Military doctrine comprises fundamental principles which armed forces use to direct their actions. Over the past few years, the need for an integrated defence doctrine has increased. In its final report in April 2002, for example, the advisory committee on the introduction of a joint high commander stated that joint operations were fast becoming the norm and that close, internal cooperation in such operations was so vital that an overarching doctrine was required. The Netherlands Defence Doctrine (NDD) serves as a 'doctrinal basis' from which various doctrine publications, for instance for the individual Services, will be drawn and developed.

In order to meet this recognised need, it was proposed that doctrine be developed for all the main tasks of the Defence Ministry, using the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) doctrine as a basis. This NDD fills the gap between Service-specific doctrine and defence policy. The usual procedure is that Service doctrine is drawn from national defence doctrine. The situation in the Netherlands has until now been different. There was no defence doctrine, but the Services had nonetheless developed their own doctrine. Because of this situation, a significant part of the contents of the NDD has been taken from the existing doctrine publications of the various Services, underpinned by a strategic foundation from current policy documents from the Ministry of Defence. The distinction between the policy documents and the various doctrine publications lies particularly in the fact that the policy documents determine the ambitions and the capabilities of the armed forces and the doctrine publications provide guidance for the conduct of military operations.

The realisation of the NDD has fulfilled the requirement for guidelines for joint military operations by the Services. The NDD also marks the progression to the next phase in the development of Dutch military doctrine. The NDD will serve as an important foundation for the training for and the planning and execution of joint military operations by the Dutch armed forces in a national or international context.

Netherlands Defence Doctrine

Ministry of Defence

Netherlands Defence Doctrine

NETHERLANDS DEFENCE DOCTRINE

Ministry of Defence

NETHERLANDS DEFENCE DOCTRINE

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Foreword

Military doctrine comprises fundamental principles which armed forces use to direct their actions. Over the past few years, the need for an integrated defence doctrine has increased. In its final report in April 2002, for example, the advisory committee on the introduction of a joint high commander (known as the Franssen Committee) stated that joint operations were fast becoming the norm and that close, internal cooperation in such operations was so vital that an overarching doctrine was required. The Netherlands Defence Doctrine (NDD) serves as a 'doctrinal basis' from which various doctrine publications, for instance for the individual Services, will be drawn and developed.

In order to meet this recognised need, it was proposed that doctrine be developed for all the main tasks of the Defence Ministry, using the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) doctrine as a basis. This NDD fills the gap between Service-specific doctrine and defence policy. The usual procedure is that Service doctrine is drawn from national defence doctrine. The situation in the Netherlands has until now been different. There was no defence doctrine, but the Services had nonetheless developed their own doctrine. Because of this situation, a significant part of the contents of the NDD has been taken from the existing doctrine publications of the various Services, underpinned by a strategic foundation from current policy documents from the Ministry of Defence. The distinction between the policy documents and the various doctrine publications lies particularly in the fact that the policy documents determine the ambitions and the capabilities of the armed forces and the doctrine publications provide guidance for the conduct of military operations. The structure of the NDD is largely derived from the British Defence Doctrine. The British armed forces can pride themselves on extensive experience of military operations and on meticulously written doctrine publications. It is for that reason that the same structure has been adopted in this publication.

The NDD serves as a guide for operations by the armed forces as a whole and by the individual Services. Raising awareness of the importance of an umbrella doctrine for the armed forces is crucial for the reinforcement of the cooperation between the Services. All flag, general and field officers, as well as civilians working at the Ministry of Defence in similar functions should have an understanding of the content of the NDD. Other military

and civilian personnel in the Defence organisation should at least be aware of its existence. A further purpose of doctrine at the military-strategic level is to inform a wider audience, both in the Netherlands and abroad, of the tasks and deployment capabilities of the Dutch armed forces. The wider audience abroad could include armed forces, defence departments, academic and other institutes and international organisations such as the United Nations (UN), NATO and the European Union (EU).

The realisation of the NDD has fulfilled the requirement for guidelines for joint military operations by the Services. The NDD also marks the progression to the next phase in the development of Dutch military doctrine. I expect the NDD to serve as an important foundation for the training for and the planning and execution of joint military operations by the Dutch armed forces in a national or international context.

CHIEF OF THE DEFENCE STAFF

D.L. Berlijn
General

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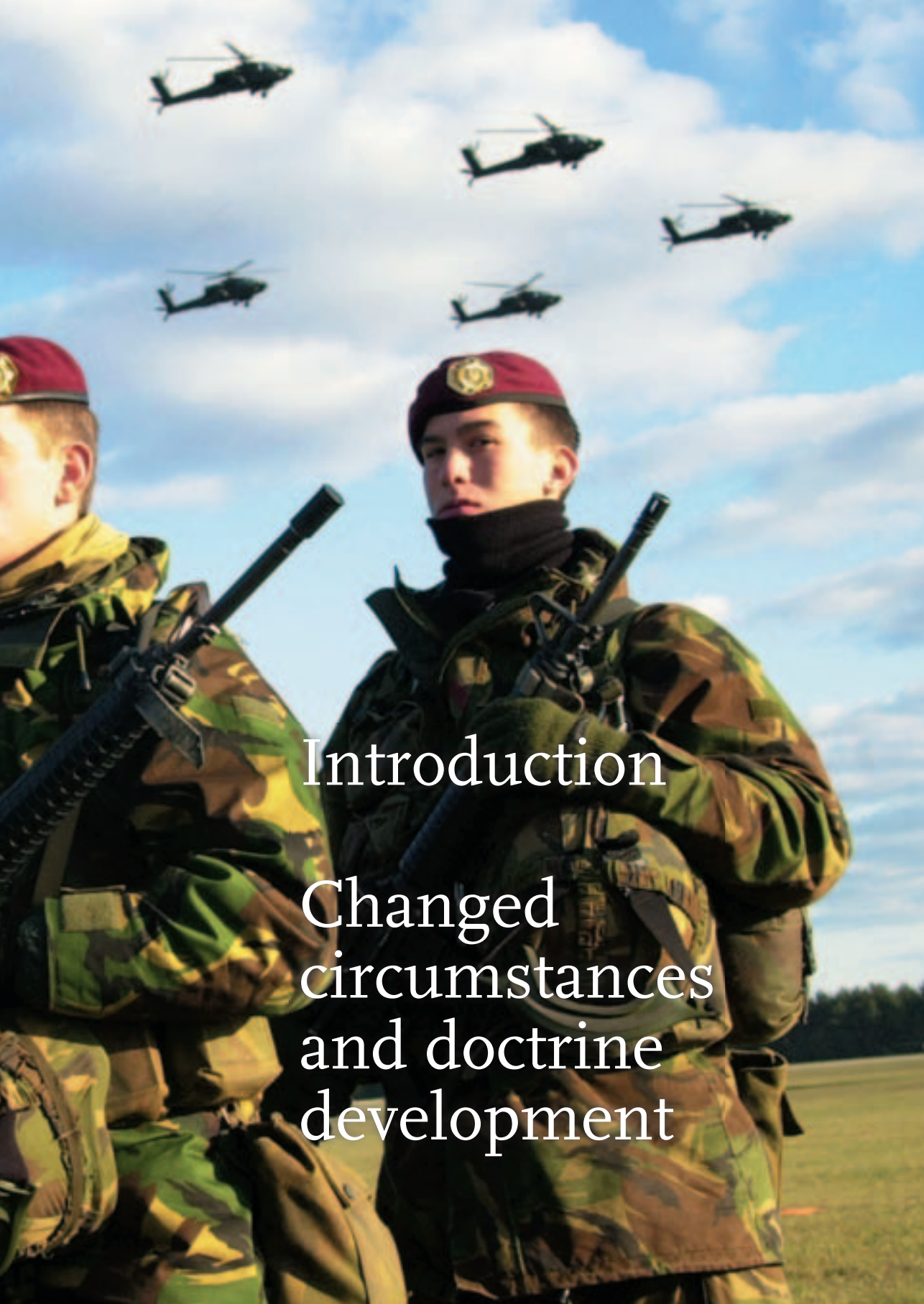
Abbreviations

ADP	Army Doctrine Publication
AJP	Allied Joint Publication
APD	Air Power Doctrine
BBE	Special Assistance Unit
C2	Command & Control
CBK	Corporate Frame of Reference for Defence
CBRN	Chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear
CDC	Support Command
CDS	Chief of the Defence Staff
CIMIC	Civil-Military Cooperation
CMBA	Civil-Military Administrative Agreement
DEU	Germany
DT	Defence Task
EBO	Effects-based Operations
EOC	Essential Operational Capabilities
ESDP	European Security and Defence Policy
EU	European Union
GBR	Great Britain
LOAC	law of armed conflict
MIVD	Military Intelligence and Security Service
NA5CRO	Non-Article 5 Crisis Response Operations
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
NCC	National Coordination Centre
NDD	Netherlands Defence Doctrine
NEC	Network-enabled Capabilities
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NLD	The Netherlands
NMD	Netherlands Maritime Doctrine
OCKM	Royal Netherlands Navy Operational Concept
OSCE	Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe
PfP	Partnership for Peace
PSO	Peace Support Operations
QRA	Quick Reaction Alert
RNLA	Royal Netherlands Army
RNLAF	Royal Netherlands Air Force
RNLM	Royal Netherlands Marechaussee
RNLN	Royal Netherlands Navy

ROE	Rules of Engagement
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNSC	United Nations Security Council
US	United States

[Abbreviations in italics are Dutch abbreviations that have been used in the text.]



Introduction

Changed circumstances and doctrine development

Introduction

Changed circumstances and doctrine development

001. **Mission**. During the Cold War, the protection of national and Allied (NATO) territory was central to the thinking behind military operations. After the end of the Cold War, things began to change. Changes in the political situation and in political viewpoints had implications for military operations. The Dutch armed forces were transformed into a military apparatus which, besides performing the protection task and providing support for civil authorities in upholding the law and providing disaster relief and humanitarian aid, both nationally and internationally, also had to be deployable at short notice for crisis management operations anywhere in the world.

002. **Change in attitude towards doctrine**. Doctrine development underwent a revival after the fall of the Berlin Wall. During the Cold War, the creation of Dutch doctrine had been confined to operations in a major conflict against aggression from the Warsaw Pact. This changed at the beginning of the 1990s. The increased importance of crisis management operations and the intensification of the cooperation between the Services (joint) and between the armed forces of NATO, EU and Partnership for Peace (PfP) countries (multinational or combined), meant that the 'old' doctrine had to be revised and new doctrine developed.[1]

003. **Allied doctrine development**. During the 1990s, NATO recognised the need to revise existing doctrine. On the basis of the American approach, a decision was made to create a hierarchy of doctrine publications, the Allied Joint Doctrine Hierarchy. At the top of this hierarchy is a capstone publication, the Allied Joint Publication (AJP)-01, Allied Joint Doctrine, the general NATO doctrine. Immediately below that is a series

[1] JOINT is used to describe the integrated deployment under a single command of operational units or personnel from more than one Service or part of the Defence organisation (including the Support Command (CDC) and the Military Intelligence and Security Service (MIVD), as well as the measures, organisation, etc, that lead to such a deployment (Source: *CBK*). COMBINED/MULTINATIONAL describes activities, operations and organisations in which elements of more than one nation participate (Source: AAP-6, NATO Glossary of terms and definitions, Brussels, February 2005, p.2-C-7).

of functional publications, the keystone publications, such as the AJP-2 Joint Intelligence and the AJP-3 Joint Operations. The capstone and keystone publications form the highest level of the hierarchy. The level below that comprises publications which support the conduct of joint and multinational operations. These publications describe the contribution of the various components (land, air and naval forces) and also the underlying activities, such as joint special operations, performed in support of joint and multinational operations. The lowest level consists of publications of which the overall content is not joint but parts of which would be relevant to joint operations, for example combat search and rescue. By ratifying the Allied publications, the Netherlands has indicated its approval of the content. These publications can thus be used in part or in their entirety in the development of national doctrine.

004. **Development of doctrine in the Services**. In the 1990s, the Royal Netherlands Navy (RNLN) concentrated mainly on the naval doctrine, tactics and procedures developed within the context of NATO. In 1997, the RNLN published an Operational Concept (OCKM in Dutch), which focused on operations by a naval task force and which served as a policy foundation for the RNLN plans. This OCKM was later revised, with the aim of describing the naval contribution to joint (and multinational) operations. The RNLN will shortly be publishing its own Service doctrine, the Netherlands Maritime Doctrine (NMD). In doing so, the RNLN will rely particularly on NATO's perspective on naval operations and also on the views of the main Allies (in particular the United States (US), the United Kingdom (UK) and Belgium). The Royal Netherlands Army (RNLA) has been publishing Army Doctrine Publications (ADPs) since 1996. In the development of its ADP series, the RNLA drew on the latest NATO doctrine and that of the main Allies (UK and Germany), but at the same time opted for a Service-specific translation into Dutch. The Royal Netherlands Air Force (RNLAF) also published the first version of its Air Power Doctrine (APD) in 1996. The RNLAF relied mainly on the NATO view of the role of air power and the other elements of air forces as well as on the opinions of the main Allies (in particular the US, the UK, Germany and Belgium). The Royal Netherlands Marechaussee (RNLM) does not have its own Service doctrine. For its operations abroad, during exercises and on missions, the RLNM refers to the doctrine of the RNLA, the RNLAF and the RNLN.[2]

[2] With the exception of situations in which the RNLM acts in accordance with the Service doctrine publications, joint operations/actions for the RNLM also mean the actual performance of its police task in accordance with article 6 of the Police Act. Its actions are governed not by doctrine but by the authority in the Code of Criminal Procedure. This is in contrast to the military police forces of the US and the UK, which are assigned to the Services. The Netherlands does not use the same system.

005. **Doctrinal cooperation**. The three Services which have their own doctrine -the RNLA, the RNLAF and the RNLN- are gradually increasing their cooperation in respect of doctrine as well. For instance, representatives from the various Services are involved in an advisory capacity in the creation of doctrine for another Service. One example of this is the RNLA's Army Field Manual on Air Manoeuvre, which was approved by both the RNLA and the RNLAF. There are also discussions within the interservice body set up in 2002, the Armed Forces Doctrine Consultations, on issues such as the Dutch point of view with regard to NATO doctrine. A move had thus already been made towards the development of a Service-wide doctrine, which would serve as a stepping stone for the individual Service doctrine publications.

Move towards a defence doctrine

006. **AJP as national doctrine**. Because the development of doctrine was becoming more important, the question arose as to what the implications would be for the Dutch armed forces. The main question was whether there was a need for a defence doctrine, such as the American *Joint Publication – 1*, the British *Joint Warfare Publication (JWP) 0-01* and NATO's AJP-01. A decision was then made to meet the need for a national defence doctrine by declaring the AJP-01 applicable to the entire Dutch armed forces wherever joint operations were concerned.

007. **Position of the CDS in doctrine development**. A major step in the development of a Dutch defence doctrine was made in the form of the report by the Franssen Committee. As one of the preconditions for a new defence organisation, this committee stated that operational deployment should be conducted jointly. And that 'joint' would refer to the preparation, support, doctrine and command and control in staffs and teams in which all Services and disciplines were represented.[3] The commission thus fully endorsed the need for joint doctrine in whatever form. The recommendation of the Franssen Committee confirmed that doctrine was one of the instruments available to the CDS to fulfil his role as Corporate Operator. The role of the director in respect of doctrine development by and within the Dutch armed forces should, therefore, be played by the Defence Staff.

---

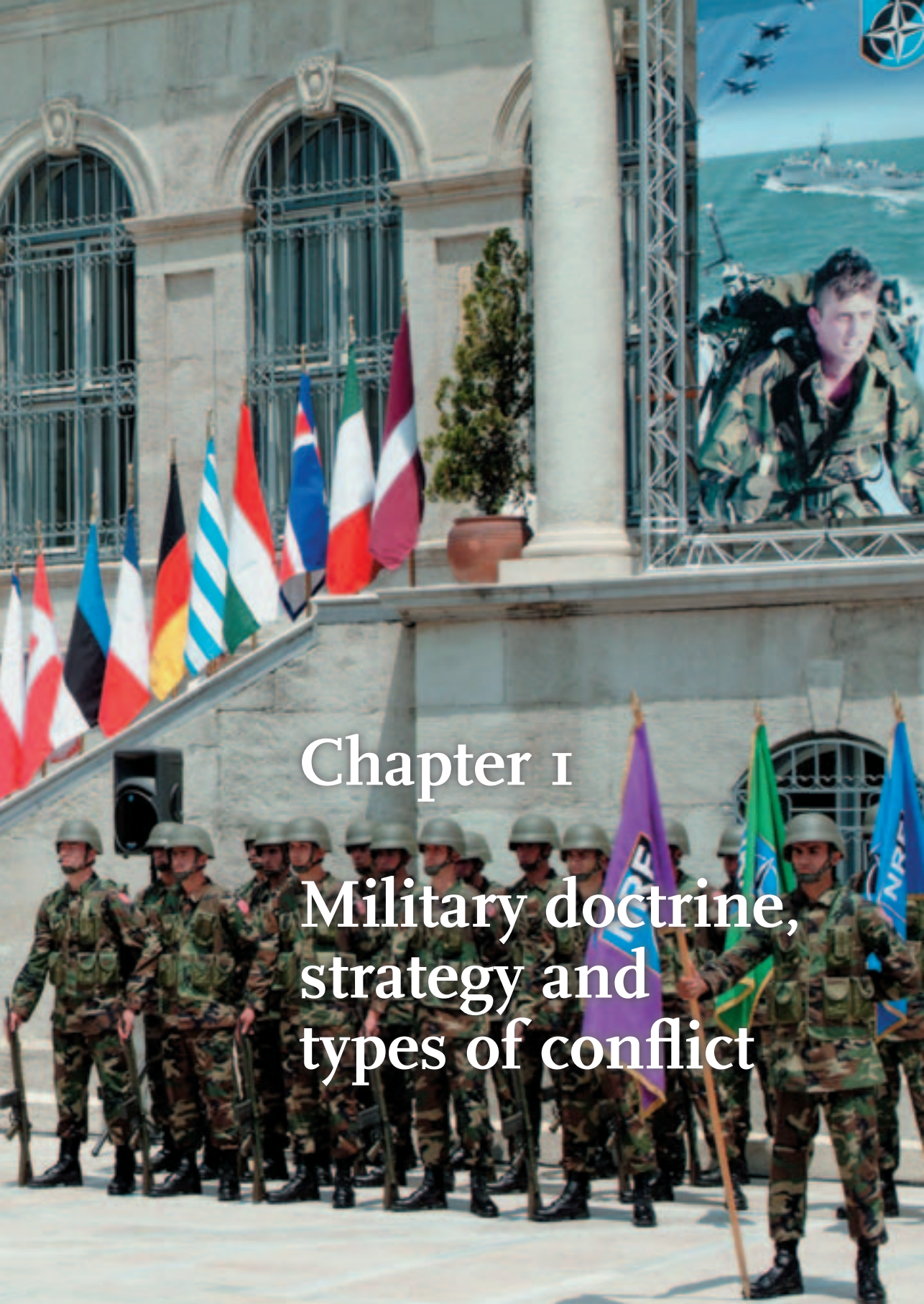
[3] Recommendation of the Advisory Commission on the Future Role of the Chief of Defence Staff (Franssen Committee), 'From an uneasy balance to a strengthened Defence organisation' (The Hague, 19 April 2002), p.25.

008. **CDS Guidelines and NDD**. In 2002, documents were produced at CDS level describing the thinking with regard to military operations. These were the CDS Guidelines 1 – Operational Concept for Peace Operations, and 2 – CDS Planning Process for (Peace) Operations. The Guidelines are operational regulations which govern the planning of military deployment in actual operations from CDS level. These documents are not, however, regarded as doctrine. The RNLA and RNLAF doctrine publications need to be revised and the RNLN is currently developing its own Service-specific doctrine. The defence doctrine was the missing link in the hierarchy of Dutch doctrine publications (see Figure 0-A). With the disappearance of the commanders-in-chief and their staffs, the increased responsibility and authority of the CDS and the fact that operations are increasingly shaped by the joint deployment of the RNLN, the RNLA, the RNLAF and the RNLM, it was no longer possible to do without a defence doctrine. For this reason, the introduction of the NDD is highly expedient.

009. **Structure of the NDD**. The structure of the NDD is based on the following underlying principles. The planners opted for an approach going from theoretical to practical, from international to national and from general security policy to military operations. First of all, the NDD clarifies terms that are normally used in doctrine documents. To do so, the NDD begins with a theoretical chapter (Chapter 1), drawn from the fields of international relations and strategy, which focuses on doctrine, strategy and conflicts. This theory is then applied to the prevailing national and international circumstances. The chapter on the politico-strategic environment (Chapter 2) outlines such aspects as the international security situation, the resulting Dutch foreign and security policy and the tasks they entail for the armed forces. Subsequently, a more in-depth look will be taken at military operations (Chapter 3), including elements such as the spectrum of force, the use of force, military capability and the fundamentals of military operations. These general aspects of military operations will then be applied to the operational execution of the (main) tasks of the armed forces (Chapter 4), whereby a distinction will be made between national and international deployment. Effective military action is impossible without unambiguous and efficient direction. The last chapter on command and control (Chapter 5) looks, therefore, at decision making and command, in terms of structures and processes, as well as the leadership provided by the commander.

Figure 0-A: Hierarchy of Dutch doctrine publications and policy documents

Levels of operation	Doctrine Publications and Policy Documents
Grand strategy	Policy documents Minister of Defence
Military-strategic	Policy documents Chief of the Defence Staff NDD
Operational	NMD ADPs APD



Chapter 1

Military doctrine, strategy and types of conflict

1 Military doctrine, strategy and types of conflict

101. This chapter offers an insight into concepts which are generally accepted as being fundamental to military doctrine. First of all, therefore, explanations will be given regarding the term 'doctrine' and the various doctrine levels as well as the formulation of Dutch doctrine. The section will then outline the strategy at the different levels of military operation, thus illustrating how (political) decision making is translated into military activities. The armed forces can be deployed in a wide variety of conflicts. For military actions to be successful, there has to be an understanding of the nature of the conflict in which they are carried out. The last section caters for this requirement by looking at different methods of conflict categorisation.

1.1 Military doctrine

102. In the dictionary, doctrine is defined as 'teachings', or in other words, something that is taught. It is a body of knowledge and understanding that is primarily derived from study and analysis of practical experience. In that sense, military doctrine defines the most effective way of using military assets on the basis of that practical experience. Doctrine is thus not dogmatic, but is intended to guide and advise. New experiences and equipment might necessitate amendments to the doctrine.

103. **Range in distance and time**. Military doctrine represents the collective, officially approved advice in respect of the best way of deploying the armed forces to realise the objectives determined in the strategic process. That advice evolves with experience and changing ideas. Doctrine is the formal expression of military thinking, valid for a particular period. Doctrine is general in nature and describes fundamentals, principles and preconditions for military operations at the various operational levels[4]. It describes the nature

[4] A MILITARY OPERATION is any form of actual military action in peacetime, during an armed conflict or in times of war, that is conducted for a specific purpose. When military personnel or units take part in a military operation, it is by definition limited in time and is of a specific nature. (Source: *CBK*)

and characteristics of current and future military operations, the preparations for these operations and the methods for the successful completion of military operations[5]. Doctrine stems largely from experience gained during military operations in the past. Doctrine also has a forward-looking element. Doctrine can indicate shortcomings and can affect the armed forces' requirement for organisation, personnel and equipment in future operations.

104. **Functions**. NATO defines military doctrine as fundamental principles by which the military forces guide their actions in support of objectives. Doctrine is authoritative but requires judgement in application[6]. However, it is neither dogmatic nor compulsory. The function of military doctrine is not to draw up a series of specific rules, but to guide the thinking on the use of military capability and thus promote better understanding or unity of opinion. Military doctrine provides a framework for operational activities. Doctrine thus contributes to the interoperability of a joint/combined operation. Doctrine also has a function within the armed forces in military training and education. Doctrine can also be a factor in the professional motivation of Defence personnel by clearly defining the tasks and deployment methods of the armed forces. Lastly, doctrine also serves at the military-strategic level to provide information for a wider audience in respect of the tasks and deployment options of the Dutch armed forces.

105. **Importance**. Like other similar organisations, the armed forces must be able to perform complex activities successfully. In the case of operational activities, however, there are not many hard and fast rules. For military forces to operate successfully, they need to be able to adapt quickly to changing circumstances and work effectively in chaotic situations. If they want to represent a credible deterrent, it must be clear that they are physically able and psychologically and morally prepared to engage in the conflict. Military personnel must be absolutely sure of how to cope with the complex situations, problems and hardships that crises and wars bring with them. Everyone in the organisation should be familiar with the relevant doctrine prior to the operation. This will also enable military personnel to understand the actions of their commanders and to continue to support the operation as a whole, even when they are not in contact with their superiors.

---

[5] MILITARY OPERATIONS entail the authorised use of force by military personnel or the threat of force, which means that military combat power is a prerequisite for success. The methods for military operations in the long term (15-20 years) is laid down in what is known as a concept of operations, which means that part of the military operation will be conducted with future assets. Doctrine, on the other hand, describes the way in which military operations are conducted with existing assets.

[6] AAP-6 NATO Glossary of terms and definitions, p. 2-D-7.

106. **The place of doctrine in security policy**. A nation's security policy is traditionally intended to promote or maintain the independence, integrity, stability and welfare of that nation. To this end, a nation undertakes political, diplomatic, economic, socio-cultural, humanitarian and military activities. Every nation has national interests. The deployment of the armed forces is often determined by the perception of the extent to which those interests are threatened. The translation of interests into objectives is done by the politicians. A nation's politics can also be viewed from the point of view of security. Seen from this angle, the nation's security policy encompasses the body of measures relating to internal and external security. As one of the assets available to the nation, the military instrument can be used to achieve the objectives of the grand strategy[7]. The planning of military operations to achieve the political objectives is done at a lower level, that of military strategy. And this is where we find military doctrine. Doctrine provides guidance for the conduct of military operations.

107. **Categories**. Depending on the level of military operation, we talk about strategic, operational and tactical doctrine.

a. **Strategic doctrine publications** describe the use of the military instrument as part of national or multinational security policy. A national defence doctrine, also referred to as interservice or joint doctrine, is to be found at this level. There are also international or combined joint doctrine publications. This type of doctrine applies to joint activities by naval, land and air forces in international operations. It describes the best way to organise the integrated deployment of the armed forces of countries in an alliance or coalition and thus enhances interoperability. The basis principles, structures and fundamental procedures agreed by Allied or coalition forces are set out in this doctrine. Doctrine of this type supports joint defence treaties, agreements or organisations and promotes commonly applicable arrangements relating to the deployment of military forces in international military operations.

b. **Operational doctrine publications** describe the interservice or joint activities (joint forces commander) and the operations planned and conducted by naval, land and air components within this framework. The individual contributions by the Services to the national and international defence organisation complement each other.

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[7] B.R. Posen, *The sources of military doctrine – France, Britain and Germany between the world wars* (New York, 1984), p. 13. Dutch security policy is examined in Chapter 2.

c. **Tactical doctrine publications**, usually in the form of handbooks and field manuals, look at activities within the particular Service and are mainly Service-specific in nature. The five dimensions of military operations -sea, land, air, space and the information domain- differ in nature. Partly because of that, naval, land and air forces have different, specific characteristics and individual applications[8].

108. **Defence doctrine**. Defence doctrine is a strategic doctrine publication which forms the guidelines for military thinking in respect of joint operations by naval, land and air forces and also in respect of independent operations by a Service. It defines the best way of integrating the deployment of the Services. Defence doctrine provides fundamental principles which will steer the deployment of military forces in pursuit of the objectives set by the political leadership.

109. **Development of Dutch doctrine**. Over the past few decades, the Services have been particularly busy at operational level with the development of their own land, air or naval doctrine. The RNLA has done so by publishing a number of ADPs. The RNLAF has written an Air Power Doctrine and the RNLN has drawn up an Operational Concept (*OCKM*) and will be publishing a Netherlands Maritime Doctrine[9]. The Services were guided in their doctrine development by the joint NATO doctrine publications referred to in the introduction and by the Service doctrine publications of a number of countries with which intensive cooperation has been taking place for many years.

110. **Netherlands Defence Doctrine**. The NDD describes Dutch doctrine at the military-strategic level and is set out by the Chief of the Defence Staff (CDS). The aim of this publication is to illustrate what the contribution at this level is towards the armed forces' product, namely the effective conduct of military operations. Whereas the policy documents of the Minister of Defence and the CDS pave the way for the organisation and thus the capabilities of the armed forces (the 'what with'), the NDD looks at the way in which military activities are performed (the 'how'). The NDD is thus a publication which complements a number of important policy documents and which provides guidance for the underlying Service doctrine publications.

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[8] The Netherlands does not operate independently in the space domain. All Services operate jointly as well as individually in the information domain.

[9] ADP I, *Military doctrine* (1996); ADP II, *Combat operations* (Parts A and B 1998, Part C 2003); ADP III, *Peace operations* (1999) and ADP IV, *National operations* (2001) [not translated]; APD (2002); *OCKM* (1997).

1.2 Strategy: the levels of military operation

111. The strategic process is about translating national interests into national objectives. Assets and capabilities must then be made available to achieve those objectives. Military power is only deployed in the case of serious violation of national or international values, rights or interests. The way in which military power is deployed will be examined at various levels of operation.

112. **Levels of operation**. There are five levels in the conduct of military operations: grand strategy, military-strategic, operational, tactical and technical level. It is impossible to draw a clear dividing line between the levels; there is usually a gradual overlap between the successive levels.

a. **Grand strategy level**. Grand strategy is the coordinated, systematic development and use of the economic, diplomatic, psychological, military and other political instruments of a state, alliance or coalition to protect national, Allied or coalition interests. The aim of a grand strategy is to provide guidance and cohesion for the use of all instruments of power available to a country or alliance and coalitions to which a country is party. The grand strategy is thus the exclusive responsibility of a government, regardless of whether it is operating autonomously or acting in conjunction with other governments in a security organisation such as the UN, in an alliance such as NATO or in an *ad hoc* coalition such as the one formed during the 1990-1991 Gulf War. In short, the grand strategy defines the context of objectives against which governments indicate what must be achieved. The grand strategy also determines the instruments of power that will be used to achieve those objectives. It also indicates what restrictions apply to the use of those instruments of power, but without determining in detail how those assets should be deployed.

b. **Military-strategic level**. Military strategy is the coordinated, systematic development and use of military means of power of a state or alliance to achieve the military elements of the objectives in the grand strategy. It thus forms an integral component of the grand strategy. In addition, national, multinational or Allied military-strategic authorities, such as the CDS, the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) or the Supreme Allied Commander Transformation (SACT), are responsible for setting out the requirement for military assets[10]. Part of this military-strategic authority is also responsible for the deployment of military means of power in any given operation.

[10] SACEUR and SACT are the strategic commanders in NATO.

c. **Operational level**. Operational strategy involves the design and direction of joint campaigns (conducted by means of joint activities by different Services) and/or multinational campaigns (conducted by military forces from different countries) in order to achieve a military-strategic objective defined in a strategic directive. The operational level provides the link between the military strategic objectives and the tactical deployment of units in a particular area of operations. At operational level, military assets are used to achieve the objective that has been set by the military-strategic authority for that area of operations. A commander at operational level will plan a campaign for the operation(s) for which he is responsible. He designs and directs secondary campaigns and operations within that campaign. This requires a high level of specific expertise regarding the activities of the different Services and also a general understanding of the essence of military operations. Those military operations cover all task areas (ranging from all-out war, via crisis management operations to support for civil authorities) and relate to the whole spectrum of force, from high to low. There is a clear distinction between the operational level and the military-strategic level. The operational commander, who will theoretically be situated in the area of operations, commands the formations and units assigned to him in order to carry out his own plan. By implementing this plan, he will achieve the necessary effects to realise his objectives. In this way, he contributes to the strategic aims. The military-strategic authority, which leads the operations in or near the area of operations, allocates targets and equipment and, in consultation with the politicians, imposes restrictions on the deployment thereof, without getting involved in the finer details of implementation.

d. **Tactical level**. The term tactics refers to the way in which units are deployed and operate in order to help achieve the operational aim of a campaign by means of combat and other forms of military action, in a particular arrangement and sequence. At tactical level, units fight to complete tactical assignments which form part of the campaign plan. Units also operate tactically during crisis management operations. There may also be fighting during such operations, although this will be on a relatively small scale in most cases. An important lesson learned from taking part in crisis management operations after the Cold War is that even in crisis management operations, under certain, usually rapidly changing circumstances, tactical units need to be able to shift to combat operations (even in the highest part of the spectrum of force:

escalation domination)[11]. In contrast to the operational level, at tactical level units are deployed directly for combat. This often contributes indirectly to the military-strategic objective. However, there are also examples in which tactical units contribute directly to the military-strategic objective(s). This applies, for instance, to the deployment of special forces, depending of course on their task. Other examples are the deployment of a submarine to gather strategic intelligence and strategic bombing by one or more combat aircraft.

e. **Technical level**. The technical level determines the way in which small units, sometimes even individual personnel or weapon systems, are deployed and operate in order to achieve the tactical objective of a battle or other type of tactical activity, in a particular arrangement and sequence. The technical level deals with the actual execution of combat actions, usually with a specific weapon system. The technical level also deals with the actual execution of other tasks in support of combat actions in the broadest sense. Examples are equipment repairs, keeping a radio station operational, supplies at sea, air-to-air refuelling or a staff function.

113. **Correlation between grand strategy and military strategy**. The decision to use military force falls within the primacy of politics. Military strategy must be in keeping with the political strategy and international law and must bring the realisation of the objectives at grand strategy level closer. It is the responsibility of the CDS and the operational commanders to translate the political objectives and guidelines into feasible military objectives down to tactical level. The military objectives must be specific, measurable, attainable, realistic and limited in time. The defining of grand strategy and military objectives may not, however, be the result of a one-way process. There must be close cooperation between the political and military leaders and between the Ministries involved, such as those of General Affairs, Foreign Affairs, Development Cooperation, Economic Affairs and Defence. In practice, there is often no clear distinction between

[11] General Krulak (former commander of the US Marine Corps) introduced the concept of the 'three-block war', in which he states that future operations will be characterised by an extremely rapid alternation between combat and peace support operations and humanitarian relief, in terms of both time and a limited geographical area. Regular operations against an adversary operating in virtually the same way will increasingly give way to asymmetric conflicts in which opponents conduct more and more irregular operations. British General Jackson, Chief of the General Staff, uses the term 'cross-spectrum operations' rather than 'three-block war' (Source: Jackson, M., 'The UK Medium Weight Capability: A Response to the Changing Strategic Context', *RUSI Defence Systems*, Autumn 2003, pp 42-44). See also the section on the complex nature of operations in Chapter 4.

grand strategy and the military-strategic level. In effect, there is often an overlap between the two levels, where top civil servants and military leaders work intensively to draft and prepare decisions for the deployment of the military instrument.

114. Not all political objectives are attainable in military terms, nor are the armed forces the only instrument of power available to the politicians. It may well be that other instruments, such as diplomacy or economic sanctions, are more appropriate for realising the objectives. That decision rests with the politicians, with the advice of, for example, the military leaders. The selection or the combination of the various instruments of power is one of the fundamental strategic decisions which the political leaders must take in any conflict in which they are (and want to be) involved.

115. **Interaction between the levels**. Partly because of the increased technological capabilities for more intensive and real-time reporting about conflicts and the associated crisis management operations and/or humanitarian relief organisations, the demand for such reporting has also increased. Partly because of this, the relationship with the political level has changed. In such operations, it may be the case, for example, that the actions of units or even individuals operating at tactical level have strategic implications. It is not only the politicians who keep a close track of events (often in minute detail), but also other actors, such as the Public Prosecution Service and the judiciary. Commanders should be mindful of the fact that in certain circumstances the politicians will want to exert influence down to tactical or even technical level. Commanders should appreciate at which level they are working so that they are aware of the responsibilities they have at that level. The nature of command differs at each level of operation[12].

1.3 Types of conflict

116. If the nature of a conflict changes during an operation, this will also have implications for the military activities. Nowadays the nature of conflicts is so variable that different forms of military activity might occur at the same time or successively in a single operation. Identifying and responding skilfully to the characteristics of a conflict form the basis for the successful use of military capability in support of political objectives[13].

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[12] In the section on mission command, Chapter 5 describes how the Dutch armed forces interpret the concept of command and control.

[13] Chapter 4 looks at the classification of operations and at the complex nature of operations which could be conducted as a result of a changeable conflict situation and which involve different types of military activities.

117. **Conflict distinction**. Different types of conflicts have certain unique characteristics. The nature of each conflict depends on the characteristics of the parties involved, the causes of the conflict, the method of operating and the geographical and climatological conditions in the area of operations. Apart from the more strategic classification referred to earlier, military activities can also be categorised according to their nature, in other words the way in which the parties involved operate. These activities differ on the one hand in terms of the nature of the weapons deployed in that conflict and on the other by the way in which the parties operate, the combat methods. Although no two conflicts are the same, they can be categorised on the basis of three characteristics: parties to the conflict, weapons and methods.

118. **Parties to the conflict**. In this respect, conflicts can be divided into interstate, intrastate and transnational conflicts:

a. **Interstate**. An interstate conflict is fought between sovereign states or alliances thereof. It is thus a conflict between two or more states. A state is defined as an area in which a particular population lives and which falls under the authority of an autonomous government.
b. **Intrastate**. In an intrastate conflict, one party is usually a sovereign state and the other party (or parties) is/are not. This type of conflict occurs within the territorial borders of a single state and is one in which an armed group mounts resistance against the government (anti-regime war). In a civil war, there may also be more than two armed factions, as was the case in the former Yugoslavia. It may also be the case that an intrastate conflict is fought out between two or more parties (warlords, for example), where the ultimate aim is to seize power. This could happen, for example, in a failing state, where there is no longer any legitimate government authority, such as Somalia.
c. **Transnational**. A transnational conflict is one in which one party is usually a sovereign state and the other(s) is/are not. This conflict is not confined to the territorial boundaries of a state. It transcends territorial and political boundaries, partly because of the fact that politico-nationalistic, ethnic-religious and other cultural boundaries do not coincide with state borders (as in the Kurdish conflict). A transnational conflict could be caused by, for example, the spread of an intrastate (national) conflict to neighbouring countries.

119. There are no hard and fast dividing lines between the various types of conflicts classified on the basis of the parties involved. It is clear that an intrastate conflict could become a transnational conflict and that a transnational conflict may turn into an interstate conflict. A geographical expansion such as this is called 'horizontal escalation'. A conflict that starts as an interstate conflict could also evolve into an intrastate (or transnational) conflict.

120. **Weapons**. In this category, conflicts are divided into conventional and non-conventional. If weapons of mass destruction are used (chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear – CBRN), the conflict is non-conventional. In foreign literature, there are sometimes several definitions of the term 'conventional'. Sometimes the term is also used to refer to a method. British terminology includes the term 'unconventional warfare', which is used to refer to irregular methods of operating, such as guerrilla warfare or terrorism[14]. In this context, however, the terms conventional and non-conventional refer to the classification of conflict in terms of weapons.

a. **Conventional**. A conflict in which only weapons other than CBRN are used.
b. **Non-conventional**. A conflict in which CBRN weapons are also deployed.

121. **Methods**. The methods used by the parties in a conflict (state forces or warring factions) are divided into regular or irregular methods. Traditionally, regular forces rather than guerrilla warfare or terrorism are used in operations. It is not inconceivable that the armed forces will in certain situations operate in conflicts of an irregular nature. The type of conflict and its characteristics will determine the possibilities for and the restrictions on the operational deployment of various weapon systems and units. It should be mentioned here that the distinction between regular and irregular operations is not always a clear one. Emphasising the complex nature of today's operations, as set out in Chapter 4, endorses the view that in military operations account should be taken of the possibility that these methods will be used in combination.

a. **Regular operations**. These are characterised by the use of organised, military units, the deployment of which is usually overt, structured, all-out and coordinated and in accordance with established doctrine. The activities are characterised by a structured command and control and proceed in accordance with practised procedures. Regular operations may have the following characteristics:

    - rules of engagement governing the use of force by regular units with uniformed troops;
    - operating within the framework of international law;
    - operating overtly;

[14] TERRORISM: The unlawful use or threatened use of force or violence against individuals or property in an attempt to coerce or intimidate governments or societies to achieve political, religious or ideological objectives. (Source: AAP-6, NATO Glossary of terms and definitions, 2-T-4).

- using organic formations or units, e.g. army corps, divisions, fleets, squadrons;
- usually under centralised authority/command;
- political objectives of the conflict are usually rational (territory, strategic raw materials, etc).

b. **Irregular operations**. These are actions conducted by smaller groups, often insurgents, who usually operate with the element of surprise and may conduct high-intensity actions in certain areas. There might be a (collapsed) command and control structure in which local commanders exercise a great deal of power. Typical activities are covert operations, designed to create confusion and chaos. Irregular troops are mobile and often operate at night and in obscure terrain, which allows them to fully exploit the effects of surprise. Irregular troops can find shelter in built-up areas, mountainous terrain, dense woodland and jungles. In irregular operations, it will not always be clear which party is the aggressor. There are different forms of irregular operation. It may, for instance, be a case of armed resistance by guerrilla fighters (usually in cells operating independently of each other), insurgents, terrorists, bandits or rebelling military forces. Irregular conflicts, particularly in the Third World, are usually founded on politico-ideological differences. The leaders look after the gathering, processing and communication of information, funding, recruitment, a shadow government and the formulation of plans of action. The objectives consist of the indoctrination of the population and gaining popular support. Military activities are secondary to that and are not vital. The defeat of an irregular opponent, therefore, means primarily that the political leadership of that opponent must be overthrown. Of secondary importance, this means the military defeat of the opponent, although that may not be necessary. Irregular operations could have the following characteristics:

- usually no (or partial) observance of the law of armed conflict (international humanitarian law);
- troops are rarely in uniform;
- conducted with or without the use of force;
- opponent cannot always be clearly identified;
- often covert methods of operating (location of operations/movements unknown and activities not visible);
- bases unknown – probably only the area in which activities are conduc-ted is known;
- activities at tactical level highly decentralised or not usually under centralised authority;
- scale of operations varies;

- activities often conducted from a position of absolute weakness, sometimes a position of local superiority;
- size of units varies;
- activities designed to cause confusion, fear and damage;
- willingness to accept sacrifices and sustain the conflict in the long term;
- intensity of the conflict ranges from low to high;
- causes of the conflict are usually politico-ideological, ethnic-religious and/or economic;
- a military solution in operations against irregular forces is not the only factor that determines success: the hearts and minds of the people also need to be won;
- no limited political objectives whereby the use of force can be controlled.

122. **Importance of the assessment of a conflict**. The characteristics and thus the nature of a conflict can change over time. The distinction between regular and irregular methods of operating is not always a clear one. In one conflict, regular and irregular enemy forces may be operating at the same time. To achieve the desired result in resolving a conflict, therefore, the correct assessment of the nature of the conflict is vitally important.

Chapter 2

Politico-strategic environment

2 Politico-strategic environment

201. The aim of this chapter is to describe the politico-strategic framework within which the armed forces receive and perform their tasks. Given the emphasis on international military operations, the first task is to evaluate the international security situation. An important element in the development of doctrine is the national philosophy. The basis for this is established in the Constitution, which is used by the government and the States-General (Dutch Parliament) as the criteria for evaluating such aspects as foreign and security policy. The government also makes choices in respect of the level of ambition, the tasks of the armed forces and participation in international structures. As a result of the political choices, the Dutch armed forces have to be able to operate as part of various international coalitions. It is for this reason that the international legal framework for military operations is also important. The armed forces are directed by the government. This chapter will close with an explanation of the national politico-military decision making and the command of military operations.

2.1 International security situation

202. In today's world of globalisation and international borders which constitute less and less of a barrier, internal and external security are inextricably linked. The growth in the international movement of people, money and goods and in information and communication technology (real-time information by, for example, GSM, the Internet and the mass media) has helped to bring about a situation in which national borders have become significantly less important. At the same time, non-state-affiliated factions have succeeded in making their presence felt in the arena of international developments. The large-scale military threat has given way to a more diffuse one. Generally speaking, there are currently five interrelated security issues which will affect the scale, composition and organisation of our armed forces in the years ahead[15]:

[15] Policy agenda 2005, in: 2005 Defence Budget (29 800 X, no. 2), page 7.

a. failing states;
b. terrorism;
c. rogue states;
d. proliferation of weapons of mass destruction;
e. interstate relations[16].

203. **Failing states**. Political instability and the poor economic and social conditions in many parts of the world also have repercussions for Europe and thus for the Netherlands. Examples are migrant movements and organised crime as well as drug and human trafficking, the proceeds of which are also used to finance terrorist networks and their activities. Especially in sub-Saharan Africa and Central Asia, countries are facing serious administrative problems; in some instances it is even a case of a 'failing state', where central authority is absent or no longer functions. Generally speaking, there is an increasing correlation between internal and external security. The promotion of stability and the fight against international terrorism by Dutch military personnel elsewhere in the world can be seen less and less in isolation from the security of Dutch and European citizens in their own environment. Our active involvement in developments in countries outside Europe and with the fate of the people there affects our own security in both a positive and negative sense. That active involvement could, after all, also mean that the threat (small-scale, possibly terrorist) to national territory will increase.

204. **Terrorism**. The rise of international terrorism is a cause for concern, particularly because it involves networks that must be considered capable of acquiring weapons of mass destruction and of deploying them. It has become apparent in recent years that international relations are being largely defined by this new threat. The Netherlands is no exception and is unable to escape the consequences of these developments.

205. **Rogue states**. Outside Europe, the situation in the Middle East, the Persian Gulf and large parts of Asia and Africa continues to give cause for concern from a security perspective. A further issue for Africa is that the restoration of peace and stability is also an essential precondition for sustainable development in that part of the world. In rogue states, instability may be coupled with such dangers as the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and the violation of human rights.

[16] For the Dutch Defence organisation, the security issues referred to have resulted in, for example, more attention for Theatre Missile Defence, emphasis on expeditionary deployment of the armed forces and interdepartmental cooperation against terrorism.

206. **Weapons of mass destruction**. The ongoing spread of weapons of mass destruction and their delivery systems, such as ballistic missiles with an increasing range, to rogue states remains a source of serious concern.

207. **Interstate relations**. In various parts of the world, such as the Far East and Africa, interstate instability has increased rather than decreased in recent years. This instability could result in new conflicts. Meanwhile, in Europe the stabilisation of the Balkans has not yet been completed and unresolved conflicts in Eastern Europe, especially in and around the Caucuses, continue to cause concern.

208. **Positive developments**. Although security risks can therefore be said to have increased in many respects, in others they have in fact decreased. We now no longer need to be concerned about a large-scale attack with conventional weapons on Allied territory and the military preponderance of the armed forces of the West appears to be assured for the foreseeable future. Since the middle of the 1990s, the problems in the Balkans have become manageable, even though they continue to demand our constant attention. The expansion of NATO and that of the EU are helping to reinforce the positive developments in the security situation in and around Europe since the end of the Cold War[17].

2.2 Legal context for military operations

2.2.1 National legislation

209. **National legal framework**. Stipulations concerning the existence, the direction and the deployment of the armed forces can be found in the Dutch Constitution:

> Article 90
> The government will promote the development of international law.
>
> Article 97
> 1. The armed forces exist for the defence and protection of the interests of the Kingdom, and in order to maintain and promote the international legal order.
> 2. The government has supreme authority over the armed forces.

[17] Towards a new equilibrium: the armed forces in the coming years (referred to from this point as the 2003 Defence Budget and Policy Letter) in: 2004 Defence Budget, House of Representatives of the States-General, Parliamentary Year 2003-2004 (The Hague, 16 September 2003), pp. 7-8.

Article 100

1. The government will supply the States General with advance information on the intended use of the armed forces for the purposes of maintaining or promoting the international legal order. This also includes the supply of advance information on the intended use of the armed forces for the provision of humanitarian relief in the event of armed conflict.
2. The first paragraph will not apply if there are compelling reasons for withholding the supply of advance information. In that case, information will be provided at the earliest possibly opportunity.

210. Article 90 defines the promotion of the international rule of law as a Dutch interest. According to Article 97(2) of the Constitution, the government has supreme authority over the armed forces. The meaning of the provision on the supreme authority is that the use of the armed forces is an exclusive power of the government: the primacy of politics. The government has a political responsibility towards parliament. If the government assigns troops to an international organisation, it does not surrender supreme authority. Deployment for the purpose of defence takes place on the basis of an international support obligation[18]. Deployment for the purpose of defence could also occur as a response to a threat, acute or latent, to national territory (in Europe or the Caribbean region), including the airspace above it and territorial waters. In such cases, parliament does not have to be informed in advance. Advance information is required, however, in the event of deployment for the purpose of maintaining or promoting the international legal order (Article 100).

2.2.2 International regulations

211. **Distinction between states and individuals**. A distinction must be made in international regulations between the rules of law (for the use of force) between states and the law that deals with the use of force by individuals.

212. **Regulations pertaining to states**. States must refrain from the threat or actual use of force[19]. The term force in this context refers to military force. This stipulation means that any use of military force by a state against another state, or in the territory of another state, is prohibited unless it relates to one of the two exceptions provided for in the Charter: individual and collective self-defence (article 51) or the right of the UN

[18] Article 5 of the NATO treaty or Article V of the WEU treaty.

[19] The prohibition on the use of force: article 2, section 4 of the UN Charter.

Security Council (UNSC) to take coercive measures in accordance with Chapter VII of the UN Charter. Humanitarian intervention could also constitute justification for the use of force. A state might also consent to the use of force in its territory. In a case such as this, there is no violation of the prohibition on the use of force.

213. **Right of self-defence**. If a nation is attacked in contravention of the ban on the use of force, it does not need to wait until the UNSC takes action. Article 51 of the Charter allows it to use the inherent right of self-defence in the event of an armed attack. An armed attack primarily involves operations by regular forces in the territory of another nation. Other cases, such as terrorist actions, can also be regarded as such under certain circumstances. Article 51 of the UN Charter also provides for the right of collective defence. The condition is that a state is the target of an armed attack, thus invoking the right of self-defence, and that the nation under attack requests the assistance of another state. Measures for self-defence may not go beyond what is reasonable in relation to the threat. The right of self-defence exists until the UNSC has taken the necessary measures to end the aggression.

214. **Coercive measures**. In this case, economic or military means of power are used to enforce a Security Council resolution on the basis of Chapter VII of the UN Charter[20]. A further elaboration of such a resolution can lead to a 'situational mandate' within which a state or organisation can deploy instruments of power. The Netherlands subscribes to the view that intervention to prevent or alleviate widespread human suffering must be possible under certain conditions (humanitarian intervention), even if it is blocked by the decision making in the Security Council.

215. **United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea III (UNCLOS)**. The UN Convention on the Law of the Sea III, or UNCLOS (Montego Bay, 1982), gives the Defence organisation, and warships in particular, the right to conduct military operations at sea in a number of specific cases. These cases include piracy, slave trading and the 'statelessness' of ships (article 110 of the UNCLOS). There is also a duty to render assistance to persons in distress at sea (article 98 of UNCLOS).

[20] Chapter VII defines the powers of the UNSC relating to action with respect to threats to the peace, breaches of the peace and acts of aggression. Besides non-military means, such as the severing of economic and diplomatic relations (article 41), this also covers military action (article 42).

216. **Regulations pertaining to individuals**. When conducting military operations, account must be taken of the rules of national and international law. This law provides a framework for military operations and rules for their execution. Dutch military personnel act in accordance with national law in the Netherlands, even if they are operating under the responsibility or command of an international organisation or otherwise in an international coalition. It goes without saying that the law of war is extremely important. It has to be recognised that sometimes completely different rules of law apply to the different types of operation. For instance, in combat operations the law of armed conflict (LOAC) is paramount; in crisis management operations the status of forces agreements are vitally important. In both cases, the rules of engagement (ROE) play a major role. ROE also have a mainly operational objective. Legitimate operations add to the credibility of the force and help to maintain public support in the theatre of operations and at home.

217. **ROE**. ROE are guidelines for commanders in respect of the nature and manner of the use of force within the political and legal frameworks. They are designed to ensure that the political leaders can control the use of force. ROE provide information for commanders about the extent to which they are restricted or free to perform their allotted tasks. They are not a means of assigning specific tasks. They apply to all military activities within an operation, but in practice are often declared effective for each phase or activity. The ROE which often apply when diplomatic negotiations are still being conducted are thus different to those which apply once that avenue has been closed. Commanders make suggestions for the ROE when they develop their plan. Once established, they form the basis for the execution of the mission.

218. **Self-defence of a unit**. The ROE do not limit the explicit authority or the right of a commander to use all available and necessary means and to take appropriate action for the self-defence of his unit or of Allied troops in the immediate vicinity. This applies to self-defence against an attack or an imminent attack. The principles of necessity and proportionality apply in all cases. These principles should help the commander when he is considering an appropriate countermeasure. The principle of self-defence may also apply to other persons in the immediate proximity.

219. **LOAC and ROE**. Not all situations in which military force is used are covered by the LOAC. When the ROE are established, it will have to be determined whether the LOAC will apply to that particular conflict. In those situations where the LOAC -in accordance with strict legal rules- does not apply, Dutch and NATO policy must be observed. In those cases the ROE should be used to establish the appropriate level of force that is to be applied.

220. **Principles for the use of force**. The LOAC has four fundamental principles for the use of force: military necessity, proportionality, the prevention of unnecessary suffering and the principle of distinction. Necessity means that force may only be used if it is essential to achieve the military objective. Proportionality means that force and destruction must be kept to the minimum required to achieve that objective. A natural consequence is that collateral damage must be avoided at all costs and that, in view of this, all reasonable measures have to be taken to prevent collateral damage. Lastly, a distinction must be made between military targets and civil objects and between combatants and civilians.

2.3 Dutch foreign and security policy

221. **National interests**. The fundamental objective of every nation is to secure its (vital) interests while maintaining its own standards and values. Partly for this reason, the foreign policy of the Netherlands focuses on this national interest in the strictest sense. However, in view of international relationships, the strictest sense of national interests should always be considered as part of a wider framework, also referred to as national interest in the broadest sense. The latter is translated into aiming for a well-structured international society in which human rights are respected and the international legal order is upheld and promoted.

222. **Foreign, security and defence policy**. The main aim of Dutch foreign and security policy is to ensure the independence, integrity, stability and welfare of the home nation. The Netherlands also sets great store by the promotion of the international rule of law and has long demonstrated a deep involvement in cases of human suffering and actions against human rights violations. Our market economy, which is one of the larger economies in the world, benefits from the unrestricted movement of goods and free access to trade areas and raw materials. Dutch defence policy has an objective that is derived from this: to form, maintain and deploy a military force in the context of the government's security policy. Dutch security policy distinguishes between an internally and an externally oriented component. The armed forces can be deployed in the context of both components. Internal and external security have become increasingly interwoven in the security situation in recent years.

223. **Coordination of policy**. The defence activities of the Netherlands are focused on a combination of security interests, the protection of values and foreign affairs objectives. Our country sets great store by a stable and peaceful international environment, for it is dependent to a large degree on good international relations and security institutions that function properly. The Netherlands pursues an active peace and security policy. In

practice, that means that our country wants to help to resolve security problems within and outside Europe, even those that are a considerable distance away. Experiences in Afghanistan have shown that our security and other interests can be threatened by developments that take place a long way from home. An active security policy also involves, therefore, the willingness to respond swiftly to crisis situations elsewhere in the world, obviously in an international context. It is important in this respect to apply the various policy instruments that the Netherlands has at its disposal -diplomatic, economic, financial, humanitarian and military- cohesively. Foreign policy, development cooperation and defence issues are increasingly becoming extensions of each other[21].

224. **The armed forces in an international context**. The Dutch armed forces now have a much firmer footing on the international stage. Bilateral and multinational military cooperation with Allies and partners have been further strengthened over the past few years. NATO and the EU form the main institutional frameworks for military cooperation. Because of the recent expansion of both the EU and NATO, especially as a result of the accession of East European states, the politico-strategic environment has changed radically. Both organisations now share borders with potentially unstable regions.

225. **NATO**. NATO is the most important pillar of Dutch security policy and epitomises the transatlantic connection. Good transatlantic relations will continue to be essential for our security in the future. Thanks to NATO, previous threats have been consigned to the past. The Alliance is the most important asset we possess to ensure our security and to nip in the bud any threat that may arise. NATO is also an important forum for political consultation and for harmonisation of the defence plans of the member states. Since the end of the Cold War, NATO has adapted to the new international relations and has successfully sought cooperation with Russia, Ukraine and other countries. It has conducted crisis management operations in the Balkans and in Afghanistan and has proved itself capable of providing effective leadership in complex operations. This has once again demonstrated the value of the integrated military structures of the treaty organisation. A rapid reaction force, the NATO Response Force, has also been established. This reaction force of some 25,000 military personnel from land, air and naval forces, to which the Netherlands also contributes, has to be deployable at extremely short notice for the most

[21] 2003 Defence Budget and Policy Letter, p.6. An example of this coordination is the interdepartmental consultative body CIMIC, in which the Ministries of Foreign Affairs (including officials from Development Cooperation) and Defence are represented and which other Ministries and NGOs may attend by invitation.

demanding operations at the upper end of the spectrum of force. The military aspects of combating terrorism and the risks of the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and their delivery systems have been placed high on the Alliance's agenda.

226. **EU**. The Netherlands attaches great value to the further development of the European Security and Defence Policy (ESDP), including civil crisis management tasks. Within the ESDP, the EU member states have agreed to counter threats such as terrorism, the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction, regional conflicts and failing states. The EU is thus able to make a significant contribution to global security and stability. The EU has sufficient structures to be able to take decisions with military implications and to undertake the implementation of those decisions by calling upon the member states. For example, with its 'Headline Goal 2010', the EU has taken on a capabilities objective which aims to improve the quality of the units supplied. The emphasis in this respect is on deployability, sustainability and the capacity for mounting combined operations (interoperability). The Netherlands wants to contribute to the EU high-readiness capability in the form of the EU battle groups, which are to be operational by 2007. These formations of over 1,500 military personnel are to be capable of deployment in crisis management operations outside EU territory, notably at the request of the United Nations, at very short notice. The development of the ESDP has strengthened the European input into NATO, which will help to ensure that the burden is shared more evenly and will benefit transatlantic cooperation. The EU-NATO arrangements provide for the necessary dialogue and cohesion between the two organisations[22].

2.4 Tasks of the armed forces

2.4.1 Main tasks of the Defence organisation

227. The Defence White Paper 2000 sets out the three main tasks of the armed forces as follows[23]:

1. Protecting the integrity of national and Allied territory, including the Netherlands Antilles and Aruba;
2. Promoting stability and the international rule of law;
3. Supporting civil authorities in upholding the law, providing disaster and humanitarian relief, both nationally and internationally.

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[22] 2003 Defence Budget and Policy Letter, pp. 8-9; The European Security and Defence Policy, Ministry of Defence (The Hague, August 2004), pp. 3 and 11; Policy Agenda 2005, in: Defence Budget 2005 (29 800 X, no.2), pp 4-7.

[23] *Defence White Paper 2000*, Ministry of Defence (The Hague, 29 November 1999), p.53.

228. **First main task**. The meaning that should be attached to the three main Defence tasks and the way in which they have to be carried out have changed in recent years. Although the general defence task still exists, the way that it has been implemented in the past -the capacity to repel a large-scale conventional attack on NATO territory- has been overtaken by events. Terrorism and weapons of mass destruction, with all their implications, now pose the most acute threat. There is agreement on this point within NATO. Because it explicitly benefits the security of the population of the EU and the NATO member states, NATO forces are now deployed outside the treaty area as well. The military capabilities of the Alliance, however, continue to safeguard the territorial integrity of the member states and the Defence organisation naturally remains responsible for the territorial integrity of the Netherlands Antilles and Aruba.

229. **Second main task**. The conduct of international operations continues to gain importance. The size and the organisation of the armed forces are gradually being aligned more deliberately with this second main task and that trend is continuing. The number of missions conducted under Chapter VI of the UN Charter -'blue helmets' who try to keep the peace with the consent of the warring parties- has decreased since the middle of the 1990s, although such missions have not yet disappeared altogether[24]. Particularly those operations which aim to prevent or resolve intrastate conflicts increasingly require robust action. These operations are increasingly characterised by an intense but relatively short initial phase at the upper end of the spectrum of force, usually followed by a stabilisation phase that may be of short or long duration. Such operations are usually conducted by regional organisations such as NATO and the EU or by *ad hoc* coalitions, with the role of the UN being limited to that of the mandating authority. It is in the interest of the Netherlands that as much use as possible is made of existing organisations of which our country is a member, such as NATO and the EU. The missions in Bosnia, Kosovo and Afghanistan are prime examples of this. The anti-drugs operations conducted by the RNLN in the Caribbean also help to maintain the international legal order. Organised crime and the terrorism associated with it (for example, the FARC in Columbia) are thus targeted and regional stability improved.

[24] Chapter VI of the UN Charter contains a pacific settlement of disputes, for example by negotiations or the installation of a UN peace force. Examples include the UNMEE mission, in which the Netherlands participated in 2000-2001, and the UNMIL mission (Liberia) in 2003-2004.

230. **Third main task**. Under the third main task, account needs to be taken in the event of military assistance and support to civil authorities of the threat of international terrorism, measures to counter the proliferation of the weapons of mass destruction and the task of limiting the consequences of terrorist attacks. Units can also be deployed to conduct humanitarian and civil activities in the context of the third main task. Over the last few years, civil authorities have requested military assistance more and more often. Examples of such instances have been the deployment to control swine fever and bird flu and to provide support in the floods, as well as the international deployment of engineer support battalions in Iraq and Kosovo. The deployment of RNLAF transport planes for the evacuation of Dutch citizens from Indonesia, Liberia and Thailand comes under this heading. Deployment for the third main task also takes place on a routine basis, for example activities such as explosive ordnance disposal, coastguard operations and, as also mentioned under the second main task, anti-drugs operations in the Caribbean.

2.4.2 Defence tasks

231. The three main tasks of the Defence organisation can be extrapolated in a list of more specific Defence tasks (DTs). The level of ambition -the qualitative and quantitative level at which the Defence organisation wants to be able to conduct military activities- deals in general terms with the nature of the tasks[25]. In order to bridge the gap between ambition and means, the nature of the tasks that Defence needs to be able to perform has to be specified. We refer to 'Defence tasks' and not exclusively 'military tasks' in order to indicate that the Defence organisation also performs non-military tasks, often at the request and under the control of civil authorities. For instance, many activities performed by the Royal Netherlands Marechaussee stem from laws which place the authority for them with Ministers other than the Minister of Defence. Given the fact that the Defence organisation has to provide the means to conduct

[25] Since 2003, the level of ambition at the higher end of the spectrum of force has been as follows: the Netherlands has to be able to contribute a brigade or the equivalent thereof to operations at the higher end of the spectrum of force. This refers to the following contributions from the Services or a combination thereof. The army must in future be able to assemble a brigade (task force) for operations in an international setting at the higher end of the spectrum of force. The maximum contribution from the air force to an operation at the upper end of the spectrum of force can be reduced from three to two squadrons with 18 fighter aircraft each, and that of the navy from a task force with six to eight frigates to a maximum of five frigates. In practice, these contributions are composed according to the mission requirements (Source: 2003 Defence Budget and Policy Letter 2003, pp. 24-25).

such tasks, this list also includes the tasks which are performed under the authority of others. The figure below lists the Defence tasks under the different forms of deployment of the armed forces. The list contained at Annex A to this doctrine shows the tasks which can be performed at this time[26]. The list of Defence tasks is reviewed regularly to determine whether or not any change is required.

Military operations		**Military assistance**
	Aid to the Civil Authorities	
	Upholding the rule of law	*Support*
• Command of land and sea territory as well as airspace • Engaging sea, land and air forces • Securing sea and land territory, as well as airspace • Protection at sea, on land and in the air • Command & control • Evacuation • Extraction • Prevention, forward deployment • Special operations • Engaging strategic targets • Strategic Transport • Hydrography • Geography • Strategic Military Intelligence Gathering	• Separating parties • Stabilisation • Military support • Coastguard • Marechaussee tasks • Verification	• Personal security • Ceremonial duties • Explosives clearance • Host-nation support • Coastguard • Military support • Emergency assistance • Instruction & training of foreign units • Disaster response • (Hydrography) • (Geography)

Figure 2-A: Deployment of the armed forces versus Defence tasks [27]

[26] List of Defence tasks and capabilities, Defence Staff (The Hague, October 2004), pp. 5-8.

[27] For definitions and/or explanations of tasks, see Chapter 4 and Annex A.

2.5 Decision-making process and command

2.5.1 Integral national direction of military operations by the CDS

232. The central implementation of the planning on behalf of the CDS and the national unified and integral direction of military operations by the CDS are conducted in the context of Article 5 operations, crisis management operations, humanitarian operations, and national deployment for military assistance and support[28].

233. **Grand strategy actors**. Decisions to conduct military operations are taken at grand strategy level. The decision makers determine the grand strategy objectives of a military operation. The national key players are the Prime Minister and the Ministers of Foreign Affairs and Defence. Internationally, an operation in a NATO context involves NATO's North Atlantic Council. A request for participation in a military operation could also come from authorities within the EU, the OSCE or the UN.

234. **National decision making**. The national political decision making in respect of a contribution of Dutch units or personnel to a military operation is closely connected to that in an international context, but always exists in its own right. There is, after all, no obligation to participate in a crisis management operation. In the context of national political decision making about and military planning for participation in a military operation, three instruments are particularly crucial:

a. The risk and threat analysis by the Military Intelligence and Security Service (MIVD in Dutch);
b. The 2001 Frame of Reference for Decision-making for the Deployment of Military Units Abroad (the '*Toetsingskader*', hereinafter the 2001 Frame of Reference)[29];
c. The CDS planning process for operations.

235. A decision is made at grand strategy level as to which countries or regions should be monitored by the MIVD as a matter of priority. In this context, the MIVD performs a warning function. In its risk and threat analysis, the MIVD gives a rundown of all the risks associated with the operation as a result of, for example, the state of the terrain, the climate and whether the parties involved in the conflict have consented to the operation. The outcome of this analysis is used in the application of

[28] For an explanation of the different types of operation, see Chapter 4.

[29] MFA and MoD letter 23591, no. 7, dated 13 July 2004.

the parliamentary criteria as well as in the operational planning for the mission. The set of parliamentary criteria (the 2001 Frame of Reference) is used by the government and the House of Representatives and consists of a number of points to aid the decision in respect of participation by units of the Dutch armed forces in a crisis management operation[30]. At the same time as the evaluation of the objectives, risks and other features of the operation is conducted, the Defence Staff will consider, in the event of a positive decision on participation, what form the Dutch contribution should take. The result of the CDS planning process for operations is a recommendation from the CDS regarding Dutch participation in the operation: the units, personnel and equipment which can be supplied for deployment. Once a positive political decision has been made regarding participation, the CDS will issue what is known as a CDS operational directive stating the national guidelines, assignments, tasks and responsibilities in connection with the deployment, as well as the arrangements that have been made for the transfer of authority (TOA) to the operational troop commander of the crisis management force[31].The TOA to an international commander only ever concerns the operational element of the authority. The government (or the CDS on its behalf) will retain ultimate control (full command). The decision to approve Dutch participation in an operation may be linked to national caveats in respect of deployment. The government or parliament can (and often does) attach conditions to the deployment of the armed forces. The CDS will ensure that the multinational force commander will take account of the stated caveats.

236. **Command in the hands of the CDS**. After consultation with the national and international authorities, the Dutch government will establish the military-strategic objective(s) and preconditions for the deployment of its contingent. The national military-strategic authority, the CDS, is responsible for the use of military means in a particular area of operations. He is also responsible for directing the operational units of the RNLN, the RNLA and the RNLAF[32].

[30] The points include political aspects, legal basis, attitude of the parties in the conflict and military aspects.

[31] CDS Guideline 1: 'Operational concept for peace operations' (The Hague, September 2002), pp. 36-37.

[32] The top structure of the Defence organisation. Letter from the Minister of Defence to the House of Representatives (The Hague, 28 May 2003).

2.5.2 Direction of operations by the operational commanders

237. Besides being directed by the CDS, the armed forces can also be deployed by the operational commanders of the Services. The principle of unified national direction by the CDS does not apply in the case of the following tasks:

a. In the RNLN: coastguard tasks for the Netherlands and for the Netherlands Antilles and Aruba, as well as anti-drugs operations in the Caribbean; deployment of the marines for the Special Assistance Unit.
b. In the RNLAF: the deployment of F-16s for the Quick Reaction Alert (QRA); the airspace surveillance centre in Nieuw Milligen.
c. In the Royal Netherlands Marechaussee: the police tasks specified in the 1993 Police Act (with the exception of those conducted for the purpose of support as referred to, and insofar as it is applicable, in section 59); the deployment of the Armed Forces Special Assistance Unit[33].

[33] For more information on these tasks, see Chapter 4 (national deployment) and Annex B.

Chapter 3

Military operations

3 Military operations

301. This chapter looks at the principles for military operations in general and for the Dutch armed forces in particular. Military means are one of the instruments of power available to the state. The use of this instrument usually results in the use or the threat of force. First of all, this chapter gives a more detailed definition of terms used within the spectrum of force, such as peace, armed conflict, war and crisis management. There are various methods of deploying military power. For the successful conduct of operations, the interrelated concepts of military capability, operational capabilities and the manoeuvrist approach are vitally important. The chapter will then look at the basic principles of military operations. It will end by looking at operational and technological developments which have implications for future military activities.

3.1 Spectrum of force

302. **Frame of reference**. The spectrum of relations between parties or states is divided into three main groups: peace, armed conflict and war. This doctrine is based on the following definitions.

303. **Peace**. There is peace between parties or states if there is no armed conflict and if the intention exists to conduct talks between the parties in the event of disputes. Such disputes could thus indeed arise between parties or states in times of peace. A dispute could arise if the interests and objectives of parties or states differ to what they regard as an unacceptable degree, without there being any actual use or threat of force to resolve that dispute. In principle, other political means, such as diplomatic, legal or economic measures, are chosen to settle the dispute. It may also be the case that certain (terrorist) groups use force in peacetime to achieve their objectives. This would then be verging on the boundary between peace and (internal) armed conflict. In peacetime, the authorities will use 'normal' means to react to the use of force, such as the deployment of the police. If the authorities use special means (for example, military means) to combat terrorist actions, the state of peace will gradually give way to one of armed conflict.

304. **Armed conflict**. There is said to be an armed conflict if a foreign force, a warring faction[34] or a terrorist unit (organisation or individual) uses force to promote its own interests or objectives, or threatens to use force to do so. In the context of an armed conflict - at least in the views of the parties involved - the objectives or values are irreconcilable. The parties involved use the best possible combination of political means. In addition to military means these may include diplomatic, economic and psychological means.

305. **War**. In its most extreme form an armed conflict can take on the form of a war. A characteristic difference between an armed conflict and a war is that in a war a significant proportion of the community of the parties involved is mobilised, also in a literal sense because of the call-up of reservists. Another prominent difference is that, in the case of war, the parties involved consider the threat to their objectives or values to be so serious that they believe they have no other option than to employ large-scale military force, often over a prolonged period. A state of war will certainly exist if a nation violates the sovereignty of another state by attacking that state with its armed forces.

306. **The primacy of politics**. Armed conflict and war in particular are instruments controlled by the politicians: it is the deployment of an extra means of power of the state, namely military capability. In the case of an armed conflict or war, the military means of power will take precedence over the country's other means if this is decided by the political leaders.

307. **Crisis**. In a political sense, the term 'crisis' can be defined in various ways. One definition that is relevant to this doctrine is that disagreement (between nations or parties) leads to a crisis if there is a question of a critical point in the relationship of a country or party with any other (inter)national actor at some point in the peace-war continuum. It might also be the case that the balance has been disturbed. Given the definition referred to earlier, a number of time-defined periods (critical points) can be identified within the peace -armed conflict- war spectrum which can be regarded as a crisis. This refers particularly to the shift from peace to armed conflict. Another definition of a crisis is the period in which various disturbances of the equilibrium occur. An example of this is the constant and radically changing disturbance of a balance in an ongoing

[34] The term WARRING FACTION refers to both civilian and military insurgent groups. An insurgent group is designated as a warring faction if it meets the following criteria: an organised armed force and (irregular) paramilitary groups; functions under a command that bears responsibility; takes part in hostilities; possesses part of the territory.

armed conflict. The situation in the former Yugoslavia at the beginning of the nineteen nineties is a case in point.

3.2 Methods of deploying military power

308. A state has various means such as diplomatic, economic, financial and military instruments of power that it can use to achieve its objectives. These means are intended to induce an opponent to take a course of action that is favoured by the party using the instruments of power. In this section, the emphasis is placed on the military instrument. Military operations can be distinguished from other instruments of power by the use or the threat of force.

309. **Deterrence**. If the threat posed by the compelling military power is sufficient to ensure that the opposing party (even before military means are deployed) refrains from its intended undesirable action (an armed attack, for example), such a situation is referred to as deterrence. If deterrence works, the threat of armed force will not have to be carried out. There is a distinction between general deterrence, such as the situation that exists between nuclear powers, and acute deterrence, such as the generation of a threat during a crisis.

310. **Coercion or compellence**. This is the use of military means with the aim of forcing an opponent to change his behaviour. This could mean either that he switches from inactivity to action or that he interrupts his actions. In the case of coercion or compellence, pressure is exerted on the coerced party to change his attitude or behaviour and he is given a choice: do as required or face the consequences. These consequences can range from diplomatic and economic sanctions to a physical attack on important elements of the opponent's system. Credibility is crucial in the case of coercion; it plays a key psychological role in the successful course of an operation. Credibility stems mainly from four elements: a feasible operation plan, the right assets, high morale and dedicated execution.

311. Deterrence and coercion are both diplomatic forms of the use of force. In the case of deterrence, the opponent is forced not to do something, while coercion is designed to force the opponent to do something that he would not otherwise have done. The way NATO acted towards the Warsaw Pact during the Cold War is an example of successful deterrence. An example of coercion is Operation *Deliberate Force*, during which NATO used air strikes in 1995 against arms depots, heavy weapons, command centres and communications systems to force the Bosnian Serb leaders to cease their armed actions against the Bosnian Muslims and to engage in constructive negotiations.

312. **Applying military force**. The use of military force involves on the one hand the possibility of destruction or, on the other, the denial of certain objects to the enemy. In the case of successful deterrence, destruction is threatened; in the case of combat (even in defence), force is applied. Denial means denying the enemy the use of terrain and other objects, also in the context of defensive actions.

3.3 Military capability

313. Military capability is the capacity for conducting military operations. It consists of three interrelated components: conceptual, mental and physical. The conceptual component is made up of basic principles, doctrine and procedures. The mental component comprises three aspects: the motivation to perform the task as well as possible, effective leadership and the responsible organisation of the deployment of all assets in terms of personnel and equipment. Lastly, the physical component is the operational capacity of these assets, referred to by the term combat power[35].

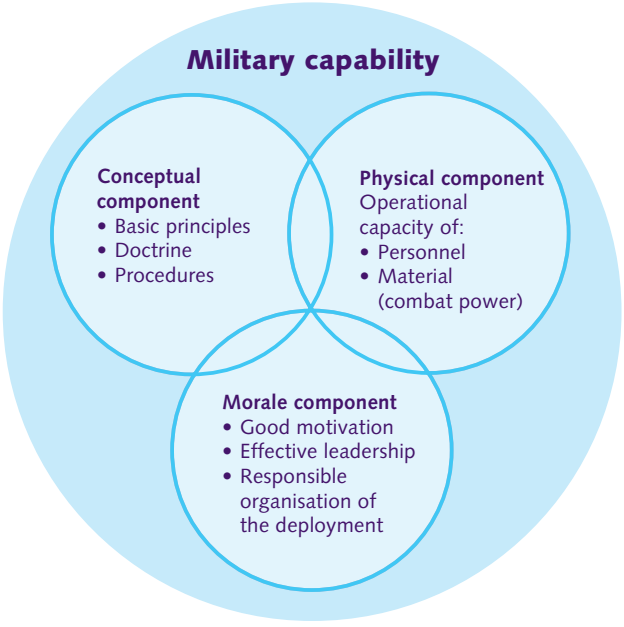

Figure 3-A: Components of military capability

[35] COMBAT POWER is the capacity of a military unit to conduct a combat action or battle (source: *CBK*). The elements of collective performance, readiness and sustainability also form part of combat power (source: draft AJP 3-2).

3.4 Essential operational capabilities

314. In order to be able to successfully perform the entire range of tasks as part of an operation, the military unit needs to have various operational capabilities within its military capability. These are based on the Essential Operational Capabilities (EOCs) which have been drawn up by NATO and which have been adapted in terms of their wording and meaning to suit national interests in this area[36]. The common denominator in the operational capabilities described below is that they are essential for the successful performance of units and staffs: they should be available in the right quantities and at the right time and place in order to facilitate the effective conduct of operations, even under primitive conditions and over prolonged periods, and to provide the necessary protection for troops and equipment. The seven essential capabilities listed here are closely related to one another and each reinforces the other. There are of course other capabilities, which can make just as much of a contribution to the conduct of an operation; these are not, however, essential for the success of the operation. The following operational capabilities are recognised as being vital for the performance of all conceivable tasks as part of an operation:

a. **EOC 1: Timely force availability** expresses the capacity to build up and support a sufficient and effective military presence within a given response time, thus allowing the assigned tasks to be carried out.
b. **EOC 2: Effective intelligence** aims to build up a picture of the environment by means of the timely collection, processing and dissemination of effective information in order to be able to anticipate and where necessary respond to any situation in which the security of own or Allied troops is compromised.
c. **EOC 3: Deployability and mobility** makes it possible for military units and their equipment to displace within a set time period to the required location and then to perform a task while retaining their military capability.
d. **EOC 4: Effective engagement** means the capability of deploying troops and weapons systems throughout the entire spectrum of force, thus damaging the military capability of the other party or parties.
e. **EOC 5: Effective command, control and communications** focuses on providing effective direction and steering for units and staffs in order to achieve the set objective(s).

[36] The EOCs are contained in the NATO document entitled MC400/2 Guidance for the Military Implementation of Alliance Strategy. For the Dutch explanation, see CDS Guideline 1: 'Operational Concept for Peace Operations', pp. 14-16.

f. **EOC 6: Logistics sustainability** is the range of activities designed to provide, manage, care for and maintain as well as supply and remove personnel and equipment to and from units and staffs, in order to enable them to conduct their assignment.
g. **EOC 7: Survivability and force protection** focuses on retaining the military capability by limiting the effects of activities of others, including the deployment of lethal and non-lethal weapons, and by ensuring freedom of action and deployment of weapons.

3.5 Manoeuvrist approach

315. **Characteristics**. The fact that a force has sufficient military capability and essential operational capabilities does not guarantee success. The method of warfighting or conduct of operations is also vitally important in this respect. In combat operations, the Dutch armed forces take the manoeuvrist approach as their starting point. The central principle of the manoeuvrist approach is not to eliminate the enemy's combat power (his personnel and equipment) but to break the enemy's general cohesion and his will to fight. Manoeuvrist warfighting concentrates on deploying military capability against identified weaknesses on the part of the enemy. Important features are momentum and tempo, which can in combination bring about disruption and surprise. The capture and holding of terrain is not a key feature of the manoeuvrist approach, but losses are inflicted on the enemy by seizing the initiative and applying constant pressure at times and places where he least expects it. This will effectively dislocate his force structure. Manoeuvrist warfighting requires a mental attitude which allows unexpected, rapid and creative actions to be combined with an unremitting determination to succeed.

316. **Influence of the decision-making process**. The manoeuvrist approach can be applied in all military activities within an operation. This method offers the prospect of fast results or an outcome that is significantly better than could have been expected purely on the basis of the assets used. It is for this reason that this method is ideal for a force that is smaller in number than that of the other party, or for a strong force which wants to deploy as few assets as possible. The manoeuvrist approach involves the taking of calculated risks, since the enemy is not going to be faced with a superiority in terms of troops or equipment. On the contrary, the aim is to use a relatively small force to dislocate the enemy, psychologically or otherwise. However, the enemy will not always react as expected. A risk analysis should, therefore, form part of the planning for military operations. Contingency plans will then be drawn up on the basis of this analysis. Just as direct attacks can be alternated with indirect attacks in every operation, the use of attrition is also possible in the manoeuvrist

approach. An important aim in the manoeuvrist approach is to attack the enemy's decision-making process in order to achieve a higher operational tempo than that of the enemy. This is intended to force the enemy to make decisions faster than he is actually able to cope with, so that he increasingly takes the wrong course of action or takes no action at all, thus paralysing his reaction capability[37].

317. **Centre of gravity**. For successful military operations, commanders at all levels of warfighting need to analyse how the enemy force is structured and deployed and what the weak and strong points are. A military force has a series of planning instruments for this purpose in order to ensure that the development of the operation plan corresponds to the analysis of the enemy. The identification of the enemy centre of gravity is one of these planning instruments. A centre of gravity is that element of the enemy capability of which the destruction or neutralisation will lead to the defeat of the enemy or to his desire to reach a peace settlement through negotiation. The centre of gravity is thus a feature, capacity or location from which the enemy derives his freedom of action, physical strength or the will to continue the conflict. Examples are the political and military leaders, armed forces, command and control structures, public opinion, the nation's strength of will and an Allied or coalition structure. The centre of gravity is a planning instrument that is used at the strategic as well as the operational level. At the strategic level, the centre of gravity will often be more abstract in nature. One example could be the opinion of a people in respect of its leaders. In contrast to the strategic centre of gravity, the operational centre of gravity is so concrete that it can be eliminated or neutralised by military means, for instance the enemy's operational reserve. Success is based on whether the enemy's centre of gravity is identified and destroyed while at the same time the friendly centre of gravity is recognised and secured. One should realise here that it is often easier for a military historian to identify a centre of gravity from the past than it is for a commander on the ground who has to do so at a given point in time[38].

3.6 Basic principles of military operations

318. **Relationship between basic principles and military capability**. Despite advances in technology, the theory of warfighting has in effect changed very little over the centuries. Theorists have tried to define war with formal

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[37] The decision-making process can be shown in what is known as the OODA loop; see Chapter 5, Command and Control.

[38] *British Defence Doctrine*, JWP 0-01 (Shrivenham, 2001), pp. 3-5 and 3-6.

and generally accepted principles. These basic principles of military operations serve as a guide for military activities, but commanders apply the necessary flexibility in their use, not least because compromises often have to be made. The success of military operations is a result of the right interpretation of and adherence to the basic principles. These fundamentals are rules for the use of military means. Although these fundamentals form the basis for any military operation, they are not in themselves instruments for direct use by the commander and his staff. It is possible, however, to use these principles, formed by training and years of military experience, to produce a practical summary of the concepts and ideas that they incorporate for the commander and his staff. The application of these principles requires not only common sense, but also professional judgement. The fundamentals form part of the conceptual component of military capability and as such contribute to the mental component, particularly in terms of the responsible organisation of the deployment of assets.

319. **Dutch perspective on basic principles**. The basic principles are not the same the world over. Countries and alliances make choices, and the Netherlands is no exception[39]. The Dutch armed forces use the basic principles of military operations as fundamental rules for the use of military means at the strategic, operational and tactical levels of operation. The basic principles must always be considered in relation to one other. Complying fully with one principle may make it impossible to take another into consideration. The application of these principles thus needs to go hand in hand with an evaluation of their importance in a specific situation. In this evaluation, the commander should take into account the objective of the higher commander, his own orders and objective, the actions of other parties involved in the conflict and the factors of time and space. The basic principles adopted by the Dutch armed forces are listed below.

a. **Maintaining morale**. The morale of the personnel is a key factor in the success of an operation. For the benefit of the operational deployment, the commander must therefore promote a sense of self-respect and a unity of effort among his personnel. One aspect that affects morale is the duration of an operation, which can affect the unit's perseverance. Crisis management could require the long-term involvement of the international community, including international organisations and non-governmental organisations (NGOs), and of a military force.

[39] See for example *British Defence Doctrine*, pp. 3-1 to 3-4 and Allied Joint Doctrine, AJP-01(B) (Brussels, 2002), pp 2-3 to 2-5.

This means that account must be taken of, for example, the desired objectives in the longer term and the political and legal restrictions which the military force may encounter in the course of the operation. It is precisely in a long-term mission that keeping up morale is not only essential to ensure the sustainability of the military force but also requires particular attention from the commander.

b. **Protection**. Security is a vital condition for the preservation of friendly assets, the freedom of action, the concentration of the force and the taking of risks outside the point of main effort. A certain level of security is achieved by denying information to the enemy and by physical protection. Protection includes active precautions to prevent being surprised by the enemy or other parties, such as the active protection of bases, securing a favourable situation in the airspace, defending the fleet, protecting the flanks or keeping a sufficient reserve available. It also includes passive measures, such as ensuring that information regarding friendly assets and plans does not fall into the hands of other parties.

c. **Concentration**. In order to force a decision, a point of main effort has to be established at the right time and in the right place by means of the concentration of effects. This should ensure that the local effect is such that the set objective can be successfully achieved. The capacity to concentrate the effort quickly depends on an effective and efficient command and control system and the ability to displace rapidly. Concentration (particularly of equipment) means that relative weaknesses are accepted elsewhere.

d. **Objective**. Any military operation has to have an objective which is unequivocal, clearly defined and attainable. If a military unit lacks an objective or loses sight of what has to be achieved, the military operation will usually fail as a result. At higher levels, the objective can be expressed in guidelines or a directive setting out the desired end state. At the tactical level, subordinate commanders derive their objective from the intent of the higher commander and from the orders issued to them. These aspects are a central feature of the operational decision-making process, which ultimately produces orders for the lower level. This leads to targeted action at all levels involved in an operation. Taking account of this principle becomes difficult if the objective has to be changed in the course of the operation. Obviously, the new objective must then be communicated as quickly as possible to all those involved: higher commander, adjacent units and subordinate commanders. Mutual respect for all laws, beliefs, customs and cultures -not only between the military and civil contingents of the forces of different countries, but also between the leaders and units of the coalition partners- will further the objective.

e. **Economy of effort**. Partly because of the required formation of a main point of effort, a commander has to deploy a reasonable minimum of assets outside it. This means that he commits his means according to

type and quantity in proportion to the set objective. The commander's challenge is to establish the right time and place to achieve success. Only then can he decide where he can afford to be weak. In this way he is also expected to take calculated risks.

f. **Unity of effort**. All the available assets and efforts for a given objective need to be harmonised with each other. As a result, the commander will be able to deploy the entire range of military capacity (combat power) available to him effectively in order to achieve his objective, while simultaneously reducing his vulnerability to the opponent. Cohesive operations also affect the morale of friendly troops, credibility and consequently the will of the opponent or other parties to continue the conflict. Given that nowadays an increasing number of assets from different units, national and international, work together on the same objective, modern military operations place heavy demands on the combined action of the elementary functions. Unity of effort can be achieved partly by a joint doctrine, unified leadership and synchronisation of friendly and supporting assets. It requires training, team spirit, a positive attitude, a common purpose, a clear delineation of responsibilities, integrated procedures and an understanding of each other's capabilities and limitations.

g. **Simplicity**. Because of the rapid succession of events and the complexity of modern military operations, chaos, stress and friction are inevitable. These are typical features of military operations. Complex plans and orders that are difficult to understand increase the likelihood of confusion. Straightforward plans and clear orders during the conduct of an operation increase the chances of success.

h. **Flexibility**. Although the commander's objective will in theory remain unchanged, he must be adaptable in order to be able to adjust his plans. It may become necessary to adapt the deployment to suit a new situation in order to react to unexpected opportunities or threats. A precondition for flexibility is the right attitude and an organisation which is (traditionally) accustomed to quickly meeting new demands. Warfare is often a test of strength of the relative flexibility of the two forces. A commander can use his own mental flexibility and the acumen and pliability of his formation or unit to utilise the chaos of combat. The opponent will then be overwhelmed by the pace at which various events take place. One aspect of flexibility is mobility. Mobility is essential to be able to attack the enemy by surprise at an unexpected location, thus putting him at a disadvantage in respect of friendly troops. This success can then be exploited. The degree to which mobility comes into its own depends not only on enemy actions and the technical mobility of units and materiel, but also particularly on the mobility in the thinking and consequent actions of commanders and staff at all levels. The speed with which the decision-making process proceeds at all levels is crucial for the necessary

progress of an operation. Following on naturally from mobility is freedom of movement. A military force which cannot move to or within an area of operations will fail to carry out its tasks and will be unable to accomplish its mission. Other factors of influence should be taken into consideration in this respect, such as refugee movements and road use by civil actors.

i. **Initiative**. Commanders should always strive to achieve and maintain freedom of action. The aim is to act sooner and faster instead of merely reacting to the actions of the enemy. Only by acting faster than the other parties can their will to achieve their goals be broken. This does not mean, however, that patience is not required in some cases. Here, too, a precondition for success is a style of leadership which allows for taking the initiative and, consequently, taking risks.

j. **Offensive actions** are the most important means available to a commander for acting effectively and decisively in order to achieve his objective. As well as physical offensive actions, offensive operations also require the right attitude for constantly gaining and keeping the initiative. By choosing where to act, the commander can make sure that at least part of the enemy's combat power cannot be brought to bear in the right place. Even in defensive operations, the commander must exploit every opportunity to attack the enemy and regain the initiative.

k. **Surprise** is defined as an attack on the enemy at a place and/or time or in a way he does not expect. The commander may also deploy means for which the enemy is not prepared. Surprise actions can produce a decision in favour of friendly forces, even if friendly combat power is more limited. The commander constantly has to try to destabilise the enemy by his speed of thinking and acting, by means of secrecy and deception, as well as by varying the method of operation and the use of unexpected means. On the other hand, it might also be necessary in an operation for a military force to act overtly so that a particular action by the force is not misinterpreted by parties involved in the conflict or by local inhabitants. In a situation such as this, the motives, the mission and the intentions of the force may need to be absolutely clear to the parties involved. Any errors in communication will arouse suspicion and could damage credibility and trust. This will be detrimental to cooperation and any prospect of a successful end to the operation. In that case, surprise should give way to transparency for the sake of the success of the operation.

l. **Sustainability**. Once an operation has been started, the deployed military force must be able to sustain it as long as is necessary to achieve the desired result (i.e. success). To ensure sustainability in an operation, provision must be made for all the necessary conditions for the successful implementation of the operation plan, including the logistic and personnel support. This support should focus on providing the commander with as much freedom of action as possible in order

to carry out his plan. Although the logistic process is for the benefit of combat power, it is vital for the conduct of the entire operation. Logistic preparations must, therefore, be incorporated in the planning from the outset.

3.7 Developments in military operations

320. There have been a number of important changes in recent years in the military operations by Western armed forces. These operations are increasingly characterised by the ability to achieve well-defined military effects using technologically advanced resources across great distances. This applies to all operations. In recent years, the focus in military operations has shifted further towards the conduct, support and influence of land operations and towards the engagement of land targets. Capabilities in all dimensions of military operations contribute to that focus. Developments on land are influenced to a great extent from the air or the sea. The air operations above Kosovo, above Afghanistan as part of operation 'Enduring Freedom' and above Iraq, as well as the launch of cruise missiles from the sea to ground targets are all examples of this[40]. But although developments on land are largely influenced by events in the air or at sea, the decisive battle is fought out on land. Despite the fact that the emphasis has shifted towards expeditionary actions, a number of the armed forces' tasks remain non-expeditionary, although this does not in any way make them any less important. A great many units are also involved in these tasks[41].

321. **Joint, expeditionary and initial entry forces**. To be able to conduct expeditionary operations, the armed forces must have high-quality units which can demonstrate a high level of independence within an international coalition[42]. More and more joint operations are conducted

[40] 2003 Defence Budget and Policy Letter, p. 13.

[41] These are tasks such as the quick reaction alert (RNLAF), coastguard tasks (RNLN and RNLAF), national tasks performed by the Royal Netherlands Marechaussee, search-and-rescue (RNLN and RNLAF) and disaster support for civil authorities (RNLA, RNLN and RNLAF). See also the responsibilities of the CDS and the Services, as set out in Chapter 2.

[42] EXPEDITIONARY OPERATIONS involve the conduct of a military operation at a relatively great distance from the home base by a logistically self-sufficient and integrated force which, by projecting its military capability in a defined area of operations, achieves a specific objective. Expeditionary operations by the Dutch armed forces are characterised by the following aspects: 1) it is an operational deployment of units, formations or fleets; 2) the deployment takes place outside Dutch territory, including the Dutch Antilles and Aruba; 3) actions are in principle conducted in a joint and multinational context (Source: *CBK*).

in settings which can be regarded as expeditionary. The term 'initial entry forces' is to be seen in this context. The first military units that are deployed in the mission area will have to be sufficiently robust but also capable of rapid displacement. However, maximum strategic mobility must not be allowed to result in a situation in which once the unit has arrived in the area of operations it has virtually no more tactical mobility or protection. There must, therefore, be a mix of strategic mobility on the one hand and robustness and tactical mobility on the other. The growing frequency of deployment outside the NATO area increases the importance of range, strategic mobility and good, flexible logistic support.

322. The actions of armed forces do not follow a fixed pattern. Military operations are thus made-to-measure, with high demands placed on flexibility. The terrain, the composition of the coalition and of friendly units, the enemy, the attitude of the local inhabitants, the desired effects and the method of operation will all differ in each operation. Furthermore, a wide range of operations is conceivable, from conflict prevention by means of preventive deployment to post-conflict operations, from small-scale to large-scale operations, under diverse conditions, from low to high in the spectrum of force. The tempo of military operations is high and circumstances can change rapidly even during an operation and necessitate a different type of operation[43]. For this reason, today's operations can no longer be clearly delineated but are highly complex in nature, as set out in further detail in Chapter 4. At the same time, there is also a tendency towards operations of longer duration. As well as periods in which events take place at a high tempo, there might also be periods, sometimes of considerable length, in which no irregularities occur. Actions conducted as a matter of routine could jeopardise morale.

3.7.1 Joint operations

323. The different Services of the armed forces are operating jointly to an ever increasing extent, combining their capabilities to achieve the optimal result. Their contributions will be determined according to the nature of an operation and the desired effects. A joint operation is not necessarily one conducted with another Service from the same military force. In practice, the Services conduct joint/combined operations far more often than purely joint actions. One example is the joint operation by a Dutch air defence frigate with F-16s from the American air force.

[43] 2003 Defence Budget and Policy Letter 2003', p. 13-14.

324. **Joint operations**. Joint operations refer to integrated operations involving at least two Services. The cooperation between the Services is based on the operational level. That is where the joint force commander plans the activities of the Service components of his force. Cooperation between the components mainly takes place at the tactical level. Examples of cooperation between land and air forces are the deployment of combat, transport or support helicopters for the benefit of army units, or air support by aircraft for close air support, air reconnaissance and air transport, and the integrated actions of 11 Airmobile Brigade (Royal Netherlands Army) and the helicopter squadrons of the Tactical Helicopter Group (Royal Netherlands Air Force) in 11 Air Manoeuvre Brigade. In air defence by ground-based units, too, the air force plays a key role with its combat planes, airborne radar systems and surface-to-air missile systems. Examples of cooperation between the navy and units from the army are naval gunfire support for ground-based units and air defence in coastal waters. There are also possibilities for cooperation between army and marines units in infantry tasks that are similar in some respects. The air force and the navy work together in air defence above the sea (with air defence vessels and fighter aircraft), ground-based air defence (RNLA and RNLAF Stingers), coastguard tasks and search-and-rescue operations. An example of joint action by the Services as part of national operations was the military assistance provided during the floods of 1998. RNLA and RNLN military personnel and RNLN and RNLAF helicopters worked together closely to evacuate people and animals and to construct defences against the rising waters. Another example of a jointly conducted national operation is the support provided in 1997 to control the swine fever epidemic in the south of the country.

325. **Joint campaign**. A joint campaign is a coordinated series of successively or simultaneously conducted operations, designed to achieve the operational objective within a given time or in a particular area, involving the synchronisation of land, naval and air forces. A joint campaign is usually made up of the following elements:

a. Enforcing and protecting lines of communications on land, at sea and through the air to and within the theatre of operations.
b. Enforcing a desired situation in relevant parts of the area of operations, the sea and in the airspace above the theatre of operations.
c. Allocating troops and assets for the intermediate and final objectives.
d. Conducting ground, sea and air operations in accordance with the nature and capabilities of the individual troops and assets. Operations are also conducted in the information domain (and possibly in space, by Allies).
e. Ensuring the provision of adequate support, including logistic support.

f. Command and control operation: the conduct of information operations, in which our own supply of information and command and control is safeguarded and those of the enemy are attacked with the aim of achieving a faster pace in the decision-making process than the enemy.
g. Withdrawing the force, including rescue and recovery operations.
h. Preparing and conducting special operations.
i. Preparing and conducting post-conflict peace building.

3.7.2 Multinational operations

326. **Multinational operations**. Multinational operations refer to integrated operations by the armed forces of at least two nations. All operations are in principle conducted in conjunction with other countries; this will often involve cooperation with NATO countries. Some examples are 1(GE/NL)Corps, of which the RNLA forms part, the UK-NL Amphibious Force, in which the RNLN participates with units from the Marine Corps and various naval units such as the Landing Platform Docks and the European Airlift Cell, in which the RNLAF is involved[44]. In many cases non-NATO nations will also participate in a military operation. This was the case, for instance, in the NATO operation SFOR in Bosnia, in which troops from NATO countries worked alongside those from non-NATO countries such as Ukraine and the Russian Federation. In Ethiopia and Eritrea, Afghanistan and Iraq too, troops from NATO states worked and are still working with those from other countries, such as India and Australia respectively. Multinationality also increases the legitimacy of the participation in a military force as well as the solidarity between the participating nations (burden and risk sharing).

327. **Success factors**. The cooperation between the various nations is also established at the operational level. That is where the force commander plans the activities of the troops of the various nations of his force; actual cooperation also takes effect at tactical level. Various preconditions play a key role in the successful conduct of multinational operations. The main ones are as follows.

a. **Respect**. Mutual respect for the ideas, culture, religion and customs of partner nations helps to lay the foundations for cooperation and unity of effort. One way to achieve unity of effort is through joint doctrine.

[44] In accordance with the NATO Standardisation Agreement STANAG 1059 (Ed. 8) – Letter Codes for Geographical Entities (Brussels, 2004), the abbreviations for countries have been changed from two to three-letter codes, such as NL to NLD, GE to DEU and UK to GBR. It is expected that the names of these military units will be amended in accordance with this STANAG.

b. **Harmony**. Good personal relations.
c. **Interoperability**. Use by the participating nations of a similar system of command and control and the availability at all command levels of communication systems which are compatible with each other and with those of the relevant civil organisations both contribute significantly to the success of the operation.
d. **Allocation of tasks**. A multinational force commander should give each individual international partner tasks which are in keeping with the capabilities of that nation's units and which do not conflict with national guidelines. He should take account of the views of the various multinational partners in his planning.
e. **Management of assets**. Multinational partners can request help from one another in respect of logistic support. The more similar the logistic systems of the various partners, the greater the opportunity for support of this kind. Arrangements can be made for this prior to the operation and adjusted if necessary as the operation progresses.

3.7.3 Integrated operations

328. As well as the developments referred to above, in which the emphasis lies on the conduct of military operations, there are also new technological developments which are changing military operations. Several of these developments are outlined here, taking integrated actions as the common feature.

329. **Information operations**. Information has always played a major role in decision-making processes. Without the right information, it is impossible to make the right decision. More and more often, the Dutch armed forces are faced with an increasing flow of information, both operationally and organisationally. More and more support is provided by computerised information systems. These assets form a vital part of the command and control (C2) system. Successful operations require free access by the user to all relevant information and to the systems through which information is transferred. This demands a high level of reliability and availability from these information systems. Poor information management means that the task cannot be accomplished. As a result, information is thus increasingly regarded as a potential target. The sphere covered by information operations is extensive since they can be used in peacetime as well as in wartime. In an offensive form, information operations combine command and control warfare with political, diplomatic, civil-military and information activities with the aim of changing the perception of the parties. The defensive form

[45] For further details regarding the protection of the decision-making process and the disruption of that of the enemy, see the section on the OODA loop in Chapter 5.

of information operations involves the protection of friendly headquarters, units and systems against similar activities by the enemy[45].

330. **Effects-based operations (EBO)**. In the future too, politicians and society will continue to demand that the deployment of military units produces positive results in a short space of time. At the same time, it is becoming increasingly important that casualties among friendly troops and among the civilian population be avoided, as should damage to the social infrastructure in the area of operations. Actions against military opponents also remain subject to strict conditions (ROE). The increasingly close relationship between time and success underlines the growing need to focus attention on the desired effects of an operation. This approach is known as EBO. EBO stands for the integrated use of military and non-military instruments of power to achieve grand strategy objectives. Although the term EBO itself is relatively new, the underlying principles are based on the current approach to the use of military assets. With the formulation of his intent, the commander is after all setting out the objective he ultimately wishes to achieve. In an EBO context, he then sets out the desired effects which should allow the ultimate objective to be achieved. The principle here is that the available military (and other) capabilities are used with flexibility so that they can be deployed as effectively and efficiently as possible. It should not be forgotten, however, that these are intended effects. EBO requires constant evaluation of the actual effects achieved. If it transpires that the intended effect is not being realised or that the effect achieved will not lead to the accomplishment of the ultimate objective, the original plans will have to be adjusted.

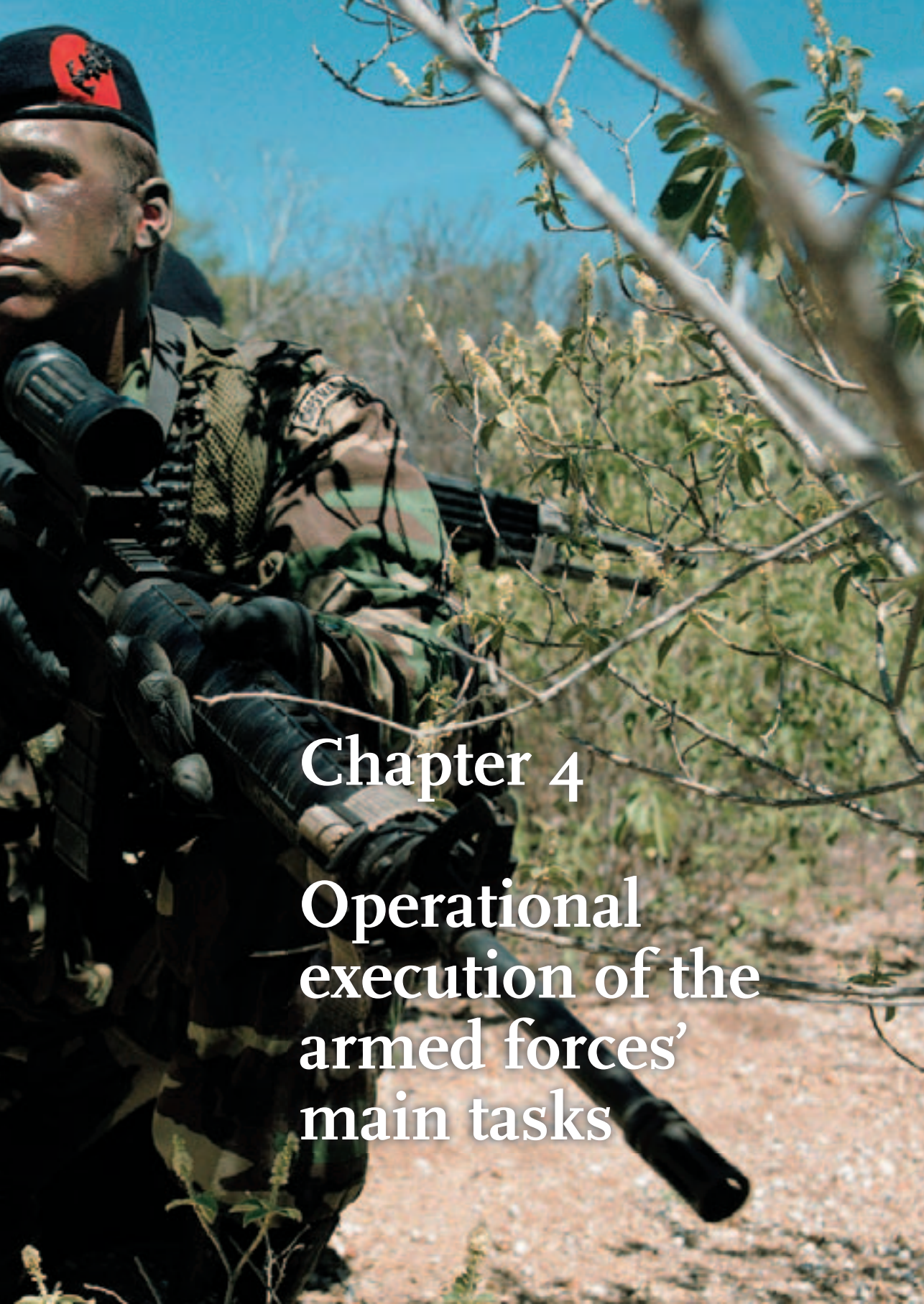
331. **Network-enabled capabilities (NEC)**. The description of EBO highlighted the fact that the key factor is now the intended effects and no longer the available assets (platform-centric planning). To achieve the intended effect, the joint forces commander (JFC) will deploy all available assets (land, naval and air) which are suitable for the task. In order to be able to coordinate such a deployment efficiently and effectively, all those units must form part of a network. Operating in a network such as this, as well as the interoperability of weapons and sensors and of information and communications systems, will shorten the decision-making cycle; an important condition for using the manoeuvrist approach successfully. This is referred to by the term NEC. The increasing availability of these technologically advanced systems has major implications for the nature of military operations. The central premise of the NEC concept is to improve the management of operational information by eradicating restrictive functional and organisational shortcomings in order to make optimum use of all available capabilities in a joint coalition. Changes in connection with procedure, personnel, culture and organisation are inextricably linked to

aspects in the development of NEC. The key issue is how better networks can lead to better decision-making processes and to better effects. Making better use of information leads to information superiority, which in turn leads to decision superiority and effects superiority. The enhancement of interoperability between sensors and shooters (weapon systems) of different nations and multinational capabilities serves as a force multiplier for operational effectiveness. Effectiveness can be improved with relatively little investment in interoperability[46].

332. **NEC and Dutch military operations**. The Ministry of Defence has been endorsing the strategic importance of the NEC developments for years. In respect of the level of ambition with regard to NEC, the Dutch armed forces want to join the international development of network-enabled capabilities in order to be able to supply an appropriate, high-quality and technologically advanced military contribution to international operations at any level of the spectrum of force[47]. The Defence organisation views NEC as a prerequisite for a flexible and modular military capability. It wants to make an active contribution to the realisation of NEC, in order to at least ensure that our capabilities will continue to be compatible with those of our major Allies. It is also about interoperability with civil partners, such as nationally with other government agencies and, for instance, with non-governmental organisations (NGOs). For the Defence organisation, the realisation of NEC is a necessary process which occupies a key position in the modernisation and transformation of military capabilities.

[46] *Delivering Security in a Changing World: Defence White Paper, Supporting Essays* (London, 2003), pp. 5, 10, 12 and 14.

[47] 'Network operations – NEC policy development study', version 21 February 2005, pp. 7 and 17.



Chapter 4

Operational execution of the armed forces' main tasks

4 Operational execution of the armed forces' main tasks

401. This chapter will examine how the military instrument of the Dutch state, as set out in the main tasks of the armed forces, can be deployed in the form of military operations. To do so, the Dutch frame of reference for operations and the international definitions from which it is derived will be explained first. It is important to note in this respect that today's military operations are highly complex in nature. This chapter will end by looking at the main tasks of the Dutch armed forces in national and international deployments.

4.1 International frame of reference for operations

402. **Different classifications**. A straightforward definition of operations is complicated by the fact that the Dutch armed forces are part of NATO, which means that the national views on operations must be harmonised with those of the Alliance. The Netherlands also takes part in operations by other international organisations (UN, OSCE, EU) or coalitions, in which the same considerations apply. It is for this reason that this section will first look at the classification used by NATO, followed by the classification of crisis management operations used by other international organisations. It will then focus attention on the national definitions. In all classifications, operations nowadays can no longer be defined according to a single task, as one operation now entails a range of tasks.

403. **NATO classification: Article 5 and NA5CRO**. NATO divides its operations into two categories: operations in the context of collective defence, as defined in Article 5 of the NATO treaty, and other operations. The situation in the Cold War was a preparation for wartime under Article 5, whereby NATO would use collective defence to respond to any attack by Warsaw Pact countries. A recent example in this respect was the declaration by NATO, immediately after the terrorist attack on the US on 11 September 2001, offering support to the US under Article 5. This was the first time that Article 5 had been invoked. NATO's other operations are referred to under the heading of non-Article 5 Crisis Response Operations (NA5CRO). The Netherlands has decided to translate NA5CRO with a term meaning 'crisis management operations' and to use NATO's definition of

NA5CRO as the starting point for the definition of crisis management operations. Both terms (NA5CRO and crisis management operations) should be regarded as 'umbrella' terms rather than as a narrowly defined type of military operation.

404. **Crisis management operations**. A crisis management operation is defined as an operation which comprises political, military and civil activities, and which is initiated and conducted in accordance with international law (including international humanitarian law), whereby a contribution is made to the prevention and resolution of conflicts as well as to the management of crises in order to achieve the internationally determined objectives. A crisis management operation may be an operation in which mainly civil organisations are supported, an operation which supports peace, or a combat operation conducted by a coalition. As part of a multinational operation (for example, one led by NATO), extraction operations may also be conducted, as well as tasks in support of disaster relief and humanitarian operations, search-and-rescue operations and non-combatant evacuation operations. Operations involving the use or threat of military force encompass military actions which range from the enforcement of sanctions, such as embargoes, to military combat operations. All this shows that operations can be conducted throughout the spectrum of force, ranging from a situation in which no force is used to one in which the use of force is essential. Crisis management operations can be divided into peace-support activities and other activities and tasks (see Figure 4-A).

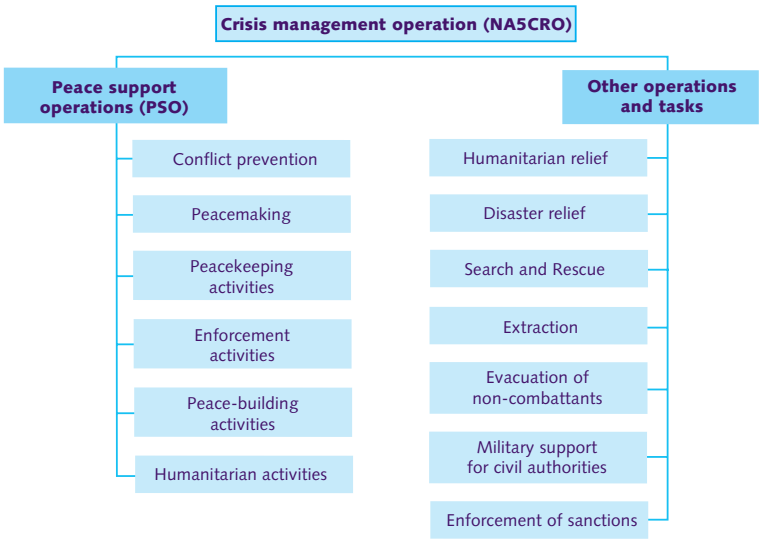


Figure 4-A: List of possible activities within a single military operation[48]

[48] Not only in NA5CRO but also in Article 5 operations might many of these activities take place in a single operation.

405. **Peace-support operations**. The definition of crisis-management operations contains the phrase 'an operation which supports peace'. NATO uses the term 'peace-support operations' (PSO). The Dutch equivalent is a direct translation of that term. A peace-support operation is an operation that is conducted with the objective of achieving a lasting political solution to a conflict and in which the deployed military force stands above the parties involved in the conflict. The force's mandate is generally based on a UN resolution or a corresponding decision by another international organisation, such as the OSCE.

406. Peace-support operations take the following forms:

a. Conflict prevention, for example by means of the preventive deployment of military units.
b. Peacekeeping
c. Peacemaking/peace enforcement
d. Peace building
e. Humanitarian activities

407. **Perception of organisations with regard to crisis management operations**. Although NATO's conceptual framework has been used for the definition of crisis-management operations, these can also be conducted by the UN, the EU, the OSCE or a coalition of the willing and the able. The conceptual framework for the peace-support operations referred to above was established by the UN in 1992 in the policy document entitled 'An Agenda for Peace', to which the so-called 'Supplement' was added later, in 1995. The EU refers to what are known as the 'Petersberg Tasks'. These include humanitarian relief operations, peacekeeping operations and crisis-management operations in which combat forces may be deployed to enforce compliance with an agreement[49]. The OSCE does not use a separate set of definitions. Where the definition of crisis management operations refers to 'NATO', therefore, as far as the different manifestations are concerned, the definition also applies to the UN, EU, OSCE and international coalitions.

4.2 Dutch conceptual framework for crisis management operations

408. The Dutch armed forces play an active role on the international stage in carrying out the activities referred to above in the context of crisis

[49] Source: European Council, June 1999: the entire range of tasks relating to conflict prevention and crisis management as defined in the Treaty concerning the European Union, known as the 'Petersberg tasks': *Article 17.2. Treaty on European Union: Questions referred to in this Article shall include humanitarian and rescue tasks, peacekeeping tasks and tasks of combat forces in crisis management, including peacemaking.*

management. Using the definitions of the Corporate Frame of Reference for Defence (CBK), the following section will examine the Dutch perception of these operational activities.

4.2.1 Peace-support activities

409. **Diplomatic and military activities**. The term 'peace-support activities' is the generic term used to describe military activities in which what is often a multinational force is used to support a peace process. This covers the entire range of activities focused on keeping or restoring the peace. These activities are usually the result of UN authorisation to intervene in regional or local conflicts. These armed conflicts could be interstate, intrastate or transnational in nature. In peace-support activities, there is a distinction between diplomatic and military activities.

410. **Diplomatic activities**:

a. **Preventive diplomacy** consists of diplomatic actions which are undertaken before an anticipated crisis and which are designed to remove the causes of the conflict. This should prevent the outbreak of violence. Preventive actions can also be taken to prevent the spread and intensification of low-level force. Conflict prevention activities support this process with military means.
b. **Peacemaking** is a peace-support activity that consists mainly of diplomatic activities but that can also involve the threat of the use of force; this is conducted after a conflict has started and is designed to achieve and enforce a cease-fire or a quick peace settlement.

411. **Military activities**. The manifestations of military peace-support activities shown in Figure 4-A comprise the following activities.

a. **Conflict prevention**. This is a peace-support activity which includes a wide range of diplomatic and military activities, such as the identification of potential causes of conflict, the monitoring of conflict indicators and the early deployment of activities to prevent the development or the (re-)emergence of a conflict between states or within a state. Conflict prevention normally requires the consent of the parties involved. Conflict prevention involves instruments such as early warning, surveillance, implementation of stabilising measures, preventive deployment of troops, dialogue, cooperation, peace-building activities (including arms control agreements) and socio-cultural activities. The forward deployment of naval units at sea (near to the crisis area but not in it), including any embarked aircraft and/or troops, is an example of conflict prevention which does not require consent from the parties

involved. This could, however, send a strong political and military signal to the parties involved. The level of force will be comparatively low in the execution of these activities. Conflict prevention is primarily a diplomatic process and requires diplomatic skills to avoid escalation. In a situation such as this, the military force acts in support of the civil authorities in the quest for peace and must take the necessary steps to ensure that the situation is closely monitored. Only if diplomatic and/or political preventive measures fail to have any effect can military means be used.

b. **Peacekeeping activities**. These are activities which fall under Chapter VI of the UN Charter and which are conducted after a peace agreement or cease-fire has created an environment in which the level of compliance by the parties is high and the threat of renewed hostilities is low. Peacekeeping activities are conducted in an international context and include such aspects as the deployment of military troops in the area of operations (examples of such 'UN blue helmet operations' are the Dutch participation in UNIFIL from 1979 to 1985 and in UNMEE in 2001). Military action must be based on the permission (or at least assent) of the parties involved. If parties do not abide by the agreements that have been reached, escalation may follow and coercive measures may be necessary.

c. **Peace-enforcement activities**. These activities are normally conducted on the basis of the principles laid down in Chapter VII of the UN Charter. They are conducted to restore peace between warring parties which, in principle, do not all necessarily consent to the intervention of the peace force. These operations can be either interstate or intrastate and often involve the use or threat of a relatively high level of force. Peace-enforcing activities could include a presence, embargo, blockade, control, interim coercive measures or intervention. Generally speaking, these actions will not be led by the UN, but will be 'outsourced' to a security organisation or an *ad hoc* coalition led by one state. The 1990-1991 Gulf War is an example of a peace-enforcement operation with an interstate character, in which a military operation to enforce Iraq's compliance with the UNSC resolutions was conducted by a US-led coalition. The UN's UNOSOM II operation in Somalia in 1993 is an example of a peace-enforcement operation with an intrastate character.

d. **Peace-building activities**. These activities are in principle conducted by civil organisations, if necessary with military support, in the form of

[50] CIMIC, civil-military cooperation, is the cooperation between the armed forces and civil and government organisations. CIMIC can be split into CIMIC activities and CIMIC operations. CIMIC activities focus on the support of military units by civil organisations (infrastructural provisions, supply of goods and services, etc). CIMIC operations relate to actions by military units in support of civil organisations (assistance in reconstruction, repair of infrastructure, mine clearance, etc). (Source: *CBK*).

civil-military cooperation (CIMIC)[50]. These activities are conducted to sustain a fragile peace after the settlement of an armed conflict. Their aim is to enable a country to maintain its sovereignty so that the conflict does not flare up again after the departure of the intervening forces. It is a political process that consists of, for example, attempts to support the structures which will be able to consolidate peace in the long term and that will promote a sense of trust and well-being among the population. Peace-building activities focus attention on building up infrastructure, economic activities, a democratic form of government and establishing and reorganising the security sector, which comprises the police apparatus as well as the armed forces. They can also help to demobilise the military force or dismantle and disarm formerly warring factions. Other activities in this respect are the restoration of law and order, the repatriation of refugees, advice and training for security personnel, acting as observers in elections, promoting efforts for the protection of human rights and the reorganisation and strengthening of government agencies (also at local and provincial level).

e. **Humanitarian activities**. Humanitarian tasks, such as the deployment of medical relief teams, could be performed in the context of peace-support activities, but could also be undertaken independently (see other activities). Humanitarian activities as part of peace support operations are primarily intended to further stabilise the situation and thus contribute to the peace process. In this case, therefore, humanitarian relief is a means. Humanitarian activities also include aid to refugees and displaced persons.

4.2.2 Other activities and tasks

a. **Humanitarian relief**. In humanitarian relief actions, the deployment of relief organisations, which might include military units, is intended to alleviate human suffering, in circumstances in which the responsible authorities are no longer able -and in some cases are also unwilling- to provide adequate support for the people. In this context, unlike that in the case of peace support operations, the sole objective of humanitarian relief is to relieve human suffering. In the case of emergency humanitarian aid, there is an emergency situation in which the (local) relief effort is not enough, leading quickly to a temporary need for support, possibly also military, in order to provide the basic necessities for survival.
b. **Disaster relief**. Disaster relief entails activities designed to provide the facilities to alleviate human suffering and to save lives in the event of a disaster. Disaster relief could also include humanitarian activities.
c. **Search and Rescue**. This task involves the use of aircraft, surface vessels, submarines or vehicles, as well as specialised rescue teams and

equipment, to search for and rescue personnel in distress on land or at sea.

d. **Extraction**. In this activity, a military force provides support for another force returning from a conflict area.
e. **Evacuation of non-combatants**. This activity is used to relocate non-combatants who are at risk abroad to a safe location.
f. **Military support for civil authorities**. This military support encompasses the assistance provided by (parts of) the armed forces -other than (special) military assistance- at the request of administrative or judicial authorities at home or abroad, in situations in which public interests are affected. The provision of support for civil authorities could include the same activities as those conducted in the case of humanitarian relief and disaster relief, but in this case the civil organisations lead the operation and the armed forces merely provide the capacity (for example, the military deployment during the swine fever epidemic in 1997 and the military support in controlling the outbreak of foot-and-mouth disease in 2001.
g. **Enforcement of a sanction, such as an embargo**. The aim of this activity is to force a state to observe rules of international law, such as a resolution from the UN Security Council or another international (security) organisation.

4.3 Complexity of operations

412. **Disappearance of distinction between categories of operations**. There is national and international consensus that the experiences of international operations during the 1990s and at the beginning of the 21st century have shown that operations can no longer be divided into strict categories, for example in accordance with the manifestations of the peace support operations referred to earlier[51]. Almost all operations will now contain elements of more than one form of the individual operations. A unit could, for instance, coordinate humanitarian relief with international organisations and NGOs during combat actions, or coercive actions could be conducted during a peacekeeping operation, while elsewhere in the area of operations reconstruction activities are being carried out, cooperation is taking place and discussions are being held with civil authorities. All these elements can take place within the time and space of the same operation. It is also impossible nowadays to make a clear distinction in the spectrum of force between combat operations and crisis management operations.

[51] Wiggen, O.P. van, Eijl, C.A.M. van, Nieuwenhuis, P., 'The transformation process of the RNLA in perspective', *Militaire Spectator*, no. 10 (2004), p.484; Jackson, M., 'The UK Medium Weight Capability: A Response to the Changing Strategic Context', *RUSI Defence Systems*, autumn 2004, p.42.

The distinction between operations under Article 5 of the NATO treaty and those in the context of NA5CRO (crisis management operations) has thus also become blurred, since the same operational aspects could be present in both types of operation. For the commander of an operation, there is, therefore, no difference. When the mandate, the objectives and the ROE are drawn up for an operation, account must be taken of the fact that a broad spectrum of operational aspects could occur simultaneously.

413. **Continued distinction according to mandate and multifunctionality**. In contrast to the shift towards a broad and non-differentiating spectrum of activities within an operation, the distinction on the basis of mandate (peaceful settlement of disputes in accordance with Chapter VI of the UN Charter as opposed to coercive measures in accordance with Chapter VII), which plays a particularly key role in the political decision making, continues to apply. This distinction remains important in political and legal terms and thus has repercussions, for instance for participation in such an operation and the level of force that is authorised. An additional distinguishing aspect continues to be whether the operation has a multifunctional mandate (for instance, whether it includes humanitarian relief).

414. **Activities in a single operation**. As stated earlier, today's operations could include activities which have until now been regarded as separate operations. Given that each operation is likely to include aspects of more than one type of crisis management operation, the term 'operations' has been replaced in the foregoing definition by the term 'activities', in order to emphasise that different activities can feature simultaneously or successively in one operation (see Figure 4-A).

4.4 Main tasks of the armed forces and their operational execution

415. As set out previously in Chapter 2, the Dutch armed forces have three main tasks:

1. Protecting the integrity of national and Allied territory, including the Netherlands Antilles and Aruba;
2. Promoting stability and the international rule of law;
3. Supporting civil authorities in upholding the law, providing disaster relief and humanitarian relief, both nationally and internationally.

416. **Intertwining of main tasks**. Partly because of the increasing intertwining of internal and external security, the distinction between the main tasks of the armed forces has become blurred over the past few years. The Defence White Paper 2000 had already established that the

resources that were necessary for the first and second main tasks were virtually identical, given that defending Alliance territory in practice amounts to regional crisis management at the borders of the Alliance. The importance of the third main task has increased and the link with the first two has become stronger because of the threat of terrorism[52]. To get a good understanding of the deployment of the armed forces, the Defence tasks that are derived from the main tasks must also be taken into consideration[53]. For reasons of clarity, the operational execution of the main tasks is divided into national and international deployment.

4.4.1 National deployment

417. **Fundamentals**. National deployment is the result of national and international rules. In this way, host nation support arises from international agreements and the provision of military assistance is based on legislative arrangements. The provision of support is not based on legislative arrangements but on agreements with government organisations. The execution of a national deployment can place exceptional demands on those involved. This could be because of the (special) circumstances in which the deployment has to be conducted, the allocation of assets or response times.

418. **Characteristics**. National operations have the following characteristics:

a. National operations take place in principle in national territory. The logistic support of Dutch military personnel participating in multinational operations outside the Netherlands is also regarded as a national operation.
b. National operations can also be conducted in peacetime. They can also be conducted in special circumstances in which measures under state emergency law apply.
c. The units or organisations to be supported are described in general beforehand, but are not named specifically. This is because the support is provided for 'civil authorities or Allies', but the particular authority or ally concerned may be different in each operation.
d. In most national operations, the level of force will usually be low, although certain activities, such as the tasks of the Special Assistance Unit, coastguard tasks and security tasks, could entail a (much) higher level of force.
e. National operations can be conducted in combination with other (crisis management) operations.

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[52] '2003 Defence Budget and Policy Letter', pp. 15-16.

[53] See the description of Defence tasks in Chapter 2 and in Annex A.

f. National operations can be conducted under the command of and also in cooperation with civil authorities.

419. **Types of national operations**[54]. National operations can be divided into the following categories:

a. **The protection of Dutch territory**. The protection of national territory is carried out by surveillance of the airspace (QRA by the RNLAF) and of territorial waters (RNLN coastguard tasks).
b. **Security on the ground**. This task includes the security of military operations as well as the guarding and protection of (temporary) military objects and military transports on land.
c. **The provision of host nation support**. This task entails the provision of support for the armed forces of Allies, including security in the service support areas and during movements along the lines of communication located in Dutch territory.
d. **Logistic support for expeditionary actions**. This task relates to the logistic support from the Netherlands for units on deployment abroad during operations and exercises.
e. **Explosive ordnance disposal**. This task involves the detection and clearance of explosives found in the Netherlands (including the Dutch sector of the Continental Shelf).
f. **The provision of military assistance and support to the Dutch government and society at large**. Military assistance is the help provided by the armed forces in support of public order, for the purpose of maintaining law and order under criminal law (including measures against terrorist actions and drug trafficking, for example personal protection by the Royal Netherlands Marechaussee and the deployment of Special Assistance Units) and in the case of a disaster or an impending disaster (for example, dike fortifications against impending floods and assistance after the passage of hurricanes over the Netherlands Antilles). Military support is the help given by the armed forces -unlike military assistance- in the public interest (for example, military hydrography by the RNLN). The armed forces may also provide services to third parties on an *ad hoc* basis. This is referred to as community support.

420. All operational units can be used in a national deployment. The armed forces also have capacity in the National Reserve Corps that can be deployed within a short space of time for tasks in respect of surveillance and security, military assistance and support and the provision of host nation support.

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[54] See also Figure 2-A: Deployment of the armed forces versus Defence tasks.

421. **Cooperation with civil authorities**. Armed forces may cooperate with civil authorities in the execution of national operations. When providing military assistance in the event of a disaster, for example, the armed forces will work with the fire service, police and other emergency services. One example of this is the deployment of helicopters in disasters and for fire-fighting activities. The national responsibility for the coordination of this deployment rests with the National Coordination Centre (NCC) of the Ministry of the Interior and Kingdom Relations. Locally, work is carried out under the responsibility of a Queen's Commissioner or a mayor (depending on the geographical size of the area of operations). Cooperation with civil authorities may also be necessary in the case of the presence of foreign military units in Dutch territory.

422. **National security and interdepartmental cooperation**. In conducting all its main tasks (protection of territory, international crisis management, support for civil authorities), the Ministry of Defence contributes to national security. Society also expects the presence of the armed forces in the Netherlands if that becomes necessary. In the event of an incident or a disaster, civil and military authorities must know exactly where to find each other and know precisely what they can expect from each other. This requires clear agreements in advance in respect of capabilities to be supplied, good synchronisation of the procedures that will be used, joint plans and exercises. It is no longer simply a question of the Defence organisation acting as a safety net in the event of shortfalls in civil capabilities, but more a matter of fulfilling a structural role as a security partner.

423. **The Defence organisation's own tasks in respect of national security and military support and assistance**. The fact that the new role of the Defence organisation in the Netherlands comprises more than that of a safety net is demonstrated by the organisation's own, usually legally supported tasks that it performs in respect of national security. This refers to the structural tasks carried out by Defence on a permanent basis, as well as to the incidental deployment of high-quality niche capabilities. The tasks of the Royal Netherlands Marechaussee and the Coastguard for the Netherlands Antilles and Aruba are examples of the national tasks performed by the Defence organisation on a structural basis. These are performed under civil authority and under their own operational command. Niche capabilities are specialist capabilities, such as the explosive ordnance disposal service and the special assistance units, which can support the civil authorities on a more *ad hoc* basis to counter specific or more violent threats (for example, bomb threats or extreme terrorism). Deployment such as this occurs on the basis of the legal stipulations for military assistance. The

deployment of niche capabilities is mentioned here, however, as one of the armed forces' 'own' tasks, since they are exclusively available to the Defence organisation and not, as is customary in the case of military support and assistance, only available to supplement any shortfalls in civil capabilities. Besides the tasks mentioned here, the armed forces can also support the civil authorities with other forms of military support and assistance. This relates to the military assistance and support in the event that the capacities of civil emergency services fall short or are in danger of doing so. The assistance and support provided by Defence are rooted in kingdom-wide legislation and regulations and are administered under civil authority. Annex B of this publication provides a summary of the main tasks in respect of national security performed by the armed forces and of the main forms of military support and assistance which have been realised in an interdepartmental context over the course of time[55].

4.4.2 International deployment

424. **First main task and combat operations**. The protection of the integrity of national and Allied territory involves operations in the context of collective defence, as defined in Article 5 of the NATO treaty. Examples of this are the Allied defence in the Cold War, and also NATO's invocation of this article immediately after the terrorist attacks on the US on 11 September 2001 and the subsequent participation of Dutch military units in Operation Enduring Freedom in Afghanistan and the Persian Gulf. In the context of the first main task, operations can also be conducted on the borders of the NATO treaty area, if an unstable situation there could have implications for the territorial integrity of the treaty area. One such example was the deployment of Patriot air defence units during Operation Display Deterrence in Turkey in 2003.

425. **Second main task and crisis management operations**. The aim of the second main task of the Dutch armed forces is to manage or resolve conflicts by contributing to crisis management operations[56]. An important aspect in this regard is to minimise the risk of escalation by intervening at an early stage. The last few decades have seen a great many conflicts which have spread or threatened to spread to neighbouring countries (for example, in the former Yugoslavia and Africa). Conflict prevention, in which military and civil organisations join forces to try to nip a conflict in

[55] Source: Letter from the Minister of Defence to the House of Representatives of the States-General on the subject of 'The Defence organisation and national security', dated 22 April 2005.

[56] The RNLN's anti-drugs operations referred to in Chapter 2 also come under the second main task.

the bud, has become more high profile. It is crucial to have military units on hand whose level of readiness and mobility is such that they can be deployed quickly virtually anywhere in the world as soon as the political decision making about the operation has been completed. These units also need to be sufficiently robust to be able to operate effectively in military operations, even in the event of escalation.

426. **Operating throughout the spectrum of force**. The range of crisis management operations in which, in accordance with the level of ambition formulated by the government, the Dutch armed forces have to be able to participate means that personnel may be required to participate in operations which involve the use of force. In the conduct of crisis management operations, Dutch military personnel could be confronted with a great many actors, risks and situations, ranging from humanitarian emergencies to combat actions. Dutch units will not only be confronted with combat actions as a third party, but they will also have to be able to take part in them themselves in the context of a peace-enforcing operation, possibly even initiate them. This places heavy demands on the personnel and equipment of the military units in question and could mean that heavy assets, such as tanks, fighter planes and naval guns also need to be deployed.

427. **Variable intensity and duration of deployment**. Depending on the desired political and military end state, crisis management operations can be limited in terms of objective, assets, area of operations or duration. It might be a question of a specific and limited operation, such as the evacuation of non-combatants, for example from Côte d'Ivoire in November 2004, or it could be more general and longer-term in nature, such as the Dutch contribution to the IFOR/SFOR/EUFOR operation in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Crisis management operations could be intended to prevent an armed conflict (for example, the UN operation UNPREDEP in Macedonia from 1995 to 1999), or to help with the reconstruction of a country after an armed conflict (for instance, ISAF in Afghanistan). At different times and in different places, a crisis management operation can be just as intense as the collective defence (Article 5) of (parts of) the NATO treaty area. The greater the likelihood that the parties in the conflict will use force against each other or against the foreign force (for example, because of diminishing support for the presence and tasks of the foreign force), the more robustly the crisis management operation should be conducted. The international military force must also have a certain level of escalation dominance. The basis for this lies in the operation's mandate and the ROE and can be expressed in the operation plan, the composition, the size and/or equipment of the military force.

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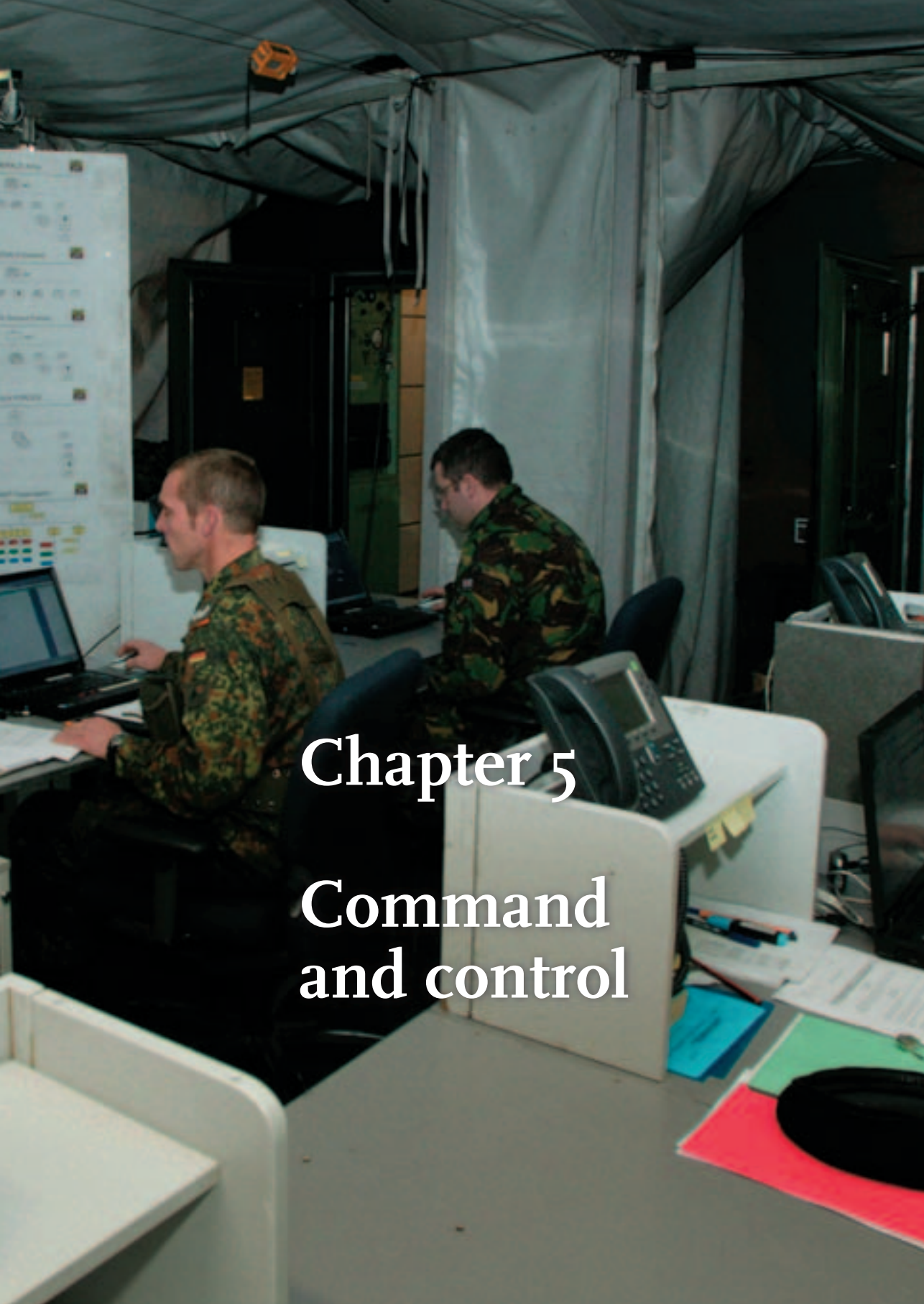

Chapter 5

Command and control

5 Command and control

501. Command and control is the process of leading and steering a military organisation in order to achieve its objective. The command of a unit is the authority assigned by a higher commander to an individual, the commander, to lead his unit, to take decisions about deployment and to control the execution of an operation. Along with this authority, the commander is given instructions regarding the deployment, often reflected in an assignment or a goal to be reached. He is also allocated personnel and equipment to enable him to carry out that assignment. This chapter begins with an explanation of the command and control structure and the related decision making and command. It will then look at the style of command exercised by the Dutch armed forces, namely mission command. The chapter will end by focusing on the aspect of providing leadership, which plays a vital role in command and control.

5.1 Command and control structure

502. **Process and system**. The process comprises activities such as collecting information, taking decisions and monitoring the implementation of those decisions. To be able to exercise command, the commander must have a (full) command and control system.

503. **Process: command & control**. Exercising command includes the process by which a commander makes decisions, communicates his intent and imposes his will on his subordinates. The exercise of command gives the commander the authority, the responsibility and the obligation to act, or to deliberately refrain from action, in order to achieve his assigned goal within the framework of the higher commander's intent. At all levels of operating the exercise of command is an art in itself in terms of motivating and directing military personnel of all ranks. First and foremost, the commander has to decide on a method of operation and lead his unit in the pursuit of his objective. Decision-making and leadership are, therefore, the primary responsibilities in the exercise of command. The commander is also responsible for the control of the unit. The term command & control can be abbreviated to C2, which is used internationally. Command & control is thus made up of the elements of

leadership, decision-making and command.

504. **System**. In exercising his command, the commander is supported by his staff and by any advisors or liaison officers. The staff operates from a (floating) headquarters or command post. Another requirement for command and control is support by communications and information systems (CIS), which are essential for decision-making and command. Together they make up the command and control system. A system such as this is a collection of different elements: doctrine, plans and procedures, a command structure, infrastructure (national and international headquarters, mobile operations centres, etc), technical systems (including computers, sensors, displays, communications equipment, radar) and personnel. The following diagram shows a command and control system.

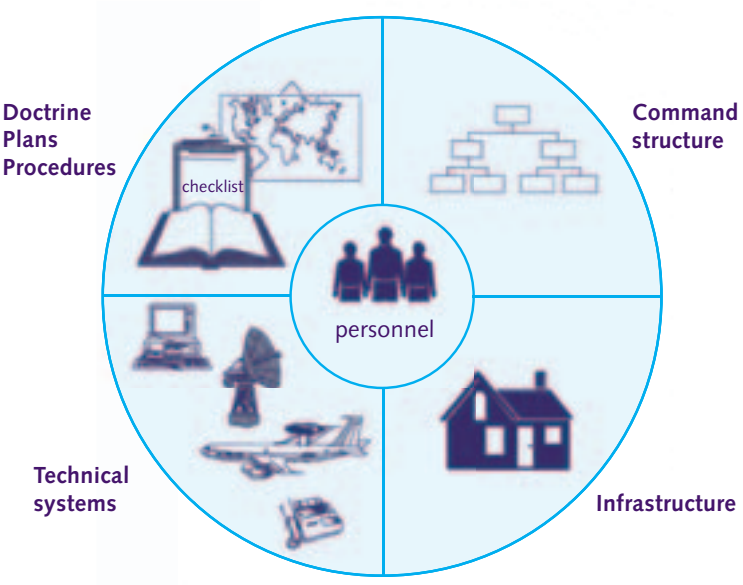

Figure 5-A: Command and control system

505. **Command and control at all organisational levels**. Command and control is not confined solely to the highest levels in the military organisation. The C2 process and parts of the C2 system occur in many places in the military organisation, in a horizontal as well as a vertical sense. By horizontal, we mean in different parts of the organisation, such as fighter aircraft squadrons, infantry battalions and ships. C2 takes place in all units and C2 systems, plans and procedures are present throughout. Vertical refers to the different hierarchical levels. C2 takes place at every level. At high level, for instance, decisions are taken about the deployment of formations and units in military operations. An example of this level

of C2 -at national level- is the operational direction of the operational commanders of the Services by the CDS, as outlined in the penultimate paragraph of Chapter 2. The lower level is more involved in directing actual combat actions. C2 is, therefore, about the C2 process and the systems it needs at all levels and in all parts of the military organisation. This complexity in the military organisation and in military operations means that command and control is not easy to identify from the outside.

506. **Top-down interaction**. It is also important that C2 does not take place in isolation in each department and at each level, but that it is integrated 'from top to bottom'. At each level, the orders from above are translated into a number of coordinated actions which may in turn contain orders for the underlying levels. This ensures the synchronisation that is necessary to enable joint actions. A line also runs from the bottom to the top in C2. The execution of the orders and the results are relayed back to the higher commander at each level. This enables him to make any necessary adjustments or to deploy extra assets.

5.2 Decision making and command

507. **Cyclical process**. Decision making and command cannot be viewed in isolation from each other. Both are part of a management loop, a cyclical process. This cyclical process is applied constantly at all levels. The cyclical decision-making process is also known as Boyd's loop, after the man who came up with this concept, or the Observation-Orientation-Decision-Action loop (the OODA loop).

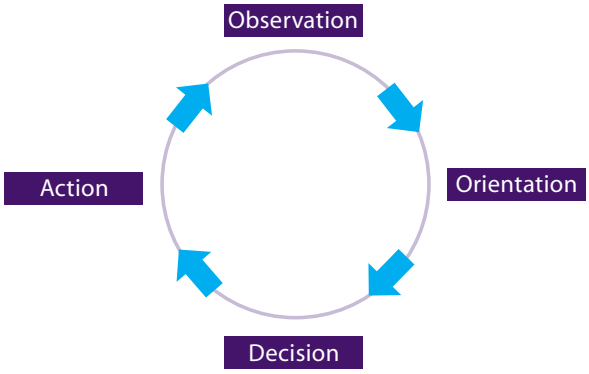

Figure 5-B: Decision-making cycle: the OODA loop

508. **Decision making**. Decision making starts with the collection of information about the existing military situation, which will then be analysed and assessed (observation). Possible options and actions to change the situation as required are then worked out (orientation) and a

choice is made as to which plans will be realised (decision). An order is then issued to implement the plans (action)[57]. Obviously, the idea is that the actions will bring about the desired situation. To establish whether that is the case, information about the situation is collected once again and the whole process starts again. In order to retain the initiative, the commander must proceed through the full cycle more quickly and meticulously than his opponent[58]. The one who acts slowest will lose the initiative and will be forced to act reactively. A constant overview of all processes in the cycle is essential in order to be able to speed things up when necessary and exploit the element of surprise. The tempo of the operation is not only determined by the speed at which and the accuracy with which the decision-making cycle progresses, but also depends on the speed with which the plan is executed and on the adjustment of the plan.

509. **Disruption and protection of the OODA loop**. The disruption of the enemy's OODA loop in order to be able to progress through the decision-making cycle with greater speed and accuracy has become an important objective. By the same token, protection of our own OODA loop has also become a major aim. The enemy will try to disrupt our own C2 process and thus gain the initiative. The disruption of the enemy OODA loop and the protection of our own decision-making cycle are referred to by the term 'command and control warfare' (C2W)[59].

510. **Command**. Command is the process used by a commander, with the assistance of his staff, to organise, direct and coordinate the units assigned to him as well as any support units. Particular attention is paid to the synchronisation of the different activities taking place within a unit's operations in order to achieve a particular result. Command refers, therefore, to the execution of the order. Command starts with an operation plan or an operation order which contains tasks and objectives for subordinate commanders. As well as the formulation of plans and orders, command also entails the communication of the decision to all those involved. It is then concerned with monitoring the execution, and checking and evaluating the results, in accordance with the OODA loop described previously. The commander will make any necessary adjustments to the execution by means of a supplementary order, ideally issued orally or otherwise in writing or through CIS means (e.g. e-mail).

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[57] The issue of an order to implement (action) forms part of the command process.

[58] This again shows the importance of NEC in relation to the shortening of the decision-making process, which is so essential in the manoeuvrist approach in particular (see the last paragraph of Chapter 3).

[59] Command and control warfare is one of the focal areas of information operations, which are described in Chapter 3.

5.3 Mission command

511. **Unity of effort and autonomy**. The philosophy of the Dutch armed forces is based on the guiding principle of mission command (*Auftragstaktik*)[60]. The aim of this principle is to ensure a robust system of command and control throughout the entire organisation in order to guarantee unity of effort at all operational levels. There are various techniques for ensuring unity of effort. A precondition is a command and control system which is based on the principle of unified leadership and clear chains of command. The tasks, powers and responsibilities of commanders at various levels have to be laid down clearly and should, if necessary, be enforceable. This method of command and control must be increasingly regarded as an urgent requirement. Instability, unpredictability and lack of clarity, in other words chaos and friction, typify all military operations: every situation is thus unique. Commanders at all levels must, therefore, be allowed to decide for themselves how best to conduct their mission. This is the only way to achieve the speed of action which is required to gain and maintain the initiative, particularly in rapidly changing circumstances. The unit can thus develop a high operational tempo and stay one step ahead of the enemy. Although command and control will be mission-oriented in theory, a higher or even the highest command level will in certain cases be required to decide how the mission is to be conducted, in which case it could still be necessary to impose directions and restrictions.

512. **Decentralisation**. Mission command is based on the *decentralisation of authority* for the execution of all military operations, on the basis of the historical experience that, in all the chaos and friction to be expected, decisions can best be made at the level directly involved in the operation. Decentralisation provides subordinates with a sense of involvement. Another advantage is that only a limited amount of essential information has to be passed along the chain of command from top to bottom and vice versa. It also ensures that local commanders take decisions on the basis of the most recent and up-to-date information. It could be said that, as a general rule, the more unstable the circumstances, the lower the level of decision-making should be.

513. **Indivisibility of responsibility**. Decentralisation does not affect the indivisibility of responsibility. The delegation of powers does not relieve the commander of his ultimate responsibility: he remains responsible both for his own actions and for those of his subordinates. This means that he has to monitor the execution of a mission from a distance and

[60] For the British definition of mission command, see *British Defence Doctrine*, p. 3-7.

intervene if there is no alternative. His awareness of this indivisibility of responsibility, his powers of persuasion as well as the principle of implementing a decision loyally and obediently once it has been made will enable a commander and his unit to be successful, even under the most difficult circumstances.

514. **Tempo and team spirit**. The decentralisation referred to above in the context of mission command should ensure that a high tempo of command can be achieved at all levels. This is essential for the penetration of the decision-action cycle of other parties and, should the need arise, the enemy. This will help to break the enemy's unity of effort and cohesion of operations. Mission command can only be successful in military operations if there is a sound understanding of the underlying principles, if practice thereof is encouraged and if there is regular training in its use: it must be second nature for the unit in question and for those at the superior command level. A primary condition is that continuity in the allocation of functions creates a good sense of team spirit within the unit so that commander and subordinates know each other well, will support each other through thick and thin and all know exactly how the others will think and act. Regular training creates the necessary foundations for this.

515. **Mutual trust**. For mission command to function effectively a superior not only needs to inspire confidence but he must also have confidence in his subordinates. On the one hand, mutual trust refers to the confidence personnel have in the leaders of the operation; on the other, it refers to the commander's confidence in his personnel that they will perform their mission well and in accordance with his intent. Trust is the cornerstone of command. Trust cannot be demanded but, like respect, has to be earned. The basis for this is laid in the day-to-day business: 'work as you fight'. Mutual trust provides a vital contribution to good morale.

516. **Mutual understanding** has a broad meaning. Firstly, commanders should understand the issues and concerns facing their subordinate commanders. On the other hand, subordinate commanders should have an understanding of command at higher levels. Secondly, mutual understanding is also about sharing a common perception of military problems. A professional knowledge of the doctrine and the style of command will bond commanders and subordinates. This also means that unity of opinion will exist in respect of the intended results of the actions. It is less important that they agree on the way in which they are carried out. The aspect of mutual understanding is particularly important in international operations. For this reason, this doctrine is derived from NATO doctrine and is in line with those of the major Allies.

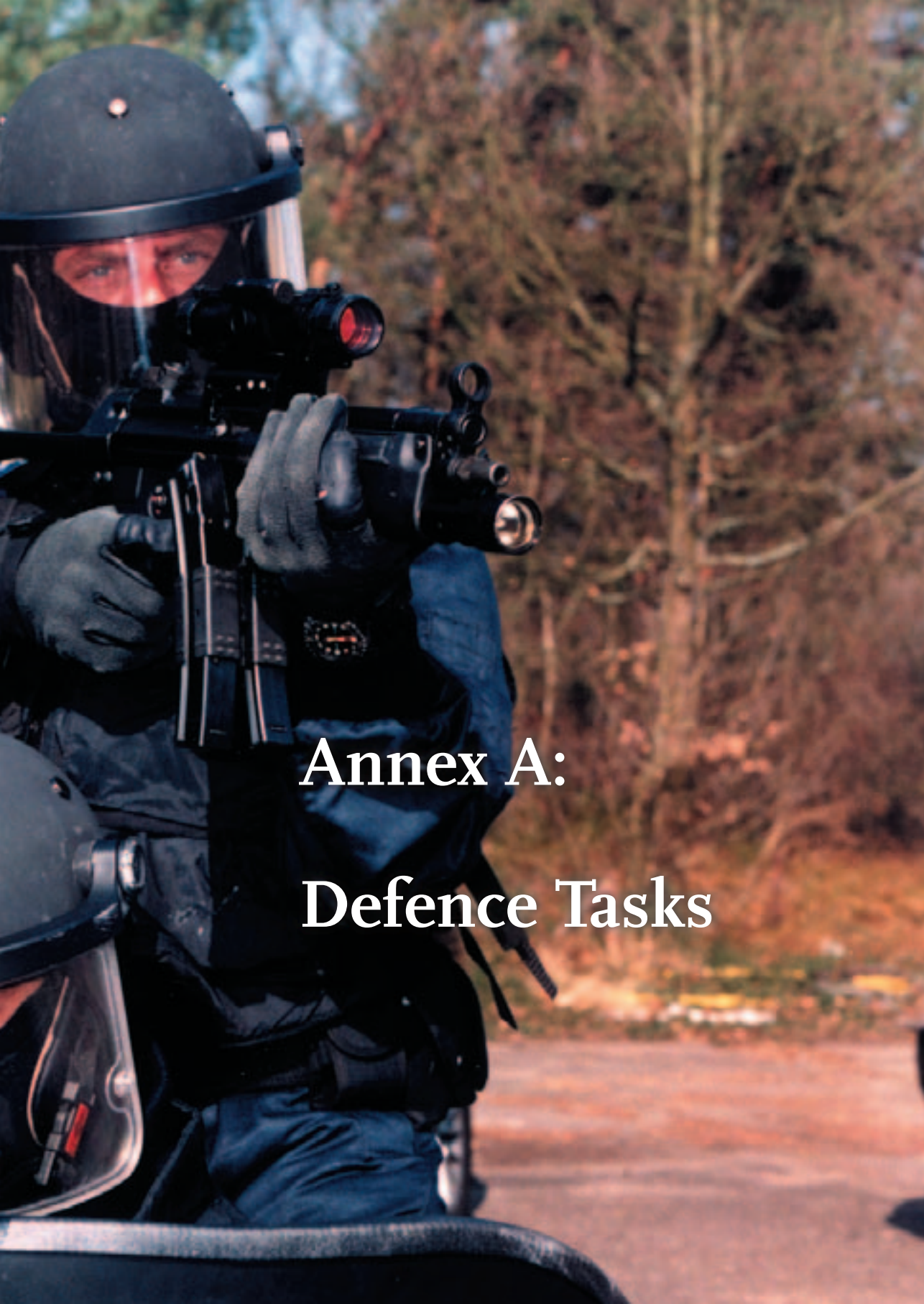
517. **Timely and effective decision making**. Mission command requires timely and effective decision making at all levels. Much of the art of command consists of the ability to judge correctly the circumstances in which and the times at which a new decision is required. The commander must also consider whether one of his subordinate commanders should take a decision rather than he himself. In certain circumstances it may be advisable to postpone making a decision, particularly if insufficient information is available or if the decision depends on other decisions that still have to be made, although this must not result in a state of indecision. Mission command is, however, founded on the principle that commanders at all levels will seize the opportunities that arise during the operation. As a result, many tactical decisions in particular have to be made on the basis of incomplete information. Those who always wait for the latest information will not usually be able to act decisively. One of the conditions for timely decision making is continuous command. A commander, assisted by his staff, has to be constantly able to command the units assigned to him. Consequently, the command system has to function 24 hours a day.

5.4 Providing leadership

518. **Leadership**. Leadership refers to those activities designed to influence the behaviour of others so as to conduct the mission effectively. Leadership is the projection of the personality and character of an individual, usually the commander, to motivate soldiers to do what is expected of them. The possession of leadership skills is one of the prime qualities a commander needs to exercise his command; it is an extremely important precondition for achieving a unit's success at all levels of operation. There is no formula for leadership. Each commander will motivate his soldiers in different ways using, for instance, his persuasive powers, coercion, the strength of his personality, charm or a combination of these methods.

519. **Leadership skills**. The way in which a commander leads his unit largely determines the extent to which his unit functions successfully. His personal qualities are very important in this respect. The ability to exercise command requires a combination of conceptual and human qualities, supplemented with a number of personal skills, which certainly include the ability to communicate effectively. Leadership is a decisive factor in that respect. It is the commander who ensures the execution of a mission by conveying action, motivation and energy, the will to "go for it", to his personnel. For effective command, the commander's location is extremely important. He will position himself at a point from which he can influence the military action decisively. He must be able to see and be seen as far as operational conditions allow; his staff should not form a barrier between himself and his unit.

520. **Necessary qualities**. The leader has a huge influence on the morale of the troops. Showing an interest in the human being behind the soldier and in the way his mind works will help the commander to estimate the level of combat readiness of his unit, and in particular the state of the morale of the troops. Leadership, together with discipline, comradeship and self-respect contributes to good morale. This is a condition for success, even under the most difficult circumstances. In addition to leadership, a commander needs a number of other, often related, qualities. Examples of these necessary qualities are vision and intelligence, originality, insight and good judgement, intuition, initiative, professional expertise, courage and resolve, self-confidence (if based on his own qualities), knowledge and experience, integrity and the ability to set an example, as well as the ability to communicate and to act in an ethically correct manner.



Annex A:

Defence Tasks

Annex A: Defence tasks

DT1 Control of maritime territory. Measures to ensure dominance in a maritime area, thus enabling national and coalition units to operate without hindrance from enemy naval forces. To this end, enemy units will be destroyed or neutralised if necessary.

DT2 Control of land territory. Measures to ensure dominance on land, thus enabling national and coalition forces to operate without hindrance from enemy forces. To this end, enemy assets will be destroyed or neutralised if necessary.

DT3 Control of the airspace. Measures to ensure air dominance, thus enabling national and coalition units to operate without hindrance from enemy air forces, including surface air defence assets. To this end, enemy assets will be destroyed or neutralised if necessary.

DT4 Engagement of naval forces. Measures to eliminate or disable regular forces and/or insurgent groups on, under or above the surface, in actions extending to and including a direct confrontation with enemy naval task forces[61].

DT5 Engagement of land forces. Measures to eliminate or disable regular enemy land forces and/or insurgent groups in actions extending to and including direct engagement of those forces by combined arms (air) manoeuvre units.

DT6 Engagement of air forces. The use of naval, land or air assets to eliminate or disable regular enemy air forces and/or insurgent groups in actions extending to and including direct confrontation between larger air units, including surface air defence.

DT7 Surveillance of maritime territory. The systematic monitoring of a maritime area or objects within it in order to gather information and share it with other units[62]. In the most extreme case, this involves action against suspect units.

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[61] This also includes enforcement of a maritime blockade.

[62] This also includes the monitoring of a maritime embargo.

DT8 Surveillance of land territory. The systematic monitoring of a land area or objects within it in order to gather information and share it with other units. In the most extreme case, this involves action against suspect units.

DT9 Surveillance of the airspace. The systematic monitoring of an airspace sector in order to gather information and share it with other units. This also includes air traffic control and battle command. In the most extreme case, suspect aircraft will be intercepted.

DT10 Protection at sea. Measures taken at sea and in the air to ensure security and freedom of movement at sea, to prevent damage or destruction caused by attack/mines at sea, including those directed at non-military vessels or installations.

DT11 Protection on land. Measures taken to ensure security and freedom of movement on land and to prevent damage or destruction caused by attack/mines on land or from the air.

DT12 Protection in the air. Measures to ensure security and freedom of movement in the air and to prevent damage or destruction caused by air attacks.

DT13 Command and control warfare. Military operations of which the core is formed by directing military units (co)supplied by third parties.

DT14 Evacuation. The relocation of civilians to a place of safety.

DT15 Extraction. Military action designed to pick up military units from hostile territory under combat conditions.

DT16 Military assistance. Assistance provided by the armed forces at the request and under the authority of the civil authorities in support of public order or to uphold law and order under criminal law or to perform tasks on behalf of the Ministry of Justice. This also includes counter-terrorism measures.

DT17 Personal protection. The protection of individuals by implementing measures around them, including the possibility of the use of force.

DT18 Preventive, forward deployment. The deployment of units in or near a crisis area with the aim of emphasising the political will to take military action and, if necessary, to quickly deploy troops accordingly.

DT19 Separation of the parties. Local separation or keeping apart of warring parties, with or without coercive military means.

DT20 Stabilisation. Support in the form of a military presence, usually longer term, to help to create the conditions for the development of lasting law and order by local parties.

DT21 Special operations. Local reconnaissance, capture or elimination of a target by means of usually covert, autonomous actions by smaller groups in difficult conditions.

DT22 Strategic targeting. The capacity to destroy key targets at extremely long range. This also includes the nuclear task of the F-16, however specific it may be.

DT23 Strategic transport. The transportation of personnel and/or goods over great distances, including other continents.

The common factor in Defence tasks 1-23 is that they are carried out in combat conditions or under the threat thereof. This is not necessarily the case in tasks 24-35, although local and/or temporary protection will be provided in isolated cases (for example, DT26 host nation support, object security).

DT24 Ceremonial duties. The military display to accompany ceremonies of the armed forces and the government. In a wider sense, this also includes the support of Dutch diplomatic and economic initiatives abroad, such as state visits and trade missions.

DT25 Explosive ordnance disposal. The detection and disarming of explosive ordnance, booby-trapped or otherwise, outside military (combat) situations.

DT26 Host nation support. The support of units from friendly states deployed in or passing through the Kingdom's territory.

DT27 Coastguard. Monitoring compliance with relevant legislation on and above the water and conducting search actions within the territorial waters of the Kingdom, and beyond if necessary, in support of maritime security and the maintenance of law and order by the civil authorities.

DT28 Marechaussee tasks. The tasks assigned to the Royal Netherlands Marechaussee under the Police Act.

DT29 Hydrography and geography. The production of internationally required maps (including obstacles) of the area for which the Netherlands is responsible and the reconnaissance and charting of detailed, current information about areas of operation for which no current maps are available.

DT30 Military support. Help provided by the armed forces, other than military assistance, in the public interest at the request of the civil authorities.

DT31 Emergency relief. The rapid, on-site preparation and provision of relief in the event of a disaster, including temporary provisions for refugees.

DT32 Education and training of foreign units. The use of military personnel to teach and train those from other countries.

DT33 Disaster relief. The use of military means in the event of (impending) disasters, other than military operational activities.

DT34 Strategic military intelligence collection. The collection and analysis of military intelligence in support of decisions at the administrative and senior military level[63].

DT35 Verification. The process of establishing whether (arms control) agreements are being observed.

[63] Tactical intelligence collection is regarded as part of a capability and not as a task in itself.

COAST

Annex B:

Defence and National Security

Annex B: Defence and National Security

The armed forces' own tasks in the Netherlands

Royal Netherlands Marechaussee. As an independent part of the Ministry of Defence, the Royal Netherlands Marechaussee performs both national and international tasks under civil authority. Nationally, the Marechaussee is responsible for the tasks established in the 1993 Police Act. This range of tasks is divided into five areas, namely: 1) protection (royal family, special security tasks, civil aviation and security transports for the Central Bank of the Netherlands); 2) enforcement of the Aliens Act (border control, mobile monitoring of aliens, support of asylum procedures); 3) police tasks for the Defence organisation (upholding public order at military sites, maintaining law and order under criminal law and providing emergency services); 4) police tasks for civil aviation premises (upholding law and order under criminal law and providing assistance); 5) provision of assistance, cooperation and support (in various forms).

Netherlands Antillean and Aruban Coastguard. The Coastguard, a cooperative of the three countries of the Kingdom, is a civil organisation under the control of the Minister of Defence. The Flag Officer for the Caribbean is also the Commander of the Coastguard. Under his sole leadership and within the policy frameworks of the relevant departments, the Coastguard performs search, monitoring and service tasks.

Netherlands Coastguard. The Netherlands Coastguard is a cooperative undertaking between six ministries and a Coastguard Centre in Den Helder. The services of the Ministries involved provide the resources for the execution of the thirteen service and law and order tasks in the North Sea. The Defence organisation is responsible for coordinating the execution of those tasks and supplies part of the capacity. The Ministry of Transport, Public Works and Water Management is responsible for the interdepartmental coordination of policy aspects.

Explosive ordnance disposal. The Defence organisation also performs a structural and important service to the community in respect of explosive ordnance disposal. This task consists of the disposal of ordnance left over from the Second World War, as well as improvised explosives. The surge in terrorist activities and the new asymmetric forms of threat mean that the national importance of such capabilities has increased.

Special assistance. Under article 60 of the 1993 Police Act, the Ministry of Defence will supply assistance units to perform special elements of the police task, for instance in the context of antiterrorist measures. The primary means at the Ministry's disposal to meet this requirement are special units such as the Marine Corps' Special Assistance Unit and the Armed Forces Special Assistance Unit. The Royal Netherlands Marechaussee's Special Security Missions Brigade is also involved in anti-terrorist activities.

Airspace surveillance. Nowadays, the use of aircraft by terrorists as weapons or explosives is a reality. Similarly, attacks with chemical or biological weapons delivered by aircraft cannot be ruled out. For the surveillance of national airspace, the Netherlands uses NATO's command and control structure, of which the Nieuw Milligen Air Operations Control Station forms part. Here, the Control & Reporting Centre is responsible for monitoring the integrity of Dutch airspace. If the need arises, QRA fighter planes can be scrambled within an extremely short response time under the authority of the Minister of Justice.

Military Intelligence and Security Service (*MIVD*). The individual intelligence departments of the Services have been merged to form a single military intelligence service. The service is embedded in various international military intelligence chains and is inextricably linked to the operational actions of the Dutch armed forces abroad. The new threat and the shift towards a more expeditionary military force means that operational intelligence at strategic, operational and tactical level has gained in importance. This has been underlined by the experiences in respect of the attacks on Dutch military personnel in Iraq. The fact that internal and external security have become ever more entwined means that close cooperation is required between the *MIVD* and the General Intelligence and Security Service (*AIVD*).

Disaster Management Hospital. The Disaster Management Hospital in Utrecht originally served as an emergency military hospital. Over the years, that function has changed to that of a disaster management hospital which can provide short-term emergency treatment in the event of disasters or accidents. This cooperation between the Ministries of Defence and of Health, Welfare and Sport has been further intensified because of the increased risk of (bio)terrorism (SARS threat) and contagious diseases (smallpox virus). It has been agreed that the hospital should be equipped to receive casualties and infected patients.

Military support and assistance

Civil-Military Administrative Agreement (*CMBA*). In the *CMBA* project, the Ministries of Interior Affairs and Kingdom Relations, Justice and Defence investigated the possibilities for improving civil-military cooperation and making it more structural in nature. In conjunction with the civil emergency services -police, fire service and the service for Medical Treatment in Accidents and Disasters (*GHOR*)- scenario analyses were conducted to get a better idea of the need for support from the armed forces. The Defence organisation weighed this up against the capabilities and the result was an agreement between the Ministries of Defence, Justice and Interior Affairs and Kingdom Relations.

Preparation. An effective response to disasters and threats stands or falls on the preparation. Success can even be achieved in the preparatory phase. An investment in close contact between civil authorities, disaster relief organisations and the Defence organisation will ensure a coordinated and effective joint response. If defence capabilities and systems are to be deployed in complex scenarios, often under pressure of time, defence specialists must be involved at an early stage in the civil planning, decision making and command. Regular multidisciplinary training exercises are also essential for effective cooperation in crisis conditions.

Protection against CBRN weapons. In the fight against terrorism, protection against CBRN weapons is an important area of attention. In order to be able to protect deployed units against these types of weapon, the CBRN Defence company has been put on operational standby. There is now an interservice CBRN centre of expertise and school, in which the existing knowledge about CBRN weapons has been pooled. This centre of expertise and the school represent an easily identifiable point of contact for military and civil organisations. The civil relief agencies are also involved in buying equipment and gathering knowledge in relation to CBRN. Close dialogue and a complementarity of resources are therefore required. This should ultimately result in clear arrangements regarding the national deployment of the Defence organisation's CBRN assets in attacks, disasters and accidents.

Non-proliferation. Over the past few decades, the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction (WMD) and their means of delivery, as well as the associated materials and technology, have undergone a major transformation. A growing number of countries now appear to have access to WMD expertise and technology, which means that they are also able to produce them themselves. As well as providing the expertise of the CBRN Defence company and the centre of expertise, the Defence organisation

also provides support to other parties in respect of non-proliferation, such as the Proliferation Security Initiative (PSI). The PSI is a new initiative in the battle against the proliferation of WMD and against terrorist activities which might involve the use of WMD. The aim of the PSI is to take action against the illegal transportation of weapons of mass destruction, for which Defence may deploy seaborne or airborne assets as the need arises. The initiative focuses on a better use of existing international and national instruments (treaties, legislation, export control) and on improving international cooperation in detection.

ICT support. Under the Modernising Government Programme, a government-wide consolidation of ICT (network) infrastructure is taking place. With regard to security, a clustering of network provisions, computing centre facilities and the necessary security for them is taking shape in the police force, the Ministry of Justice and the Ministry of Defence.

Deployment of reservists. The Defence organisation makes a distinction between two types of task for reserve personnel. Firstly, Military Duties Reservists perform tasks in national territory as part of the support and military assistance tasks, as well as ceremonial duties. Civilian Expertise Reservists perform tasks in international crisis management operations and occasionally in support of the civil and military authorities in the Netherlands, whereby use is made of their civil expertise and experience.

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