

Military history

Military history is a humanities discipline within the scope of general historical recording of armed conflict in the history of humanity, and its impact on the societies, their cultures, economies and changing local and international relationships.

Professional historians normally focus on military affairs that had a major impact on the societies involved as well as the aftermath of conflicts; while amateur historians and hobbyists often take a larger interest in the details of battles, equipment and uniforms in use.

The essential subjects of military history study are the causes of war, the social and cultural foundations, military doctrine on each side, the logistics, leadership, technology, strategy, and tactics used, and how these changed over time.

On the other hand, Just War Theory explores the moral dimensions of warfare, and to better limit the destructive reality caused by war, seeks to establish a doctrine of military ethics.

“DON’T PANIC”

Douglas Adams: The Hitchhikers Guide to the Galaxy

We are going to take a **very** brief look at the following:

- War
- Battlespace
- Strategy
- Tactics
- Organisation

On another occasion we may look at

- How Armies were organised and raised prior to the modern period
- Different Arms of Service
- Logistics
- Maps
- Military Map Symbols

WAR

War is a state of armed conflict between states, societies and informal groups, such as insurgents and militias. It is generally characterized by extreme aggression, destruction, and mortality, using regular or irregular military forces.

Warfare refers to the common activities and characteristics of types of war, or of wars in general.

Total war is warfare that is not restricted to purely legitimate military targets, and can result in massive civilian or other non-combatant suffering and casualties.

While some scholars see war as a universal and ancestral aspect of human nature, others argue it is a result of specific socio-cultural or ecological circumstances.

BATTLESPACE

Battlespace is a term used to signify a unified military strategy to integrate and combine armed forces for the military theatre of operations, including air, information, land, sea, cyber and space to achieve military goals.

It includes the environment, factors, and conditions that must be understood to successfully apply combat power, protect the force, or complete the mission. This includes enemy and friendly armed forces, infrastructure, weather, terrain, and the electromagnetic spectrum within the operational areas and areas of interest.

From 'Battlefield' to 'Battlespace'

Over the last 25 years, the understanding of the military operational environment has transformed from primarily a time and space-driven linear understanding (a "battlefield") to a multi-dimensional system of systems understanding (a battlespace). This system of systems understanding implies that managing the battlespace has become more complex, primarily because of the increased importance of the cognitive domain, a direct result of the information age. Today, militaries are expected to understand the effects of their actions on the operational environment as a whole, and not just in the military domain of their operational environment.

STRATEGY

Military strategy is a set of ideas implemented by military organizations to pursue desired strategic goals. Derived from the Greek word *strategos*, the term strategy, when it appeared in use during the 18th century, was seen in its narrow sense as the "art of the general", or "the art of arrangement" of troops. Military strategy deals with the planning and conduct of campaigns, the movement and disposition of forces, and the deception of the enemy.

Grand strategy or **high strategy** comprises the "purposeful employment of all instruments of power available to a security community".

Military historian B. H. Liddell Hart states:

'The role of grand strategy – higher strategy – is to co-ordinate and direct all the resources of a nation, or band of nations, towards the attainment of the political object of the war – the goal defined by fundamental policy'.

Grand strategy expands on the traditional idea of strategy in three ways:

1. expanding strategy beyond military means to include diplomatic, financial, economic, informational, etc. means.
2. examining internal in addition to external forces – taking into account both the various instruments of power and the internal policies necessary for their implementation (conscription, for example).
3. including consideration of periods of peacetime in addition to wartime.

TACTICS

Military tactics encompasses the art of organising and employing fighting forces on or near the battlefield. They involve the application of four battlefield functions which are closely related – kinetic or firepower, mobility, protection or security, and shock action. Tactics are a separate function from command and control, and logistics.

In contemporary military science, tactics are the lowest of three levels of warfighting, the higher levels being the strategic and operational levels.

Throughout history, there has been a shifting balance between the four tactical functions, generally based on the application of military technology, which has led to one or more of the tactical functions being dominant for a period of time, usually accompanied by the dominance of an associated fighting arm deployed on the battlefield, such as infantry, artillery, cavalry or tanks.

Tactical functions:

- Kinetic or firepower
- Mobility
- Protection and security
- Shock action

KINETIC

This covers the whole range of things that are used to make your enemy bleed, burn, or disintegrate. From rocks and sharp sticks, up to and including disappearing his planet through the use of a 'death star'

MOBILITY

Mobility, which determines how quickly a fighting force can move, was for most of human history limited by the speed of a soldier on foot, even when supplies were carried by beasts of burden. Today things can move **much** faster, but not necessarily.

PROTECTION AND SECURITY

Including, but not limited to body armour, AFVs, fortifications, entrenchments, road blocks, barbed wire, minefields, motion detectors, radar, etc. etc.

SHOCK ACTION

Shock action is as much a psychological function of tactics as a physical one, and can be significantly enhanced by the use of surprise. It has been provided by charging infantry, and well as by chariots, war elephants, cavalry and armoured vehicles which provide momentum to an assault.

The development of tactics has involved a shifting balance between the four tactical functions since ancient times, and changes in firepower and mobility have been fundamental to these changes.

Various models have been proposed to explain the interaction between the tactical functions and the dominance of individual fighting arms during different periods. J. F. C. Fuller proposed three "tactical cycles" in each of the classical and Christian eras.

For the latter epoch, he proposed a "shock" cycle between 650 and 1450, a "shock and projectile" cycle 1450–1850, and a "projectile" cycle from 1850.

During World War II, Tom Wintringham proposed six chronological periods, which alternate the dominance between un-armoured and armoured forces, and highlight tactical trends in each period

Development of tactics		
Period	Dominant fighting arm	Tactical trends
First unarmoured period (to the Battle of Plataea(479 BC)	None – both infantry and cavalry have relatively low kinetic power, chariots provide a measure of shock action	Egyptian, Persian and Greek armies become better organised and equipped
First armoured period (to the Battle of Adrianople (378)	Infantry – the phalanx and Roman legion, experimentation with elephants for shock action only a limited success	Armies and casualties increase significantly, introduction of siege and field artillery by the Romans
Second unarmoured period (to Charlemagne's victory at Pavia (774)	Light cavalry – horse archers and shock action defeat infantry	Mobility dominates until checked by armoured cavalry
Second armoured period (to the battles of Morgarten (1315) and Crécy (1346)	Heavy cavalry – facilitated by the introduction of the stirrup and armour	Expense limits numbers of armoured cavalry, Swiss infantry armed with halberds and English longbow men rebalance the scales
Third unarmoured period (to the Battle of Cambrai(1917)	Infantry – with steadily increasing firepower	Combined arms, with artillery firepower becoming predominant
Third armoured period (to the present)	Armoured forces restore mobility	Armoured combined arms countered by military aircraft and infantry anti-armour weapons

ORGANIZATION

Military organization is the structuring of the armed forces of a state so as to offer such military capability as a national defence policy may require.

In some countries paramilitary forces are included in a nation's armed forces, though not considered military.

Armed forces that are not a part of military or paramilitary organizations, such as insurgent forces, often mimic military organizations, or use *ad hoc* structures, while formal military organization tends to use hierarchical forms.

The use of formalized ranks in a hierarchical structure came into widespread use with the Roman Army.

In modern times, executive control, management and administration of military organization is typically undertaken by governments through a government department within the structure of public administration, often known as a Ministry of Defence, Department of Defence, or Department of War.

These in turn manage Armed Services that themselves command formations and units specialising in combat, combat support and combat-service support.

In most countries the *armed forces* are divided into three or four Armed services (also: *service, military service, or military branch*): army, navy, and air force.

Many countries have a variation on the standard model of three or four basic Armed Services. Some nations also organize their marines, special forces or strategic missile forces as independent armed services.

A nation's coast guard may also be an independent military branch of its military, although in many nations the coast guard is a law enforcement or civil agency. A number of countries have no navy, for geographical reasons.

Some nations have only one armed force, which is subdivided into land, air, sea, and other branches.

Donald Trump has just recently announced His intention to form a Space Force!

Commands, formations and units

It is common, at least in the European and North American militaries, to refer to the building blocks of a military as commands, formations and units.

In a military context, a command is a collection of units and formations under the control of a single officer.

A formation is defined by the US Department of Defence as "two or more aircraft, ships, or units proceeding together under a commander".

Examples of formations include: divisions, brigades, battalions, wings, etc. Formation may also refer to tactical formation, the physical arrangement or disposition of troops and weapons. Examples of formation in such usage include: pakfront, panzerkeil, testudo formation, etc.

A typical unit is a homogeneous military organization (either combat, combat-support or non-combat in capability) that includes service personnel predominantly from a single arm of service, or a branch of service, and its administrative and command functions are self-contained.

Any unit subordinate to another unit is considered its sub-unit or minor unit. It is not uncommon for unit and formation to be used synonymously in the United States.

In Commonwealth practice, formation is not used for smaller organizations like battalions which are instead called "units", and their constituent platoons or companies are referred to as sub-units.

In the Commonwealth, formations are divisions, brigades, etc.

Different armed forces, and even different branches of service of the armed forces, may use the same name to denote different types of organizations.

An example is the "squadron". In most navies a squadron is a formation of several ships; in most air forces it is a unit; in the U.S. Army it is a battalion-sized cavalry unit; and in Commonwealth armies a squadron is a company-sized sub-unit.

Modern hierarchy

Military organization		
Typical Units	Typical numbers	Typical Commander
Fireteam	2-4	Lance Corporal / Corporal
Squad/ Section	8-14	Corporal/ Sergeant/ Staff Sergeant

Platoon/ Troop	15–45	Second Lieutenant / First Lieutenant / Lieutenant
Company/ Battery/ Squadron	80–150	Captain / Major
Battalion / Cohort	300–800	Lieutenant Colonel
Regiment / Brigade / Legion	1,000–5,500	Colonel / Brigadier General
Division	10,000–25,000	Major General
Corps	30,000–50,000	Lieutenant General

Field Army	100,000–300,000	General
Army Group / Front	2+ field armies	Field Marshal / Five-star General
Region / Theater	4+ army groups	Six-star rank / Commander-in-chief

The following table gives an overview of some of the terms used to describe army hierarchy in armed forces across the world.

Whilst it is recognized that there are differences between armies of different nations, many are modelled on the British or American models, or both.

However, many military units and formations go back in history for a long time, and were devised by various military thinkers throughout European history.

For example, the modern *Corps* was first introduced in France about 1805 by Napoleon as a more flexible tactical grouping of two or more divisions during the Napoleonic Wars.

They have become part of the organization of most armies around the world.

APP-6ASymbol	Name	Nature	Strength	Constituent units	Commander or leader
XXXXXX	region, theater	Command	1,000,000–10,000,000	4+ army groups	general, army general, five-star general or field marshal
XXXXX	army group, front	Command	400,000–1,000,000	2+ armies	general, army general, five-star general or field marshal
XXXX	army	Command	100,000–200,000	2–4 corps	general, army general, four-star general or colonel general
XXX	corps	Formation	20,000–50,000	2+ divisions	lieutenant general, corps general or three-star general
XX	division, legion	Formation	6,000–20,000	2–4 brigades or regiments	major general, divisional general or two-star general
X	brigade	Formation	3,000–5,000	2+ regiments, 3–6 battalions or	brigadier, brigadier

III	regiment or group	Unit	1,000–3,000	2+ battalions or U.S. Cavalry squadrons	colonel
II	infantry battalion, U.S. Cavalry squadron, Commonwealth armoured regiment or Argentine Army regiment/artillery group/battalion, cohort	Unit	300–1,000	2–6 companies, batteries, U.S. Cavalry troops, or Commonwealth squadrons, Argentine squadrons/companies	lieutenant colonel
I	infantry company, artillery battery, U.S. Cavalry troop, Commonwealth armour or combat engineering squadron or Argentine cavalry squadron or engineering company	Subunit	80–250	2–8 platoons or Commonwealth troops	chief warrant officer, captain or major
•••	platoon or Commonwealth troop	Sub-subunit	26–55	2+ Section, or vehicles	warrant officer, first or second lieutenant
••	section or patrol	-	12–24	1–2+ squads or 3–6 fireteams	sergeant or staff sergeant
•	squad or crew	-	8–12	2–3 fireteams or 1+ cell	corporal or sergeant
∅	fireteam or cell	-	3-4	n/a	lance corporal to sergeant
∅	fire and manoeuvre team	-	2-3	n/a	any/private first class

Rungs may be skipped in this ladder: for example, typically NATO forces skip from battalion to brigade.

Likewise, only large military powers may have organizations at the top levels and different armies and countries may also use traditional names, creating considerable confusion

For example, a British or Canadian armoured regiment (battalion) is divided into squadrons (companies) and troops (platoons), whereas an American cavalry squadron (battalion) is divided into troops (companies) and platoons.

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Army, army group, region, and theatre are all large formations that vary significantly between armed forces in size and hierarchy position.

While divisions were the traditional level at which support elements (field artillery, hospital, logistics and maintenance, etc.) were added to the unit structure, since World War II, many brigades now have such support units, and since the 1980s, regiments also have been receiving support elements.

A regiment with such support elements is called a regimental combat team in US military parlance, or a battle group in the UK and other forces.

During World War II the Red Army used the same basic organizational structure. However, in the beginning many units were greatly underpowered and their size was actually one level below on the ladder that is usually used elsewhere; for example, a division in the early-WWII Red Army would have been about the size of most nations' regiments or brigades.

At the top of the ladder, what other nations would call an army group, the Red Army called a front. By contrast, during the same period the German Wehrmacht Army Groups, particularly on the Eastern Front, such as Army Group Centre significantly exceeded the above numbers, and were more cognate with the Soviet Strategic Directions.

Naval hierarchy

Naval organization at the flotilla level and higher is less commonly abided by, as ships operate in smaller or larger groups in various situations that may change at a moment's notice.

However, there is some common terminology used throughout navies to communicate the general concept of how many vessels might be in a unit.

Navies are generally organized into groups for a specific purpose, usually strategic, and these organizational groupings appear and disappear frequently based on the conditions and demands placed upon a navy.

This contrasts with army organization where units remain static, with the same men and equipment, over long periods of time.

Unit Name	Vessel types	No. of Vessels	Officer in command
Navy or Admiralty	All vessels in a navy	2+ Fleets	Fleet Admiral, Admiral of the Fleet, Grand Admiral or Admiral
Fleet	All vessels in an ocean or general region	2+ Battle Fleets or Task Forces	Admiral or Vice Admiral
Battle Fleet or Task Force	A large number of vessels of all types	2+ Task Groups	Vice Admiral
Task Group	A collection of complementary vessels	2+ Task Units or Squadrons	Rear Admiral (upper half) or Rear Admiral
Squadron or Task Unit	Usually capital ships	A small number of vessels	Rear Admiral (lower half), Commodore, or Flotilla Admiral
Flotilla or Task Unit	Usually not capital ships	A small number of vessels, usually of the same or similar types	Rear Admiral (lower half), Commodore, or Flotilla Admiral
Task Element	A single vessel	One	Captain or Commander

The five-star ranks of Admiral of the Fleet and Fleet Admiral have largely been out of regular use since the 1990s, with the exception of ceremonial or honorary appointments.

Currently, all major navies are commanded by an admiral (four-star rank) or vice-admiral (three-star rank) depending on relative size.

Smaller naval forces, such as the RNZN, or those navies that are effectively coastguards, are commanded by a rear-admiral (two-star rank), commodore (one-star rank) or even a captain.

Aircraft carriers are typically commanded by a captain. Submarines and destroyers are typically commanded by a captain or commander.

Some destroyers, particularly smaller destroyers such as frigates (formerly known as destroyer escorts) are usually commanded by officers with the rank of commander.

Corvettes, the smallest class of warship, are commanded by officers with the rank of commander or lieutenant-commander.

Auxiliary ships, including gunboats, minesweepers, patrol boats, military riverine craft, tenders and torpedo boats are usually commanded by lieutenants, sub-lieutenants or warrant officers.

Usually, the smaller the vessel, the lower the rank of the ship's commander. For example, patrol boats are often commanded by ensigns, while frigates are rarely commanded by an officer below the rank of commander.

Historical navies were far more rigid in structure. Ships were collected in divisions, which in turn were collected in numbered squadrons, which comprised a numbered fleet. Permission for a vessel to leave one unit and join another would have to be approved on paper.

The modern U.S. Navy is primarily based on a number of standard groupings of vessels, including the carrier strike group and the Expeditionary Strike Group.

Additionally, naval organization continues aboard a single ship. The complement forms three or four departments (such as tactical and engineering), each of which has a number of divisions, followed by work centres.

Air Force hierarchy

The organizational structures of air forces vary between nations: some air forces (such as the United States Air Force and the Royal Air Force) are divided into commands, groups and squadrons.

Others (such as the Soviet Air Force) have an Army-style organizational structure.

The modern Royal Canadian Air Force uses Air Division as the formation between wings and the entire air command. Like the RAF, Canadian wings consist of squadrons.

Symbol (for Army structure comparison)	Unit Name (USAF/RAF/Other air forces)	No. of personnel	No. of aircraft	No. of subordinate units (USAF/RAF)	Officer in command (USAF/RAF)
XXXXXX +	Air Force	Entire air force	Entire air force	All Major Commands / Commands	GAF / MRAF or Air Chf Mshl
XXXXX	Major Command/Command or Tactical Air Force / Russian Air army ²⁴	Varies	Varies	By Region or Duty (subordinate units varies)	Gen/Air Chf Mshl or Air Mshl
XX	Numbered Air Force/No RAF equivalent/Aviation Division /Air Division/Air Brigade	By Region (subordinate units varies)	Varies	2+ Wings/Groups	Maj-Gen or Lt-Gen / N/A
X	Wing/ <u>Group</u> (inc. EAGs)/ Russian aviation brigade	1,000–5,000	48–100	2+ Groups/Wings	Brig-Gen/AVM or Air Cdre
III	Group/Wing (inc. EAWs) or Station/Russian aviation regiment	300–1,000	17–48	3–4 Squadrons/3–10 Flights	Col/Gp Capt or <u>Wg Cdr</u>
II	Squadron	100–300	7–16	3–4 Flights	Lt Col or <u>Maj/Wg Cdr</u> or Sqn Ldr
•••	Flight	20–100	4–6	2 Sections plus maintenance and support crew	Capt/Sqn Ldr or Flt Lt
••	Element or Section	5–20	n/a–2	n/a	Junior Officer or Senior NCO
•	Detail	2–4	n/a	n/a	Junior NCO

Task force

A task force is a unit or formation created as a temporary grouping for a specific operational purpose.

Aside from administrative hierarchical forms of organization that have evolved since the early 17th century in Europe, fighting forces have been grouped for specific operational purposes into mission-related organizations such as the German Kampfgruppe or the U.S. Combat Team (Army) and Task Force (Navy) during the Second World War, or the Soviet Operational manoeuvre group during the Cold War.

In the British and Commonwealth armies the battlegroup became the usual grouping of companies during the Second World War and the Cold War.

Within NATO, a Joint Task Force (JTF) would be such a temporary grouping that includes elements from more than one armed service, a Combined Task Force (CTF) would be such a temporary grouping that includes elements from more than one nation, and a Combined Joint Task Force (CJTF) would be such a temporary grouping that includes elements of more than one armed service and more than one nation.

Order of Battle

In modern use, the **order of battle** of an armed force participating in a military operation or campaign shows the hierarchical organization, command structure, strength, disposition of personnel, and equipment of units and formations of the armed force.

Various abbreviations are in use, including OOB, O/B, or OB, while ORBAT remains the most common in the United Kingdom. An order of battle should be distinguished from a table of organisation, which is the intended composition of a given unit or formation according to the military doctrine of its armed force.

As combat operations develop during a campaign, orders of battle may be revised and altered in response to the military needs and challenges. Also the known details of an order of battle may change during the course of executing the commanders' after action reports and/or other accounting methods (e.g. despatches) as combat assessment is conducted.

Historical Approaches

In its original form during the medieval period of European warfare, an order of battle was the order in which troops were positioned relative to the position of the army commander. The term was also applied to the disposition of ships in the line of battle during the age of sail.

In the later transformation of its meaning during the European period of Early Modern warfare the order of battle came to mean the order in which the units manoeuvred or deployed onto the battlefield to form battle-lines, with the positioning on the right considered the place of greatest honour. This need to reflect the unit seniority led to the keeping of military staff records, in tabular form reflecting the compilation of units an army, their commanders, equipment, and locations on the battlefield.

During the Napoleonic wars the meaning of the order of battle changed yet again to reflect the changes in the composition of opposing forces during the battle owing to use of larger formations than in the previous century. Napoleon also instituted the staff procedure of maintaining accurate information about the composition of the enemy order of battle, and tables of organisation, and this later evolved into an important function and an organisational tool used by military intelligence to analyse enemy capability for combat.

British historical approach

British military history is the source of some of the earliest orders of battle in the English language, and due to the British Empire's involvement in global conflicts over several centuries the records of historical orders of battle provide an excellent source of study and understanding not only of the composition, but also of tactics and doctrines of the forces through their depiction in the orders of battle.

The British Army and UK forces use the acronym **ORBAT** to describe the structure of both friendly and enemy forces.

Operation Quicksilver, part of the British deception plan for the Invasion of Normandy in World War II, fed German intelligence a combination of true and false information about troop deployments in Britain, causing the Germans to deduce an order of battle which suggested an invasion at the Pas-de-Calais instead of Normandy.

Clausewitz defined the 'order of battle' as "that division and formation of the different arms into separate parts, or sections, of the whole Army, and that form of general position or disposition of those parts which is to be the norm throughout the whole campaign or war."

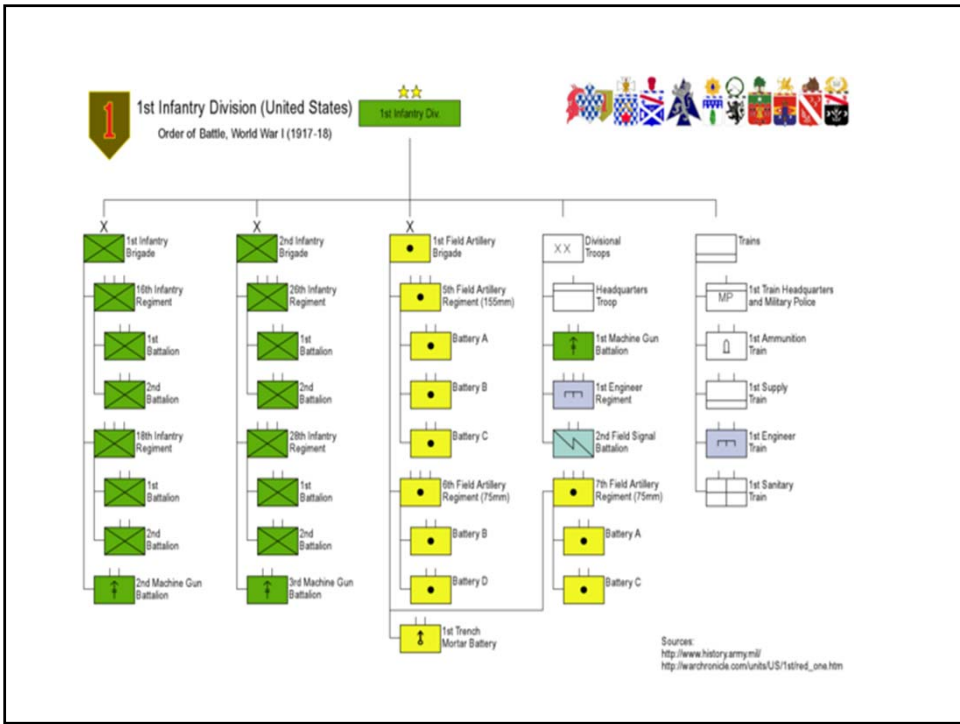
Division comes from the permanent peacetime organization of the Army, with certain parts such as battalions, squadrons, and batteries being formed into units of higher order up to the highest of all, the whole Army.

Disposition comes from the tactics and how these troops are to be drawn up for the battle.

Normally these tactics are exercised in peace and cannot be essentially modified when war breaks out.

Order of battle belongs more to tactics than strategy. Clausewitz also noted that the order of battle depends on the effective span of control by a commander. Too few subunits makes an army unwieldy; too many subunits makes the 'power of the superior will' weak; and in addition every step by which an order has to pass weakens its effect by loss of force and longer time of transmission.

Clausewitz recommended that armies have no more than eight to ten subunits and subordinate corps four to six subunits.



In United States Army standing operating procedures, an order of battle to be used for operations planning should relate what an Army unit might be expected to encounter while deployed in the field.

The templating of the OoB during manoeuvres is typically the responsibility of a battalion or brigade commander, conducted through their Headquarters S-2 (intelligence) sections. Observations about enemy troop movements may be gathered by various military intelligence resources from all echelons, including the employment of any attached special forces units (such as Rangers or LRS teams) as well as Cavalry RSTA squadrons.

From such intelligence data, the OOB section staff compiles a likely order of battle for a planning document or operations order by assessing the following factors:

Enemy's Composition, Disposition, Strength (often mnemonicized with SALUTE: Size, Activity, Location, Unit, Time, Equipment):

Composition: the command structure and organisation of headquarters and subunits.

Disposition: geographical locations of unit headquarters and subunits
Strength expressed in units and weight of fire delivered by its weapon systems.

Enemy capabilities and limitations (often mnemonicized with DRAWD: Defend, Reinforce, Attack, Withdraw, Delay):

Personnel training

Logistics: how the enemy unit obtains its supplies and lines of communication

Combat Effectiveness using complex algorithms and combat modelling applications

Electronic Technical Data used to provide data for the combat modelling applications

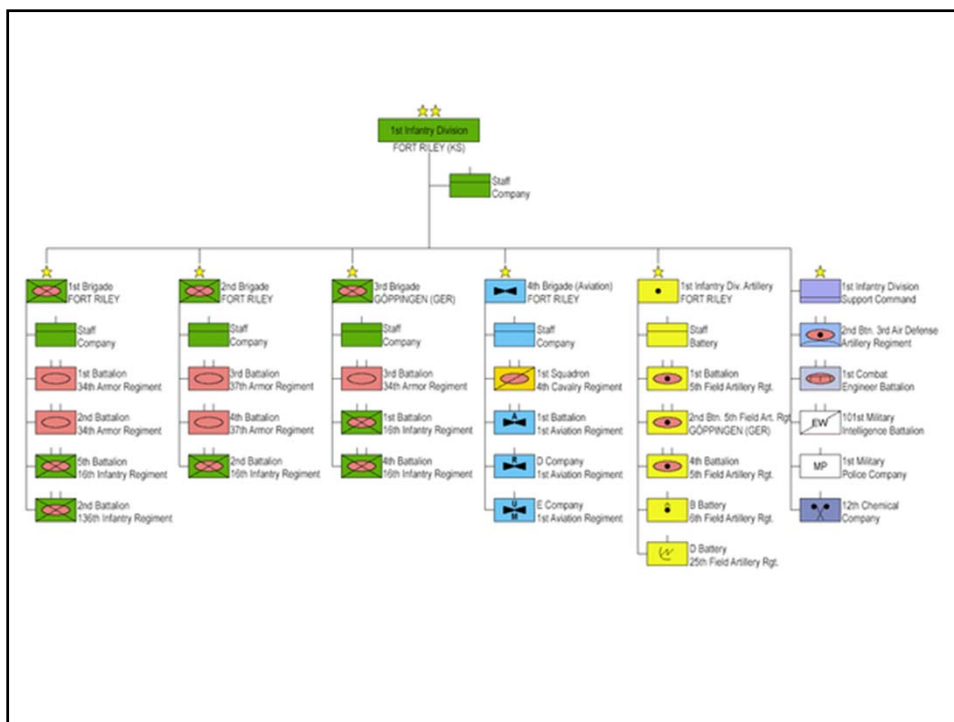
Enemy's Most Likely Course of Action (EMLCOA):

Tactics used by the enemy unit

Miscellaneous data related to specific task, mission or operations
 Personalities (known enemy personnel and their behaviour, often based on communications intelligence analysis)

Unit history used to judge expected performance based on its past performance

Uniforms and insignia to enable confirmation of the above data



A general rule in American military doctrine is that each unit should keep track of enemy subunits two echelons below its own:

That is, a division should monitor enemy units confronting it down to the battalion, a brigade should monitor enemy units down to companies, and a battalion should monitor enemy forces down to platoons.

General George S. Patton was one of the first to recommend this practice.

The United States military's intelligence capabilities in the 21st century have allowed for monitoring even further than two echelons down the chain of command.

It is quite common for US forces at the battalion level to be able to identify the location and activities of not only enemy forces at the squad level but even individual vehicles.

This situational awareness provides a more complete picture of the battlespace for both combatant commanders and tactical commanders.

Up until the end of the Cold War, determining realistic orders of battle was generally an orderly but extremely frustrating process for NATO, because although the Warsaw Pact nations had well known doctrines, tactics, techniques and procedures, in actuality, the characteristics of Soviet forces fluctuated often significantly, and changes often went undetected for years at below-division levels.

The intelligence situation for Western militaries has been exacerbated today as they continue to be become engaged in operations against non-traditional enemies (insurgents, guerrillas, etc.) and compiling orders of battle for irregular forces becomes very difficult.

The equivalent military intelligence output requiring an increase in acquired data and analysis effort to provide an accurate and timely picture to the commander.

