Australian Army

Land Warfare Doctrine

LWD 3-0-3

Formation Tactics

2016

This publication supersedes Land Warfare Doctrine 3-0-3, Land Tactics (Developing Doctrine), 2009.

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Issued by command of
Chief of Army

MB Ryan, AM
Brigadier
Director General
Training and Doctrine Command
Preface

Aim

The aim of this publication is to describe the principles and considerations for foundation warfighting tactics across the range of land operations.

Level

This publication is the capstone document for the conduct of formation tactics. It is intended to support commanders, staff, and students. This publication draws upon the philosophy and the planning and execution of operations described in Land Warfare Doctrine 3-0, Operations and guides companion doctrine on specific environmental and operational contexts as well as subordinate doctrine on techniques and procedures.

Scope

This publication describes:

• tactics and its context
• formation command and control
• offensive tactics
• defensive tactics
• security tactics.
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Chapter 1

Tactics

Introduction

The Australian Army must succeed in an increasingly lethal and complex global environment. An army adept at fighting in these conditions must be capable of undertaking the full range of tactics required to apply fighting power\(^1\) which is underpinned by the Army’s ability to prosecute close combat. Warfighting in proximity to and within population and critical infrastructure is the enduring reality of the contemporary operating environment (OE), and a major factor when considering the application of formation tactics.

The purpose of this publication is to describe the specific nature of tactics at formation level across the spectrum of conflict.

This chapter describes formation tactics, its study, relevant operational concepts and the tactical employment of land forces at formation level.

Tactics at formation level

Historically, few battles have been fought entirely removed from populations and the infrastructure upon which they rely; this is unlikely to change in future conflicts. However, the potential impact of non-combatant casualties and collateral material damage on operational objectives and strategic endstates cannot be underestimated. Moral imperatives and international conventions notwithstanding, the contest for hearts and minds during and after a conflict may be won or lost through the perceptions of the population affected by combat and its consequences. Therefore, all military action must be planned, executed and enabled in this context. The short term tactical advantage of targeting a key element of infrastructure must be weighed by commanders against the longer term operational and strategic detriment of its loss.

Furthermore, demands associated with controlling and supporting the indigenous population throughout a conflict is a major factor in the planning and conduct of formation missions, fundamentally requiring consideration in the attribution of resources and assignment of tasks.

\(^1\) Australia’s concepts of fighting power and underpinning themes are fully discussed in *LWD 1, Fundamentals of Land Power* and *LWD 3-0, Operations.*
The nature of formation tactics

Tactics is the manoeuvre and employment of military forces to their optimal potential in relation to each other and the enemy\(^2\) in order to achieve a specified mission. Tactics is primarily concerned with the conduct of battles and engagements to achieve operational (campaign) objectives and, in turn, setting conditions for strategic objectives to be met. A great deal more than simply fire and manoeuvre of forces, tactics involves the effective shaping of the OE\(^3\), and the balanced application and orchestration of effects.

In the Australian land force context, the brigade is the unit of action, the basic tactical fighting element enabled with sufficient scale of force and range of capabilities to apply the full suite of tactics.

Formation\(^4\) commanders design operations, orchestrate the manoeuvre of battlegroups (BGs), and empower subordinates to apply techniques and procedures to achieve the commander’s intent. HQ staff receive the commander’s guidance and develop and implement plans. Importantly, formations have the capacity to execute the current mission while planning for the next.

BGs and CTs have limited capacity for current execution and transition to future tasks, principally through the application of procedures and drills, such as the use of warning orders, anticipated battle procedure and appropriate division of responsibilities within their command teams.

Effectively, BGs and combat teams (CTs) fight engagements, both planned and unpredictable; formations plan, resource and sequence battles within the commander’s operational design. Through the size, scale and scope of their capabilities and resources, formations are able to execute and transition rapidly without being obligated to reconstitute. Joint and interagency elements are typically assigned to formation HQs which are staffed, equipped and trained to orchestrate these effects as a matter of routine. Indeed, the higher the level of formation command and scale of activity, the greater the focus on logistics and other enabling capabilities.

Supporting concepts

A number of concepts support the commander’s operational design and the application of formation tactics.

**Principles of war and attributes of manoeuvre.** In applying tactical doctrine, commanders, staff and subordinates should consider the principles of war (see Table 1–1). These are a series of factors that successful commanders have found necessary to consider in the past; the weight given to a particular principle

\(^2\) For simplicity, the term ‘enemy’ includes all potential ‘adversaries’ and ‘threats’ within the contemporary OE.

\(^3\) It is within this OE that complex political, military and social situations will arise and demand the application of land power. Refer to LWD 3-0, Operations for a detailed description of the OE.

\(^4\) Formation includes brigade, division and corps level land force organisations and their joint/interagency equivalents.
depends on the circumstances. The attributes of manoeuvre represent a way of thinking about warfare rather than the application of a particular set of tactics or techniques. LWD 1, The Fundamentals of Land Power provides further information on the principles of war and attributes of manoeuvre.

Table 1–1: The principles of war and attributes of manoeuvre

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principles of war</th>
<th>Attributes of manoeuvre</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Selection and maintenance of the aim</td>
<td>Focus of all actions on the:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concentration of force</td>
<td>COG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperation</td>
<td>CATs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy of effort</td>
<td>Orchestration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>Mission command</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offensive action</td>
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<tr>
<td>Surprise</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainment</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Maintenance of morale</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Application of manoeuvre at formation level. The essence of manoeuvre is the orchestration of actions to affect or influence enemy strength, its centre of gravity (COG), by attacking critical vulnerabilities (CVs). At every level it focuses on exploitation of enemy weaknesses and friendly strengths while protecting friendly vulnerabilities. Application of manoeuvre at formation level emphasises:

- creative courses of action to avoid or minimise predictability
- achievement of tempo through rapid transition prior to execution (battle procedure) and while in contact (decision superiority)
- generation of orchestrated action through timely concentrated firepower, physical presence, non-physical means or a combination of each
- detailed analysis and use of terrain to:
  - avoid the enemy's likely engagement areas (EAs) and manoeuvre to achieve dislocation
  - benefit from shrewd use of natural and artificial obstacles and restrictive terrain
  - move to and occupy positions of advantage
• the innovative use of capabilities to disrupt the enemy’s cohesion
• intelligent deception to encourage the enemy to reveal their intent and/or dispositions prematurely
• shaping the enemy to go where they want to go, and decisively engaging them there
• the confidence and courage to identify and accept risk in order to achieve decisive fighting power at the point of decision
• synchronised direct and joint fires to destroy, disrupt or neutralise critical elements
• achieving surprise through innovation and practical measures to deceive the enemy and influence their design for battle.

**Combat functions and battlespace operating systems.** Combat functions and battlespace operating systems (BOS) provide the current orchestration framework for the Australian Army. Importantly, combat functions and BOS serves different but related purposes within this framework, as follows:

- **Combat functions.** The combat functions: know, shape, strike, shield, adapt, and sustain describe the range of effects that land forces must be able to achieve to apply land power. Combined arms teams (CATs) are structured and enabled to achieve an appropriate balance across the range of combat functions.

- **The battlespace operating system.** The BOS (command and control, manoeuvre, intelligence, surveillance and reconnaissance (ISR), information dominance and influence, offensive support (OS), mobility and survivability (M&S), ground based air defence (GBAD), and CSS) is the practical application and organisation of the land force to achieve the combat functions. While described individually for the purpose of analysis, the BOS should be considered holistically in order to understand its effect in the application of formation tactics.

See **LWD 3-0, Operations** for a detailed description of each of the combat functions and the BOS.

**Relationship between combat functions and the battlespace operating system.** At formation level, combat functions are performed through the synchronisation of BOSs to achieve the desired effects in accordance with the commander’s design. Fundamentally, orchestration of the BOS enables the achievement of combat functions. For example, shielding of a manoeuvre element may be achieved through BOS orchestration as follows:

- command and control – operational security and deception measures implemented by the HQ to mask the intended manoeuvre
- ISR – intelligence gained through reconnaissance and surveillance mitigates risk
• information dominance and influence – indigenous popular support limits the likelihood of local disruption or interference
• OS – counter-battery fire and close air support neutralises threat fires and interdicts commitment of their reserves
• M&S – counter-mine and IED support enhances survivability; mobility support facilitates rapid manoeuvre
• GBAD – air warning and defence systems protect manoeuvre force.

Tactics, techniques, procedures and drills

During operations, formations employ a range of tactics linked to the achievement of specific military objectives. Although broadly categorised as offensive, defensive and security tactics, this does not restrict their application to a given military response; rather, it reinforces the relevance of various tactics, techniques and procedures within the dynamic and fluid contemporary OE. At formation level, tactics require careful orchestration to ensure that actions and results are intimately aligned with achieving operational and strategic objectives.

While explanation and discussion of formation tactics is the focus of this publication, it is important to understand the relationship with relevant techniques, procedures and drills.

Tactics. Tactics are individually categorised as security, offensive and defensive as shown in Table 1–2 and described later in this publication.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Security tactics</th>
<th>Offensive tactics</th>
<th>Defensive tactics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cover</td>
<td>Attack</td>
<td>Defence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screen</td>
<td>Advance</td>
<td>Delay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guard</td>
<td>Pursuit</td>
<td>Withdrawal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RAS</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Importantly, each tactic should be considered in relation to others. For example, conducting a defence may involve the security tactic of screen and the offensive tactic of (counter) attack. However, for the purpose of this publication each category of tactics will be described individually.

Reconnaissance, surveillance and patrolling. Reconnaissance and surveillance are conducted as part of all security, offensive and defensive tactics. They are planned and synchronised to inform the formation commander’s decision-making and to protect the force. Patrolling is one of the means by which the commander’s critical information requirements (CIRs) are answered and security is provided. This topic is described further in Chapter 2.
Techniques, procedures and drills. The relationship between techniques, procedures and drills is as follows:

- Techniques. Techniques are methods for accomplishing a result in a particular situation. They are intended to improve the force’s efficiency by ensuring uniformity of action or by ensuring that the actions of various individuals and elements complement those of other individuals or elements. Specific techniques may form part of one or more tactics.

- Procedures. Procedures are a particular course or order of action. Both tactics and techniques involve specific procedures, such as those required for the sequence of occupation for an ambush. It is also important to note that SOPs remain distinct from procedures in doctrine; SOPs lay down specific procedures for particular circumstances within an operational environment. While SOPs are not doctrine, they are necessarily derived from doctrine.

- Drills. Drills are a precise military movement. Examples include:
  - the counter-ambush drill
  - the basic and contact drills
  - the harbour drill
  - team obstacle crossings
  - protection at the halt.

These topics are introduced in this publication and elaborated upon in other publications, including:

- Land Warfare Procedures - General 3-3-14, Battle Group and Combat Team Handbook (not yet published)
- Land Warfare Procedures - Combat Arms (Aviation) 3-1-2, Aircraft Support
- Land Warfare Procedures - Combat Arms (Mounted Combat) 3-3-1, Mounted Minor Tactics
- Land Warfare Procedures - Combat Arms (Dismounted Combat) 3-3-1, Dismounted Minor Tactics.

Study of formation tactics

The study of tactics is critical to gaining an understanding of how best to manoeuvre in the OE and to apply tactical doctrine. Doctrine guides the study and application of formation tactics.
The art of tactics
There are three aspects to the art of formation tactics:

• The first aspect is the creative and flexible positioning and manoeuvring of forces to achieve missions.
• The second aspect is decision-making under pressure when faced with a complex situation or an intelligent and determined enemy.
• The third aspect requires an understanding of the human dimension of war, in particular, the effects of combat on soldiers and human populations.

The enemy, related threats and the situation constantly change. As a result, each tactical problem is different and must be solved accordingly, bringing together a unique combination of these aspects. An art, as opposed to a science, requires the exercise of intuitive faculties that cannot be learned solely from study. The more experience the tactician gains from practice under a variety of circumstances, the greater the mastery of the art of formation tactics. The intuitive component of successful decision-making must not be underestimated and should underpin Army tactical training.

The science of tactics
The science of formation tactics encompasses an understanding of those aspects of tactics, capabilities, procedures and techniques that can be mastered and codified. This includes an understanding of the capabilities of friendly and enemy organisations and systems, such as how long it takes a mechanised BG to move a certain distance or the indicative rate of consumption of combat supplies in support of a specific tactical technique or procedure.

Mastery of the science of formation tactics is necessary for the commander and staff to understand the physical and procedural constraints that affect decisions. The science also includes techniques, procedures and drills used to accomplish specific tasks and the control measure graphics that comprise the language of tactics. However, because conflict is an intensely human activity, the solution to tactical problems cannot be reduced to a procedural formula. In essence the science of formation tactics allows the commander and staff to comprehend the situation; the art lies in making appropriate judgments relative to the threat or situation.

The simplicity of tactics
Simple tactics are sound tactics. Fundamentally, formation tactics are uncomplicated and must be so to remain relevant in the complexity of the OE. Furthermore, subordinate techniques and procedures should also be simple; creative application, efficient execution and superior combat decision-making enhance the effect of every tactic, technique and procedure.
Development of understanding

Understanding has the following two major aspects:

- understanding the nature of human conflict in general, based on experience and a detailed study of history
- understanding the characteristics of the contemporary operational context.

Caution should be exercised in the application of military history to understanding contemporary events: what has worked in the past may not necessarily be appropriate today. For example, although the Australian approach to counterinsurgency in South Vietnam’s Phuoc Tuy province was largely successful at the time, expedients such as the forced removal of the population from Long Tan village are unlikely to be acceptable in the contemporary OE.

The need to be adaptive

The study of formation tactics is designed to build knowledge and apply previous experiences to practical problems, either in training or during the conduct of land force operations. This is not just about the physical means of prosecuting combat; it also involves seeking innovative solutions to a wide range of situations across the spectrum of conflict within the theatre or area of operations (AOs). In this way, the study of formation tactics and its subsequent application requires adaptability in developing sound tactical judgment relative to the situation at hand as well as effectively transitioning from one mission or assigned task to another.

Commander’s tactical judgement

The commander’s tactical judgment depends largely on the development of three attributes:

- intuition
- mastering the art of combat decision-making
- creativity.

Intuition. Intuition is the attribute of immediate insight. Intuition and intuitiveness can be achieved by attaining professional military education, undertaking extensive training and seeking a wide variety of opportunities to gain experience. Soundly developed intuition, supported by robust planning, reduces the need for conscious action thus saving valuable time in decision-making.

Combat decision-making. Combat decision-making is the essential skill of the warfighting commander at all levels because few plans survive first contact with the enemy. Effective decision-making requires the combination of intuition, situational awareness and creativity to devise innovative solutions to a wide variety of problems and circumstances (eg, frequently under extreme stress) where time is of the essence.

Creativity. Creativity is the attribute of demonstrating inventiveness and imagination as well as routine skill. Creativity and innovation are the essence of
Formation planning and employment

Formation planning

Formation planning involves logic, judgement and well developed staff procedures, and is part of decision-making. It is most efficacious when it fosters effective analysis, through enhancing the application of professional knowledge, logic and judgment while allowing for a commander or adviser’s subject matter expertise, intuition, innovation and initiative.

Planning process. The fundamental basis of formation planning is the MAP. Further information on its description and application is contained in LWD 5-1-4, The Military Appreciation Process.

Planning tools. For students of tactics and practitioners alike, the distinction must be clearly understood between devising a tactical concept and then developing it into a plan. The following tenets of manoeuvre are a guide to action in developing a concept, and the principles of war are a guide for the review and development of the plan:

• focus of all actions on the COG
• the use of CATs
• orchestration
• mission command.

See LWD 1, The Fundamentals of Land Power and LWD 3-0, Operations for descriptions of the application of these tenets of manoeuvre and the principles of war.

Basic tactical considerations. Basic considerations are derived from the principles of war and are criteria to validate tactical plans. They differ for each tactic, technique and procedure. The basic considerations for tactics are listed in Table 1–3.
### Table 1–3: Basic tactical considerations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tactic</th>
<th>Basic considerations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Cover  | Level of command
|        | Independent operation
|        | CAT
|        | Mobility
|        | Coordination
| Screen | Command
|        | Composition
|        | NAI and TAI
|        | Time and space
|        | Subsequent tasking
| Guard  | Command
|        | Support
|        | Enemy
|        | Composition
|        | Offensive and defensive employment
| RAS    | All corps local defence
|        | Enemy
|        | RASF
|        | Lines of communication
|        | Route security
|        | KPs and VAs
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tactic</th>
<th>Basic considerations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attack</td>
<td>Surprise, Concentration, Penetration, Fire support(^1), Security, Tempo, Rapid reorganisation, Enemy reserve, Objectives and phases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advance and pursuit</td>
<td>Acquisition of information, Surprise, Tempo, Security, Routes, Fire support, Air situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defence (area)</td>
<td>Use of terrain, Mutual support, Use of reserves, All-round defence, Depth, Security, Fire support, Orchestration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defence (mobile)</td>
<td>Selection of terrain, Offensive action, Orchestration, Sustainment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Mission task verbs and graphics

Clearly defined terminology is fundamental to formation planning so that commanders and subordinates have a common understanding of assigned tasks and their tactical implications. Task verbs provide defined and measured descriptors for the task in a mission statement and associated graphics visually represent tasks assigned by the commander. These tasks are described in Annex A.

### Specific environments

Five specific environments impact differently on the application of formation tactics. The following publications provide operational and tactical level guidance on the way each specific environment influences the foundation warfighting described in the following publications:

- **LWD 3-9-1, Operations in Specific Environments**
- **LWP-G 3-9-2, Operations in Tropical Environments**
- **LWP-G 3-9-3, Operations in Desert Environments**
- **LWP-G 3-9-4, Operations in Cold Conditions**
- **LWP-G 3-9-5, Operating in Urban Environments**
- **LWD 3-9-7, Operations in a Chemical, Biological, Radiological and Nuclear Environment**

### Employment of formations

Formations may be employed unilaterally or as part of a joint, combined or interagency task force across the spectrum of conflict. It is most likely that all activities in the contemporary OE remain joint and interagency to accord with the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tactic</th>
<th>Basic considerations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Delay</td>
<td>Use of terrain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maintaining contact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Orchestration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Withdrawal</td>
<td>Deception</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clean break</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Firm base</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rearguards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sequence of withdrawal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:**

1. Fire support includes joint fires and direct fire support.
whole-of-government framework. As Army’s unit of action, combat brigades will frequently comprise the land component of a joint task force (JTF) or joint interagency task force (JIATF).

**Interagency cooperation.** The JIATF is an integrated force in which multiple services are fused with state and federal agencies and other non-military stakeholders. To be successful, interagency cooperation requires significant pre-deployment training to optimise the collaboration of disparate organisations, most often within the formation command and control architecture.

**Interoperability.** Formations must be prepared either to take the lead or contribute to coalition activities while maintaining its self-reliance. Formations and their subordinate units\(^5\) must be interoperable with allies, coalition partners and their agencies, all which must be able to be integrated into Australian systems (and vice versa). This particularly applies to command, control, communication and intelligence architectures.

**Targeting policy.** Combat can lead to the destruction, in part or whole, of infrastructure and services which will later need restoration. Commanders therefore need to be mindful that planning for the restoration of critical infrastructure and essential services can contribute directly to the improvements in the security situation. This may be further enhanced by a targeting policy that is as surgical in its target acquisition as possible and avoids excessive damage where practicable. The task of reconstruction should be treated as an activity fully integrated into the overall campaign plan. To lessen the impact of lethal activities on critical infrastructure, military engineers should also contribute to the targeting process to:

- avoid, where possible, targeting infrastructure that is required to restore the nation in the post-combat phase
- minimise the long-term damage to infrastructure that must be targeted to achieve combat action objectives.

**Conclusion**

Simple tactics are sound tactics. Fundamentally, formation tactics are uncomplicated and must be so to remain relevant in the complexity of contemporary warfighting. Furthermore, subordinate techniques and procedures should also be simple, intuitive and applied creatively. Well-orchestrated execution and superior combat decision-making enhance the effect of every tactical action.

The following chapters describe the nature of command and control, security, and offensive and defensive tactics at formation level.

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5. This includes subordinate BGs, independent CTs, combat support, command support and CSS elements.
Annex:
A. Mission task verbs and graphics
Annex A to Chapter 1

Mission task verbs and graphics

Mission task verbs provide defined and measured descriptors for the task in a commander’s mission. Table 1–4 represents the likely allocation of mission task verbs, which can be applied in each context – human, information or terrain. This table does not include logistic tasks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human</th>
<th>Information</th>
<th>Terrain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ambush</td>
<td>Deceive (conduct deception)</td>
<td>Breach(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Block(1)</td>
<td>Degradel</td>
<td>Clear(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bypass(1)</td>
<td>Detect</td>
<td>Occupy(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canalise(1)</td>
<td>Exploit</td>
<td>Retain(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capture(1)</td>
<td>Inform</td>
<td>Secure(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contain(1)</td>
<td>Respond</td>
<td>Seize(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cover(1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defend</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Delay(1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Demonstrate(1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Deny(1)</td>
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<td>Destroy(1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Deter</td>
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<tr>
<td>Disengage(1)</td>
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<td>Disrupt(1)</td>
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<td>Escort(1)</td>
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<td>Evacuate(1)</td>
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<td>Feint(1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fix(1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Follow and assume</td>
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<tr>
<td>Follow and support(1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Guard(1)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
### Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human</th>
<th>Information</th>
<th>Terrain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Influence</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Interdict(1)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Isolate(1)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Neutralise(1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Penetrate(1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Protect</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Pursue(1)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Reconnoitre</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Recover(1)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Report</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Retain(1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Rupture</td>
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<tr>
<td>Screen(1)</td>
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<td>Separate</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Suppress(1)</td>
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<td>Turn(1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Withdraw(1)</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:**
1. These are approved NATO task verbs and have a graphic symbol equivalent.

Table 1–5 lists the mission task graphics which can be used to represent the task assigned by the commander.
### Table 1–5: Mission task graphics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Block</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><img src="image" alt="Block Diagram" /></td>
<td>A tactical task that denies the enemy access to an area or prevents their advance in a direction or along an AA.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><img src="image" alt="Breach Diagram" /></td>
<td>An engineer obstacle effect that integrates fire planning and obstacle effort to stop an attacker along a specified AA or prevent them from passing through an EA.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breach</td>
<td>A tactical task where any means available are employed to break through or secure a passage through an enemy defence, obstacle, minefield or fortification.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bypass</td>
<td>A tactical task, which involves manoeuvring around an obstacle, position or enemy force to maintain the momentum of the advance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Canalise</strong></td>
<td>A tactical task in which the commander restricts enemy movement to a narrow zone by exploiting terrain coupled with the use of obstacles, fires or friendly manoeuvre.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clear</strong></td>
<td>A tactical task that requires the commander to remove all enemy forces and eliminate organised resistance in an assigned area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Contain</strong></td>
<td>A tactical task to stop, hold or surround the forces of the enemy, or to cause the enemy to centre its activity on a given front and to prevent withdrawal of any part of its forces for use elsewhere.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cover</strong></td>
<td>A tactical task to protect the main body by fighting to gain time while also observing and reporting information and preventing enemy ground observation of and direct fire against the main body. Unlike a screening or guard force, the covering force is a self-contained force capable of operating independently of the main body.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Description

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Delay</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Demonstrate</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Destroy</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Disrupt</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interim</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Feint</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Fix</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Follow and support</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Follow and assume</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Guard</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interdict</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Isolate</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Neutralise</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Occupy</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Penetrate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A form of manoeuvre in which an attacking force seeks to rupture enemy defences on a narrow front.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A mission task in which a commander ensures that a terrain feature controlled by a friendly force remains free of enemy occupation or use. The commander assigning this task must specify the area to retain and the duration of the retention, which is time or event-driven.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A form of security operation that provides early warning to the protected force.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secure</td>
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Interim
Chapter 2

Formation command and control

Introduction

Command and control is the exercise of authority and direction by a properly designated commander over assigned and attached forces to accomplish a mission. It is important to understand the core functions of command and control, and the interaction between them.

- **Command.** Command relates to authority, specifically the legal right to order the actions of subordinates. Linked to the authority is the responsibility to use that legal right for the accomplishment of assigned missions.

- **Control.** Control supports command by performing the functions of planning, assessment and execution. These functions allow commanders to visualise a problem, give them options to resolve a problem, and then supervise the execution of a solution.

This chapter describes the specific nature of formation command and control. It is complemented by LWD 3-0, Operations, ADDP 00.1, Command and Control and LWD 0-0, Leadership and Management, and relevant formation SOPs. This chapter describes the following aspects of formation command and control:

- the brigade as a unit of action
- the nature of formation command and control
- command and control considerations, measures and procedures
- enabling tasks – reconnaissance and surveillance in the context of command and control
- transitional tasks.

The brigade as a unit of action

The brigade is a combined arms formation organised to command BGs and other CATs¹ and may also be employed as the core JIATF HQ.

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¹. These CATs should not be confused with a CT which specifically is a CAT based on a manoeuvre sub-unit HQ, for example a company or squadron HQ.
Role. The role of the brigade is to generate BGs and other CATs and, with augmentation, form an independent JIATF to conduct joint land-centric operations in support of operational and strategic objectives. The brigade can also operate as a land component of a larger JTF or coalition force. On operations, the appropriately enabled brigade is capable of conducting:

- joint land combat
- population protection (including non-combatant evacuation)
- information actions
- population support (including humanitarian assistance and disaster relief)
- indigenous capacity building.

Brigade organisation. As the Army’s unit of action, the brigade is also organised to generate and maximise the flexibility of combined arms capabilities and sustain forces on operations. These brigades include mounted and dismounted combat capabilities, joint fire support, reconnaissance, CSS, signals and combat engineer capabilities. Higher commanders augment brigades with non-organic capabilities for a specific mission. This may include additional:

- reconnaissance and surveillance
- signals and CSS capabilities
- aviation
- joint fires
- electronic warfare
- intelligence and counter-intelligence
- air defence
- military police
- health support
- specialist engineer capabilities.

Task organisations. The grouping of forces for specific operations and phases within operations is described by the task organisation. The task organisation consists of an appropriate HQ and subordinate components grouped to meet the requirements of the task. Below brigade level, units are cross-attached to form BGs which are combined arms groupings based on a unit-level HQ. Smaller task groupings within a BG, or independently, are called combat teams. Smaller groupings within CTs are known as platoon/troop teams.
The nature of formation command and control

Exercising effective C2 within a formation is contingent on understanding and applying the following:

- command, leadership and management
- the principles of command (see LWD 3-0, Operations)
- the integration of HQ staff functions towards achieving the following doctrinal tasks:
  - to enable the commander to exercise command of the formation – this task demands the staff coordinate, monitor and develop sound options; these options, or choices, are founded on meticulous analysis, collaboration and foresight
  - to enable subordinate units to achieve the formation commander’s intent
- doctrinal definitions for command and control, administration and support authorities
- manoeuvre, force integration and the concept of grouping/battlegrouping
- clearly defined roles and responsibilities within the formation HQ
- considerations for interagency cooperation.

Command and control considerations

Command and control arrangements. Command and control arrangements for interagency cooperation and JIATFs (the military component of the JIATF will usually be a combined task force or JTF) are planned at government level, after extensive consultation with the ADF and non-military government agencies.

Lead agency. A lead agency is one which accepts responsibility for the planning and execution of the activity, and can be military or non-military. Military agencies are task-organised military organisations, based around an appropriate level of HQ. Non-military agencies can include, and usually have included in recent Australian practice in the region, the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade or the Australian Agency for International Development, supported by such organisations as the Australian Federal Police. Abroad, there can be elements of the national or local government, police and non-government organisations. Agreement on which type of organisation should be the lead agency is a decision for government within the whole-of-government approach. An example of a non-military lead agency is Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, supported by the ADF and Australian Federal Police, working for the re-establishment of public safety and effective government in the Solomon Islands. More recently, the development and deployment of provincial reconstruction and mentoring teams in Afghanistan provides examples of military-led interagency operations.
Command climate. Quality of the commander-subordinate relationship is fundamental to effective formation command and control. By its nature this relationship must be rooted in the philosophy of mission command, which is premised on genuine mutual understanding and implicit trust. This means that commanders are confident their guidance is understood, that their subordinates are empowered and enabled to achieve their missions and the formation headquarters staff is postured to orchestrate the scheme of manoeuvre (SOM), leaving the commander free to exert personal influence on the battle or other relevant activity.

Simplicity. Like tactics, formation command and control must be simple and adaptive; flexibility in the battlespace is problematic if command and control arrangements are complex or convoluted. In the midst of battle, subordinates must know precisely how and from where they will receive support and what they must do to ensure its optimal use.

Regrouping. Simplicity of command and control extends to BGs and CTs whose commanders rely on common, practiced procedures across the formation to mitigate the detrimental impact of regrouping on their unit cohesion. In addition to mission task organisation, decisions to regroup should be considered in terms of:

• the implications of reallocating CSS and other supporting capabilities
• the effect of organisational change on formation tempo
• the ability to respond if a crisis arises during transition.

Communication discipline. Superior communication enables decision-superiority. During mission execution channels of communication must be specific and robust. Numerous entities can collaborate through one channel provided their communication practices are disciplined and battle-tracking is precise; this is one of the most effective ways of achieving situational awareness across the formation. Communication within the formation is not simply transmission of information or the procedure of routine reporting. While SOPs stipulate communications procedures, all personnel are expected to contextualise the information they transmit by considering:

• why the information is being sent
• who needs to receive the information
• when it is required
• in what form it is best transmitted
• what the recipient is expected to do with the information
• how delivery of the information will affect the sender
• what mechanism ensures the right person receives and acknowledges the message at the right time.

Designating and building a main effort. A formation commander and staff must designate and build a main effort. This gives clear focus for staff and subordinates
and reflects the commander’s intent. Importantly, designating and building a main effort requires the acceptance and management of risk; a force cannot be strong everywhere if it is to build a main effort and the commander and staff must be ruthless in taking risks. Commanders position themselves at the main effort; this may not necessarily be forward, but at the point in time and space where they can best influence the current action by personal presence. The staff must assist the commander in maintaining this focus, but also must cover the commander’s decision through understanding risks and assigning assets to guard against that risk. These must be the absolute minimum required, but the risk cannot be ignored. While the main effort can be shifted during a mission, this practice should be avoided if the process of reassigning capabilities significantly hinders tempo.

**Supporting efforts.** Supporting efforts enable the main effort through nested tasks and purposes. For example, BG ‘A’ is the main effort in a formation attack. As a supporting effort, BG ‘B’ has the task of breaching for the purpose of enabling BG ‘A’ to seize the decisive terrain.

**Chain of command.** Formation command rests ultimately with the commander who has a chain of command that links to unit commanders, sub-unit commanders and specialist and supporting commanders. The chain of command is not strictly hierarchical; indeed, a strict adherence to the structure is at odds with the tenets of manoeuvre. In pursuing the mission objective a formation commander may interact directly with a reconnaissance patrol commander, for example, to gain an intimate and shared understanding of the situation.

**Orchestration of effects.** Orchestration of effects is the disciplined approach to consider all relevant factors, reduce omissions and share information across the combat functions. It is essential to prevent or eliminate ‘stove-piping’ in staff planning where parts of a staff consider in a ‘vacuum’ and do not consider how their plans mesh with others.

**Use of reserves.** The reserve is the means by which the formation commander can most decisively influence the battle, providing the flexibility to react to unforeseen developments and to reinforce success and seize opportunities. The more obscure a situation the bigger and stronger the reserve should be. It must be an all-arms force capable of performing the widest range of battlefield functions. The reserve should be prepared to engage in the current action but its most important task is to be prepared for the next action.

**Command and control procedures**

Formation command and control procedures include the following:

- formation HQ staff responsibilities
- elements of the formation HQ
- command post (CP) functions
- HQ command and control nodes
- step-up
• standard operating procedures (SOPs).

Further details are provided in LWD 0-0, Leadership and Management and relevant formation SOPs.

Formation headquarters staff responsibilities. Regardless of the level of formation, staff responsibilities are relatively common. These are explained in Table 2–1.
Table 2–1: Formation headquarters staff responsibilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Serial</th>
<th>Branch</th>
<th>Responsibilities</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1.     | Commander’s advisory group | Commander’s Advisory Group  
Typically comprises formation LegalO, PAO, Senior Medical/Health Officer, Chaplain. 
Provide subject matter advice to the commander, and other key staff, including targeting (LegalO). | PAO is also a member of the ID&I team. |
| 2.     | S1     | Personnel and Administration  
Clerical support to the HQ – including registry and CP clerks. 
Personnel management including: 
manning 
personnel tracking 
individual reinforcements 
mortuary affairs 
casualty procedures 
POW/detainee management. |         |
### 3. S2 Intelligence and Security

Intelligence process – developing, monitoring and briefing the IPB in support of planning and execution of operations.

In conjunction with the operations staff, planning and executing the formation ISR plan.

Opsec.

Attachments may include EW, HUMINT, PSYOPS, GEOINT, aviation and ground-based ISR assets.

### 4. S3 Operations and Plans

Manage the efforts of the staff, BOS leads and other attachments to the formation HQ in achieving the commander’s mission/intent.

Responsible to the commander for the planning, communication and execution of current operations and current plan.

Bde battle rhythm and SOPs.

Manage CCIR.

Manage operational risk.

Manage assessment framework.

Attachments may include LOs from higher/flanking organisations.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Serial</th>
<th>Branch</th>
<th>Responsibilities</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>S4</td>
<td>Logistics support.</td>
<td>Logistics support.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Equipment support.</td>
<td>Equipment support.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>S6</td>
<td>CIS</td>
<td>CIS support.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Joint Fires</td>
<td>C3 joint fires and targeting in support of manoeuvre.</td>
<td>Providing SME advice to the commander and other key staff.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Attachments may include:
- TACP (RAAF)
- ALC (ALR)
- Aviation LO
- EW (targeting)
- Humint (targeting)
- PSYOPS (targeting)
- GBAD
- CMIC (targeting)
- PAO (targeting).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Serial</th>
<th>Branch</th>
<th>Responsibilities</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>MSCMOB</td>
<td><strong>MSCMOB</strong>&lt;br&gt;C3 MSCMOB in support of formation manoeuvre.&lt;br&gt;Providing SME advice to the commander and key staff.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Other branches</td>
<td>Providing SME advice to the commander and key staff.&lt;br&gt;Battlefield circulation management ICW operations group.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Other attachments</td>
<td>Providing SME advice to the commander and key staff.</td>
<td>DFAT, AFP, ACC, DST group, AIC.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Elements of the formation headquarters. Formation HQ incorporates the following elements:

- **Joint operations room.** This is the location in which C2 of the formation is exercised. It includes:
  - current operations
  - current intelligence
  - current personnel and logistics functions

- **Command post.** CPs are housed in the Tactical (TAC), Forward (FWD) and Main HQ infrastructure. They include:
  - current plans (S35)
  - plans (S5)
  - intelligence CP
  - personnel/logistics CP
  - the joint fires and effects coordination centre (JFECC)
  - tactical air CP
  - the Explosive Ordnance Disposal Coordination Centre
  - unmanned aerial system tactical and unmanned aerial system CP
  - the Air Land Regiment CP

- **Broader headquarters.** This encompasses all of the personnel and force elements (FEs) working in, supporting or securing the CP and joint operations room – either in HQ FWD, Main or TAC. It is defined by an external perimeter.

Command post functions. Command post functions enable the effective, efficient and survivable C2 of the formation while executing missions across the spectrum of conflict, in austere conditions and for an extended period of time. This includes:

- enabling the formation to operate/fight
- receiving, analysing, processing, reporting (managing) information
- interacting with higher, flanking and subordinate HQ
- facilitating close cooperation, or orchestration, between all arms and services supporting the formation
- planning, communicating plans/orders, and orchestrating and controlling the execution of those plans
- responding decisively to the frictions, chance, uncertainty, opportunities, missed opportunities and errors that are a characteristic of war
Contents

- resourcing/supporting subordinate units and flanking formations
- assessing the performance/effectiveness of operations.

**Formation headquarters command and control nodes.** Formation HQ can, if required, split into three deployable, adaptable and interchangeable command and control nodes:

- HQ TAC
- HQ FWD
- HQ Main – supported by HQ Rear.

These three deployable nodes provide differing, yet complementary, sets of characteristics and capacities that, in combination, enable effective, efficient and flexible command and control of the formation. They are utilised as required to any particular mission and each specific operational circumstance and are inherently pliable.

While the exact composition, equipment and capacity of each node will constantly evolve, the model will always seek to retain three discrete deployable nodes to assure command and control redundancy in the face of enemy action.

**Headquarters forward.** HQ FWD commands and controls the formation when displaced from HQ Main and HQ TAC. The nature of this function and division of responsibilities is defined during displacement planning and articulated in displacement orders. HQ FWD is the forward echelon of the formation HQ. Its organisation is simpler, smaller and more austere than HQ Main. It is limited in size, endurance and planning capacity and routinely incorporates HQ TAC. It can establish an effective and survivable node closer to the forward edge of battle, dislocated from HQ Main and enables an alternate or redundant HQ capacity for HQ Main. HQ FWD must be capable of displacing rapidly and frequently in order to achieve effective and efficient control, yet remain survivable. On step-up, it will deploy forward, reconnoitre a new position and hand-over/take-over command and control of the formation from HQ Main.

**Headquarters main.** HQ Main is the main echelon of the formation HQ. Its organisation is larger than HQ FWD and can sustain its functions for extended periods. HQ Main can command and control a portion of the formation AO, thereby enabling HQ FWD/TAC to focus on a specific action/geographical area. It provides comprehensive logistics and personnel functions, including:

- recovery
- maintenance
- catering
- transport
- reinforcement
- reception, staging, onward movement and integration
HQ Main must be capable of displacing – both into and within theatre. The decision to displace must be carefully weighed against the risk incurred from loss of services, exposure and inherent vulnerability en route/when occupying and setting up its new position. HQ Main is not designed to occupy a position in the vicinity of the forward edge of battle area and must take into consideration its vulnerability and survivability. The allocation of GBAD and sense and warn/locate to protect HQ Main must be considered. When it does displace, it can occupy a new position dislocated from HQ FWD/TAC. Alternatively it can step-up ‘on top’ of HQ FWD. The specific step-up methodology will be determined during step-up planning.

Commander’s tactical headquarters. The function of HQ TAC is to facilitate the ability of the commander to exercise command at a critical place and time in the battle. It is designed to be small and mobile so that the commander can exercise personal influence in the OE. It is limited in size, endurance and holds no organic planning capacity. HQ TAC will routinely enter theatre with HQ FWD and can establish at the forward edge of the battle area, dislocated from HQ FWD and Main as an effective, survivable separate node. It enables an alternate, or redundant HQ capacity, for HQ FWD and Main. HQ TAC must be capable of displacing rapidly and frequently.

Step-up. Step-up is the procedure by which elements of the Formation HQ displace and re-establish in order to maintain command and control of operations. While the physical step-up is a drill, the decision to displace and the functional division before, during and after displacement must be the subject of careful consideration and detailed planning. Each of the command and control nodes is structured and enabled to perform specific actions as part of the step-up procedure. These are specified in relevant formation SOPs and include:

- planning for, and commanding, the step-up
- reconnaissance and selection of new HQ site
- hand-over/take-over of control during step-up
- command of elements (nodes) during the tactical movement of the HQ.

Standard operating procedures. SOPs are designed to eliminate or reduce the requirement to explain routine procedures or responsibilities each time they are required to be performed. They provide a common understanding within the relevant organisation of who, when, where, why and how these standard procedures are conducted. SOPs are derived from doctrine and must be current, simple, concise, accessible, consistent between and within HQ and avoid being overly prescriptive. SOPs should not be used in lieu of a necessary explanation. For example, an obstacle breach should not simply be described as ‘per SOPs’ because every tactical situation is different. That said, for the purpose of
reasonable expediency, an appropriate explanation might detail how the procedure will vary from the SOP. SOPs should:

• remove ambiguity, misinterpretation and confusion
• prevent repetition in orders
• promulgate and follow agreed joint, coalition and NATO procedures
• implement best practice
• enable efficient use of communication information systems
• enable efficient augmentation and regrouping
• ensure unity of command, effort and purpose
• simplify education and training.

Command and control measures

Control measures are used to reduce the chance of friendly forces clashing and to focus the efforts within a force. Control measures are usually depicted as graphic representations on an overlay (hardcopy or digital) to provide all commanders with a guide to their freedom of action and constraints. The most common features include:

• boundaries
• routes
• starting points
• release points
• axes
• checkpoints.

They differ from task graphics in that they generally specify movement and fire limitations for subordinate commanders within a specific AO. In joint and combined operations, it is important for commanders and their staff to liaise with other services and national armed forces to establish agreement on the types of control measures required in the AO.

Flexibility and adaptability. Control measures can be permissive (allowing something to happen) or restrictive (limiting how something is done). While mission command encourages permissive measures, the requirement for some restrictive control measures, such as no fire or restricted fire areas, may be inevitable. Well-conceived control measures facilitate the conduct of current and future tasks. Importantly, control measures should include those required to transition to a branch or sequel identified in the planning process. A simple example of this is depicted in Figure 2–1.
Areas of operations and interest. For the purposes of defining the physical and cognitive nature of the OE for a specific mission, it can be divided into two components (see Figure 2–2), as follows:

- **Area of operations.** An AO is that portion of the OE assigned by a commander to a subordinate for a mission. It is usually defined as a geographic area. If more than one force is deployed, their AO may be contiguous (ie, sharing common boundaries) or non-contiguous. The higher commander is responsible for the area between the non-contiguous AO.

- **Area of interest.** The area of interest is the area of concern to a commander. It is usually larger than, and potentially dislocated from, the assigned AO. It reflects on the aspects commanders need to influence or be cognisant of, as it affects their AO. The area of interest is not fixed in size or position but

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2. Cognitive relates to ideas, perceptions and mindsets of humans and their cultures in the EO and how these influence operations.
Commanders adjust their control measures as necessary to facilitate orchestration and ensure mission success as the tactical situation evolves. Control measures apply to all forces. Commanders ensure that higher HQ control measures, such as boundaries, phase lines (PLs), report lines (RLs) and coordination points, for example, are incorporated into unit and formation graphic control measures for respective plans (particularly for operational overlays). When reporting to higher HQ, only those control measures established by that HQ are referenced; units, formations and CATs have their own control measures for the specified task. While subordinate units may include additional control measures, these should be provided to the higher HQ for reference as required.

Control measures may be graphic, such as boundaries; or procedural, such as target engagement priorities. A commander should establish only the minimum control measures necessary to provide essential coordination and de-confliction between units. Such measures must not unduly restrict subordinates in accomplishing their own missions within the commander’s intent.

A force assigned an AO and boundaries may not change those control measures imposed by the higher HQ within its AO. However, it may seek appropriate boundary clearances, adjustments and changes as the military situation changes on application, and it may assign additional control measures for smaller FEs to coordinate and orchestrate its activities.
As with any rule, exceptions exist. For example, in adhering to mission command, a subordinate may be presented with an opportunity or imperative to take action beyond a designated boundary in time and space. As in all operational circumstances, the risk of action (or inaction) must be assessed and the subordinate is expected to remain within the commander’s guidance. Situational awareness is critical in such cases.

**Generic graphic control measures.** The following list of control measures depicted on overlays, while not exhaustive, is in current common use and applies to the range of tactics described in this publication:

- AO(s)
- avenue(s) of approach (AAs)
- assembly areas
- axis (of attack or advance in any direction)
- battle handover line (BHL) or handover line
- battle positions (BPs)
- boundaries
- coordination points
- defended area(s), defended localities, defended posts
- engagement lines and/or EAs
- feature numbers
- fire lines
- fire support coordination measures (FSCMs)
- forming-up place (FUP)
- lane(s) and gaps
- limit(s) of exploitation
- line of departure (LD)
- objective(s)
- patrol area or sector
- PLs
- release points
- rendezvous (RV)
- RLS
- route(s)
- start points
traffic control posts.

Figure 2–3 provides an illustration of some of these measures.

Figure 2–3: Sample control measures

Legend:
PL – Phase line
RL – Report line
CL – Centre line
GLENELG and TORQUAY – Battle positions
COTTESLOE – Attack by fire
MANLY – Axis of assault
PORTSEA – Engagement area
BREAKER – Route
S – Screen
A1, B1, etc. – Target reference points
91, 96, 103, etc. – Feature numbers (equate to US checkpoints)
290 to avoid confusion with callsigns

Enabling tasks

The enabling tasks of reconnaissance and surveillance inform the command decision-making process through the timely provision of intelligence to answer CCIR and enable the implementation of force protection measures. Patrolling is one of the means by which this is achieved.
Considerations for formation reconnaissance and surveillance

The considerations for reconnaissance and surveillance at formation level include:

- reconnaissance objective(s) – developed from the CCIRs
- mode – mounted, dismounted, air (aviation or tactical unmanned aerial vehicle [TUAV]), satellite
- task organisation – matching mission to capability
- stealth and deception – to reduce the likelihood the enemy will realise that their dispositions or intentions have been compromised
- reconnaissance reserve – redundancy to ensure critical information requirements are achieved under uncertain circumstances
- layered surveillance
- flexibility
- centralised coordination
- decentralised control
- first-line information processing
- continual assessment of effectiveness
- interoperability
- sensor to shooter link
- electronic signature management
- duration, distance and demand – implications for CSS, such as resupply, personnel and equipment casualty recovery.

Reconnaissance

Reconnaissance is undertaken to obtain, by visual observation or other detection methods, information about the activities and resources of an enemy or potential enemy threat, or to secure data concerning the meteorological, hydrographical or geographical characteristics of a particular area. It is also conducted by aerial means (including [TUAV]) and, to be effective, requires the extensive use of electronic sensors and effective combat support systems to complement the human element.

Purpose. The purpose of reconnaissance is to provide timely and accurate information by day and night in all conditions across the range of military activity.

Reconnaissance in force. Historically, reconnaissance forces have found it essential to be able to fight for information. This frequently occurs due to the need to penetrate enemy security forces and because time pressures prohibit stealth.
Surveillance

Surveillance differs from reconnaissance; surveillance is the systematic observation of areas, persons, or things by visual, aural, electronic, photographic or other means. Surveillance is generally categorised by the environment being observed, rather than the medium from which the observations are being made. Surveillance can be undertaken by military or non military agencies as part of a broader activity, and can be land based, aerial or sea based/maritime, or a combination of all three as part of an integrated surveillance network.

**Purpose.** The purpose of surveillance is to detect activity or change over a period in an assigned area. Surveillance provides an enduring and systematic observation to inform CCIRs and to increase command situational awareness. It may also involve activities undertaken through interagency cooperation.

**Types of surveillance.** Surveillance can be passive or active, and applied to ‘focal’ areas or ‘wide’ areas as follows:

- **Passive surveillance.** Passive surveillance includes actions and/or equipment deployed which emit no energy capable of being detected.
- **Active surveillance.** Active surveillance, on the other hand, includes actions and/or equipment, which emit energy capable of being detected, such as thermal imaging, image intensifying equipment and ground surveillance radar.
- **Focal area surveillance.** Focal area surveillance is the systematic observation of small or specific areas of significance to a commander to detect enemy or other presence and activities.
- **Wide area surveillance.** Wide area surveillance involves the systematic observation of large areas of significance in order to detect enemy presence and activity or, in a population control context, as part of monitoring the pattern of life.

Patrolling

**Purpose.** The purpose of patrolling is to achieve one or more of the following:

- gain and retain the initiative or dominate a local area by deterring and disrupting threat activity, protecting personnel, installations, key infrastructure and civilian authorities
- gain information for the commander, or deny information to the enemy
- support future offensive/defensive action
- harass the enemy
- provide security to deployed troops and other persons
- reassure or gain the trust of the population
- prevent public disorder
• support other activities in the OE.

In order to ensure coordinated and focused effort, patrolling must be linked to the information, surveillance and reconnaissance plan objectives. These objectives are developed from the CCIRs. Achievement of some or all of these may be the tasks assigned to individual patrols in order to inform a decision by the commander at the following times:

• during the planning process (eg, to decide upon a specific course of action [COA]); or

• during the execution of the mission (eg, to confirm an enemy COA or critical event).

**Types of patrol.** There are two types of patrols – fighting and reconnaissance.

• *Fighting patrols.* Fighting patrols are designed to engage the threat and contribute to gaining and retaining the initiative, and to provide force protection and security. Fighting patrols can vary in size from a small group of section size or larger.

• *Reconnaissance patrols.* Patrols conduct reconnaissance as part of a defined mission for their own purposes or as directed by higher HQ to confirm sightings and gather more detailed information for CCIRs and the commander’s ISR plan. Patrols may be overt or clandestine, depending on the requirements.

**Patrol programs.** Patrols require careful coordination through a formation and unit patrol program. This may be coordinated at CT level, although it is more likely to be coordinated by BG HQ within the formation ISR plan. Patrol programs are designed to achieve the following:

• ensure the CCIRs are answered

• avoid redundancy

• minimise the risk of fratricide

• coordinate patrol support, such as joint fires planning and the provision of medical support.

**Transitional tasks**

In order to maintain balance and security while exploiting operational tempo, formations and units are required to perform a number of important transitional tasks. These tasks are, by nature, primarily a function of command and control and include:

• march

• link-up

• (forward and rearward) passage of lines
Notably, the purpose of any transitional task is to posture the force for its next mission which may, as a preliminary requirement, include regrouping or reconstitution.

Transitional tasks are described below.

**March**

The march is the critical link between deployment and subsequent engagement in tasks. It should be a well-practised procedure within formations and units.

**Description**

A march is conducted to efficiently and securely move a force to its place of tactical employment. The underlying intent for every march is to reach the destination in the best possible condition to execute the subsequent mission. Although march discipline is of great importance, it is secondary to the successful completion of the mission at the end of the march.

**Basic considerations**

**Protection.** All movement requires protection to a greater or lesser extent, in which case protection at the halt drills are conducted routinely. The strength and composition of the protection element varies depending on the situation.

**March columns and serials.** Forces moving on a march may do so either dismounted or mounted, in an administrative or tactical posture. Forces marching under a single command, mounted or dismounted, and on a single route form a march column. Long march columns should be subdivided into march serials, which should not exceed the strength of a BG or other major unit. The rate of march is the average speed at which forces are expected to move, excluding halts.

**Routes.** Whenever possible, multiple routes should be used for the movement of a force. This increases flexibility, reduces the length of the columns and shortens the duration of the move, the vulnerability to air attack and the length of time that the routes are not available for other movement, such as logistic activity.

**Movement sectors.** Using movement sectors, the commander executing the move may use all existing routes, or even move the force cross-country, within a designated sector. This type of movement is most flexible and is best used in situations when troops are required to be at a high degree of combat readiness.

**March discipline.** March discipline is essential throughout the move. Any deviations from the specified routes and times and, in particular, speeds may interfere with other movements and can have serious consequences. Unexpected interruptions should be dealt with immediately and the situation reported.
accordingly. Plan changes should not interfere with the overall movement plan. Support by a movement and traffic control organisation is highly desirable.

## Link-up

Link-up is a task conducted to join two friendly forces and may occur as part of regrouping. It may be necessary to destroy enemy between these two forces before a link-up can be established. Both forces may be moving toward one another, or they may be stationary or encircled. As both forces attempt to link-up, there is an inherent danger of fratricide; therefore, the planning and coordination must account for these increased risks and it is preferable that one force is stationary.

### Description

Link-up can occur under the following circumstances:

- A link-up with friendly encircled forces may take place on the perimeter of a defensive position established by that force, or be combined with a break-out defensive technique at another designated objective.
- A link-up with an air landed or infiltrated force may take place on the perimeter of its defensive position. In this case, the link-up is normally followed by a passage of lines, or a relief-in-place of the forces involved.
- A link-up between two forces engaged in converging attacks may take place when each force captures the allocated adjacent objectives. The enemy may also then be dislocated through encirclement.

### Basic considerations

The task to affect a link-up should always be given in the context of a subsequent mission for the forces involved, normally stating the location or the route where the link-up takes place. Frequently, a time is stated for the link-up. Link-up tasks can be achieved through the commander’s use of other methods of manoeuvre, such as a double envelopment or infiltration, or a combination of both. When planning a link-up particular attention should be paid to the following:

- situational awareness
- command relationships
- liaison and responsibilities
- control measures
- communications
- security
- coordination of schemes of manoeuvre
- joint fires coordination.
Types of link-up. The two basic types of link-up tasks are as follows:

- **Moving force with a stationary force.** This type of link-up should occur with due haste to reduce the threat's capability to react and to minimise the period of friendly force vulnerability. Figure 2–4 depicts the early stage of link up and Figure 2–5 depicts the later stages. Ground link-up points have to be coordinated at locations where the axis of advance of the moving force intersects the security elements of the stationary force. Coordinating fire in relation to RIs and other FSCMs is required to prevent fires from the converging forces falling on each other. For the moving force in a link-up, the operation may involve deliberate attacks or, if circumstances permit, rapid advance to contact. When the link-up is made, the moving force may join the stationary force, or pass through or around and continue to press the attack. If they join up to continue their tasks, a single commander for the overall force must be designated. Subsequent action must be launched swiftly to exploit the success achieved by the link-up.
• Two moving forces. Link-up between two moving forces is a difficult task to achieve successfully and is normally undertaken to complete the encirclement of an enemy force. Figure 2–6 depicts this task. Primary and alternate link-up points are established on the boundaries where the two forces are expected to converge. During the last phase of the link-up, the movement of advancing forces needs to be controlled carefully. Reconnaissance should seek to establish contact with the other force as early as possible, and information obtained to confirm or adjust the tactical plan. As they move closer to one another, the need for positive control to avoid fratricide is critical. The leading elements of the two forces should be on a common radio net.
Passage of lines

The passage of a force of any size through an area occupied by another force, whether own forces or a coalition partner (where special considerations generally apply), can be a common operational occurrence. This passage may be either forward or rearward through an ‘in place’ force (ie. one in an existing defensive locality, base, installation or defended area battle handover (BHO).

Description

The purpose of a passage of lines is to pass one force through another while maintaining the overall momentum of the operational task. Passages of lines may occur in a number of situations, including:

- mounting an attack, or other offensive action, through a friendly developed defended area
- moving a force through a secured objective in a multi-phase attack
- the passage of a force rearward through an intermediate position in a retrograde action.

In many situations, the task is conducted while in contact with the enemy. The stationary force (the in-place force) remains in position and supports the moving force (the in-transit force) in the initial stages of its passage and continues this...
support until the completion of the passage. The in-place force should not be further tasked until the passage is completed. It is a complex task that requires thorough planning and coordination. A passage of lines is usually regarded as successful only when the in-transit force has deployed clear of the in-place force without significant enemy engagement.

**Basic considerations**

Basic considerations for passages of lines include:

- status of command between the in-place and in-transit forces
- the time and nature of transfer of responsibilities during the transition
- control of direct and joint fires
- BHO
- achieving a clean break (rearward passage)
- movement and guidance through any obstacle system in front of the defensive position (rearward passage)
- control of demolitions (rearward passage)
- traffic control when both transiting forces are using the same routes
- synchronisation of tactical plans by both commanders of the in-place (stationary) force and the moving force
- control measures
- provision of sustainment to the in-transit force.

**Forward of passage of lines.** Forward passage of lines is frequently used during the execution of multi-phase attacks, the start of advances and the launching of counterattacks (CATKs). Thorough preparation, including detailed planning, sound information for ISR, operations security (opsec) and rehearsals (preferably out of direct enemy observation) are critical success factors. The in-place force provides all possible support to the in-transit force, including the securing of a FUP, the provision of guides, the opening and crossing of obstacle gaps and the provision of OS. Control problems may limit the amount of direct fire provided by the in-place force, so greater reliance must be placed on providing indirect fire support to the in-transit force. Figure 2–7 depicts a forward passage of lines.
Rearward passage of lines. A rearward passage of lines is conducted to allow a force in contact with an advancing enemy to disengage, conduct a BHO to a force in a prepared defensive position and then withdraw through those prepared defences. The in-place force coordinates assistance to the withdrawing (in-transit) force, including assistance to disengage and passage through obstacles and prepared positions. Security is essential to all aspects of a rearward passage of lines as both forces are particularly vulnerable to enemy action. Success requires cooperation at all levels. Rearward passages of lines typically occur at the completion of covering force or guard duties and during other retrograde movement such as the delay. Figure 2–8 depicts a rearward passage of lines.
Relief in place

Relief-in-place is a task in which all or part of a force in defence is replaced by another, incoming, force. Relief in place is conducted during periods of low activity and success depends on cooperation and security.

Description

Relief-in-place is used to replace all or part of one force with another in a static defensive position or other tactical context while maintaining overall force integrity. This may occur when the in-place force:

• is required for tasks elsewhere
• is directed to handover a task
• has successfully completed a task
• has reached, or is about to reach, its culminating point.

Incoming and outgoing forces are vulnerable during the conduct of this task. There are many troops on the move in forward areas and C2 is difficult to exercise if a
threat develops while the relief is in progress. Therefore relief-in-place should preferably be conducted during a period of low activity.

**Basic considerations**

Two deployment groups, the incoming force and the outgoing force, undertake any relief in place. These groups move as complete entities in tactical groupings which typically include an advance party, HQ, a main body, a rear reconnaissance party and security elements. Basic considerations include:

- coordination
- joint fires
- reserves
- patrols
- transfer of authority.

**Coordination.** Coordination between the two forces is imperative, including the supervision of the timing and movement of subordinate units and coordination of the shared use of movement assets between incoming and outgoing forces and supervision of traffic management. Responsibilities of the incoming and outgoing forces are detailed in Table 2–2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Incoming force</strong></th>
<th><strong>Outgoing force</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deployment of advance parties to the position</td>
<td>Deployment of rear reconnaissance parties to their new position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final reconnaissance of routes into the position</td>
<td>Briefing of the incoming force advance parties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confirmation of the handover arrangements with the outgoing force</td>
<td>Advising the incoming force of any changes to the threat situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissemination of any change to the relief plans as a result of a change in the threat situation</td>
<td>Guiding incoming troops forward from their debussing/RPs to link with their advance parties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Movement of the main body with its advance party, who direct them to their defensive positions</td>
<td>Handing over of stores, equipment and operational responsibility to the incoming force</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation of the defensive position, the takeover of stores and equipment and the assumption of operational responsibility</td>
<td>Withdrawal of the force through its RV to the embussing points</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 2–2: Incoming and outgoing force responsibilities*
Joint fires. The method of relieving joint fires assets must be clearly established. Normally, the assets at all levels remain in position until the relieving forces in the forward defended area have taken over control. By this means, existing fire plans can be fired quickly during the dangerous period when the forward forces are being relieved. LOs and joint fire teams (JFTs) from incoming forces should arrive early in the outgoing forces’ areas to become familiar with existing fire plans. Where possible, joint fire assets should be placed on a high degree of notice to move to support the conduct of the relief.

Reserves. As with all tactical tasks, a reserve is essential. The reserve should rehearse its likely tasks in the lead-up to the relief, unless this is likely to compromise security. During the relief, the reserve is at a high degree of notice to move and the reserve commander must maintain a high level of situational awareness so that a situation can be responded to promptly.

Patrols. Patrol programs and surveillance using technical means must be maintained at normal levels during the relief task. It is usual for the force being relieved to provide the patrols on the night of the relief and for these patrols to be accompanied by members of the advance party of the relieving force. These members of the relieving force must be brought forward well before the relief so they can view the terrain during the day before accompanying the patrols. The electronic and radiation signature should not vary during the preparation, conduct and immediate aftermath of the relief.

Transfer of authority. The outgoing commander is responsible for the defence of the area until command changes hands. The transfer of authority is determined by mutual agreement between the two commanders, unless directed by higher HQ, and must be clearly stated in orders. The incoming force must fit into and accept the defence plan of the outgoing force until the transfer of authority is completed. Usually, the measure for the transfer of authority to the incoming commander is that, once two thirds of the incoming force is in position, the incoming commander takes command. Control measures for the relief-in-place are illustrated in Figure 2–9.
Battle handover

The purpose of the BHO is to ensure a smooth transfer of responsibility for the current task to another force. This may involve passing to the rear on completion of its task or meeting a replacement force at the BHL. In any event, a transfer of responsibility must occur from the withdrawing force to the replacement force, or to forward positions through which it withdraws.

Description

The BHO occurs at the BHL that is located at a designated point, or PL, on the ground where responsibility transitions from the stationary force to the moving force and vice versa. It is within direct fire range and observed indirect fire range to the stationary force.

The senior commander must determine the acceptable risk to the security force before the BHO. The commander should state the disengagement criteria for the security force in quantifiable terms, such as friendly force strength levels and capabilities, the time or event (such as a decisive event [DE]). As the security force approaches forward of the designated PL or BHL, it may become necessary to increase the intensity of fire support to allow it to break contact and successfully disengage. The withdrawal of the security force (or other types of forces) through
the forward positions in the main defended area must be carefully planned and conducted. Both direct and indirect fires from the main defended area can provide support to cover their withdrawal and close safe lanes where necessary.

As the force withdraws, the commander makes preparations to pass it through, or around, the main defended area as quickly as possible to minimise their vulnerability to enemy fires. Multiple passage points, gaps or lanes along the forward edge of the defended area are used, usually in one sector at a time, until the force has been completely withdrawn. However, the force may have to pass in sequence based on the degree of enemy pressure.

**Basic considerations**

Basic considerations for BHO include:

- **Selection.** The BHL is selected by commanders forward of their defended area in suitable terrain on the same criteria as for RLs, PLs and bounds. The BHO is usually an identified point on the BHL, along a withdrawal route or forward passage route that is secure, within observed indirect fire range and readily identifiable.

- **Transfer of responsibility.** Transfer of responsibility occurs forward of the main defended area on the BHL. The security force achieves rapid passage through the main defended area by coordinating its passage at the planned contact points on the BHL, and establishes liaison. The security FEs of the forward defended area man these contact points along the BHL. Gaps in barriers that have been left for the withdrawal of the force must also be guarded, and arrangements made for closing them. Contact points should be collocated during this period, which minimises the risks associated with a rearward passage of lines, and coordination of specific passage points, lanes and other details such as guides. Transfer of responsibility occurs at a specific event (probably a DE) or time during this passage.

- **Subsequent action.** Once the force has completed the BHO to either the main defensive position or another replacement security force, it is likely to be redeployed elsewhere or regrouped for another task. The commander may decide to employ the withdrawn force as a reserve, but it requires replenishment for any other tasks allocated to it. In any case, the employment of forces to other tasks, when relieved of a current task, is stipulated in the commander’s orders for subsequent phases for the main defensive battle. The whole process is repeated as required.

**Regrouping and reconstitution**

Detailed planning and effective execution notwithstanding, formations and subordinate units will be required to be reorganised for continuing operations in a campaign context. At the tactical level, two transitional tasks are relevant – regrouping and reconstitution.
Regrouping

Regrouping is the change of a formation or unit task organisation in order to undertake an assigned mission. This may occur as part of transition between missions or between phases in an operation or battle. Frequent regrouping should be avoided as it hampers CAT cooperation and compromises organisational responsiveness and tempo. Unnecessary regrouping can be minimised by initial groupings in which BGs and CTs are allocated appropriately balanced task organisations to cater for current and future missions. This requires foresight by commanders and staff.

Certain aspects of regrouping impact on a force more than others. For example, reassignment of joint fires priorities can occur readily provided the relevant artillery units are within range and close air support re-basing is not required. The impact of regrouping ground units can be mitigated by common marry-up procedures and tactical practices within and between formations. This minimises the requirement for reassigned units to become familiar with dissimilar procedures before mission execution.

Reconstitution

Reconstitution is the restoration of units and formations to a desired level of combat effectiveness, commensurate with mission requirements and the availability of resource, and may occur at operational and tactical levels. This is not to be confused with the tactical practice of reconstituting a reserve from within existing force capability.

When a unit or formation suffers losses it will eventually reach a point at which it is no longer combat effective. This will differ between units and will depend largely, but not exclusively, on the scale of personnel and equipment casualties, unit esprit de corps, collective training standards and leadership. Commanders must recognise the symptoms of declining effectiveness and, as soon as operational circumstances allow, take action to reconstitute the affected unit or formation.

Reconstitution is planned and coordinated by the superior HQ operations staff and executed by CSS staff and agencies. It may occur through personnel and equipment replacement, cross-levelling and resupply enabled by joint logistic capabilities. The reconstitution requirements of a formation or selected units, and the manner in which it may occur, will be determined by a range of factors, including:

• the required level of combat effectiveness
• timeframe for reconstitution
• operational tempo
• theatre rotation, replacement and stocking policies and availability of resources, including trained reinforcements
• the extent (or otherwise) of current operational and tactical success, including friendly personnel and equipment casualty rates
Contents

- environmental threats
- host nation support capacity
- the operational plan.

Reconstitution involves more than delivery of routine or operationally demanded resupply and replacement. Significant logistic and personnel support effort will be required to reconstitute a FE and this will almost invariably require the relevant unit or formation to be withdrawn completely from operational responsibilities. Reconstitution may also involve a unit undergoing mission-specific training prior to its recommitment to operations.

Thus, reconstitution is a process requiring detailed formation staff planning and coordination in order to minimise its effect on tactical and operational level tempo. Reconstitution must be planned for, and incorporated, in the operational design so that the necessary resources and support arrangements are in place when the affected unit or formation requires them.

Conclusion

Exercise of command and control is dependent on a purpose-designed command and control system which allows each level to operate effectively and support the critical mission command relationship between the commander and staff who enable the commander’s decision-making.

Chapter 3 to Chapter 5 provide guidance on the application of formation command and control in relation to specific security, offensive and defensive tactics.
Chapter 3
Offensive tactics

Introduction

Offensive tactics are the decisive actions in conflict. Although defensive tactics may be necessary during the course of a campaign, final success will only be achieved through offensive action. This chapter describes offensive tactics at formation level.

Purpose

Offensive tactics are undertaken to:

- shatter the enemy’s will
- destroy opposing forces or capabilities
- seize key or decisive terrain
- acquire information
- attack an opponent’s cohesion through deprivation of resources
- distract an opponent or divert their forces
- retain the initiative by preventing an opponent from consolidating or regrouping.

Description

In adopting an offensive tactic, FEs forego the protection of prepared positions and static concealment, balancing the risk against the security afforded by tactical initiative, surprise, shrewd use of ground, aggression and, ultimately, violent action.

Offensive tactics ultimately depend on the attack as the means of forcing a decision. In forcing a decision a commander exposes a force to significant risk, and successful offensive action must be conducted relentlessly to shatter the enemy’s will and cohesion by neutralising its COG. If offensive action is successful, disruption and dislocation renders enemy responses progressively more ineffective or inappropriate over time. This is the basis of manoeuvre.

Australian forces must be prepared to engage in close combat to destroy an enemy force if required, and the manner of defeat is determined by the type of operation being conducted. The ability to transition rapidly from offensive to other tactics or missions is essential. This is due to the low discrimination threshold that
exists in contemporary conflict which is likely to lead to more frequent and unexpected contact with the enemy. The three offensive tactics are as follows:

- **Attack.** The attack is the essential focus of all offensive effort and seeks to disrupt, disperse or destroy the enemy through aggressive actions and close combat. It can also be undertaken to seize an objective.

- **Advance.** In the advance, offensive action is characterised by aggressive manoeuvre designed to seize or retain the initiative through dislocation and/or disruption of the enemy. The advance can be in contact or out of contact and may lead to a pursuit.

- **Pursuit.** A pursuit can often follow an advance or an attack on a position as part of that advance and is conducted to aggressively follow up a shattered and withdrawing enemy, either to capture or destroy. Commanders executing a pursuit must ensure that lines of communication and sustainment do not become overextended.

### Offensive forms of manoeuvre

These forms of manoeuvre represent the broad options for offensive physical manoeuvre against an enemy force. They include:

- envelopment
- turning movement
- infiltration
- penetration.

A number of notable considerations influence selection of an offensive form of manoeuvre.

**Envelopment**

In an envelopment the main attacking force passes around or over the enemy main defences to seize objectives in depth (see Figure 3–1). Supporting efforts are employed to either physically, functionally or temporally fix the enemy in order to limit their ability to react against the enveloping force. This may include use of a supporting attack, feint or demonstration, or other deception. Although envelopment splits the attacking forces, the enemy is required to fight simultaneously in more than one direction.
Successful envelopment by ground forces requires an open or easily penetrated enemy flank. Air envelopment requires local air superiority and suppression of enemy air defences. Notable characteristics of envelopment include:

• achievement of surprise
• exploitation of mobility
• deception and/or vigorous supporting effort(s)
• rapid and coordinated manoeuvre to maximise the enemy's tactical dilemma.

Double envelopment involves simultaneous manoeuvre around both enemy flanks. This requires marked force superiority.

**Turning movement**

A turning movement is akin to a shallow envelopment. However, the intent is to dislocate the enemy by forcing them to reorient to a less advantageous facing, for example, away from their preferred EA, rather than seizure of an objective in depth. Supporting efforts are intended to prevent the enemy redeploying before the friendly turning movement has been achieved (see Figure 3–2).
Infiltration
Infiltration is the stealthy passage of (comparatively) small groups through, over or around enemy defences into a rear area. These groups then RV and assemble into their predetermined respective task organisations to carry out the assigned mission. The force may subsequently exfiltrate as a whole or break down into smaller groups (see Figure 3–3).
Infiltration may be used to:

- obtain information
- harass the enemy
- prepare for a subsequent action, such as securing an air landing zone (LZ); or
- neutralise critical enemy capabilities, such as command and control nodes.

Infiltration is a difficult manoeuvre to control as changes may occur during the mission, making coordination during execution difficult. Risk to the infiltrating force must be weighed against gain from the objective and all available measures should be used to deceive and distract the enemy.

**Penetration**

Penetration requires the weight of an attacking force to be concentrated on a comparatively narrow front at the point of decision to punch through the enemy’s defences and seize or attack objectives in depth. Successive assaults may be necessary to deepen the penetration, bypassing pockets of resistance where possible; the latter to be cleared subsequently either by the penetration force or follow-on forces (see Figure 3–4).

![Figure 3–4: Penetration](image)

Penetration may be required in one or more of the following circumstances:

- the enemy has no exposed flank for envelopment or a turning movement
- the enemy is over-extended

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1. While this may seem anathema to manoeuvre, the requirement to conduct penetration where no other option exists is considered inevitable.
the enemy is off-balance and a rapid penetration may be more decisive than another, more time consuming form of manoeuvre; or
• a weakness has been identified in the enemy’s defensive layout.

The requirement to conduct a penetration must be mitigated by other measures, including:
• deception
• carefully orchestrated and concentrated joint fires
• clearly attainable objectives
• strong supporting efforts, such as support by fire (SBF) or overwatch
• disruption or dislocation of enemy reserves and critical capabilities
• balanced friendly reserve.

Vigorous resistance must be expected from a well-prepared enemy with rehearsed counterpenetration (CPEN) plans. Success will depend on rapid concentration of fighting power at the point of decision, with violent shock action exploiting surprise. Under such circumstances appropriately task organised CATs are essential in the development and maintenance of momentum by minimising delay in commitment of limited specialist resources such as obstacle breaching capability. Timely commitment of follow-on forces is imperative. Planning to penetrate a defensive position includes isolating and destroying the enemy by fire in the area selected. Penetration of an enemy position requires:
• breaking the enemy’s main line of resistance
• widening this gap to secure the flanks of the penetration
• seizing objectives with subsequent exploitation.

If there are weaknesses in the enemy’s position, it may be possible to seize the penetration’s final objective simultaneously by widening the initial gap. In other situations, seizing the final objective must be deferred until the gap is wide enough for reserves or other forces to be committed for the final task.

**Breaking the main line of resistance.** The main attack is launched on a relatively narrow front. Assaulting troops are given close in objectives. Local reserves are held in readiness to pass through or bypass attacks that have slowed or stopped. The supporting attack on the remainder of the hostile front contains the enemy and prevents it from disengaging. The wider the front of penetration, the more difficult it is for the enemy to close the gap. However, penetration on a wide front requires a great amount of force and resources.

**Securing the flanks of the penetration.** Once the attacking force has penetrated the main line of resistance, follow on forces should be tasked to secure the exposed flanks. Formation headquarters plans to meet enemy counterattacks (CATKs) by shifting fire or committing reserve forces. Hasty counter mobility
obstacles on the flanks of the penetration may be used to assist in defeating any
local enemy CATKs and to provide additional security for the penetrating force.

**Seizing the objective and subsequent exploitation.** Normally, the mission of
the main attacking force is to seize that objective which will defeat the COG of the
enemy’s defence. Frequently, the enemy’s position will be sufficiently deep to
prevent the initial main attacking force from seizing the final objective. This may
require that a reserve force conducts a forward passage of lines through the initial
attack to seize the final objective.

**Attack**

During land force operations it may become necessary to destroy an enemy in
close combat and the attack is the means by which this is achieved. Attacks are
also employed defensively, as in a CATK or spoiling attack. The ambush is also a
form of attack. Regardless of the context in which attacks are conducted, the
importance of reconnaissance and discriminate use of force cannot be overstated.
The attack is not an end in itself, but contributes to undermining the enemy COG
through disrupting or dislocating related CVs. An individual attack forms part of the
continuous process to break the enemy’s cohesion.

**Purpose**

The purpose of an attack is to disrupt, disperse or destroy an enemy, or to seize
an objective.

**Description**

**Types of attack.** Attacks may be either of the following:

- **Deliberate.** A deliberate attack is conducted when a well-prepared defence
  must be defeated. It is characterised by extensive planning, reconnaissance and careful coordination of all available resources.

- **Quick.** A quick attack seeks to take advantage of an enemy’s lack of
  preparedness, or to destroy lightly defended positions. Quick attacks
  require bold, offensive action to achieve success before the enemy regains
  the initiative. They are frequently used during the advance and pursuit, and
  frequently conducted from the line of march. In this case, there will likely be
  less time for reconnaissance.

The likelihood of success in the attack is increased when surprise, shock action
and concentration of force are achieved in combination. Commanders have the
advantage of being able to choose the place/direction, the method and the time an
attack is to be launched, and they must exploit this advantage.

The commander’s intent determines the task and the form of manoeuvre used. It
is influenced by the mission, the situation, the relative forces and the enemy’s
intent, the level of command, and the time and space available.
An attack may be conducted as a separate tactic, or carried out in conjunction with other tactics, such as the defence. The attack may be directed against the front, flank or the rear of the enemy, or against any combination of those relative positions. It may be conducted from the ground, the air or both.

**Silent, noisy and night attacks**

Silent, noisy and night attacks are choices available to any commander conducting any type of attack. The opportunity to undertake these options may be considered during the planning process, which may reveal any one or a combination of these choices as the most viable COA at the time.

**Basic considerations**

The basic considerations for the attack are:

- surprise
- concentration
- penetration
- fire support
- security
- tempo
- rapid reorganisation
- enemy reserve
- objectives and phases.

**Surprise.** An attack in unexpected strength, from an unexpected direction at an unexpected time, usually has a greater chance of success. Surprise is enhanced by superior tempo and deception. The successful exploitation of surprise is closely related to timing. For example, a surprise, quick night attack might attract benefits which would be lost if action was delayed.

**Concentration.** The attacker must concentrate superior combat power at the points of assault. The degree of superiority required depends on the enemy’s intentions, on their tenacity and how well their positions are prepared. Deception, surprise, mobility and economy of effort elsewhere (with associated risk) assist in gaining this superiority.

**Penetration.** The aim of penetration is to break into the objective. The attack must achieve initial success on a frontage sufficiently wide to permit the effective passage of forces for subsequent phases. Penetrations must be reinforced quickly and aggressively to take advantage of the gap in the enemy’s defences. Penetrations can be single or multiple, and may be launched at the front, flank or rear of a position.

**Fire support.** A joint fires plan to support the attack at formation level is prepared and implemented in accordance with the commander’s priorities. The fire plan
must effectively synchronise all assets, including direct fire and joint systems. The amount and type of fire allocated to each phase of the fire plan (generally corresponding to each stage of the attack) depends on the total resources available (including joint assets), the size and nature of the objectives and the degree of importance ascribed to each task by the commander. The formation JFECC coordinates all joint fires through subordinate JFECCs and JFTs, which are allocated to CTs and other small teams as required. Within detachments smaller than the CT, Joint fires can be coordinated either by an ad hoc JFT allocated to it for the mission, or by junior commanders trained in the all-arms call for fire procedures. Further information is contained in LWD 3-4-1, Employment of Artillery.

Security. A successful attack requires both operational and physical security. The two key requirements of physical security are: firm bases and flank protection. Failure to provide security may result in the commander using the assault force to counter an enemy manoeuvre rather than seizing objectives. Security measures must cover the following:

- the formulation of a deception plan
- restrictions on movement
- any limits on reconnaissance
- any restrictions on fire support, including the adjustment policy and preparatory fire
- information dominance and influence tasks (if appropriate)
- the timing of deployments
- Opsec locally and in the practice of communications traffic.

Tempo. Tempo is the relative rate, or rhythm, of activities of own troops in relation to those of the enemy whereby, for example, a more rapid execution of successive combat or other actions can be achieved. This means that troops must be able to transition quickly from one task to another. Tempo seeks to impose restrictive conditions to which the enemy is increasingly unable to respond, resulting in a reaction that is too late, or in the wrong place. Developing superior tempo is the key to shattering an opponent’s cohesion. Offensive tactics, including attacks, are invariably high-tempo in order to achieve surprise and create shock.

Rapid reorganisation. Speed of reorganisation is essential to prepare the force for CATK, or to enable the resumption of further offensive action or the preparation of defences. This is paramount, as a force is very vulnerable during this time.

Enemy reserve. Locating the enemy reserve is a high priority for reconnaissance and surveillance, and its likely employment must be carefully considered. The commander must endeavour to dislocate or disrupt the enemy’s reserve. This can be achieved by using secondary attacks, feints and rapid changes of axes, shifting of the main effort, or varying tempo. Once the enemy’s reserve is effectively dislocated or disrupted, an attacking formation has greater freedom of manoeuvre.
Objectives and phases. The commander determines which objectives must be seized to achieve the mission. Circumstances affecting the selection of objectives include:

- the strength and likely intentions of the enemy
- the assessed key terrain and selection of the decisive terrain
- the threat from the flank and whether enemy positions on the flank of the initial assault must be neutralised
- the mobility of assaulting troops
- the available fire support
- anticipated casualty rates.

If there is insufficient combat power to attack all objectives simultaneously or in one continuous action, phasing is necessary. Phasing is also needed when a regrouping or a reallocation of resources must occur or when there is a change to the main effort. That said, phasing should be minimised, as it reduces flexibility and tempo and allows the enemy to regain cohesion and the initiative.\(^2\)

Stages of an attack

Attacks are conducted in the following four stages:

- preparatory
- assault
- exploitation
- reorganisation.

Preparatory stage. The preparatory stage is the foundation on which the attack is built and requires expeditious but thorough work by the commander and staff. This stage includes the following tasks:

- commander and staff planning
- issue of warning orders to enable concurrent planning and preparation by subordinate units
- denying information to the enemy on friendly force dispositions and intentions
- dominating the enemy and seeking to weaken their cohesion and will
- concentrating forces, regrouping, preliminary moves and the conduct of the battle procedure, including rehearsals

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2. Given the dynamic nature of modern combat, and mindful of the adage that plans seldom survive contact with the enemy, the tendency to phase an attack as a matter of course should be accorded careful consideration. Arguably, successive phases may become progressively irrelevant, particularly if they are terrain oriented or time-based.
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- finalising the plan and issuing orders.

**Assault stage.** The assault must be delivered in great strength on a narrow frontage with overwhelming fire support. The enemy must be given no chance to recover from the initial shock and loss of cohesion. The assault stage typically involves the following:

- **Obstacle breaching.** The assault stage may include crossing natural and breaching artificial obstacles. This should be conducted as quickly as possible to limit delay and reduce the exposure of friendly forces. Crossing and breaching of obstacles is described later in this chapter.

- **Fighting through the objective.** The outcome of the attack will be determined by the fight through the objective. It is characterised by fire and manoeuvre at sub-unit level and below, and success depends on the initiative and leadership of junior commanders, effective mission command and the use of well-balanced forces.

- **Securing the objective.** Securing the objective and mopping up remaining resistance is usually the responsibility of each assault element, but the task may be passed to depth units if an opportunity is being exploited or the assaulting units have been significantly degraded. Regardless, responsibility for securing the objective must be clearly articulated in orders and should not be assigned to the reserve.

- **Commitment of the reserve.** A reserve should be constituted for predicted (potential) tasks, responding to unexpected developments and exploitation of opportunities. The reserve provides the commander with the flexibility to reinforce success or to react to a contingency. It should be a CAT with a high degree of protected mobility and firepower. Once the reserve is committed, another must be constituted. This may be formed from any force which has achieved its initial task, is not under significant pressure and, ideally, is comparatively fresh. The reserve should not become involved in combat until deliberately committed.

- **Battle replenishment.** During the assault stage, battle replenishment may be required to ensure assaulting units maintain sufficient levels of combat supplies, particularly ammunition, until reorganisation is conducted.\(^3\)

**Exploitation stage.** The plan for the attack should cater for possible exploitation to take advantage of success and follow-up initial gains. The aim of exploitation is to retain the initiative by preventing the enemy restoring cohesion or executing an orderly withdrawal. Commanders at all levels must be prepared to seize any opportunity for exploitation consistent with the higher commander’s intent and main effort. Care must be taken not to dissipate combat power unnecessarily and,

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3. Some assault units and sub-units may commence limited reorganisation while others are still engaged in fighting through the objective.
where possible, minor enemy resistance should be bypassed or contained with minimum force. The limit of exploitation should be considered in terms of:

- likely enemy dispositions or strength beyond the attack objective
- capacity to support the exploitation
- security of the captured objective(s)
- the commander’s intent.

**Reorganisation stage.** Following an assault, attacking forces will need to reorganise and secure the objective they have seized by mopping up remaining enemy, establishing hasty defences and dominating approaches to the position. The relative size of the objective and assaulting forces need to be taken into account when considering the area required for reorganisation. In some cases, reorganisation may occur beyond an objective, particularly if it is expected to be the target of significant enemy artillery (including missile) fires. Since the attacking force is vulnerable during reorganisation, commanders must prepare for an enemy CATK. Battlefield clearance is conducted during reorganisation and, subject to friendly force personnel and equipment casualties, reconstitution of degraded units may be required. Reconstitution is described in Chapter 2.
Control measures

Control measures are used by the commander to exercise control within a specified terrain area and, to some extent, limit the freedom of action by subordinates to avoid fratricide. Simple and thorough control measures reduce confusion and assist coordination. The use of control measures in the attack is illustrated in Figure 3–5 and described as follows:

- **Objectives and boundaries.** Objectives and boundaries must be clearly defined and easily recognisable on the ground wherever possible. Objectives must be within the capacity of the nominated attacking force to seize and hold against CATK.

- **Zone, axis and direction of attack.** A number of options exist to define the manoeuvre of an assault force. These are:
  - **Attack in zone.** Attack in zone (see Figure 3–6) is the technique allowing subordinate commanders the most latitude in determining how the assault force will manoeuvre during the attack. Subordinates are assigned boundaries and are given freedom to manoeuvre within their zones. This is appropriate when there is limited information on specific enemy locations and therefore the subordinate commanders require greater flexibility in order to achieve their tasks.

![Figure 3–5: Basic control measures for an attack](image-url)
Formation Tactics

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Figure 3–6: Zone of attack

- **Attack on an axis.** Attack on an axis (see Figure 3–7) involves the assault force manoeuvring on a nominated axis to a clearly defined objective. This provides a degree of latitude to a subordinate commander.

Figure 3–7: Axis of attack

- **Direction of attack.** Direction of attack (see Figure 3–8) allows the least latitude to a subordinate commander. Often a specific route is detailed due to the constraints of terrain or the manoeuvre of other friendly forces.
Figure 3–8: Direction of attack

- **Phases.** The availability of fighting power and the enemy dispositions may necessitate the use of multiple phases. Formations give units PLs and lines of exploitation to control the actions of those units during specific phases and particularly at changes of phase.

- **Concentration area.** The concentration area should be sited out of indirect fire range, concealed from observation and large enough to permit dispersion of units. Protection from enemy air attack is essential. Activities such as sustainment, briefings, rest, rehearsals and battle procedure occur in the concentration area.

- **Assembly area.** In the assembly area, attacking units prepare for the attack and ‘marry up’ with supporting units. The assembly and concentration areas must be secured.

- **Forming-up place.** The FUP is an area to which assaulting troops deploy immediately before an attack and in which they adopt assault formations. It allows a buffer of time, if required, between the move forward from the assembly area and crossing the LD at H-hour. The FUP is occupied for as short a time as possible and must be secure and ideally covered from both observation and direct fire.
• **Line of departure.** A LD is required for each phase. As all timings are based around H-hour, the LD is an important control measure for both the assaulting force and the fire support group. The assaulting force must always be conscious that fire planning timings are based on the time the LD is crossed by the assault elements.

• **Routes.** All routes should be marked to prevent delay and should be secured by a force other than the assault force.

• **Passage of lines.** The passage of lines should be avoided during formation attacks, as they add significantly to the complexity of the task. Accordingly, planning should focus on the synchronisation and the selection of approaches to ensure that a passage of lines is not required. If a passage of lines is needed, it must be simple and, where practicable, rehearsed during the preparatory stage. A simple plan is most easily adapted and reduces the risk of fratricide.

• **Timings.** The selection of H-hour and related timings includes consideration of the following:
  • restrictions imposed by the higher commander
  • time required for preliminary activities
  • length of selected approaches, the terrain and mobility of the force
  • enemy disposition, including the extent of obstacles
  • amount of fire support available and the effects required
  • the air situation
  • time required to complete battle procedure.

**Advance**

Advance is an offensive tactic characterised by aggressive manoeuvre designed to seize or retain the initiative by dislocating and/or disrupting the enemy. This is achieved primarily through the maintenance of high tempo (speed in dealing with the threat, rather than speed of movement), the exploitation of gaps and shock action. The maintenance of momentum is a critical factor in reducing the time and forces available to the enemy. The advance itself is conducted in anticipation of subsequent actions such as pursuit or attack, and may be along a single route or multiple routes.

**Purpose**

The purpose of the advance is to close with the enemy to engage it in combat under conditions favourable to the advancing force. The advance may be to seek contact, or the advancing force may already be in contact with the enemy.
Description

The types of advance are as follows:

- **Advance to contact.** An advance to contact is conducted when contact with the enemy is lost or is yet to be made. Emphasis is placed on ‘reconnaissance pull’, finding gaps and vulnerabilities to exploit and target through reconnaissance and surveillance. An advance to contact, particularly by the vanguard of the advance guard, also offers opportunities for the ‘meeting engagement’ or ‘encounter battle’.

- **Advance in contact.** An advance in contact is conducted when contact is established with the enemy security forces, or the main force. Emphasis is then placed on maintaining contact and determining and exploiting vulnerabilities for subsequent targeting.

The success of the advance depends on aggression and maintaining momentum to keep the enemy off-balance. Tempo is achieved by satisfying the CCIRs, and rapid reaction to the enemy when encountered. FEs should be capable of rapid transition to other tasks.

Basic considerations

In the advance, the basic considerations for CATs of BG and formation size are underpinned by the need to acquire information about the terrain and the enemy, and probably require fighting for information. However, the commander’s aim is not always to bring the enemy to battle to destroy it, as it is often more effective to dislocate them by manoeuvring through gaps and threatening or neutralising subsequent objectives beyond the immediate objective. As a result, the enemy could be forced to lose key terrain without direct engagement.

Planning any advance entails preparation for diverse tasks, such as the clearing of suspected and known enemy positions, and the eventual transition to attack or pursuit. These ‘sequels’ require detailed planning even though they may not eventuate. The basic considerations for the advance are:

- acquisition of information
- surprise
- tempo
- security
- routes
- fire support
- air situation.

**Acquisition of information.** The initial intelligence preparation of the battlespace (IPB) is likely to be based on current intelligence that is probably not comprehensive and needs updating as new information is received. Manoeuvre
FEs and ISR capabilities can be used to gain information relevant to the action. It can include:

- **Enemy.** Details of the enemy are required on strength, dispositions, morale and any deviation from standard organisation or doctrine to determine the most likely and most dangerous courses of action.

- **Environment.** The environment affects mobility, observation, direct fire and the detection threshold. Information relating to the environment should be reported to all FEs as early as possible, with an emphasis on routes, going, obstacles and conditions.

- **Non-combatants.** The presence of non-combatants must be reported. Information on their location, status and intentions is always pertinent.

- **Local resources.** Information on local resources that can be employed by the advancing force assists in easing sustainment liabilities.

**Surprise.** Achieving and obtaining surprise is critical to destroying enemy cohesion and will. Enemy site defences on key terrain suitable to delay or destruction friendly forces. The advancing commander must seek to outwit the defenders and deceive them about the strength, direction, timing and speed of the advance. Surprise is best achieved through achieving superior tempo, sound opsec and communication security (comsec) measures, the use of multiple routes to disguise the main effort, and other deception measures planned at higher levels.

**Tempo.** Tempo in the advance is achieved and maintained through:

- balanced groupings derived from robust planning that enable subordinates to deal rapidly and decisively with contingencies as they arise
- an aggressive bypass policy
- effective mission command
- timely warning orders\(^4\) and clear fragmentary and/or confirmatory orders that facilitate rapid transition between tasks inside the enemy’s decision cycle.

**Security.** Security for the advance comprises a number of measures:

- The first of these is the mandated opsec associated with the acquisition of information, its assessment and dissemination, and the subsequent delivery of orders at relevant levels.

- The second is the security measures normally deployed for early warning, which include the tactical groupings for the advance addressed later in this section.

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4. Quick attack warning and confirmatory orders are an example of this mechanism.
• The third is the standard comsec measures required for the conduct of any tactical tasks. While combat net radio or digital text/graphical orders are usually the norm, appropriate comsec protocols must be observed.

The physical security of troops should be maintained as part of CAT SOP. This means that any advance is best launched from a secure area and must include the physical security to ensure that combat support and CSS FEs are suitably protected as the lines of communication become extended.

Routes. While an advance on multiple routes is normally preferable in order to heighten the enemy’s dilemma, use of a single route may be necessary for a number of reasons. These may include terrain restrictions and limited CSS support. Regardless, every effort should be made to disguise the time and place of the friendly force main effort. Objectives or threat CVs in depth can also be secured or threatened by deploying a force using special insertion techniques on air and sea avenues of approach (AAs). Airborne (including airmobile) or amphibious forces deployed ahead of the covering force can achieve surprise and may assist in maintaining momentum. An example of this is the deployment of an airmobile force for a coup de main, to seize key or decisive terrain. Once such forces are deployed, the ground force needs to conduct a rapid link-up and continue the advance; however, such deployment is likely to compromise surprise and can signal the formation’s main effort. Special insertions carry substantial risk and must be carefully planned. In particular, inserted forces must not be deployed too far ahead of the main body or against targets which they are unlikely to overcome before the link-up with the main body.

Fire support. Fire support is a critical enabler for the successful advance. The main challenge is the orchestration of support to forces travelling along multiple routes, where dispersion provides deception on the one hand, but a problem for concentration of firepower on the other. Gun areas are planned in advance along the route, and leapfrogging indirect fire assets is considered a norm to keep pace with rapidly advancing units. Momentum can also be enhanced through the airmobile insertion of JFTs, potentially in advance of ground manoeuvre elements. Further information is contained in LWD 3-4-1, Employment of Artillery.

Air situation. The success of the advance is influenced by the air situation. Friendly air superiority maximises the force’s freedom of action and reduces risk if it moves out of range of the indirect fires. It allows the wide employment of aviation assets and TUAVs and the deployment of manoeuvre forces by airborne (including airmobile) means. The application of air power requires reliable communications and close orchestration between all elements of the advancing force and the supporting aircraft. Without air superiority, or at least air parity, an advance is problematic. An unfavourable air situation can be partially offset by the employment of GBAD but this is a scarce resource in anything other than a coalition operation. Therefore only the highest priority friendly capabilities are likely to be protected. While an advance by night, or in poor visibility caused by bad weather, may lessen the effectiveness of enemy air superiority, the wide and well-planned use of deception measures is always recommended.
Groupings

Groupings are an important aspect of control in the advance, providing a commonly understood and applied framework for tasks and disposition of FEs. Figure 3–9 depicts the principal indicative groups for an advance (on a single axis).

![Figure 3–9: Indicative groups in the advance](image)

The standard groupings depicted here may often depart from the requirements on the ground, particularly in the case of complex environments, such as very restricted and restricted natural terrain and specific urban terrain. For example, in some cases it may only be possible, or necessary, for one force to act as flank guard or flank security, or it may not be possible at all, particularly if the force is dispersed over multiple routes and fighting power is diluted. The size and composition of various CATs allocated these responsibilities depends on the nature of the force, the mission and the environment, particularly where airmobile forces are a part of the team. These groupings are described briefly in the following paragraphs.

**Covering force.** A covering force is deployed by the highest tactical commander conducting the advance, to provide continuous information to the advancing force and deny the enemy any knowledge of friendly intentions. Covering force tasks are characterised by active reconnaissance, as a covering force focuses on...
protecting the main body rather than on a terrain or enemy objective. It achieves this through physical protection and gathering information. The covering force also supports the commander in shaping the OE by influencing the enemy through deception (concealing the main effort), bold manoeuvre and aggressive action.

**Advance guard.** An advance guard is deployed ahead of the main body to facilitate its movement. Normally, an advance guard should be deployed, if possible, along each major route along which a force is advancing. The advance guard is generally grouped into a vanguard and a main guard. Ideally, the main guard includes a second vanguard which can assume the role if the initial vanguard becomes decisively engaged or combat ineffective due to casualties and/or fatigue. The level of command sets the size and composition of these forces. It is the leading element of an advancing force and is allotted tasks that may include:

- clearing away minor opposition
- fixing the enemy until the main body deploys or bypasses
- finding and exploiting weaknesses in enemy defences
- preventing the main body meeting unexpected opposition
- route and obstacle reconnaissance and reduction, including countering of IED measures.

**Main body.** The main body comprises the remainder of the formation or subordinate units, if advancing on multiple routes, and follows behind the advance guard. The forward elements of the main body are grouped and prepared to assume the role of the advance guard, and minor regrouping may be required to provide the new advance guard with appropriate fighting power. The tactical manoeuvre of the main body depends on the number of routes available, with the rate of advance varying in accordance with the threat, environment and bypass policy. Arrangements for the movement of the main body must be flexible and carefully controlled, as it must conform to the tactical plan and be able to react to unexpected developments.

**Flank and rearguard(s).** Flank guards and rearguards (or screens) may be deployed to provide security to the main body by protecting against enemy observation, direct fire and surprise attack. The composition of flank guards and rearguards or screens depends on the tasks allocated to them and the assessed threat. They can be tasked to delay (in the case of a guard) or to provide early warning (in the case of a screen) of a threat force, but it is unlikely that they will have sufficient fighting power to defeat a substantial threat force. Flanking forces move tactically, parallel with the main body, maintaining focal and, if possible, wider area surveillance, occupying key terrain and being prepared to react or rapidly transition for tasks against any threat. Its activities are closely coordinated with the advance guards and rearguards. Critically, if screens are employed they must be positioned to give sufficient time and space for the main body (or reserve) to react to identified threats.
Reserve. Elements of the main body must also constitute the reserve for the advancing formation, tasked with rapid deployment for any major tasks envisaged by the commander or for unexpected threats. Reserve tasks could include clearance of a route, including laterals along it, or destruction of bypassed threats. This latter task is often allotted to a follow-on unit. The location of the reserve is determined by the likely tasks and the nature of its mobility.

Control measures

Bypass. A clear bypass policy must be given in orders, indicating the size of the threat, which may be bypassed, at what level and to what depth. In general, the fewest possible restrictions should be placed on bypassing tasks to maintain momentum. However, in practice, this may be difficult until the actual strength of the enemy can be determined. When ordering a position to be bypassed, the commander must initially fix, or mask, the enemy to prevent interference with the continued advance and, in the longer term, to destroy the bypassed enemy.

Graphic control measures. Graphic control measures relevant to the conduct of the advance are shown in Figure 3–10. Route and road management are critical to the advance in order to ensure that forces can manoeuvre in the battlespace in accordance with the commander’s tactical plan at the appropriate rate of advance. In preparing the plan, the demarcation of responsibilities for routes and control measures between tactical HQ should be clearly understood. Once issued, a battlespace circulation control plan is usually coordinated by the MPs.
Figure 3–10: Graphic control measures for the advance

**Pursuit**

Pursuit is an offensive tactic designed to catch, cut off or destroy an enemy attempting to withdraw or extract itself. In the advance, a withdrawing enemy is generally assumed to be conducting a thoroughly planned retrograde action or series of actions. A pursuit differs from the advance or subsequent exploitation in the attack in that it focuses on rapid follow-up of an enemy who has lost cohesion and whose defensive plan has collapsed.

**Purpose**

A pursuit is conducted aggressively to follow up and capture or destroy a shattered and withdrawing enemy.
Description

The pursuit may follow a significant, general enemy reversal when their resistance and morale is considerably reduced. At such times, the enemy is likely to be severely dislocated, at least temporarily, and commanders must act boldly, preparing to take risks if a pursuit is to be effective. The pursuit, however, is not a means unto itself; it should be directed at neutralising or destroying the enemy COG, and subordinates must always maintain the commander’s intent. That said, in a pursuit the enemy’s COG may already have been defeated. In this case, the aim of the pursuit should be the destruction of enemy forces (and, in turn, the will of the remnants to carry on the fight) when their cohesion has been broken.

Successful pursuit requires unrelenting pressure to prevent the enemy regaining cohesion and preparing new defences. This may dictate that troops and equipment be pushed to the limit of their endurance. Commanders must be mindful of this risk and avoid early culmination.

Conditions which permit a pursuit may be fleeting, and commanders must be alert to the opportunities created by shock action and surprise on the enemy. The continuous collection, analysis and dissemination of intelligence is essential if such opportunities are to be identified and exploited. As the pursuit develops, CCIRs should focus on identifying routes, potential delay sites, choke points and likely enemy ambush and reserved demolition sites.

Basic considerations

While the basic considerations for the pursuit are the same as for the advance, the highly dynamic situation requires bolder action and acceptance of more ill-defined risk. Although commanders may not be able to plan effectively for a pursuit, or allocate specific forces for such a purpose, the higher commander’s staff MAP should provide for such contingencies in terms of branches and sequels. Consequently, forces allocated a pursuit task may likely come from outside the formation, or, as an opportunity arises, be constituted quickly to transition from their current task to the pursuit.

Groupings, organisation and tasks. Groupings may initially follow those for the advance and, in any case, any pursuit force requires similar groupings for security purposes and effective C2. Usually, pursuits demand a specifically designated CAT as the pursuit force, and a similar arrangement made for a follow-up force. Such groupings should be determined in the higher commander’s contingency planning. The pursuit should be organised on as many routes as possible, either parallel to or ahead of the main axis of advance, to exert concerted pressure on the enemy. Assigned objectives must be deep and mission command principles widely applied to facilitate subordinates’ opportunities to use innovation and initiative. Where a pursuit is anticipated, the pursuing forces should be progressively withdrawn from previous actions and tasks to ensure that they are balanced and ready for the pursuit task. In deciding the composition of the pursuit and follow-up force, it may be necessary to decentralise command of joint fires,
M&S, and CSS assets. Once formed, these forces may be allocated the following pursuit tasks:

• aggressive pursuit of the enemy
• cutting off the withdrawing force, or
• following up the friendly pursuing force.

Maintaining contact. Contact must be maintained with the enemy throughout the pursuit and, when opportunities arise, their rear elements can be enveloped and destroyed, provided this is consistent with the commander’s intent. Maximum use of manoeuvre can dislocate and disrupt the enemy: forces can be used to manoeuvre in-depth to seize key terrain, neutralise targetable CVs, encircle the enemy and cut off escape routes. Airborne and airmobile forces are well suited to these types of techniques and methods.

Follow-up forces. The follow-up forces’ main responsibility is preventing the enemy from closing in behind the pursuit force. Other responsibilities include:

• securing routes for sustainment
• neutralising or destroying a bypassed threat
• relieving elements of the pursuit force who may have been left behind to picket the enemy or secure vital assets (VAs)
• developing other routes and alternate axes of advance
• countering the movement of enemy elements into areas previously secured by the pursuit force.

Joint support. Joint support to a pursuit is vital, and air-delivered fires, including the use of aviation, is particularly effective in disruption. Close coordination of these assets is essential to minimise the risk of fratricide during high-tempo actions and tasks, and during times of poor visibility or at night. Airborne platforms and sensors such as TUAVs are especially effective in providing real-time information on the enemy. Their use should be thoroughly planned for any contingencies requiring a likely pursuit.

Combat service support. The concerns highlighted for CSS in the advance are magnified and compounded in the pursuit. The greater tempo and rapidly lengthening lines of communication place greater strain on CSS and increase their vulnerability. Special provision must be made for their protection.

Offensive techniques and procedures

Techniques

Offensive techniques are the mechanisms enabling the application of offensive tactics.
Airborne assault. Airborne assaults involve the delivery of paratroop assault forces and their equipment onto a predetermined landing area from aircraft in flight. Such techniques can be conducted by paratroops using static line, free-fall or stand-off techniques. The purpose of airborne assault, which is one phase of the overall airborne mission, is to insert airborne forces by parachute, by air-land or by a combination of both, either directly onto the objective or into adjacent drop zones, LZs or airfields, for a specific task.

Air landing. Air landing techniques are used in the same circumstances as airborne techniques, which includes airmobile and airdrop delivery in combination with the main objective of reinforcement and resupply after the initial assault has succeeded. The purpose of air landing is to deliver combat, combat support, CSS and command support personnel, weapons and equipment safely to a secure landing area, largely by fixed-wing assets. Current practice suggests use of a combination of fixed-wing and rotary wing assets is most likely, in coordination with airdrop procedures.

Airmobile assault. Airmobile assault is a technique conducted by a ground force commander where it is not appropriate to use ground forces on their own, or to save time and maintain tempo, through the seizing of key terrain by coup de main. The purpose of airmobile assault is to conduct deliberate, precisely planned and vigorously executed offensive action, through a combination of rotary wing and ground force assets, to seize specific objectives using surprise and psychological shock.

Amphibious assault. Amphibious assault is a joint endeavour harnessing sea, air and land FEs to accomplish an assigned mission ashore. The amphibious assault is a military mission launched from the sea by naval and landing forces embarked on ships or craft (comprising the amphibious task force) with the principal task of establishing landing forces ashore to accomplish the assigned mission. Importantly, its purpose is not to secure a beachhead but to achieve tactical objectives, such as seizing and securing a point of entry for follow-on forces or defeat of the enemy itself.

Ambush. An ambush is a surprise attack from a concealed position by a force lying in wait seeking to destroy or disrupt the enemy through the application of overwhelming firepower. It is usually a brief encounter and does not require the seizure or holding of terrain. Ambushes are laid for the following purposes:
- decisively engage the enemy to inflict heavy casualties with smaller forces
- shape the OE by disrupting the enemy’s freedom of movement
- gain information through capture of prisoners, including their documents, weapons and stores
- provide security by restricting enemy movement and reducing their ability to obtain information.

Attack by fire. A CAT may be required to neutralise or destroy an enemy force from a suitable distance. A commander has the opportunity to destroy it through
the employment of the attack by fire (ABF) technique. The purpose of the ABF is to employ direct fires to destroy an enemy from a distance, normally used when the mission does not dictate, or support, occupation of the objective. It can have the aim of destroying, suppressing, fixing or deceiving the enemy.

**Support by fire.** An SBF is a technique in which a manoeuvre FE moves to a position where it can engage the enemy by direct fire in support of another manoeuvring force, such as an assault force. The use of the SBF position is to increase the supported force’s freedom of manoeuvre by placing direct fires on an objective that is to be assaulted, breached or cleared by a friendly force. Overwatch is a passive form of SBF in which the supporting element observes the target area and responds to identified threats.

**Corridor thrust.** Corridor thrust is an advance on a narrow frontage, clearing in detail, securing and defending the axis to provide a cleared corridor. The purpose of the corridor thrust is to advance, on a narrow front, with detailed clearance and security of the terrain covered, including fortified positions.

**Sweep.** Large areas may need to be cleared following successful attacks, necessitating the requirement for a sweep. The purpose of a sweep is to advance on a broad front, systematically clearing any residual threats, usually inferior in strength and capability and likely to be demoralised, from specified sectors. Enemy avoiding the sweep can then be contained, seized, blocked or ambushed.\(^5\)

**Coup de Main.** A coup de main offers the commander an opportunity to either strike at the CVs enabling the enemy COG or seize an objective that forms part of a DE in an operation. A coup de main also weakens enemy cohesion and saps will by creating surprise and uncertainty. A coup de main is designed to seize an objective of such significance that its loss to the enemy may have a decisive effect on the current battle. It relies on speed, shock and surprise for success.

**Raid.** A raid is an attack within enemy-held territory to accomplish a specific task with no intention of holding ground. A raid is an offensive technique involving swift penetration of hostile territory, followed by a withdrawal, for the following purposes:

- to disrupt, dislocate and create chaos through the targeting of enemy HQ, installations, key points (KPs) and logistic elements within threat-controlled terrain
- to secure or capture information, equipment or personnel
- to shape the OE through deception, confusion or harassment
- to destroy an objective, such as a high-value or high-pay-off target.

**Diversionary attack (demonstration and feint).** A demonstration is an attack or show of force, without contacting the enemy, and usually forms a part of an overall deception plan. The feint is an offensive technique involving actual contact with

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5. Refer to LWP-G 3-9-4, *Operations in Cold Conditions* for detailed descriptions of sweep and corridor thrust.
enemy. It is this contact that distinguishes a feint from a demonstration. The purpose of a diversionary attack, which may be a demonstration or a feint, involves a show of force whereby a force attacks or threatens to attack a target or objective other than the main target or objective for the purpose of drawing enemy defensive resources away from the main effort.

Reconnaissance in force. Reconnaissance in force is similar to a raid but with more limited physical objectives, to fight for information as part of the commander’s ISR plan. The purpose of a reconnaissance in force is to induce the enemy to disclose the location, size, strength and disposition, or possibly the intention, of the force by making them respond to offensive action.

Obstacle breach and gap crossing. Although considered primarily an offensive technique, obstacle breach and gap crossing may also be conducted in other contexts, such as a defensive or retrograde river crossing. Furthermore, while the fundamental considerations apply at CT, battle group and formation level, such as the methodology - secure, obscure, suppress, reduce, assault - obstacle breach and gap crossing are best described at formation level.

Obstacle breach and gap crossing

The decision to breach, or cross, an obstacle requires careful consideration. Breaching and crossing an obstacle is seldom an end in itself, but is often a DE as part of a higher command tactical plan. Successful obstacle breaching and crossing requires careful orchestration of all BOS.

Obstacles are defined as an impediment or restriction to movement which normally requires special equipment, munitions and procedures to overcome. These may include:

- inland waterways
- very restricted non-urban terrain
- all types of minefields
- antitank ditches
- extensive wire obstacles
- extensive arrays of booby traps and IEDs spread randomly along any route, particularly in urban environments.

Purpose

The purpose of obstacle breaching and gap crossing techniques is to minimise the effect of obstacles and enemy action on friendly forces M&S.

Description

Breaching and crossing is a tactical task to move to the far side of an obstacle and may be conducted in contact with the enemy or unopposed. Basic considerations
and command, control and communications procedures for offensive tactics apply to all obstacle breaching and crossing tasks. A breach is a synchronised combined arms task, conducted often in contact with an enemy, to project fighting power to the far side. Ground movement occurs through lanes that have been created by the reduction of the obstacle. Two specific types of obstacle breaching and crossing tasks may be conducted, usually as part of a formation plan: obstacle breaching and crossing, and a deliberate river crossing. These are addressed in detail further on in this section.

**Critical information requirements.** Two critical information requirements influence the method chosen by the commander to negotiate an obstacle and whether or not to conduct a breach. These are as follows:

- **Type and extent.** The type and extent of the obstacle determines whether or not it requires reduction, bridging or rafting in order for it to be crossed, and the specific techniques required. Some elements of a formation may be capable of crossing the obstacle unaided while the remainder require it to be reduced or bridged. Obstacle threats may take the form of various types of booby traps and IEDs, which impede movement because they cannot be readily identified, require clearance by munitions experts and/or can be remotely detonated.

- **Siting.** The obstacle may or may not be integrated into the enemy defensive plan, or simply scattered along any routes as part of ‘nuisance mining’ that can be remotely detonated or detonated by foot or vehicle pressure. Once an assessment has been made regarding siting, friendly forces can:
  - bypass, mindful of a bluff into seeking a route where an ambush is laid
  - attempt to capture intact an existing gap or crossing in large obstacles
  - cross without reduction
  - breach; or
  - undertake clearance of a route or area that has been booby trapped or known to contain IEDs.

**Tactical application**

**Planning.** Planning considerations for a breach and a crossing involve the following:

- **Intelligence.** Thorough IPB is essential to the success of an obstacle breaching and crossing task. The early identification of obstacles and the breaching requirements allows time for commanders and staff to orchestrate the necessary forces and materiel. Sufficient ISR assets need to be tasked to collect the information to support decision-making.

- **Selection of objectives.** Immediate objectives are selected to secure positions from which the enemy is able to fire directly onto the obstacle.
Subsequent objectives are selected to create a larger area from which a break-out can be launched. The selection of these objectives should allow sufficient space for the development of the break-out task. The relationship between immediate and subsequent objectives is illustrated in the schematic layout of an indicative obstacle crossing (see Figure 3–11).

Figure 3–11: Schematic layout of an indicative obstacle crossing

- **Orchestration.** Obstacle crossing and breaching tasks require precise orchestration of the assault, crossing and combat support forces. They are complex tasks that must be completed within tight time and space constraints, and orchestration is achieved through the use of the reverse planning sequence (as for an airmobile assault techniques), through simple C2 measures and thorough rehearsals.

- **Security.** An inherent characteristic of obstacle crossing is the concentration and channelling of the formation, making it vulnerable to enemy fires. Maximum force protection measures are necessary to reduce this risk. The application of joint fires during the assault is similar to that required for the attack; however, assets must also be tasked to suppress the enemy and obscure their observation to shield those FEs engaged in reducing and crossing the obstacle. GBAD is often required to protect crossing sites from likely air attack.

- **Deception.** Disguising the intention to conduct an obstacle crossing is extremely difficult, but every attempt should be made to deceive the enemy regarding the location, timings and means of the crossing, or the intention to bypass the obstacle. Ideally, when commanders intend to bypass an obstacle, they should seek to convince the enemy that they are going to
cross it; this means any deception plan needs to have sufficient resources allocated to it to be convincing.

- **Reserves.** Obstacle crossing tasks rarely succeed in establishing all planned crossing sites due to enemy interference, poor weather, difficult terrain and equipment failure. A 50 per cent reserve of prepared crossing sites and reduction assets is recommended. The commander should also consider constituting a reserve based on a manoeuvre CAT in the same manner as the advance and attack.

- **Traffic control.** A comprehensive traffic control plan is required to control movement from assembly areas through the obstacle and to dispersal points on the other side of the obstacle. A traffic control organisation with its own communications must implement this plan, with the focus on ensuring all routes, lanes, traffic control plans and waiting areas are well marked by day and night.

**Stages.** An obstacle breach and crossing normally involves the following stages:

- **Preparatory stage.** The preparatory stage includes detailed reconnaissance to determine the characteristics of the obstacle and the breaching requirements, select assembly areas, identify gun positions, locate routes and equipment construction sites, and select objectives.

- **Execution stage.** During the execution stage, crossings take place in as many locations as possible, consistent with the availability of manoeuvre FEs, joint fires and crossing equipment. The immediate objectives are secured, allowing forces to cross the obstacle unhindered and commence the build-up.

- **Build-up stage.** The build-up starts once the immediate objective is secured, crossing sites are operational and sufficient area has been secured to accommodate the break-out forces. After a sufficient build-up of fighting power, the subsequent objectives are assaulted and secured. The build-up stage includes exploitation and reorganisation.

- **Break-out stage.** The break-out is conducted as soon as possible after the build-up has been completed. The break-out could be a prelude to an attack or the continuation of an advance.

**Obstacle breaching**

**Enemy actions.** The enemy is likely to make maximum use of mines, wire and antitank ditching, in conjunction with existing obstacles, covered by direct and indirect fire to enhance the defences. These are sited to force friendly forces to attempt to bypass the obstacle or commit assets to a breach, thereby shaping us to conform to the threat defensive plan. Complex obstacles pose a particular challenge, as they require the employment of more than one means of reducing the obstacle, giving the enemy the opportunity to destroy friendly force mobility assets that could otherwise be utilised for subsequent operations.
Techniques. While the techniques for breaching different types of obstacles may vary, the fundamental characteristics of breaching do not. Breaching may be conducted generally as follows:

- **In-stride breach.** The ‘in-stride’ breach (ie, from the line of march in an advance) uses pre-planned, well-trained and well-rehearsed breaching techniques and clearance procedures by designated CATs against a weak defence or very simple obstacles. This task would be used by a formation during the advance or during a quick attack, taking advantage of surprise and initiative to cross the obstacle with minimal loss of momentum.

- **Deliberate breach.** Most obstacle breaches conducted at formation level, however, are considered deliberate tasks characterised by thorough reconnaissance, detailed planning, extensive preparation and comprehensive rehearsals.

Groupings. Groupings for a deliberate breaching task involve the following forces:

- support force
- breach force
- assault force.

These forces do not include a commander’s reserves and any separately allocated forces for deception plans or post-assault exploitation. Detailed tasks are contained in LWP-G 3-6-8, Combined Arms Obstacle Breaching.

Sequence. The execution stage of an obstacle breach is conducted according to an established procedure - suppress, obscure; secure, reduce and assault. Each of these establishes the precondition for the next. Due to the high-risk nature of breaching tasks, proceeding to the subsequent step before achieving the necessary outcome may result in unacceptably high casualties. These steps are described as follows:

- **Step 1 – Suppress.** The support force uses direct fire, joint fires and electronic attack to suppress the enemy from engaging or observing friendly forces involved in the breach.

- **Step 2 – Obscure.** Obscuration is employed by the support force to degrade enemy observation of the obstacle reduction and the passage of the assault force. The obscuration plan seeks to minimise the impact on own force weapon systems and observation.

- **Step 3 – Secure.** The crossing guard secures the crossing sites to prevent the enemy hindering obstacle reduction and passage through the lanes. The far side of the obstacle is usually secured by direct fire, although in some cases it may be physically occupied before attempting to reduce the obstacle. This can include the deployment of specialist manoeuvre elements such as anti-armour.
Step 4 – Reduce. The crossing force reduces the obstacle by creating lanes to allow assault forces to pass. The aim is to create as many lanes as possible, noting that some lanes may become unusable due to enemy action. Reserve lanes are created to provide redundancy.

Step 5 – Assault. The breaching task is completed when the assault force has assaulted and destroyed any threat capable of interfering with the crossing site from the far side of the obstacle. Enemy positions covering the obstacle may be designated as immediate objectives for the assault force.

River crossing

Enemy actions. The enemy faces distinct problems when defending a river, large creek or waterway line, whether wet or dry. A large force is needed to cover the full extent of any river or waterway line, and the defence may lack depth as a consequence. If the attacker can destroy or neutralise those forces sited along the river line, the depth positions become more vulnerable. Once the defenders are unwilling or unable to dominate the river, it may become dead ground to them and thus force them to fight on ground well back from the river. It is worth noting that rivers have never proven an insurmountable obstacle to an advancing force in recent history. A river or extensive waterway can form an integrated part of an enemy obstacle plan in that it can have the following effects:

- check attackers, forcing them to concentrate near crossing sites and causing them to bring forward heavy equipment, thereby consuming time and presenting concentrated targets to the defender
- separate dismounted assault forces from their support, thereby making it easier for the defender to defeat them in detail.

All river crossings may be classified as either offensive or defensive (sometimes called retrograde).

Types. There are three types of river crossings, as follows:

- Seizure of a bridge. The most effective way to maintain offensive momentum in order to deny the enemy time to consolidate defences is to capture a bridge intact. This may be done by:
  - advancing at a rate greater than anticipated by the threat
  - approaching from an axis not anticipated by the threat
  - conducting a coup de main.

- Hasty river crossing. When the attacker finds that it is not possible to secure existing crossing points, a hasty river crossing is conducted. Hasty river crossings are conducted across wet or dry gaps. The aim of a hasty river crossing is to get across the obstacle quickly and well in advance of the enemy’s consolidation on the far bank. The hasty river crossing commences from a LD that may be up to 5 km from the water obstacle crossing points and is a continuation of an attack across the river with no intentional pause at the water to prepare, so that there is no loss of
momentum. This is possible when the enemy has not had time to adequately defend a crossing point and the river is not a major obstacle. A hasty river crossing is preferable to a deliberate crossing provided the risks have been considered and appropriately mitigated. Decentralised control is a feature of such a crossing at formation level. The formation may use organic, existing or expedient crossing means, but additional support is often necessary, using assets from outside the formation. Success depends on:

- sound intelligence provided by engineers, assault pioneers and reconnaissance elements of the covering force
- the availability of amphibious equipment or airborne assault capabilities
- assault bridging being positioned well forward.

**Deliberate river crossing.** Deliberate river crossings may also be conducted over wet or dry gaps. A deliberate river crossing is an attack across the river after a halt to make the detailed preparations necessary to ensure success, and is conducted when a hasty crossing is not feasible or has failed. Strong enemy opposition can require a deliberate crossing, success depending on those factors for a hasty crossing. Before a deliberate crossing is attempted, the commander must plan to minimise the enemy’s ability to interfere with the crossing, particularly on the river line. The deliberate crossing involves:

- detailed planning and maximum preparation by all BOS
- centralised control, achieved by establishing commanders for each group within the crossing task
- thorough preparations, to include the time to perform extensive reconnaissance and full-scale rehearsals, develop alternate traffic routes and stockpile logistics
- the concentration of forces and crossing equipment
- a high degree of obscuration and suppression from by joint fires
- where possible, multiple crossing points.

**Groupings.** Groupings for a deliberate river crossing are different from those required by breaching forces and involve the following:

- an assault force
- a manoeuvre support force
- a bridgehead force
- a break-out force that crosses the river behind the bridgehead force and attacks out of the bridgehead.
Sequence. The execution stage of a deliberate river crossing is likely to be conducted in the following sequence:

- **Assault.** The assault force, comprising a dismounted CAT crossing in assault boats and/or a mounted CAT swimming the river, crosses and seizes the far bank, while the support force provides SBF. The immediate objectives are secured, neutralising enemy direct fires on the crossing areas from positions on the far bank. The assault is completed when immediate objectives are secured.

- **Preparation and construction of crossing sites.** Preparation and construction starts when the assault force has effectively neutralised enemy direct fires into the crossing area. The crossing force prepares routes and crossing sites, clears any minor obstacles, and constructs rafts and prepares boats to be used for the crossing. Reserve rafts, boats and crossing sites are prepared to provide redundancy.

- **Crossing.** As soon as the crossing sites are open, rafts and boats are used to move follow-on FEs of the formation across the river in priority order. Once the immediate objectives are secure and sufficient assets available, bridges are constructed and opened as soon as they are completed. The remainder of the formation, including the support force, crosses the river as soon as the bridges are open. The crossing force then prepares a BHO of responsibility of the crossing area to a follow-on formation.

Layouts and control measures. River crossings can be conducted as either offensive or defensive (retrograde). Figure 3–12 depicts the layout and basic control measures for an offensive deliberate river crossing. Figure 3–13 depicts the layout and basic control measures for a defensive river crossing and Figure 3–14 depicts defensive river crossing stages.
Figure 3–12: Layout of an offensive deliberate river crossing depicting basic control measures

Figure 3–13: Layout of a defensive river crossing depicting basic control measures
Figure 3–14: Stages of the defensive river crossing

Further information on river crossings is detailed in LWP-CA (ENGR) 2-1-2, River Crossing.

Minefield breaching

Minefield breaching is planned and executed in the same manner as any artificial obstacle breaching task. Success is largely dependent on obtaining adequate information and following the suppress, obscure, secure, reduce and assault method. To formulate a complete minefield breaching plan, the following detailed information is needed:

- the forward edge of the minefield, its length and depth
- the types of mines and the presence of trip-wires, antipersonnel devices, anti-lifting devices, booby traps and IEDs
- mine density
- the suitability of ground for A, B and C vehicles
- the location of, and the approaches and exits to and from, gaps and mine-free areas
- the location of enemy positions covering the minefield
- details of wire, anti-armour and other obstacles sited in conjunction with the minefield.

Breaching methods. Various methods can be employed to breach minefields. Factors include the nature of the terrain, the types of mines in the field and the degree of opposition expected. For antipersonnel mines, silent hand breaching
using prodders and detectors may still be an option at night, but this force must be covered sufficiently by SBF. For antitank and mixed minefields, hand prodding and detectors can still be used; however, for practical purposes, mine clearing vehicles are the preferred option.

**Conclusion**

Offensive tactics achieve decision but should not be considered in isolation; success is underpinned by appropriate application of security tactics that inform decision-making and mitigate risks associated with undertaking offensive action. Furthermore, timely offensive action can also prove decisive in the defence by halting the enemy’s momentum and defeating their main effort at the point of decision. This is discussed in [Chapter 4](#).
Chapter 4
Defensive tactics

Introduction
Although defensive tactics can sometimes deny success to an enemy, they seldom ensure victory. For this reason military theorists have considered defence the less decisive form of warfighting, regarding it as a temporary expedient. Conversely, Clausewitz also maintained defence to be the strongest form of warfighting, as the advantages of cover and concealment, advanced siting of weapons, shorter lines of communication and activity on familiar terrain generally favour defence. With the advent of precision guided weapons, however, the need for protected mobility, camouflage, concealment, cover and electronic signature management is imperative. Indeed the use of urban terrain for defensive purposes should be considered where practicable.

The main advantage enjoyed by the attacker is the initial choice of when and where to strike, and the major challenge for the defender is to negate that advantage. Critically, the defender must remain offensively-minded so that the initiative is not surrendered totally to the attacker.

Purpose
Defensive tactics are applied for the following purposes:
• defeat the enemy on ground of the defender's own choosing
• deny enemy access to decisive terrain
• deny enemy access to protected populations
• provide a firm base for other activities, such as remote and deep recovery
• gain time to prepare offensive manoeuvre
• protect or shield the operations of another force
• permit the conduct of offensive action by another force elsewhere
• avoid destruction or unacceptable losses; or
• conform to higher directives.

2. Clearly the use of urban terrain in close proximity to the civilian population must be considered in relation to international conventions on war.
Description

The ultimate aim of defensive tactics is to create the conditions for offensive action, leading to decisive defeat of the enemy. This is achieved through use of deception, terrain, obstacles, available forces and joint fires to commit the enemy’s main effort into friendly EAs for subsequent destruction by counter-attack.3 Defending commanders must seek to create conditions in which the enemy’s attack is brought to a culminating point (that point in time and space where the attack becomes overextended), their momentum is exhausted, and the enemy commander can no longer exploit the situation.

The successful defender resists and contains the enemy where necessary while actively exploiting every opportunity to resume the offensive. Initially, opportunities are likely to be limited and local; however, they can become more significant as the situation progresses, particularly when the defender takes aggressive steps to uncover enemy vulnerabilities and confuse or disorganise them. The defender must create the opportunities to CATK when the attacker’s vulnerabilities are exposed. While reactive measures may halt the enemy, timely offensive action enhances the chance of success.

To dominate defensively, a comprehensive appreciation and understanding of the total OE is required by commanders at all levels. Importantly, selection of defensive positions and EAs will often be complicated or restricted by the presence of heavily populated areas and critical infrastructure within the OE.

The three defensive tactics are:

- **Defence.** This includes mobile and area defence. Mobile defence requires a high degree of mobility to achieve its mission and utilises all available resources to generate this mobility. It is particularly suited to forces operating over wide areas to enable forces to concentrate combat power quickly. Area defence, on the other hand, requires occupation of an area within which the force seeks to gain tactical dominance and weaken the enemy to the extent that offensive actions can be resumed or mounted.

- **Delay.** Delay is a tactic to gain time, but it can also be used for deception and to dictate a degree of control over enemy actions to manoeuvre them into a situation to friendly advantage.

- **Withdrawal.** A withdrawal occurs when a force disengages from the enemy in accordance with the commander’s intent and can be employed regularly during mobile defence or delay to accomplish the overall aim of resuming offensive action.

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3. Destruction of the enemy by decisive CATK denies them the opportunity to establish their own defensive positions and inflict unnecessary casualties on the friendly force.
Area defence

Defensive action is undertaken to provide favourable conditions for offensive action. In so doing, it remains aggressive in nature and employs a wide variety of techniques to regain the initiative and resume offensive action.

Purpose

The purpose of area defence is to occupy an area within which a force seeks to gain tactical dominance to weaken a threat to the extent that offensive action can be mounted or resumed.

Description

The reasons for employing area defence may be varied, and area defence may not be an end in itself but merely a single facet of a continually changing battle plan. For example, an area defence battle may occur as part of a mobile defence to deflect a threat or block them in an EA. Area defence capitalises on the strength inherent in closely integrated and well-prepared forces on the ground of choice.

In area defence forces occupy and defend selected positions from which they aim to gain tactical dominance by forcing the enemy to assault the main defensive position. An area defence without a well-planned shaping effort is likely to take the full brunt of the enemy's fighting power. Shaping is achieved through the deployment of the covering force, guards and screens, and the use of obstacles. Once security forces are withdrawn and the enemy assault commences, heavy reliance is then placed on the ability of the forces in the defended areas to maintain their positions and dominate the terrain between them.

Reserves are used to counter enemy penetration, to CATK, or to respond to unforeseen or unplanned circumstances as it is essential that the cohesion of the area defence is maintained. Ideally, the enemy is absorbed into a framework of prepared positions, mutually supporting firepower and obstacles that channel, or canalise, the enemy into prepared EAs or prevent them from penetrating key defensive areas. The major EA is specified by the formation commander. Subordinate EAs may be determined at unit level.

An area defence is appropriate when one or more of the following circumstances exist:

- the terrain is suitable for area defence and the enemy possess greater mobility than the defender
- the enemy has greater air superiority
- the enemy is unlikely to employ weapons of mass destruction
- there is a requirement to retain specific terrain
- the terrain restricts manoeuvre by a defending force
- time is available for the construction of defensive positions and the preparation of obstacles
Basic considerations

The basic considerations for area defence is as follows:

- use of terrain
- mutual support
- use of reserves
- all-round defence
- depth
- security
- fire support
- orchestration.

Use of terrain. When formulating the plan, the commander must evaluate, in relation to the mission, all of the key terrain in the assigned AO; some of this key terrain is designated as decisive terrain. It is only by assessing the relative importance of areas of key terrain first, and then eliminating the less important, that a commander can make a sound judgment about the decisive terrain. Decisive terrain and key terrain are relative to the level of command. What is decisive terrain to a forward BG commander may only be key terrain to the formation commander. Therefore, it is important that the higher tactical commander clearly states which ground is considered to be the decisive terrain and key terrain for the defence. Tasks are then allotted to prevent enemy access along the most likely approaches to that decisive terrain. The subordinate commander then selects own decisive terrain to deny the enemy access to the superior commander’s decisive terrain. This process is then repeated down to the lowest level of command. To ensure that immediate subordinates are adequately task-organised and resourced, commanders should consider the terrain and its occupation two command levels down and assign tasks one level down. When selecting terrain, commanders identify those areas in which the enemy can best be destroyed. Other terrain issues are as follows:

- the likely enemy SOM, including main axis of attack and other approaches, which influences the siting of named and targeted areas of interest
- the ability to shape the OE

4. Arguably, it is easier to encourage the enemy to go where they wish to go rather than attempt to force them elsewhere. This, too, should be considered when determining the disposition of friendly forces and obstacles.
• integrating existing (natural) and man-made obstacles
• siting EAs, including:
  • determining the most appropriate EAs to achieve the mission
  • identifying the development of the deliberate obstacle plan
  • siting key weapons systems
  • planning the protection of vulnerabilities and key weapons systems
  • planning for the synchronisation of BOS to achieve the mission
• the concealment of defended localities
• the frontage to be covered, the forces available and the resultant depth and concentration of forces
• the gaps between formations and BGs that must be covered by surveillance, observed fire and alternative or CPEN positions
• the need to structure the defence around anti-armour systems and obstacles, where the enemy has a strong armour capability
• the need for mutual support and the avoidance of establishing isolated defensive positions that could be defeated in detail
• the requirements for a covering force, screens, flank and rearguards and rear area security (RAS)
• the requirement for a reserve
• the areas for support weapons
• the location of HQ
• the location of combat support and CSS elements areas
• the requirement for suitable observation posts (OPs) for JFTs
• the time available for the preparation of the position.

**Mutual support.** Mutual support is that rendered by units to each other against a common enemy force because of their assigned tasks, their position relative to each other and the enemy, and their inherent capabilities. It refers to the degree of support provided by defended localities flanking each other (which at sub-unit level may include interlocking arcs of fire) within the defended area. At formation level it often refers to the degree of support provided by BGs to each other in the defended area of the AO. Mutual support increases the strength of any defensive position. There is often a conflict between the need for depth and the demand for mutual support across the front. If gaps are unavoidable they should be covered by obstacles and surveillance that can trigger responsive joint fires. Depending on

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5. Planning and developing EAs are described in detail in *LWP-CA (MTD CBT) 3-3-1, Mounted Minor Tactics.*
the nature of a gap, the location may be a possible CPEN task for a BG or formation reserve.

**Use of reserves.** Reserves provide the commander with the capability to act offensively during the defence and regain the initiative. In conjunction with formation HQ staff, the designated reserve commander should plan, and if practicable, rehearse each task in detail.6 While the defensive plan should be able to succeed without the use of reserves, they must still be established to cater for the following contingencies:

- **Spoiling attack.** The conduct of a spoiling attack may be considered to dislocate or disrupt an enemy attack in the process of forming up or assembling. Any spoiling attack should involve the synchronisation of all relevant and available BOS.

- **Counterpenetration.** The purpose of CPEN is to counter threat penetration into a defended zone, area or locality. This is described later in this chapter.

- **Counterattack.** A CATK may be required to regain a lost position or to cut off and destroy enemy units. The CATK is a critical task at all levels and, once committed, becomes the main effort. Reserves or dedicated CATK forces can be used for this task. This is described later in this chapter.

- **Reaction to the unexpected.** The most difficult tasks for the reserve are those which arise unexpectedly. Such tasks may be few if planning has been thorough, but they require quick decision-making and bold reaction in the fog of battle. Therefore, the composition of a reserve is relative to the uncertainty of the enemy’s capabilities and intentions, and it should be resourced so that it can repeatedly attack, regroup, move and attack again. Plans for a formation spoiling attack, a CPEN or a CATK must be developed to deal with the possibility of success or penetration on each major approach, based on a number of assumptions particular to that approach. It is essential that such assumptions are clearly stated in the orders or directives. Key assumptions may include:
  - the nature of the penetration, including size, shape and enemy strength and composition
  - the capacity of forward troops to support the reserve upon its commitment
  - the air situation, including likely requirement for GBAD.

- **Reconstitution.** It is usually very difficult to reconstitute a reserve in the heat of battle, particularly if the formation initially committing the reserve is under pressure. Once a commander has made the decision to commit the reserve, a new reserve should be designated immediately. These forces are often termed the ‘commander’s reserve’ and the ‘situational reserve’.

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6. Subject to the tactical situation, this may be a simple map rehearsal, a C2 rehearsal (via combat net radio or battle management system), a commanders’ walk-through or a force rehearsal, potentially on the actual terrain.
Commanders must make every effort to constitute new reserves (the situational reserve) regardless of how meagre the available forces might be. The situational reserve should be assembled, briefed and tasked to take over the initial reserve's remaining plans. This can be a confusing process, so every effort must be made to provide as much warning as possible to the commander of the situational reserve.\textsuperscript{7}

**Composition of reserves.** Composition of the reserve should be determined by the nature or range of its anticipated tasks and the circumstances under which it will be committed. For example, a CATK against an armour or mechanised enemy force in relatively open terrain will likely require an armour and aviation-heavy combined arms force while a CATK in urban terrain will require an 'infantry-heavy' combined arms force. Furthermore, the reserve will likely require priority of mobility support, joint fires and GBAD prior to commitment. In most cases a balanced CAT will be required for the reserve to be able to achieve a range of designated tasks.

**All-round defence.** All-round defence is achieved for a BP by siting discrete FEIs to cover specific arcs that protect the BP from attacks on multiple approaches. The more complete the degree of mutual support is within the formation and unit defensive framework, the less demanding is the requirement to fight on multiple approaches; That said, the availability of troops to tasks will almost invariably be limited so acceptance of some risk is inevitable. In this case patrols and OPs should be used to provide security on less likely enemy approaches or infiltration routes, particularly in complex terrain at night or in conditions of low visibility. Careful analysis of each approach to determine its capacity to support enemy assault forces of specific size and composition may also simplify the defender's dilemma in this context.

**Depth.** Depth is achieved through the positioning of forces and fire relative to each other and is the cumulative effect of all measures within the defended area. Defensive positions must be sited in depth so that, even if the attackers are able to penetrate the forward edge of the position, their momentum is halted as successive positions are met. The enemy is likely to concentrate their manoeuvre force and combat support at a specific point in the defensive layout to achieve a break-in that can be exploited. Depth is the method used to counter successful penetration through forcing the attacking threat to deal with these subsequent BPs. The defence starts as far forward as possible to progressively weaken the enemy to deny them the ability to generate sufficient combat power to defeat friendly forces on the main defensive position.\textsuperscript{8}

\textsuperscript{7} Potential situational reserves (and their commanders) may be identified during the planning process. For example, as a result of wargaming, it may be determined that one subordinate unit is to be prepared to provide a situational reserve in the event the enemy has penetrated another unit’s area, or vice versa.

\textsuperscript{8} Since enemy and friendly options for offensive manoeuvre are fundamentally the same, the practice of the defender envisaging the problem from the attacker’s perspective is a useful tool.
Security. Security is provided by the placement and actions of guards, screens, patrolling, comsec, counter-reconnaissance plans, silent registration of defensive fires and effective camouflage and concealment. Additionally, the importance of deception cannot be overstated. Area defence, regardless of its scale, involves a decisive commitment of forces to the defensive plan. An area defence’s static nature and limited ability to employ offensive manoeuvre makes it vulnerable, so maximum use should be made of deception and information actions. Deception is a key tool in shaping the battlespace, and commanders should seek to induce the enemy to attack areas of the defenders choosing where firepower is most effective, thereby leaving the enemy vulnerable to CATK. The techniques a commander may use to mislead the enemy include:

- offensive information dominance and influence actions
- avoiding stereotyped patterns
- use of track plans and access roads
- concealment of troop arrivals
- deceptive positioning of forces
- concealment of armour and gun positions
- movement deception
- communications deception
- dummy positions and other ruses.

Fire support. Each defended locality and area relies, in part, on the firepower of its higher or parent organisation, but integrated with direct fires into EAs. Joint fires can be used to:

- disrupt identified or suspected enemy FUPs
- separate infantry from armour in the assault stages
- close gaps in minefields
- obscure the main defensive position
- harass and suppress enemy direct fire support.

It should be coordinated to support the intent of any obstacles that have been placed and be prepared to support CPEN and CATK plans.

Orchestration. The orchestration of all BOS for the defence plan is the commander’s main challenge. This consideration occurs initially in the MAP and after consultation with BOS specialists to advise, and then apply, their capabilities and specific weapon systems to best advantage. Fire planning is most effective through orchestration at the highest level. The fire support plan is integrated with the obstacle plan, defensive positions, the CATK plan and the general design for battle, outlined in the commander’s guidance. Orchestration is confirmed through rehearsal.
Stages of area defence

Area defence is usually conducted in three stages:

- stage 1 – occupation and preparation of the position(s)
- stage 2 – the covering force battle
- stage 3 – the main defensive battle, including possible spoiling attack(s), CPEN and CATK.

Rarely will the defensive battle be fought as planned. Enemy reconnaissance and attacks at unexpected places and times may cause changes to CPEN and CATK plans. Positions may be overrun or destroyed or reserves may prematurely become committed so that regrouping within the formation may be necessary. Commander, staff and subordinates must continually reassess the plan as the battle develops and be prepared to adjust accordingly. Coordination is critical at all levels to ensure changes are not acted upon in isolation.

Occupation and preparation. Occupation and preparation of the area defence occurs in accordance with the considerations previously described. Throughout this time, efforts must be made to continue to shape the OE and to prepare an orchestrated defence while concealing and shielding any weaknesses or CVs that the enemy could exploit.

Covering force battle. The covering force will usually employ delay. It should deploy as far forward of the main defensive zone as possible, in sufficient time to prepare its own positions before contact is made with the enemy. An indicative covering force battle may include:

- deployment of a screen across the frontage to maintain contact with the enemy
- delaying positions to gain time for the main defensive position and to degrade the enemy
- retention of a reserve prepared to CATK to extricate trapped delaying elements or to strike an exposed enemy
- disengagement and withdrawal into the main defensive position; this should be restricted to as few routes as possible and closely monitored to coordinate any reserve demolitions and obstacle gap closures.

Main defensive battle. Upon withdrawal of the covering force, the main defensive zone security battle is taken up by the main force’s screen and guard(s). During the early part of this stage, the enemy will likely employ a number of measures to deceive the defending force and conceal their main effort. Ideally, the covering force will have identified the enemy’s main effort but this may not be possible until the enemy closes on the main defensive position. Regardless, detecting and

9. Final elements of preparation of the defensive position(s) may occur as the covering force battle is being fought.
10. Refer to Chapter 5 for a detailed description of screens and guards.
maintaining contact with the enemy main effort remains imperative. Concentration and orchestration of effects at the point of decision, including commitment of the reserve, is essential.

**Control measures**

The plan must articulate simple and effective control measures for all stages of the battle. The main control measures used in an area defence are illustrated in Figure 4–1 to Figure 4–3, depicting options for indicative areas of operation.

![Common control measures – area defence (contiguous, linear)](image)

**Legend:**
1. Handover line
2. Junction points
3. Defended positions/locations
4. CATK/penetration plan objectives
5. Réfûtes
6. TCPs
7. Boundaries
8. RJs

**Figure 4–1:** Common control measures – area defence (contiguous, linear)
Legend:
1. Handover lines – can be in any direction relative to the threat which could also come from any direction. May be the same as FE bounding.
2. Junction points.
3. Defended positions, localities and posts each with local security to an exposed approach.
4. CPEN/CATK plans (indicative): These may need to be directed to halt a threat penetrating through contiguous boundaries.
5. Possible routes for formation CATK force.
6. Defended locality boundaries.
7. TCPs.
8. Formation boundary which may include strong points as there are unlikely to be any other flanking FEs/formations.
9. Open area which may or may not be controlled or under control.

Note:
Not shown, but report lines would be located along suitable entry and exit routes.

Figure 4–2: Control measures – area defence (contiguous, non linear)
Mobile defence

A force conducting a mobile defence depends on a high degree of mobility to achieve its mission. Mobile defence utilises all available resources to generate the necessary mobility, and is particularly suited to forces operating over wide areas that have the mobility to concentrate combat power quickly. Although it can involve significant risk, mobile defence rewards bold manoeuvre and initiative by commanders at all levels.

Mobile defence is most often planned and executed at formation level and so is described in detail in this section.

Purpose

The purpose of mobile defence is to exploit the mobility of the force to dislocate, disrupt or destroy an enemy. This is achieved by:

- identifying the enemy’s main approaches
- blocking their advance on selected approaches and forcing them onto an approach of friendly choice
- launching an attack to destroy the blocked force in accordance with the commander’s intent.

Figure 4–3: Control measures – area defence (non-contiguous, non-linear)
Description

Commanders conducting mobile defence depend on manoeuvre and offensive action to achieve their mission and usually surrender terrain to shape the enemy into areas suitable for the launching of decisive CATK. Commanders can employ retrograde and area defence techniques as the main means of shaping the enemy and then blocking them. Commanders then destroy the blocked force or attack follow-on forces through coordinated attacks. A well-planned deliberate attack is usually the most effective method of achieving this destruction. During mobile defence the defender has to maintain superior tempo to the attacker.

Depending on the scale of the task, this attack could be the turning point, but the enemy may instead reinforce their advance and the whole process might begin again. Throughout the mobile defence it is essential that commanders focus on the destruction, or neutralisation, of the enemy COG rather than simply trying to destroy forces. As a consequence, commanders at all levels must continuously maintain a high level of situational awareness.

Mobile defence is most effective in the following circumstances:

- when the defending force’s tactical mobility is equal to, or greater than, the enemy even though the latter has numerical superiority; or
- when the AO and the environment enable the defence to be organised in great depth and over a wide frontage.

Basic considerations

Selection of terrain. Thorough IPB is essential to identify key terrain and decisive terrain. Commanders should not attempt to present an unbroken front to the enemy and must accept gaps between defensive positions and some degree of penetration. Ideally, such gaps can be covered by sensors to provide situational awareness for commanders, and a combination of well-sited defensive positions shapes the OE. Reconnaissance of routes to and from BPs is essential.

Offensive action. Mobile defence requires not only a high degree of mobility but also discriminate application of offensive action at every opportunity to successfully achieve its mission. Mobile defence is planned and conducted at the highest tactical level, whereby units are employing area defence techniques to draw enemy forces into EAs where they can be blocked, turned, disrupted and ultimately destroyed by decisive action within the overall mobile defence framework.

Orchestration. The orchestration of all BOS for the mobile defence plan is the commander’s main challenge. It has the following four aspects:

- Integration of battlespace operating systems. This consideration occurs initially in the MAP and after consultation with BOS representatives to advise, and then apply, their BOS and specific weapon systems to the best
advantage. Fire planning can only be effective through synchronisation at the highest planning level. The fire support plan is integrated with:

- the obstacle plan
- defensive positions
- the blocking force and attacking force manoeuvre
- the design for battle, outlined in the commander’s guidance.

• **Coordination.** Effective coordination to synchronise the various stages of the mobile defence can be achieved through a well-planned SOM, whereby the deployment groups execute a planned combination through a series of:
  - delays
  - withdrawals
  - area defence
  - blocking and holding actions
  - aggressively prosecuted attacks on the blocked enemy.

• **Control measures.** The commander must select EAs and formation boundaries to control the battle. Once an EA has been chosen, positioning of the blocking force and designation of assembly areas, routes and FUP for the attack force and a handover line for the covering force occurs. The most critical decisions a commander makes in mobile defence are under which conditions the attack force is committed.

• **Reserves.** The circumstances under which mobile defence occurs are highly fluid by nature. Therefore the commander must establish a discrete reserve throughout to deal with the range of anticipated and unforeseen events, such as:
  - CPEN
  - countering enemy reserve deployments
  - reinforcement of the attack force
  - exploiting opportunities, or
  - destroying critical enemy capabilities.

**Combat service support.** CSS of a mobile defence is usually difficult because the force invariably depends on vehicle-mounted and aviation mobility for its effectiveness. A system of tailored CSS groupings, integrated communications, flexible replenishment practices and judicious dumping is essential. The security of dumps and replenishment convoys must receive a high priority. Casualty evacuation requires special consideration, particularly where medical treatment cannot be deployed forward. Failing to provide sufficient sustainment results in a force with significantly reduced combat power that can be more easily defeated.
Control measures

Control of a mobile defence is enabled through a range of measures, including:

- commonly used graphic control measures
- deployment groups
- mobile defence stages.

Figure 4–4 and Figure 4–5 detail some of the graphic control measures for assisting the commander in orchestrating a mobile defence. The various stages are explained later in this section.

![Diagram](image)

Legend:
- ① Formation boundaries
- ② EN approaches
- ③ Possible EAs
- ④ Coordination points

Figure 4–4: Control measures for initial stage of mobile defence
Figure 4–5: Control measures for subsequent stage of mobile defence

**Deployment groups.** A mobile defence consists of the following four main groups (see Figure 4–6).

- **Covering force.** The primary task of the covering force is to shape the OE for the commander. This force leads or channels the enemy into EAs and undertakes the following additional tasks:
  - detecting and reporting the enemy’s approach
  - delaying and disrupting the enemy’s advance
  - preventing the enemy from accurately locating the other forces for as long as possible
  - holding the shoulders and flanks of the blocking position
  - assisting the movement of the attack force.

- **Blocking force.** The primary task of the blocking force is to fix the enemy’s advance until the attack force strikes. The blocking force may not necessarily be deployed across the path of the approaching threat, but
rather positioned in such a way as to fix the enemy in a designated EA using obstacles and direct and joint fires. The blocking force comprises the minimum amount of combat power to achieve its task, and it might not have the same level of mobility as the attack force. This provides the commander with the opportunity to exploit the relative strengths of mounted and dismounted forces within the formation.

- **Attack force.** The attack force is the decisive group, comprising the bulk of manoeuvre forces with a preponderance of armour, mounted infantry and army aviation elements. High mobility is a characteristic of this force, and it must be well supported by joint fires. The overall commander of the mobile defence should retain control of the attack force unless circumstances such as failed communications render this impossible. The principal task of the attack force is the destruction of the enemy in designated EAs, and it is usually committed when the blocking force has at least fixed the enemy. It can attack the fixed enemy or following forces, and it must be well practiced in conducting quick attacks with little opportunity for detailed reconnaissance.

- **Reserve.** The commander establishes a discrete reserve for each stage of the battle. Uncommitted forces may be available during some stages (such as the covering force during the attack stage), but the subsequent tasks of any troops used in this manner must be considered. The attack force does not represent a reserve, as it is committed to the task of destroying the threat, and a reserve is required for the attack stage to cover unexpected developments. The reserve is most likely to be based on armoured and mounted infantry forces with army aviation support, and used for such tasks as:
  - CPEN
  - countering or destroying enemy reserves
  - reinforcing the attack force
  - exploiting an opportunity of enemy vulnerability
  - reacting to the unexpected.
Mobile defence stages
Typically, mobile defence is fought in three stages:

- stage 1 – the covering force battle
- stage 2 – the blocking and holding battle
- stage 3 – the attack.

Due to its fluid, mobile defence is an event-based rather than time-prescribed battle.

Covering force battle. The covering force battle is designed to shape the OE and deceive the enemy into a predetermined EA(s). The covering force seeks to gain and maintain contact with the enemy. It should not frustrate the enemy if they are already headed towards designated EA(s), but attempt to control their arrival so the other groups are well-postured. The covering force inflicts whatever damage it can on the enemy without becoming decisively committed. Where possible, it should seek to destroy the enemy ISR elements. The commander has two options when concluding the covering force battle:

- **Option 1.** The covering force remains forward of the blocking positions, as illustrated in Figure 4–7. In this option, the commander tasks the covering force with holding the flanks of the blocking positions, ensuring the enemy’s main effort is directed into the desired EAs and the attack force is able to launch its attack from a firm base.
Option 2. The covering force withdraws through, or around, the blocking positions as illustrated in Figure 4–8. Once withdrawn, the covering force may be regrouped with the attack force, tasked as a reserve or to prepare for a subsequent mission or the next mobile defence battle.

Blocking and holding battle. The blocking and holding battle is fought by the blocking force from prepared defensive positions dominating an EA. Using a combination of fire and manoeuvre in conjunction with the temporary retention of
terrain, the blocking force inflicts maximum casualties and shapes the enemy for destruction by the attack force. The commander seeks to coordinate shaping actions so they coincide with the commitment of the attack force and the subsequent destruction of the enemy. BPs may be abandoned and others occupied on the defender’s initiative rather than as a direct result of enemy success. If the enemy can be deceived about the type of defence being conducted, the possibility of the attack stage achieving surprise is enhanced. Likely penetrations are anticipated and accepted. In some circumstances, deep penetrations may be accepted to encourage the enemy to overextend and expose their flanks and weaker echelons. The blocking force must not be allowed to be overwhelmed and defeated in detail.

**Attack.** The attack is the critical stage of the battle. When the commander considers that the enemy penetration has been sufficiently dislocated or disrupted to make the attack feasible, the attack force is launched with all available resources. In deciding when to launch the attack, the commander must give careful consideration to the triggers (or decision points) for its commitment. If launched too soon, the attack force is exposed and at risk of destruction; if committed too late, the blocking force may be irrevocably engaged and the attack force might be unable to restore the situation. The attack force manoeuvres to bring maximum combat power to bear to destroy the enemy in the EA. Surprise, boldness, speed and discriminate force are the characteristics of the successful attack. Other aspects of the attack in mobile defence include:

- The attack is not limited to the area being dominated by the blocking force, as its objectives are only coincidentally related to those positions. The emphasis is on the destruction of the enemy’s COG or those targetable CVs that support it.
- Seizing terrain to restore the forward edge of the battle area, if there is one, is unlikely to be a valid objective. The attack force is normally committed as a whole to strike a decisive blow, and piecemeal commitment must be avoided.
- In the event that the enemy overcomes attempts to shape them and succeeds in effecting penetrations at various points, it may be necessary to prioritise the penetrations and deal with each in turn. In such cases, the major threat should be determined and the attack force committed to it.
- A successful action by the attack force may provide the opportunity for the formation to transition from a defensive to offensive posture. Commanders must be ready to exploit the enemy’s shattered will and loss of cohesion. Thorough preparation, a clear commander’s intent and the extensive use of mission command are the preconditions for achieving success.
Delay

Delay and withdrawal seek disengagement followed by manoeuvre away from the enemy. This may be forced by the enemy or a commander may execute them voluntarily. Regardless, delay or withdrawal can erode morale more than any other type of military activity because subordinates may view them as a defeat. To avoid this, leaders at all levels must maintain team aggressiveness and keep their soldiers informed. By planning and efficiently executing assigned tasks and ensuring that subordinates understand their purpose and duration, the commander can counter most negative effects on morale with the knowledge that the intention is ultimately to resume the offensive.

Delay is a common tactic to gain time by imposing delay on the enemy in a particular area for a specified time. It is significant that delaying activities are undertaken at formation level, with BGs and CTs participating through the conduct of area defence in successive or alternate positions away from the enemy.

Purpose
The purpose of delay is to trade space for time and to slow the enemy’s momentum while inflicting maximum casualties, but avoiding decisive commitment of the delaying forces.

Description
Delay may be ordered as part of any operation by a superior commander to protect a force or allow it time to achieve its task. It must be noted that covering forces, guards deployed forward of the main defensive positions, rearguards and flank guards may also employ delaying techniques; however, they cannot undertake delaying defence on their own because this involves synchronisation with the main body. Attack, defence, delay on alternate or successive positions, ambushes, raids, or other techniques may all be combined to achieve delay. Delay is likely to be conducted under an adverse air situation against numerically superior ground forces, and forces tasked with conducting delay should have mobility equal to, or greater than, the enemy to avoid decisive engagement, outflanking and bypass. Terrain may be yielded once it has served its purpose.

A formation delaying task is likely to be conducted in one of the following circumstances:

• as a covering force for defending or withdrawing main bodies
• by the advance guard or covering force when encountering larger forces
• as an economy of force task to hold an enemy offensive on a less critical avenue of approach (AA)
• as a deception measure to set up a CATK; or
• as part of a mobile defence.
Delaying actions by a covering force. Delaying actions by a covering force are normally undertaken for the following purposes:

- to gain time for the preparation of a defensive position or a counteroffensive
- to wear down and disorganise the enemy
- to shape the OE by leading the enemy into a situation or onto terrain more suitable for its destruction
- to gain time for the main body to withdraw
- to hold an enemy attack on a less critical AA
- to identify the enemy’s main effort.

Delaying actions by a guard, flank or rearguard. Delaying actions by a guard, flank or rearguard are normally conducted for the following purposes:

- to allow the main force time to react to a new threat
- to prevent the enemy from interfering with the activities of the main force
- to stop the enemy gaining information about the actions of the main force
- to enable the main force to break clean from the enemy.

Basic considerations

The basic considerations for the delay are outlined below.

Use of terrain. From OE analysis, the AO is divided into sectors and zones. The AO is first divided into delay sectors. Delay sectors are selected to cover the likely enemy approaches and each is assigned to a unit or formation. They are defined by boundaries that may extend throughout the depth of the overall AO and, as a minimum, must extend beyond the next rearward delay position. Sectors should have defined boundaries extending the depth of the AO, but as a minimum their depth should be equal to that of the delay zone. Terrain analysis should include:

- identifying significant changes in terrain that may affect conduct of the delay
- grouping forces for maximum effectiveness in each zone
- defiles and other points at which the security of the force might be jeopardised are identified
- identifying suitable delay positions in each zone, noting that the number of delay positions within each zone depends on the type of terrain and the depth of the zone itself
- ensuring delay positions:
  - have the best possible EAs
  - cannot be easily bypassed by the enemy

11. In a delay, where it is preferable for one entire enemy approach to be made the responsibility of one formation, sectors can be assigned.
• make the best use of existing obstacles
• have exploitable withdrawal routes
• have sufficient manoeuvre space for both security forces and the main body.¹²

Maintaining contact. Only by maintaining contact can the delay force avoid being surprised or outflanked, estimate the speed of the enemy advance and identify its main effort. The identification of likely AAs assists with the designation of delay zones. Throughout this process, attention should be paid to the possibility of enemy coups de main to seize key terrain such as road junctions, communication centres or decisive terrain such as a critical river crossing. A delay force must maintain continuous contact with the advancing enemy by aggressive counter-reconnaissance.

Security. Security is essential if the delay force is to avoid decisive engagement. This involves the maximum use of camouflage and concealment, deception, comsec and all counterintelligence measures. The delay force must maintain its flank security so that it is not enveloped or decisively engaged from a threat to its flanks. It also involves the protection of critical points on withdrawal routes such as natural defiles or bridges. Although all elements of the delay force must be responsible for their own protection on the move, security optimises manoeuvre if withdrawal routes through critical defiles are secured by other units to assist the disengagement of troops in contact.

Orchestration. The complex nature of delay tasks demands a high level of cooperation and synchronisation. Rapid manoeuvre, probable passages of lines and high tempo require liaison, good situational awareness and clear C2 measures to ensure that the delay occurs as smoothly as possible in accordance with the commander’s guidance.

Stages of the delay

While the manner in which delay is conducted will be influenced significantly by the enemy, this tactic usually is conducted in the following stages:

• stage 1 – security force battle
• stage 2 – delaying position battle
• stage 3 – disengagement.

Stage 1 – security force battle. Fundamentally, the security force provides security to each delaying position. Tasks and composition will vary but the aim is to reduce the enemy’s initiative by:

• gaining early warning of enemy intentions
• denying information, disrupting enemy preparations

¹². Selection of delay positions for subordinate formations or units may be left to their commanders but, when a suitable obstacle covers the front, the delay force commander may designate it as a formation delay position.
• delaying their advance.

Stage 2 – delaying position battle. In addition to gaining time, delaying forces may seek to degrade the enemy through attrition. Delay positions may provide pivots for limited offensive action. Two techniques are usually employed in the delay, both of which are based on finding suitable terrain and are a key consideration in orchestration of the delay. They are a delay conducted on alternate positions and a delay conducted on successive positions. Either may be used across the entire width and depth of the delay sector, or they may be used in combination. It may also be possible to conduct a delay on a single position if delay is required only for a short time or the AO has limited depth, although this is not usual. A reserve is constituted for tasks such as CPEN, CATK and to support disengagement.

• Delay on alternate positions. A force operating on a narrow frontage, or when sufficient forces are available to occupy more than one delay position concurrently, normally employs delay conducted on alternate positions. It has the advantage of providing some respite for the portion of the force out of contact. The procedure for the conduct of a delay on alternate positions is depicted in Figure 4–9.

Figure 4–9: Delay on alternate positions

• Delay on successive positions. A force operating over a wide frontage where there are insufficient forces to occupy more than one delay zone concurrently usually conducts delay conducted on successive positions. The procedure for the conduct of a delay on successive positions is depicted in Figure 4–10.
Stage 3 – disengagement. When decisive engagement is imminent, the commander manoeuvres to disengage or fight back to the next delaying position. Contact is regained by the security force, which has been redeployed for the task, or is maintained by the forces fighting their way back. Critical points along withdrawal routes must be protected. At the designated handover line, the delaying force attempts to break contact and responsibility for dealing with the enemy is passed to the force in place.

Control measures

Control measures are essential to assist with the synchronisation of the delay. Some common control measures in the delay are illustrated in Figure 4–11, including:

- boundaries and control lines, such as handover lines and PLs
- FSCMs
- air space coordination measures
- movement control measures, such as routes and checkpoints
- counter-mobility or barrier coordination measures
- designated BPs, blocking positions and assembly areas for reserves
- objectives
- timings and liaison measures
Contents

• denial measures.

Figure 4–11: Typical graphic control measures used in the delay

Legend:
1. RLs to control movement
2. Handover line
3. Coordination point
4. Delay sector
5. Boundaries
6. Delay positions
7. Delay zone
8. Reserved route for move to new position
9. Proposed delay position

Tactical application

Tactical application of the delay, including further detail on the use of alternate and successive positions is described in LWP-G 3-3-14, Battlegroup and Combat Team Handbook.

Withdrawal

Withdrawal occurs when a force disengages from the threat in accordance with the intent of the commander. It seeks to disengage forces from the enemy, although contact may be maintained through other means such as indirect fire, reconnaissance or surveillance. Withdrawal is a task employed regularly during mobile defence or the delay to accomplish the overall aim of resuming offensive action. Withdrawal may also be necessary as a consequence of an unsuccessful action; however, it should be treated as a routine tactic rather than a harbinger of disaster.
Purpose
The purpose of a withdrawal is to disengage from the enemy and redeploy to a new position, or task, with a minimum of interference and casualties.

Description
Withdrawal is a defensive tactic whereby a force disengages from the enemy under the following conditions:
• as a result of a local defeat
• to avoid battle under unfavourable operational or sustainment conditions
• to conform with the movement of other friendly forces
• to draw the enemy into an unfavourable circumstance, such as extending their lines of communication
• if the object of the task cannot be achieved and the force is threatened with defeat, or if the objective is achieved and there is no further requirement to maintain contact
• to take part in mobile defence or a delay task; or
• to be employed elsewhere in the OE.

Withdrawal stages. The staging, sequence and timing of the withdrawal of forward units need careful planning. A withdrawal is usually controlled through the following stages, coordinated by precise timings:
• Preparatory stage. During this stage, reconnaissance is conducted, rear parties are dispatched, warning orders are issued and detailed planning is undertaken. Non-essential equipment, vehicles and personnel are relocated to the rear. This is known as ‘thinning out’.
• Disengagement stage. Designated units start moving to the rear as per the planned sequence. Tactical movement to the next position begins once contact with the enemy is broken and all units have assembled.
• Security stage. Rearguards assist with the disengagement of other units in the formation. Rearguards assume responsibility for the formation sector and cover the move of disengaged forces with fire and manoeuvre. Where possible, they attempt to deceive the enemy. This stage ends when the security forces have completed their rearward move.

Critical timings. Definite timings enable the commander to coordinate rearward movement and retain control of the situation. Realistic timings can only be based on an appreciation of the enemy, terrain and an accurate assessment of how long it will take the elements of the force to withdraw from their positions. The following timings are considered critical and are mandated in orders:
• the time before which there is to be no rearward movement
• the time until which the position is to be denied to the enemy
the time by which the position is to be abandoned
the time by which all troops must be clear of a line to the rear of the position.

A withdrawal can be conducted either in or out of contact, with each situation having specific characteristics, as follows:

- **Out of contact.** In the withdrawal out of contact, the commander has the difficult task of extricating the force from a position where it may be in close contact with the enemy, retiring a suitable distance and possibly transitioning to a new mission. The commander always seeks to conduct the withdrawal out of contact to retain control of events. When conducting a withdrawal out of contact, the commander can take the decision as to when to begin the task and can make the best use of secrecy and deception. This includes taking maximum advantage of conditions of limited visibility.

- **In contact.** It is more likely that a withdrawal will be conducted in contact if the enemy continues to press hard with multiple penetrations. The enemy may have both ground and air superiority and can attempt to harass the withdrawing forces continually. It is consequently the most difficult type of task to conduct, requiring strong leadership and firm discipline if it is not to become a rout. Despite the difficulty, it should be regarded as a manoeuvre designed to create more favourable conditions before resuming the offensive. Delaying tactics are needed for the forces to fight their way to the rear. The greater the mobility and the longer the range of firepower, the easier it is for the formation to conduct a successful withdrawal.

### Basic considerations

The basic considerations for planning any withdrawal are as follows:

- deception
- sequence of withdrawal
- firm base
- control
- clean break
- rearguards.

**Deception.** It may be very difficult to conceal from the enemy the intention to withdraw and the departure from forward positions. The vulnerability of defending forces, once the withdrawal has begun, necessitates both passive security measures and an active deception plan. The following deception measures are not exhaustive:

- increasing patrol activity to mislead the enemy
- using fire support, demolitions, illumination and information activities as though supporting an activity other than a withdrawal (eg, a spoiling attack)
- using joint fires to cover the noise associated with the withdrawal
• building up, over time, a pattern of activity identical to that at the time of the withdrawal (such as armoured and army aviation movement)
• simulating continued occupation of empty positions while thinning out
• concealing the movements of reconnaissance parties and the preparation of new positions
• maintaining or simulating the normal traffic pattern for a defensive position, especially as units moving rearward adopt radio silence
• avoiding the use of radio to pass messages connected with the withdrawal
• meticulously camouflaging any unusual activity associated with the withdrawal
• maintaining the same pattern of surveillance, both physical and electronic
• continuing the appearance of stocks moving forward while the reverse is occurring.

Sequence of withdrawal. The major consideration for the sequence of withdrawal at formation level is the location of the firm base position. For example, if a depth position is to be used as a firm base, forward positions would normally be withdrawn through the depth position. Sequence of withdrawal will be influenced by the following:
• assumed or actual enemy pressure
• the assessed need for rear and flank guards and firm bases
• withdrawal groupings, including the main body, covering force and forces for any intermediate positions
• the likelihood of enemy interdiction of withdrawal routes
• the need to move security elements must move in concert with the main body and protect it from enemy interference.

Firm base. A firm base is required to prevent enemy follow-up while the main body breaks clean. This can be achieved by designating one of the existing positions as the formation’s firm base or by occupying a suitable depth position before the withdrawal starts. A firm base is a prepared defensive position located on the enemy’s most likely approach, normally grouped with sufficient protected mobility and firepower to complete its task. For withdrawals over long distances, a series of defendable bounds should be prepared as firm bases to an intermediate position.

Control. Arrangements must be made to monitor the progress of the withdrawal to permit any difficulties to be resolved. RVs and routes to the rear must be detailed and officers, warrant officers or SNCOs should be stationed at likely problem areas along the withdrawal route. The use of C2 measures is essential, and these are detailed later in this chapter.
**Clean break.** This is the successful disengagement of the force from the position with the intent to avoid enemy follow-up. It is a critical success factor for any withdrawal. The enemy is likely to try to maintain contact with the main body of the withdrawing force. It may not always be possible for the whole force to make a clean break, but it is essential that the main body does so. Accordingly, provision should be made for firm bases and rearguards to assist in achieving and maintaining a clean break. This involves the controlled reduction of the number of fighting troops in the forward area until only a rearguard remains. Ideally, disengagement should occur under conditions of limited visibility in accordance with a simple and flexible plan. Complicated manoeuvre and regrouping should be avoided. The main features in this procedure are as follows:

- **Disengagement.** Disengagement should be as rapid as possible, while leaving the maximum strength forward until the last moment to give the threat the least possible time to detect and react to the break.

- **Security.** As much firepower as possible should be left forward and employed aggressively until the last possible moment. Armour and aviation are particularly useful, and joint fires must remain within range. As guns and mortars are withdrawn, the less critical fire tasks should be progressively cancelled until only close defensive fire tasks can be engaged. Dismounted infantry should be withdrawn as early as possible.

- **Cohesion and control.** During the clean break, all efforts should be made to retain the formation’s cohesion. Particular attention should be paid to:
  - retaining unit and sub-unit integrity where possible
  - carefully controlled movement through RVs and checkpoints, including guides, signs and traffic control at obstacles, defiles or other critical points, so that the commander can monitor progress and troop dispositions
  - routes selected for the ease with which they can be found and negotiated in limited visibility, and minimal simultaneous movement on a given route

- **Mobility.** Every effort should be made to maintain and improve the formation’s mobility while degrading the enemy’s. This can be achieved by:
  - reconnaissance of routes and positions by commanders, if time permits
  - improving the existing route and traffic flow
  - well-rehearsed drills and SOP
  - protection or surveillance of vulnerable defiles on withdrawal routes
  - evacuating refugees or restricting their movements to routes not required by the withdrawing forces
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- evacuating casualties, recoverable supplies and surplus supplies early
- controlling terrain or choke points that dominate likely threat AAs
- improving existing obstacles and covering them with fire
- employing joint fires and obscuration to degrade the enemy’s vision and slow their rate of advance
- conducting spoiling attacks to keep the enemy off-balance and force them to react

Rendezvous. At BG level and below, an RV is established to allow the commander to concentrate troops and maintain control of the force, but the concentration of BGs in an RV at formation level is not essential or desirable. Consider, for example, the vulnerability of a number of BGs occupying hastily prepared positions at night in unfamiliar terrain. The requirement to deploy into an RV and then redeploy is also time consuming and may hinder the rate of the withdrawal.

Rearguards. Rearguards are generally formed from the main body when the commander of the firm base conducts their own withdrawal. Under these circumstances, the rearguard can help provide the clean break for the main body of the firm base force, and then prevent any quick enemy follow-up. The rearguard would consist of armoured and mounted infantry forces assigned to the firm base, as protected mobility for this force is considered essential. Circumstances may arise when the enemy pressure is too great for the firm base commander to conduct an orderly withdrawal, in which case the entire firm base force may be required to conduct a rearguard action.

Control measures
The commander must exercise clear and simple control to cope with enemy action and other contingencies, such as bad weather and the loss of some withdrawal routes. Commanders at all levels must maintain a high level of situational awareness. Army aviation can assist with C2 through the provision of airborne tactical HQ and the movement of reconnaissance parties. Control measures used in the withdrawal include:

- LOs
- routes and axis
- report and PLs
- traffic management plans
- checkpoints
- FSCMs
- timings.

Some of these measures are illustrated in Figure 4–12.
Defensive techniques and procedures

Defensive techniques are the mechanisms enabling the application of defensive tactics. These are briefly described below.

Techniques

Defend a battle position. The success of any defence hinges critically on the defending force’s ability to defend its BP within assigned boundaries. A BP defends the allocated sector for the following purposes:

- to destroy enemy in an EA
- to block an enemy AA
- to control key or decisive terrain, or
• to fix the enemy to allow another force to manoeuvre.

**Defend a strong point.** Strong points are usually associated with the defence of specific areas, such as weapon sites or gun emplacements (often referred to as bunkers); important CSS facilities, such as stores and ammunition natures of all types; or other key installations, such as power plants, dams and railway yards. Strongpoint defence can also include those located in coastal defence installations, ports, harbours and airfields, and differ from BPs in that they can be a single, fortified defended post or a series of posts grouped into a detachment or section locality. The purpose of a strongpoint is the retention of specific terrain in order to deny its use to the enemy; for example, the use of key terrain to dominate, influence or move through an area. This may include:

• holding key or decisive terrain critical to the higher level SOM
• provide a pivot to friendly manoeuvre forces
• blocking an AA, or
• canalising the enemy into one or more EAs.

**Defend in sector.** The technique of defending within assigned boundaries may often require a sub-unit or unit to conduct a defence in their assigned sector when flexibility is desired and the retention of specific terrain is not necessary. It is essentially a threat-oriented defensive task and is one of the least restrictive defensive missions, and not restricted to being conducted in area defence alone. It relies on the ability of the defending force to manoeuvre and have maximum freedom of action within assigned sector boundaries. Defence in sector may be performed under a range of circumstances, including:

• during guard missions, for both stationary and moving forces
• during covering force missions, or when operating as part of a covering force
• when defending as an economy of force; or
• as part of a shaping action.

*Figure 4–13* depicts an indicative defence in sector.
Reverse slope defence. Concealment and cover from enemy-observed direct and indirect fires is essential for ground forces in any situation. When deployed in a forward slope position, or on top of a feature, it is essential for ground forces to be in concealed positions with good fields of fire and to be defiladed from one or more likely enemy approaches.

When the terrain is such that a force cannot be successfully concealed, the occupation of a reverse slope position may be considered. Fundamentally, reverse slope defence is a function of the tactical principle of engaging the enemy enfilade from defilade positions and is a technique appropriate in all defensive contexts. Figure 4–14 depicts an indicative reverse slope defence which may be adopted for one or more of the following reasons:

- the forward slope is made untenable by enemy fires
- the forward slope has been lost
- terrain on the reverse slope affords appreciably better fields of fire than are available on the forward slopes
- possession of the forward slope is not essential for observation
it is desirable to avoid a dangerous salient or re-entrant in friendly force locations, or

• to surprise enemy and deceive them as to the position of defended localities and outlying posts.

Counterattack. At any time during the conduct of a major defensive battle, the enemy is likely to gain a foothold in the course of its attack and break into a position in the defensive perimeter, requiring them to be defeated by a CATK. As mentioned previously in this publication, the opportunity to decisively counter-attack a defeated enemy rather than just expel them from the defensive position should be exploited if appropriate. The relationship between CPEN and CATK is, in part, one of level and function. Limited local CATKs may occur as part of a formation CPEN, likely if the enemy has achieved multiple penetrations of the defensive framework.

Counterpenetration. While the application of all measures, including joint fires and obstacles arrayed in-depth, aims to maintain integrity of the formation’s defence, penetrations may occur. Reserves may be used in blocking positions to add depth to the defence and assist in stopping enemy penetrations. The subsequent expulsion of the enemy from the defended area usually involves a CATK. Effectively, this CPEN is a quick attack and should adhere to all the basic considerations for offensive action to be successful. Although a defensive technique, CPEN may include limited offensive action to stabilise a situation, particularly if the intended CATK is to be the defeat mechanism, destroying the target enemy force. Figure 4–15 illustrates a CPEN action alongside a CATK for comparison.
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Figure 4–15: Counterpenetration and counterattack

Break-out from encirclement. Bold manoeuvre risks the possibility of encirclement by the enemy. If this happens, it should not be regarded as a catastrophe, as many examples in history show that it is difficult to establish a continuous encirclement and forces have often escaped through gaps. History also shows the difficulty the encircling force has in achieving adequate fighting power around the entrapped force, providing the opportunity to break out through weak points. The challenge of the encircled commander is to identify the gaps and generate the fighting power, tempo and sustainment required to exploit the opportunity. The ability to do so not only regains the initiative but also provides a significant moral victory. The purpose of this technique is to enable the commander of an encircled force to regain the initiative by breaking out of the encirclement. A force may be encircled by an enemy at any time during the conduct of all military activities, but it is most likely to occur in the following circumstances:

• when a force is deployed deep into hostile territory on a task in support of, or as a part of, a larger activity
• when a force is isolated or cut off by unanticipated enemy actions; or
• when a force is obliged to operate in a dispersed mode.

Note:
The CPEN is conducted into Position ALPHA, and the CATK into Position BRAVO.
Figure 4–16 depicts a breakout from encirclement.

Figure 4–16: Breakout from encirclement

**Spoiling attack.** A commander may be able to seize the opportunity for a spoiling attack to disrupt enemy preparations for an attack on the main position or a portion of it. A reserve can be tasked to conduct a spoiling attack with the intention of preventing or delaying an enemy attack. They are normally launched against an enemy that is forming or assembling for an attack. Spoiling attacks are usually conducted against opportunity targets to destroy personnel and equipment, but not to secure terrain. A spoiling attack is a tactical task conducted by a commander, usually from a base in a defended area or locality, to attack the threat while they are still in the preparation stage for an attack or a likely attack, are organising forces in an FUP or have paused. A spoiling attack may also be achieved by an ABF. Figure 4–17 depicts a spoiling attack.
Reserved demolition. A number of key terrain features can be identified as being of critical importance to the movement of the formation. These features may be bridges, defiles or minefield lanes/gaps which the commander decides must be denied to the enemy until they are no longer of use to the formation’s plans. The demolition of these points is reserved solely for the formation commander, who can task subordinate commanders to guard them. The formation HQ staff must then coordinate all aspects of the task to guard, use and fire each reserved demolition.

Conclusion

The ultimate aim of defensive tactics is to create the conditions for offensive action, leading to decisive defeat of the enemy. This is achieved through the use of deception, terrain, obstacles, available forces and fire support to commit the enemy’s main effort into friendly EAs as part of both area and mobile defence. Delay and withdrawal enable the preservation of force while disengaging effectively from the enemy.
Chapter 5

Security tactics

Introduction

Just as security is a consistent theme in any military operation, so too security tactics apply across offensive and defensive actions. Furthermore, in a stability context, security techniques and procedures underpin and enable the wide range of interagency activities intended to control, restore, reform and assist within the contemporary OE. The range of control, restore, reform and assist tasks associated with stability missions are discussed in detail in LWD 3-0, Operations.

This chapter describes security tactics at formation level. Force protection, a consideration across all land force operations, is also discussed.

Purpose

The purpose of security tactics is to protect the formation so that the commander’s design for battle can be implemented and the mission achieved. In providing this protection, security tactics also shape the enemy and inform the commander’s decision-making through provision of critical information requirements.

Description

Security is defined as the measures taken by a military unit, activity or installation to protect itself against all acts designed to, or which may, impair its effectiveness. Within this context, security tactics comprise the following:

- cover
- screen
- guard
- RAS.

Fundamentally, the tactics of cover, screen and guard protect those FEs postured for offensive or defensive action; RAS provides for the protection of all other FEs, capabilities, installations and facilities.

Security forces. The tasks and composition of security forces depend on the prevailing situation. That said, security forces are typically considered under the following types:

- covering forces
- screens
- guards
Offensive and defensive application. The offensive and defensive application of security forces are described in Chapter 4 and Chapter 3 respectively.

Cover

Purpose

The purpose of a force assigned to cover (the ‘covering force’) is to provide continuous information to the friendly main force, protect the force and deny the enemy any knowledge of friendly intentions. Offensively, covering forces seek to disrupt, dislocate, weaken and/or fix enemy forces and, defensively, to impose delay and casualties.

Description

A covering force is deployed by the highest tactical commander conducting the mission. Covering force tasks are characterised by active reconnaissance, as a covering force focuses on protecting the main force rather than on a terrain or enemy-based objective. It achieves this through manoeuvre, physical protection and gathering information. The covering force also supports the commander in shaping the OE by influencing the enemy through deception (concealing the main effort) and aggressive action. A boldly handled covering force can inflict casualties out of all proportion to its size.

Basic considerations

Command. Normally, only one covering force is formed and deployed by the mission senior commander. A covering force zone is established forward of the main force with its position and dimensions determined by the effect required, location and capability of the enemy, terrain and the allocated tasks.

Independent operation. A covering force should be based on FEs grouped for independent tasks, including access to joint fires and dedicated CSS.

Combined arms team. Covering forces are CATs. Armoured cavalry (tanks and cavalry), mounted infantry and aviation FEs are well suited to the covering force role.

Mobility. Covering forces require mobility comparable or superior to the enemy.

Coordination. While a covering force is commanded independently, careful coordination is required to facilitate BHO, support its disengagement from the enemy (in a defensive context) and subsequent passage of lines.

Offensive, defensive and security techniques. A covering force employs a range of offensive, defensive and security techniques within its SOM. These may include mobile and static patrolling, spoiling attacks, ABF and defensive EAs. An indicative covering force defensive disposition and example SOM are shown in
Figure 5–1 and Figure 5–2 respectively. An example of an offensive covering force is provided in Chapter 3.

![Indicative covering force disposition (defensive)](image)

**Note:**
The covering force could be deployed up to 100 km forward of the main defensive position. Highlighted is the likely disposition of an indicative subordinate BG, with its guard deployed forward in its own security zone.

**Figure 5–1: Indicative covering force disposition (defensive)**
Figure 5–2: Example covering force scheme of manoeuvre

**Reconstitution.** Subject to the relative success of its mission, FEs comprising the covering force are likely to require priority for reconstitution after defensive disengagement from the enemy.

**Tasks**

Covering force tasks can include:

- wide reconnaissance to locate and define the enemy strength and locations, and to fulfil the CCIRs
- maintain contact with and shape the enemy
- provide early warning
- defeat threat reconnaissance
- dislocate, degrade or delay enemy forces
- find and exploit gaps
- disrupt enemy communications and CSS
- obtain information on routes, obstacles and the environment
seize lightly held, key and possible decisive terrain features such as crossroads, bridges and defiles

- perform continuous reconnaissance and surveillance as part of the overall ISR plan.

**Screen**

**Purpose**
The purpose of a force assigned to screen is to provide information about the enemy and provide early warning to the main force.

**Description**
Screens may employ a range of techniques to provide early warning. These may include OPs, static positions and mobile forces operating on a wide front to cover designated named areas of interest (NAIs), such as the enemy’s most likely positions, approaches and infiltration routes.

**Basic considerations**

**Command.** Screens are deployed and supported from the main force and typically are drawn from depth or reserve units. Cavalry and aviation FEs are particularly suited to screen roles, noting the limited duration of helicopters over target areas.

**Composition.** Screens require sufficient firepower, mobility and communications to effectively undertake their tasks and to survive incidental contact with the enemy. This is likely to include access to joint fires. If tasked to conduct counter-reconnaissance, a screen requires sufficient combat power (and mobility) to defeat enemy reconnaissance forces. An indicative example of a screen is shown in Figure 5–3.
Named and targeted areas of interest. Screens should be deployed to observe and report on specific NAI/target area of interest in accordance with the formation’s ISR and targeting plans.

Time and space. Importantly, screens must be deployed to allow the main force or reserve to react in time and space to an identified threat. This synchronisation should be tested during COA development.

Subsequent tasking. Once a screen’s task is complete and threat forces are pressing, it normally redeploy to the main force, assumes other tasking (such as RAS) or seeks concealment from the enemy.

Tasks

Screens may be tasked to:

• detect and report movement of the enemy’s ground forces within a designated area
• maintain surveillance of designated NAI/target area of interest
• conduct counter-reconnaissance within its capabilities
• locate specific enemy elements, such as the advance guard and reserve and determine their direction of movement
• maintain contact with enemy forces and report any activity in the AO
• impede and harass the enemy within its capabilities.
Guard

Purpose
The purpose of a force assigned to guard is to protect the main force by fighting to shape the enemy and provide information.

Description
A guard differs from a screen in that it contains sufficient fighting power to decisively engage the enemy with direct and supporting joint fires. Such decisive engagement is likely to involve only a forward enemy echelon rather than numerically superior main force.

Basic considerations
Command. Guards are deployed and supported from the main force in both offensive and defensive contexts.

Support. Guards are deployed within a range of joint fires and provided with CSS from their parent unit and formation.

Enemy. Guards should be employed when enemy contact is expected and additional protection is required. Composition must be consistent with the threat as guards reduce the main force, limiting troops available to the friendly commander for other tasks.

Composition. While composition varies, guards typically contain mobile forces such as armoured cavalry, mounted infantry and anti-armour. Use of reconnaissance and surveillance capabilities, including aviation, TUAVs, ground surveillance radar and other remote sensors, to give early warning provides an economical complement to ground manoeuvre FEs. Inherent system limitations must, however, be understood and appropriate redundancy provided. In such cases, it may become necessary to deploy ground or airmobile forces from the main body to counter a confirmed threat.

Offensive and defensive employment. Guards are used offensively and defensively and are described by their intended location or task. Examples are as follows:

- **Advance guards.** An advance guard is deployed ahead of the main force to facilitate its movement. Advance guards are described in detail in Chapter 3.

- **Flank and rearguards.** Flank guards and rearguards may be deployed to provide security to the main force by protecting against enemy observation, direct fire and surprise attack. The composition of flank guards and rearguards depends on the tasks allocated to them and the assessed threat. Flank and rearguards are described in detail in Chapter 3 and Chapter 5.
**Demolition guards.** Demolition guards are employed to protect key installations, facilities or structures, such as bridges, until their demolition is required by the higher commander.

**Tasks**

Guards may be tasked to achieve one or more of the following:

- support any higher command deception plans
- provide protection to the main force
- destroy enemy reconnaissance or combat outposts
- delay the enemy for a specified period, if required
- degrade specified enemy forces
- shape the enemy into prepared EAs; and/or
- protect a key installation, facility or structure until its demolition is required.

An indicative guard is depicted in Figure 5–4.

![Figure 5–4: Indicative guard](image)

**Rear area security**

**Purpose**

The purpose of RAS is to prevent the enemy from disrupting command and control, combat support and CSS in support of combat forces. In the non-linear, non-contiguous battlespace, RAS effectively concerns all FEs not postured for offensive or defensive action.
Description
RAS includes measures taken to minimise the effects of enemy attacks, sabotage, infiltration and psychological operations, all of which pose a threat to friendly units, activities and installations. Support organisations are high value targets for an astute enemy, as interruption could disproportionately affect warfighting capability and lead to the eventual destruction of the combat force.

Basic considerations
All corps local defence. Local defence is an all corps skill and remains the basis of effective RAS, given that rear areas may not actually be in a traditional rear location. Local defence must be capable of defeating enemy harassment and sabotage activities, and containing small-scale enemy attacks locally until the main rear area security force (RASF) can respond. Local defence is challenged by the need to balance the maintenance of routine functions with the requirement to provide self-security.

Enemy. Detailed analysis of enemy courses of action is required to inform RAS options. Enemy courses of action may range from infiltration of individual saboteurs and small raiding parties to a coup de main or major raid. Regardless of the enemy tactics, the key to success is rapid deployment and the use of maximum fire during the early stages of insertion and consolidation.

Rear area security force. A dedicated RASF can counter threats by aggressive patrolling, reconnaissance, and surveillance of potential AAs, LZs and drop zones, and by providing early warning of enemy activity in the rear area. It can also identify, intercept and destroy small enemy forces and respond to attacks beyond the capability of unit local defence elements. The commander of the RASF is assigned an AO beyond unit perimeters and is responsible for defeat of the enemy within that area. Where significant enemy action is identified, the RASF responds and determines the size and intent of the enemy, and delays and disrupts its progress until deployment of the formation commander’s reserve (or quick reaction force) is required.

Lines of communication. The techniques for guarding and protecting the security of lines of communication and main supply routes vary with terrain, road and rail networks, the length of the lines of communication and main supply routes and the type of threat activity expected.

Route security. Protection of convoys and routine administrative traffic can be a demanding task if key routes are interdicted by the enemy.

Key points and vital assets. A KP is a concentration, site or installation that, if it were destroyed or captured, would seriously affect military activities. A VA is a facility, installation or resource the loss of which would severely disrupt the orderly life of the community, or, if damaged, would cause a major public hazard. Installations, including those in a defended area, may be important enough to warrant protection and security beyond the capability of the local commander. VAs and KPs may also be determined based on the need to maintain law and order,
prevent adverse effects on the economy and avoid disruption to normal life and the welfare of the civil population. Potential KPs and VAs include:

- communication centres
- power stations
- refineries
- transportation facilities
- other buildings or installations so designated by the civil authority.

**Tasks**

A RASF may be required to perform the following tasks:

- limited offensive and defensive tactics
- protection of lines of communication
- protection of KPs, vulnerable points (VPs) and VAs
- protection of major administrative elements
- convoy escort
- reserved demolition guards
- patrolling and surveillance
- protection of major HQ and other C2 infrastructure
- control of key terrain
- route security.

**Route security and movement control**

**Purpose**

The purpose of route security and movement control is to ensure the maintenance of freedom of administrative activity within the OE.\(^1\)

**Description**

Route security\(^2\) and movement control are fundamental considerations in any land force operation as the interdiction of friendly force lines of communication will severely compromise, if not prevent, the conduct of critical sustainment activities.\(^3\) For the purposes of this section, the term route includes highways, roads, tracks, waterways, railway lines, pipelines and air corridors, all of which provide critical

1. The term OE is used here as, within the contemporary OE, route security and movement control applies beyond the traditional rear area context.
2. For the purposes of this section, route security also implies route protection.
3. This may also include sustainment in support of control, reform, restore and assist activities.
lines of communication for force sustainment. Route security can include the application of a suite of techniques, such as route reconnaissance and search, the establishment of VP checks, patrolling and convoy protection and security.

**Basic considerations**

**Vulnerable points.** A VP is a likely area of attack along a given route. Such places include:

- junctions
- culverts
- areas with buildings and walls near the route
- areas with parked or abandoned vehicles near to the route
- areas with piles of debris or earth embankments near to the route.

**Key terrain.** Detailed analysis is required to identify key terrain which may afford significant advantage along routes for the purpose of surveillance and tactical response to interdiction. Thus analysis should also include identification of potential GBAD sites to dominate enemy air AAs.

**Traffic control points and vehicle checkpoints.** Traffic control points (TCPs) and vehicle checkpoints form an integral part of general road and track movement control. They can be established by security forces or any other land-based force across the range of military activities. A higher planning HQ is generally responsible for establishing TCPs and vehicle checkpoints on all route networks through an established control organisation.

**Convoy protection.** All convoys within the OE require protection. In certain circumstances this protection may be afforded by personnel within the convoy however, as threat levels escalate, the requirement for a dedicated convoy escort increases. A convoy escort is task-organised to provide support to a convoy. It may include MP or a designated security force from a manoeuvre CAT (such as cavalry, tanks or mounted infantry). Aviation can also provide convoy escorts as an integral part of a CAT.

**Force protection**

**Purpose**

The purpose of force protection is to prevent or mitigate hostile actions against personnel, resources, facilities, and critical information.

**Description**

Force protection preserves the force’s fighting power so it can be applied at a decisive time and place. It incorporates the coordinated and synchronised offensive and defensive measures to enable the effective employment of the joint force while minimising opportunities for the enemy. In the contemporary OE, these
measures have assumed increasing importance in protecting friendly forces from the range and lethality of threat force capabilities, such as IED, vehicle-borne improvised explosive device and complex ambush. The purpose of physical protection is to deny the enemy the ability to interdict friendly operations by harming personnel, destroying equipment and facilities and/or creating a climate of fear. Physical protection provides a base from which friendly forces can rest and reform for future operations. Force protection does not include actions to defeat the enemy or protect against accidents, weather, or disease.

**Basic considerations**

**Active and passive protective measures.** Successful force protection is provided by a balanced combination of active and passive measures as follows:

- **Active.** Matters of procedure or operation such as patrolling or vehicle checks are referred to as active measures.

- **Passive.** Structures and other physical systems that provide protection against attack, for example, protective walls and intruder detection systems, are collectively known as passive measures.

**Balanced threat assessment.** A threat assessment based on accurate and timely all-source intelligence must be conducted as the basis for selecting force protection measures (both active and passive).

**Policy.** While most force protection measures are planned and executed below formation level, the operation or theatre policy is determined and resourced at formation level (and above). Furthermore, a number of these measures also apply to formation HQs. Therefore force protection should be considered by the commander and staff and applied to all land force operations.

**Risk management.** Force protection is based on risk management, not risk elimination. Casualties are a reality of military operations. Thus, commanders must balance the risks, and balance them in the context of the campaign end state. The commander should ensure that risk management is fully integrated into planning and execution. Safety in training, planning and operations must be stressed. Risk management applies to all levels of military operations. The commander must ensure that all units, and where appropriate other agencies, are involved in this process.

**Joint and all corps.** Force protection must embrace all force components within the AO and address all aspects of the threat.

**Prioritisation.** Notwithstanding that force protection must embrace the whole force, the capability to protect all FEs to the same degree probably will not exist. Priority should be given to critical capabilities, both tangible - such as intelligence, surveillance, target acquisition and reconnaissance assets or CSS - and intangible, such as force cohesion or political will as influenced by public opinion.

**Flexibility.** The force protection policy and measures must be flexible and capable of responding to a rapidly changing threat.
**Force protection measures.** Force protection measures include:

- field fortifications
- target hardening and structural protection
- personnel and vehicle checks and access control
- counter IED
- chemical, biological, radiological, nuclear and high-yield explosives measures
- route clearance
- convoy escort
- very important person close protection
- opsec measures.

**Participation.** There are many aspects to, and participants in, force protection, including:

- engineers, who provide enhanced and specialist physical force protection solutions, high risk searches, explosive ordnance disposal and chemical, biological, radiological, nuclear and high-yield explosives response
- military and civil emergency response, which involves:
  - fire prevention
  - mitigation and suppression
  - urban search and rescue
  - damage control
  - hazardous materials response, and so on
- dismounted and mounted troops, which include:
  - patrolling
  - low level searches
  - OPs
- intelligence, which involves information on potential threats and advice on material security
- signals, which involves security and communication information systems assets
- military police, who provide advice on personnel security and security checkpoints
- civil police, who assist at:
  - checkpoints
• searches
• traffic control and so on
• local government, which provides:
  • building plans
  • sewer and drainage systems
  • maps
  • use of facilities, and so on
• construction companies, which provide labour
• security firms, which provide:
  • security guards
  • electronic surveillance
  • criminal security advice.

Detailed guidance on force protection can be found in *LWP-G 3-6-4, Physical Force Protection*.

**Conclusion**

Security tactics are part of the fabric of all land force operations, enabling the conduct of decisive offensive and defensive tactics as well as part of a stability mission.

The planning and execution of security tactics in support of offensive and defensive tactics is described in Chapter 5 and Chapter 3 respectively.
Bibliography

Clausewitz Carl von, 1976, On War, 1832, translated by M. Howard and P. Paret (eds)
End matter

Associated publications

This publication should be read in conjunction with Land Warfare Procedures - General 3-3-14, Battlegroup and Combat Team Handbook (to be published) for a comprehensive description of foundation warfighting tactics, techniques and procedures from battlegroup to combat team level.

This publication should be read in conjunction with other publications and documents, in particular:

- Australian Defence Doctrine Publication 00.1, Command and Control
- Doctrine Note 3/2009, Army Command and Control and Technical Control
- Land Warfare Doctrine 0-0, Command, Leadership and Management
- Land Warfare Doctrine 1, The Fundamentals of Land Power
- Land Warfare Doctrine 3-0, Operations
- Land Warfare Doctrine 3-4-1, Employment of Artillery
- Land Warfare Doctrine 3-9-1, Operations in Specific Environments
- Land Warfare Doctrine 3-9-7, Operations in a Chemical, Biological, Radiological and Nuclear Environment
- Land Warfare Doctrine 5-1-2, Staff Officers' Aide-Memoire
- Land Warfare Doctrine 5-1-4, The Military Appreciation Process
- Land Warfare Procedures - Combat Arms (Aviation) 3-1-2, Aircraft Support
- Land Warfare Procedures - Combat Arms (Dismounted Combat) 3-3-1, Dismounted Minor Tactics
- Land Warfare Procedures - Combat Arms (Engineers) 2-1-2, River Crossing
- Land Warfare Procedures - Combat Arms (Mounted Combat) 3-3-1, Mounted Minor Tactics
- Land Warfare Procedures - General 3-3-14, Battlegroup and Combat Team Tactics (to be published)
- Land Warfare Procedures - General 3-6-4, Physical Force Protection
- Land Warfare Procedures - General 3-6-8, Combined Arms Obstacle Breaching
- Land Warfare Procedures - General 3-9-2, Operations in Tropical Environments
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- Land Warfare Procedures - General 3-9-3, Operations in Desert Environments

- Land Warfare Procedures - General 3-9-4, Operations in Cold Conditions


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Photographs and multimedia

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Gender

This publication has been prepared with gender-neutral language.
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Glossary

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ambush
To execute a surprise attack by fire from concealed positions on a moving or temporarily halted enemy.

amphibious technique
A technique to launch from the sea an amphibious force, embarked on ships or craft, with the principle purpose of projecting the land force ashore into an environment ranging from permissive to hostile.

area defence
A defensive technique that concentrates on denying enemy forces access to designated terrain for a specific time rather than destroying the enemy outright.

area of influence
A geographical area wherein a commander is directly capable of influencing operations, by manoeuvre or support systems normally under their command and control.
Related terms: area of operations; area of interest

area of interest
The area of concern to a commander relative to the objectives of current or planned operations, including his area of influence, operations and/or responsibility, and areas adjacent thereto.
Related terms: area of influence; area of operations

area of operation
An operational area defined by a joint commander for land or maritime forces to conduct military activities. Normally, an area of operations does not encompass the entire joint operations area of the joint commander, but is sufficient in size for the joint force component commander to accomplish assigned missions and protect forces.
At the tactical level, a geographical area, usually defined by boundaries assigned to a commander by a higher commander, in which they have responsibility and authority to conduct military operations.

**attack**
To take offensive action against a specified objective.

Related terms: *counter-attack, deliberate attack, demonstration, feint, quick attack, raid, spoiling attack*

**attack by fire**
Engage the enemy with direct fires, supported by indirect fires, without closing with them.

**battlegroup**
A combined arms grouping based on the headquarters of an aviation, armoured or infantry unit.

**battlespace**
Those geographical, physical and virtual areas; that includes the traditional domains of land, air and sea, space, the electromagnetic spectrum and cyberspace, which are of concern to a commander.

Note: Also embraces the social, political and temporal contexts in which conflict is waged.

Related terms: *Operational environment*

**battlespace operating system**
The combination of personnel, collective training, major systems, supplies, facilities, and command and management organised, supported and employed to perform a designated function as part of a whole

**block**
1. To deny access to a given area, or to prevent an advance in a particular direction.
2. The integration of fire planning and obstacles to stop an attacker on a specific avenue of approach or to prevent an enemy from exiting an engagement area.

Related terms: *canalize, contain, deny*

**breach**
To break through or secure a passage through an enemy defence, obstacle, minefield or fortification.
Related term: *penetrate*

**bypass**
To manoeuvre around an obstacle, position, or enemy force.

**campaign**
A set of military operations planned and conducted to achieve a strategic end state or objective within a given time and geographical area.

**capture**
To seize and hold an objective and/or gain possession of specified enemy personnel, materiel or information.

**centre of gravity**
The primary entity that possesses the inherent capability to achieve an objective or the desired end state.

**clear**
To remove resistance in an assigned area and/or cause an individual, group or organisation to leave a designated area.

**close combat**
Combat carried out with direct fire weapons, against identifiable individuals, supported by indirect fire, air-delivered fires and non-lethal engagement means. Note: Close combat defeats or destroys the enemy forces or seizes and retains ground.

**combat team**
A combined arms grouping based upon a manoeuvre sub unit headquarters.

**combined arms team**
A case-by-case mix of combat, combat support, combat service support and command support elements selected on the basis of a specific combination or task, terrain and threat.

**contain**
To restrict the movement of an individual, group or organisation to a defined area or to have or hold them under control.

Note: This may also apply to diseases and disasters where the intent is to prevent its spread or the situation becoming worse.
control measures
1. Restrictive measures imposed upon a civil population, such as, movement, registration or the possession of food stocks and weapons.
2. Directives given graphically or orally by a commander to subordinate commands in order to assign responsibilities, coordinate fires and manoeuvre, and control combat operations.

convoy escort
A tactical technique, that escorts and protects a convoy of vehicles from being scattered, destroyed or captured.

corridor thrust
An offensive technique that utilises an advance on a narrow front, with detailed clearance and securing of the ground covered.

counterattack
An attack by a part or all of a defending force against an enemy attacking force, for such specific purposes as regaining ground lost or cutting off or destroying enemy advanced units, and with the general objective of denying the enemy the attainment of the purpose in attacking. In defence it is undertaken to restore the battle position and is directed at limited objectives.

counterpenetration
A defensive technique to counter enemy penetration of a defended zone or area.

coup de main
An offensive operation that capitalizes on surprise and simultaneous execution of supporting operations to achieve success in one swift stroke.

cover
1. The action by land, air or sea forces to protect by offence, defence or threat of either or both.
2. Those measures necessary to give protection to a person, plan, operation, formation, or installation from the enemy intelligence effort and leakage of information.
3. Shelter or protection, either natural or artificial.
4. To provide security for the main force by fighting while also observing and reporting information. Note: A covering force is self-contained and can operate independently of the main force.
deception
Those measures designed to mislead the enemy by manipulation, distortion or falsification of evidence to induce him to react in a manner prejudicial to their interests.

decisive event
Major events or effects that are a precondition to the successful disruption or negation of the enemy centre of gravity within the framework of the superior commander’s intent.

demonstration
An attack or show of force on a front, where a decision is not sought, made with the aim of deceiving the enemy.
Related term: diversionary attack

envelopment
An offensive form of manoeuvre in which the main attacking force passes around or over the enemy’s principle defensive positions to secure objectives to the enemy’s rear.

feint
In military deception, an offensive technique involving contact with the adversary conducted for the purpose of deceiving the enemy about the location and/or time of the actual main offensive action.

lane
A clear area within a tactical or protective obstacle that will allow a friendly force to pass through the obstacle but not in tactical formation. Notes: 1. A lane may be included when an obstacle is constructed, or formed when an obstacle is reduced. 2. A lane is usually physically marked on the ground and covered by observation and fire. 3. A personnel lane is usually about 2 metres wide and a vehicle lane is usually about 8 metres wide.

reconnaissance
A mission undertaken to obtain, by visual observation or other detection methods, information about the activities and resources of an enemy or potential enemy, or to secure data concerning the meteorological, hydrographic or geographic characteristics of a particular area.
obstacle
Any natural or man-made obstruction designed or employed to disrupt, fix, turn, or block the movement of an opposing force, and to impose additional losses in personnel, time, and equipment on the opposing force.

suppression
The temporary or transient degradation by an opposing force of the performance of a weapons system below the level needed to fulfil its mission objectives.

surveillance
The systematic observation of aerospace, surface or subsurface areas, places, persons or things by visual, aural, electronic, photographic or other means.

synchronisation
The arrangement of related and mutually supporting actions in time, space and purpose to maximise their combined intended effects.

tactical task
The specific activity performed by a unit while executing a form of tactical action, technique or form of manoeuvre. It may be expressed in terms of either actions by a friendly force or effects on an enemy force.

tactics
The ordered arrangement and manoeuvre of units in relation to each other and the enemy in order to utilise their full potentialities.

tempo
The relative measure of the abilities of opponents to understand, decide and implement appropriate adaptations to plans, dispositions or postures.

terrain
A tract of land, especially as considered with reference to its natural and man-made features.

urban
The elements that compose the urban environment: complex manmade physical terrain, a population of significant size and density, and an infrastructure.
## Abbreviations

The principal source for Australian Defence Force abbreviations is the Australian Defence Glossary located at [http://adg.eas.defence.mil.au/adgms](http://adg.eas.defence.mil.au/adgms). Abbreviations contained within this publication are in accordance with the business rules, guidelines and conventions for the Australian Defence Glossary at the time of its release. The following abbreviations are used throughout this publication; however, commonly used terms have been presented in their abbreviated format throughout the publication and have not been included in this list.

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<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>AA</td>
<td>avenue of approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABF</td>
<td>attack by fire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AO</td>
<td>battlegroup</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BHL</td>
<td>battle handover line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BHO</td>
<td>battle handover</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BOS</td>
<td>battlespace operating system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BP</td>
<td>battle position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAT</td>
<td>combined arms team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CATK</td>
<td>counterattack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCIR</td>
<td>commander's critical information requirement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COA</td>
<td>course of action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COG</td>
<td>centre of gravity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comsec</td>
<td>communications security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPEN</td>
<td>counterpenetration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CT</td>
<td>combat team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CV</td>
<td>critical vulnerability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DE</td>
<td>decisive event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA</td>
<td>engagement area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FE</td>
<td>force element</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FSCM</td>
<td>fire support coordination measure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FWD</td>
<td>forward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GBAD</td>
<td>ground based air defence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPB</td>
<td>intelligence preparation of the battlespace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISR</td>
<td>intelligence, surveillance and reconnaissance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JFECC</td>
<td>joint fires and effects coordination centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JFT</td>
<td>Joint fire team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIATF</td>
<td>joint interagency task force</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JTF</td>
<td>joint task force</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KP</td>
<td>key point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LZ</td>
<td>landing zone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M&amp;S</td>
<td>mobility and survivability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAI</td>
<td>named area of interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OE</td>
<td>operating environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OP</td>
<td>observation post</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opsec</td>
<td>operations security</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>OS</td>
<td>offensive support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>phase line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RAS</td>
<td>rear area security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RASF</td>
<td>rear area security force</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RL</td>
<td>report line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RV</td>
<td>rendezvous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SBF</td>
<td>support by fire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOM</td>
<td>scheme of manoeuvre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TAC</td>
<td>tactical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TUAV</td>
<td>tactical unmanned aerial vehicle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VA</td>
<td>vital asset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VP</td>
<td>vulnerable point</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACC</td>
<td>Australian Civil Corps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFP</td>
<td>Australian Federal Police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AI</td>
<td>area of interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AIC</td>
<td>Australian Intelligence Community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALIC</td>
<td>Air Land Integration Cell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALR</td>
<td>air land regiment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alt</td>
<td>alternate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BMH</td>
<td>brigade marshalling harbour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>command, control and communications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFA</td>
<td>call-forward area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIMIC</td>
<td>civil-military cooperation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIS</td>
<td>communication and information system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CL</td>
<td>centre line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFAT</td>
<td>Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DST</td>
<td>Defence science and technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>etc</td>
<td>et cetera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EEP</td>
<td>engineer equipment park</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EN</td>
<td>enemy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERP</td>
<td>engineer regulating point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EW</td>
<td>electronic warfare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEBA</td>
<td>forward edge of battle area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLOT</td>
<td>forward line of own troops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FSCL</td>
<td>fires support coordination line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUP</td>
<td>forming-up place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEOINT</td>
<td>geospatial intelligence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HA</td>
<td>holding area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>humint</td>
<td>human intelligence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICW</td>
<td>in coordination with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ID&amp;I</td>
<td>Information dominance and influence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Int</td>
<td>intermediate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LD</td>
<td>line of departure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LegalO</td>
<td>Legal Officer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Common Staff System is a structured approach to identifying staff appointments and levels. It allocates letters to mark the service composition of the headquarters or component. Within the Army, the letters also designate the level of headquarters, as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Letter</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>Joint staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Naval component or headquarters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Air Force component or headquarters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Army component or headquarters at division level and above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Army headquarters at brigade and below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOJ</td>
<td>Special Operations component of a joint headquarters</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Numbers are then added to the letters to designate the division, sub-division and individual position within the sub-division. They refer to the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Command Group and Specialist Staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Personnel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Intelligence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Operations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Logistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Policy and Plans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Communications and Information Systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Doctrine and Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Force Structure and Development</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>