rifle platoon and eliminating the necessity for a separate mortar squad. The range of the rifle grenade, using the service cartridge is from 120 to 180 yards as compared to 75 to 1,800 yards for the 60-mm. mortar. The effective bursting radius of both projectiles is approximately 20 yards.

h. The 60-mm. mortar.—Two 60-mm. mortars are organically assigned to the headquarters platoon of a rifle company. A squad

of a corporal and 4 privates is required to carry one mortar and 30 rounds of ammunition therefor. A weapon of this type has proved so valuable in previous small wars that at least one mortar should be available for every rifle platoon, or the V. B. rifle grenade should be provided as a substitute weapon.

i. The hand grenade, fragmentation, mark II.—See War Department Field Manual 23–30.

j. The automatic pistol, caliber .45 M1911.—See War Department Field Manual 23–35.

k. The bayonet, M1905.—See War Department Field Manual 23–35.

l. The Browning machine gun, caliber .30, M1917.—The employment of the Browning machine gun, caliber .30, M1917, will be normal during the initial phases of a small war. In the later phases of the operations, the machine gun will be used principally for the defense of outlying stations and the Browning automatic rifle (modified) will probably replace it as the supporting weapon for combat patrols.

m. The Browning machine gun, caliber .50, M2.—The employment of this weapon as an antiaircraft and antitank weapon will be normal.

n. The 81-mm. mortar, M1.—(1) The 81-mm. mortar is one of the most valuable weapons in small wars operations. During the landing phase and the early operations against organized forces, its application will be similar to that in a major war. In some situations in which hostile artillery is weak or lacking altogether, it may be advantageous to increase the usual complement of mortars and to employ them as infantry support in place of the heavier and more cumbersome field artillery. Because of its weight, mobility, and range, the 81-mm. mortar is the ideal supporting weapon for combat patrols operating against mountainous fortified strongholds of the enemy in the later phases of the campaign. Squads and sections often may be detached for the defense of small outposts scattered throughout the theater of operations.

(2) The mortar may be fired from boats in the initial landing or in river operations by seating the base plate in a pit of sandbags, straddling the barrel, and holding and pointing it by hand as in firing grenades from the rifle. The barrel should be wrapped with burlap and the hands should be protected by asbestos gloves.

o. The 37-mm. gun, M4 or M1916.—The tactics and employment of the 37-mm. gun do not vary in small wars from those of a major

operation. Opportunities for its use probably will be limited after the completion of the initial phases of the intervention.

2–41. **Infantry individual equipment.**—*a.* Infantry units in the field in small wars operations should be lightly equipped, carrying only their weapons and essential individual equipment. Rations, packs or rolls, and extra ammunition should be carried on pack animals or other suitable transport. If the situation requires the men to carry full packs, rations, and extra ammunition, their mobility is greatly reduced and they are seriously handicapped in combat.

b. Entrenching tools are seldom required after the organized hostile forces have been dispersed. In some situations, they have been entirely dispensed with during the period of pacification, patrolling, and guerrilla warfare which follows the initial operations.

c. The amount of ammunition carried in the belt is usually sufficient for a single engagement. Even with a small combat patrol, the extra ammunition should be transported in the train, if possible. The cloth bandolier is not strong enough to stand up under hard service in the field. If the bandolier is carried, a considerable quantity of ammunition is lost which is generally salvaged by hostile troops or their sympathizers. A small leather box, suspended from the shoulder and large enough to carry one folded bandolier, has proved a satisfactory substitute for the regular bandolier.

d. If field operations continue for a considerable length of time, it may be necessary to reinforce the cartridge belts, magazine carriers, and other web equipment with leather. This has been done in the past by local artisans in the theater of operations.

e. Grenade carriers of leather or heavy canvas similar in design to the Browning automatic rifle bandolier, have been improvised in recent small wars operations. Another satisfactory carrier was made by cutting off one of the two rows of five pockets on the regular grenade apron and attaching the necessary straps. Empty .30 caliber bandoliers are not satisfactory for grenade carriers.

f. The agricultural machete is far superior to the issue bolo for cutting trails, clearing fields of fire, building shelters in bivouac, cutting forage and firewood, etc. in tropical countries. The minimum issue should be two per squad engaged in active patrolling in such terrain.

g. The horseshoe roll may replace the regulation infantry pack during field operations in small wars. It is lighter in weight and easier to assemble than the regular pack; it can be easily shifted

from place to place on the shoulders, quickly discarded at halts or in combat, and readily secured to the riding or pack saddle.

b. Mounted men should not be permitted to carry rifles or other shoulder weapons in boots nor to secure their arms or ammunition to the saddles while passing through hostile areas in which contact is imminent.

2–42. **Mounted troops.**—Infantry companies, hastily converted into mounted organizations, have played an important role in many past operations. Experience has demonstrated that local animals, accustomed to the climatic conditions and forage of the country, are more suitable for mounts than imported animals. Preparation for mounted duty will consist generally in training for this duty and the provision of necessary equipment. For further details, see Chapter VII, "Mounted Detachments."

2–43. **Engineers.**—*a.* Experience has demonstrated that the construction, improvement, and maintenance of routes of communication, including railroads, is one of the most important factors in a successful small-wars campaign. This is a function of the engineers.

b. The lack of accurate maps and the limited supply of those available has handicapped all operations in the past. A trained engineer unit supplemented by the aerial photographic facilities of aviation is indispensable . Although much of the basic ground work will be performed by combat organizations, the completion and reproduction of accurate maps must be left to skilled engineer troops.

c. With the increased use of explosives in all trades and occupations as well as in military operations, demolition materials are readily available to, and are extensively employed by, irregular forces. A demolition unit is required for our own tactical and construction needs, and for counter-demolition work.

d. Engineers are trained and equipped as light infantry. They should not be so used, except in an emergency, but they form a potential reserve for combat, and for guard duty at bases and depots.

e. The proportion of engineer troops with the force will depend largely upon the means of communication available in the theater of operations, and the condition and suitability of the road net for the contemplated campaign. In most small-wars situations, the necessary manual labor involved can be obtained locally.

2–44. **Tanks and armored cars.**—*a.* The morale effect of tanks and armored cars is probably greater in small wars operations than it is in a major war. The nature of the terrain in the theater of

operations will determine whether or not they can be profitably employed.

b. When strong opposition to the initial landings is expected or encountered, the employment of tanks will be a material aid and will reduce the number of casualties. Tanks are particularly valuable in assaulting towns and villages, and in controlling the inhabitants of an occupied hostile city.

c. Armored cars can be employed to patrol the streets of occupied cities, and to maintain liaison between outlying garrisons. With suitable motorized infantry escorts, they are effective in dispersing the larger hostile forces encountered in the early phases of the occupation.

d. Except for the fact that tanks and armored cars can be used more freely in small wars due to the lack of effective opposition, their tactics will be basically the same as in a major war. As the hostile forces withdraw into the more remote parts of the country, where the terrain is generally unsuited for mechanized units, their usefulness in the field will rapidly disappear.

2–45. **Transport.**—See Chapter III, "Logistics."

2–46. **Signal troops.**—*a. General.*—Signal troops install, maintain, and operate any or all of the following communication agencies: (1) Message center; (2) messenger service, including foot messengers, mounted messengers, motorcycle messengers, and messengers using motor vehicles, boats, airplanes, and railroads as a means of transportation; (3) radio service; (4) wire service, including telephone and telegraph services operated both by military and civilian personnel; (5) visual service, including all types of flags, lights, and pyrotechnics; (6) air-ground liaison; (7) pigeon service. Detailed instructions governing the duties of signal troops will be found in "War Department Field Manual 24–5."

b. Importance.—The importance of an efficient communication system cannot be overestimated. It is only through the communication system that contact is maintained with detached garrisons and units operating independently in the field. All officers and noncommissioned officers should be familiar with the capabilities and limitations of the communication system in order that full use may be made of it. In the smaller units, the commanding officer will act as his own communications officer.

c. Commercial and Government services.—When commercial radio and wire service is available, it may be convenient to execute contracts for handling certain official dispatches, particularly in the early

stages of an operation before all the communication facilities of the force can be put into operation. However, military communication facilities should be substituted therefor as soon as practicable. If the local government operates its own radio and wire service, it is generally possible to arrange for transmission of official dispatches without charge. In some instances, the occupying force will find that an agreement or protocol, covering the establishment and operation of communication agencies by the occupying force, has been established between our own country and the country involved. Such an agreement usually contains a clause stating that limited unofficial traffic may be transmitted over the communication system of the occupying force in case of interruption in the commercial system.

d. Messengers.—The employment of military messengers, either mounted or dismounted, between detached garrisons in areas of active operations is to be considered an emergency measure only, due to the hazardous nature and the uncertainty of this method of communication. In such areas, it may be advantageous sometimes to transmit messages by civilian messengers. Persons who make regular trips between the place of origin of the message and its destination should be employed. Written messages entrusted to civilian messengers should be in code or cipher.

e. Cryptography.—Codes and ciphers are used by even the smallest units in the field. It is apparent, therefore, that all officers must be thoroughly familiar with the systems utilized. In general, the use of code is simpler and more rapid than the use of cipher, due to the ease of encoding and decoding. Codes and key words and phrases for cipher messages are issued to using units to cover definite periods of time. The necessity for changing them is dependent upon the enemy's estimated ability in cryptanalysis.

f. Wire communication.—(1) In areas where the civilian population is hostile, telephone and telegraph wires are liable to be cut and long stretches carried away. The enemy is likely to carry on such operations immediately prior to hostile activities in a definite area. Wire may be taken by a resident civilian simply because he needs it to fence a field or desires it for use in building a hut, and not because he is hostile to our forces. All wire lines are subject to being "tapped" by the enemy.

(2) If there is a commercial wire system available, each garrison telephone communication system should be connected to the commercial system through their switchboards. Provided the commercial system is connected with other towns in a large network separated

units may thus be put into communication with one another. In small-war theaters, the commercial wire system will often be found to be poorly constructed with little attention paid to insulation. Rains will cause interruption in service for hours or even days at a time, due to shorted and grounded lines. Ordinarily, the administration of the commercial telephone system is left to the civilian element normally in control of the systems, the forces of occupation cooperating to the fullest extent in the repair and maintenance of the systems. In those cases where the telephone systems are owned and operated by the government of the country concerned, the same cooperation in repair and maintenance is extended.

(3) Commercial telegraph systems will generally be found to be owned and operated by the government. Although the general condition of the equipment and facilities may not measure up to the standards of a modern system, the telegraph service usually will be found to be very good. Most of the operators are capable men and are quite willing to cooperate with the occupying forces. By judicious cooperation on the part of the military in the repair and maintenance of the telegraph system, the confidence and respect of the personnel operating the system are secured, with the result that telegraphic communication is constantly improved. Except in cases of extreme emergency, no attempt should be made to employ military personnel to operate the telegraph system. In an area of active operations, it may be advantageous to do so for a limited period of time, returning the system to civilian control and operation when the period of emergency is ended. In regions where towns are far apart but telegraph lines are readily accessible, civilian telegraph operators with small portable telegraph sets are a valuable assistance to patrols having no radio set, particularly when weather conditions preclude the operation of aircraft to maintain liaison.

g. Radio communication.—(1) The rapid development of radio as a means of communication, in even the smaller countries of the world, indicates that the forces encountered in small-wars situations may be as well equipped for radio communication as are our own forces. It is highly probable that the hostile forces will attempt the interception of radio communications. This disadvantage necessitates the habitual employment of crytograms in transmitting dispatches of importance. By gaining a knowledge of our radio organization, the enemy is enabled to estimate the organization and distribution of our forces in the field. In order to offset this disadvantage, it may be necessary to curtail the use of radio communications to

some extent, particularly in an area of active operations placing temporary reliance on other means of communication.

(2) Radio furnishes the most dependable means of communication with the continental United States, with naval radio stations outside the continental limits of the United States, and with ships at sea. Commercial cable facilities and commercial radio stations may also be available for exterior communication, but are employed only in exceptional cases. Exterior communication is a function of the force headquarters.

(3) American owned commercial radio stations in the theater of operations have been utilized by agreement in the past when the radio equipment with the force was limited. This is especially true when the force has furnished military protection for the property concerned.

(4) It will often happen in small wars situations, that the best method of radio control is to establish a single net for the Force, with all outlying stations a part of the same net. This is particularly applicable when the theater of operations is limited in area. When the theater of operations necessitates the wide separation of tactical units, subordinate nets are established.

(5) There are three types of radio equipment available for forces engaged in small wars operations; semi-portable, portable, and ultra-portable.

(*a*) Semi-portable radio equipment is of a size and weight to permit easy handling when transported by ships, railroad, motor truck, or trailers, and is intended for the use of brigades and larger units.

Power	100 watts.
Frequency:	
Transmitter	300 to 18,000 kilocycles.
Receiver	300 to 23,000 kilocycles.
Type of transmission	Radio telegraph; radio telephone.
Range:	
Radio telegraph	1,500 miles.
Radio telephone	300 miles.

(*b*) Portable radio equipment is designed to permit easy handling when transported by hand or on hand-drawn carts when operating ashore. It is intended for the use of regiments and battalions.

Power	15 watts.
Frequency:	
Transmitter	2,000 to 5,000 kilocycles.
Receiver	2,000 to 20,000 kilocycles.
Type of transmission	Radio telegraph; radio telephone.

Range:	
Radio telegraph	400 miles.
Radio telephone	75 miles.
Weight	86 pounds.

(*c*) Ultra-portable radio equipment consists of a carrying case, having a self-contained radio transmitter, receiver, and power supply designed for transportation by one man. It is issued to units as required and is particularly useful to mobile units, such as patrols and convoy guards.

Power	½ watt.
Frequency	28 to 65 megacycles.
Type of transmission	Radio telegraph; radio telephone.
Range:	
Radio telegraph	10 miles.
Radio telephone	5 miles.

(6) The demand for trained personnel will normally exceed the number organically assigned to communication units. The wide separation of small units in the usual small wars will require the addition of numerous sets of radio equipment to those listed in current equipment tables. The use of the ultra-portable radio equipment will also require additional operators. See paragraph 2–29.

(7) To take care of the widely separated radio equipment, each battalion designates one man of the communication platoon as an itinerant repairman. His duties are to make repairs in the field to radio sets operated by the communication personnel of the battalion. In areas of active operations, he joins patrols whose routes will take them to the garrisons where the equipment is located. He may be transported to outlying stations by airplane to make emergency repairs. In many cases, he will find it advisable to take an extra set with him to replace a set needing major repairs. No system for making major repairs can be definitely laid down that will apply to all situations. Due to the technical nature of the equipment, it is usually more convenient to have all major repair work accomplished by the communication personnel attached to the headquarters of the Force, thus obviating the duplication of test equipment as well as the necessity for maintaining large stocks of repair parts at widely separated stations.

h. Pigeon communication.—Pigeons may be carried by patrols in active areas. Although patrols are normally equipped with portable radio sets, it may be desirable to maintain radio silence except in cases of extreme emergency. In such cases, pigeons afford a dependable means of keeping higher authority informed of the prog-

ress and actions of the patrol. Crated pigeons may be dropped to patrols in the field by aircraft, small parachutes being used to cushion the fall. This method of replenishment is used when patrols are in the field longer than 3 days.

i. Air-ground liaison.—(1) Because of the nature of the terrain usually encountered and the operation of numerous ground units employed in small-wars operations, air-ground liaison is especially important. There must be the closest cooperation between aviation and ground troops. The period of each contact is limited. Panel crews must be well trained and ground-unit commanders must confine their panel messages to items of importance only.

(2) Panels which indicate the code designation of the organization or patrol are displayed in open spots upon the approach of friendly aircraft to identify the ground unit. They also indicate to the airplane observer where he may drop messages, and where panel messages are displayed for him. Panel strips are used in conjunction with identification panels for the purpose of sending prearranged signals. Letter and number groups of the air-ground liaison code are formed from the individual panel strips, and are laid out to the right of the designation panel as determined by the direction of march. When the signal has been understood by the airplane observer, it is acknowledged by a pyrotechnic signal, wing dips, or other prearranged method.

(3) The message-dropping ground should be an open space removed from high trees, bodies of water, and weeds. If possible, it should be so located that the panels can be seen at wide angles from the vertical.

(4) The method of message pick-up employed in air-ground liaison is described in detail in "War Department Field Manual 24–5." Experience has indicated that it is preferable to make a complete loop of the pick-up cord, securing the message bag at the bottom of the loop instead of the double loose-end cord described in the above-mentioned Field Manual.

(5) In small wars situations, the use of pyrotechnics for communication between ground units, other than to acknowledge lamp signals or flag signals, may be considered exceptional. Pyrotechnics are normally employed for air-ground liaison only. Position lights and signal projectors are particularly useful to ground units when heavy vegetation makes the employment of panels impracticable. Aviation employs the Very pistol for air-ground liaison when its use will speed

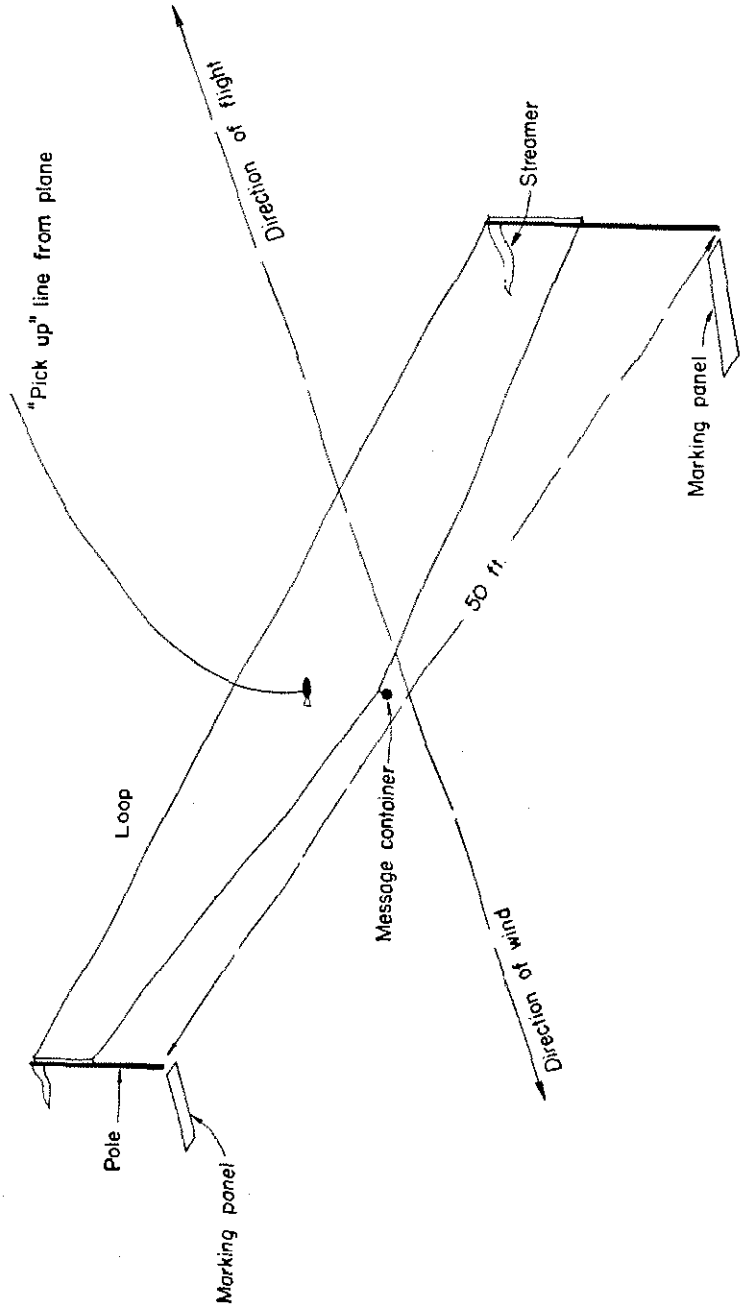

DIAGRAM OF MESSAGE PICK-UP

up the transmission of short messages by a prearranged code. This method of communication with ground units is also employed when the establishment of a message-dropping ground is prevented by heavy vegetation or other reason, or when the close approach of the airplane to the ground during a message drop would expose it to hostile rifle fire from enemy groups in the vicinity.

2–47. **Chemical troops.**—*a.* Properly employed, chemical agents should be of considerable value in small wars operations. The most effective weapons to quell civil disorders in the larger towns are the chemical hand and rifle grenades and the irritant candles. Their effectiveness has been proved so many times in civil disorders in the United States that they are now accepted weapons for such situations. Consideration should therefore be given to similar employment of these munitions in a small wars theater of operations. The burning-type hand grenade with a smoke filler may be use by patrols to indicate their location to friendly airplanes. Another use of this type of hand grenade is the development of smoke to conceal the flanking action of a large group in an attack over open ground against a strongly held and definitely located hostile position. Advantage should be taken of the prevailing wind direction and the grenades so fired that the target will be covered by the smoke cloud.

b. Chemical agents have not been employed by the United States in any small wars operations up to the present time, as their use in a foreign country is definitely against the best interests of our foreign policy. If they are employed, in some future small war, the armament, equipment, munitions, and tactics of the chemical troops will not vary from the normal doctrine. The strength of the chemical units to be included in the force will be decided by the force commander in accordance with their prospective employment as determined by the existing situation.

2–48. **Medical troops.**—*a.* The type of operation, the size of the force, the nature of the country in which operations will take place, the health conditions to be expected, and the estimated casualties from combat will determine the class or classes of field hospitals and the strength of the medical personnel that will be attached to the force. In almost every small wars operation, the number of commissioned medical and deutal officers and enlisted corpsmen will be considerably in excess of that required for a corresponding force in a major war, because of the numerous small detachments of combat units scattered throughout the entire theater of operations. Special care should be taken in selecting the hospital corpsmen to accompany

the force. In many cases, an enlisted corpsman will be required to make the diagnosis and administer the medication normally prescribed by a medical officer.

b. Commanding officers of all grades are responsible for sanitation and for the enforcement of sanitary regulations within their organizations and the boundaries of the areas occupied by them. They must be thoroughly conversant with the principles of military hygiene, sanitation, and first aid. Particular attention should be paid to the following:

(1) Instruction in personal hygiene of the command.

(2) The thorough washing of hands after visiting the head (latrine) and before each meal.

(3) The proper sterilization of mess gear.

(4) Vaccination against small-pox and typhoid fever.

(5) The prevention of venereal disease.

(6) The proper ventilation of quarters, and provision of adequate space therein.

(7) The carrying out of antimosquito measures.

(8) The destruction of flies, lice, and other insects.

(9) The purification of non-portable water supplies.

(10) The proper disposal of human excreta and manure.

(11) The proper disposal of garbage.

c. The medical officer, under the direction of the commanding officer, supervises the hygiene of the command and recommends such measures as he may deem necessary to prevent or diminish disease. He should investigate and make recommendations concerning the following:

(1) Training in matters of personal hygiene and military sanitation.

(2) The adequacy of the facilities for maintaining sanitary conditions.

(3) Insofar as they have a bearing upon the physical condition of the troops:

(*a*) The equipment of organizations and individuals.

(*b*) The character and condition of the buildings or other shelter occupied by the troops.

(*c*) The character and preparation of food.

(*d*) The suitability of clothing.

(*e*) The presence of rodents, vermin, and disease-bearing insects and the eradication thereof.

d. The medical personnel with the force is one of the strongest elements for gaining the confidence and friendship of the native inhabitants in the theater of operations. So long as it can be done without depleting the stock of medical supplies required for the intervening troops, they should not hesitate to care for sick and wounded civilians who have no other source of medical attention.

e. If the campaign plan contemplates the organization of armed native troops, additional medical personnel will have to be provided with the force or requested from the United States, as required.

f. See Chapters 12 and 14, Landing Force Manual, United States Navy, and Field Manuals 8–40 and 21–10, United States Army, for detailed instructions regarding military hygiene, sanitation, and first aid.

2–49. **Artillery.**—*a.* The amount of artillery to be included in the strength of a force assigned a small wars mission will depend upon the plan for the employment of the force, the nature of the terrain in the theater of operations, the armament and equipment of the prospective opponents, and the nature of the opposition expected. As a general rule, some artillery should accompany every expedition for possible use against towns and fortified positions, and for the defense of towns, bases, and other permanent establishments. The morale effect of artillery fire must always be considered when planning the organization and composition of the force. If the hostile forces employ modern tactics and artillery, and the terrain in the country permits, the proportion of artillery to infantry should be normal.

b. The role of artillery in small wars is fundamentally the same as in regular warfare. Its primary mission is to support the infantry. Light artillery is employed principally against personnel, accompanying weapons, tanks, and those material targets which its fire is able to destroy. Medium artillery reinforces the fire of light artillery, assists in counterbattery, and undertakes missions beyond the range of light artillery. Unless information is available that the hostile forces have heavy fortifications, or are armed with a type of artillery requiring other than light artillery for counterbattery work, the necessity for medium artillery will seldom be apparent. Antiaircraft artillery, while primarily for defense against air attack, may be used to supplement the fire of light artillery.

c. The artillery must be able to go where the infantry can go. It must be of a type that can approach the speed and mobility of foot troops. The 75-mm. gun and the 75-mm. pack howitzer fulfill

these requirements. Because the pack howitzer can be employed as pack artillery where a satisfactory road net is lacking in the theater of operations, the pack howitzer usually will be preferable to the gun in small wars situations, although the latter may be effectively employed in open country.

d. Pack artillery utilizes mules as its primary means of transport and has reasonably rapid, quiet, and dependable mobility over all kinds of terrain; however, it is incapable of increased gaits. It is especially suitable for operations in mountains and jungles. Mules required for pack purposes normally will be secured locally. The loads carried by these animals require a mule of not less than 950 pounds weight for satisfactory transportation of the equipment. If mules of this size cannot be obtained, a spare mule may be used for each load and the load shifted from one animal to the other after each 3 hours of march. One hundred horses and mules are required for pack and riding purposes with each battery. The approximate road spaces for the battery, platoon, and section, in single column, are as follows:

	Yards
Battery	400
Platoon	150
Section	52

Since there is no fifth section in the pack battery, the supply of ammunition available within the battery is limited to about 40 rounds per piece.

e. The separate artillery battalion is an administrative and tactical unit. It is responsible for the supply of ammunition to batteries so long as they remain under battalion control. When a battery is detached from the battalion, a section of the combat train and the necessary personnel from the service battery should be attached to it. In the same way, a detached platoon or section carries with it a proportional share of battery personnel and ammunition vehicles. In determining what amount of artillery, if any, should be attached to the smaller infantry units in the field, the nature of the terrain, the size and mission of infantry units, and the kind of opposition to be expected are the guiding factors. The infantry unit should be large enough to insure protection for the artillery attached to it, and the terrain and nature of the opposition should be such as to permit the attached artillery to render effective support. Also, the ammunition supply should be attached to infantry units.

No artillery should be attached to infantry units smaller than a rifle company.

A section of artillery to a rifle company.

A battery to an infantry batallion.

A battalion to an infantry regiment.

f. The employment of artillery in small wars will vary with developments and the opponent's tactics. When resistance is encountered upon landing and the advance inland is opposed, artillery will be employed in the normal manner to take under fire those targets impeding the movement. When the opponent's organization is broken and his forces widely dispersed, the role of artillery as a supporting arm for the infantry will normally pass to the 81-mm. mortar platoons. (See paragraph 2–40, n.)

g. Artillery in the march column.—(1) In marches in the presence of hostile forces tactical considerations govern the location of the artillery units in the column. Artillery should be sufficiently well forward in the column to facilitate its early entry into action, but not so far forward as to necessitate a rearward movement to take up a position for firing. It should be covered by sufficient infantry for security measures.

(2) In advance and rear guards the artillery usually marches at or near the tail of the reserve. In flank guards the artillery marches so as to best facilitate its early entry into action.

(3) The artillery with the main body, in advance, usually marches near its head. In retirement, if the enemy is aggressive, the artillery should march at or near the tail of the main body. However, when the enemy is not aggressive, it may even precede the main body, taking advantage of its mobility to relieve congestion.

(4) The difficulties to be anticipated in passing through defiles are due to the narrowness of the front and to a restricted route where the column may be subjected to concentrated infantry and artillery fire. When resistance is anticipated during the passage of a defile, the column should be organized into small groups, each composed of infantry and artillery, capable of independent action. When meeting resistance at the exit of a defile, artillery is employed to cover the debouchment. When meeting resistance at the entrance of a defile, the artillery is employed as in the attack against a defensive position.

(5) Due to the limitations in its employment at night, the entire artillery is usually placed near the tail of the main body on night marches.

h. Artillery with the outpost.—Normally the artillery which has been assigned to the advance or rear guard is attached to the outpost. The outpost commander designates the general position for the artillery, prescribes whether it shall be in position or posted in readiness, and assigns the artillery mission. Normally, the outpost artillery is placed in position. Defensive fires are prepared in advance insofar as practicable.

i. Employment of artillery on the defensive.—(1) The defense of towns, camps, etc., does not present the complex problem of ammunition supply that confronts artillery on the offensive. The ammunition available at each place usually will be ample and no question of transportation will be involved. The supply of ammunition need not affect the assignment of artillery for defensive purposes. The presence of a single piece in a defended town will often have a deterring effect on hostile forces.

(2) After the initial stages of the operation, if it appears that artillery will be required for special limited missions only, it can be used to advantage in the defense of stabilized bases, and permanent stations and garrisons. The troops not needed with the artillery can be used to relieve rifle units on special guard duty, such as at headquarters, fixed bases, and on lines of communication. The conversion of artillery into infantry units should be considered only as an emergency measure. However, artillery units of the force carry with them (boxed) the necessary rifles, other infantry weapons, and equipment required to convert them into infantry when the situation develops a need for this action.

j. Antiaircraft and base defense artillery.—(1) It can be assumed that, in the future, some hostile aviation will be encountered in small wars operations, and the inclusion of antiaircraft artillery in the force will have to be considered. To depend upon aviation alone for antiaircraft protection presupposes that friendly air forces can annihilate all hostile aircraft and all facilities for replacements. Even one hostile operating plane will be a potential threat to vital areas such as the beachhead, supply bases, and routes of communication.

(2) The comparative mobility of the .50 caliber AA machine gun makes it particularly suitable for employment in small wars operations. However, its limited range renders it impotent against any hostile aircraft other than low-flying planes. If it becomes apparent that antiaircraft machine guns, as such, are not needed, this weapon can be profitably employed for the defense of the more important bases and outlying garrisons against ground targets.

(3) Whether the 3″ AA gun will be included in the force will depend largely upon the opposition expected. This weapon may be used with restricted mobility on defensive missions against land targets in the same manner as the 75 mm. gun.

(4) It is difficult to conceive of any small wars situation in which base defense weapons of 5″ caliber would be required with the force. If the opponent can muster sufficient armament to make the inclusion of such artillery necessary in the force, the campaign will probably take on all the aspects of a major war, at least during the initial stages of the operation.

2–50. **Aviation.**—For the employment of aviation in small wars operations, see Chapter IX, "Aviation."