DEPARTMENT OF MILITARY STRATEGY, PLANNING, AND OPERATIONS

U.S. Army War College

CAMPAIGN PLANNING PRIMER

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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

**Introduction** ...................................................... 1

**Campaign Planning, JOPES, and JSPS** .......................... 3
  Deliberate Planning Process ..................................... 4
  Crisis Action Planning (CAP) Process ......................... 4
  Campaign Planning Process ....................................... 5

**Theater Planning Actions** ....................................... 6
  Strategic Guidance .................................................. 7
  Commander’s Estimate .............................................. 7
  Derive the Mission ................................................ 8
  Endstate ............................................................. 10
  Commander’s Intent ............................................... 11
  Situation Analysis ............................................... 12
  Geostrategic Factors ............................................. 12
  Identify Limiting Factors ....................................... 13
  Identify Planning Assumptions .................................. 13
  COGs, Vulnerabilities, and Decisive Points .................. 14
  Assess Enemy Capabilities ....................................... 17
  Develop Enemy Capabilities ..................................... 18
  Prioritize ECs and Select One as Baseline ..................... 19
  Intelligence Considerations ..................................... 19
  Commander’s Planning Guidance .................................. 20
  Course of Action Development ................................... 21
  COA Development Considerations ................................ 23
  Course of Action Analysis ....................................... 24
  COA Analysis Considerations .................................... 25
  COA Comparison .................................................... 26
  COA Recommendation ............................................. 26

**Strategic Concept** ............................................... 27
  Objectives and Subordinate Tasks ............................... 28
  Joint Force Organization ........................................ 29
    Service Components .............................................. 30
    Functional Components ......................................... 31
    Subordinate Joint Commands ................................... 32
  Combined Force Organization .................................... 33
    Parallel Command Structures .................................. 33
    Lead Nation Command Structures ............................... 34
    Combination Command Structures ............................... 35
    Considerations ................................................ 36
  Requirements for Supporting Plans ............................. 37
    Considerations ................................................ 38
  Flexible Campaign Plan ......................................... 38
  Staff Responsibilities for Planning .......................... 39

**Summary of theater Campaign Planning** ....................... 41
Introduction

Campaign planning has been a technique used by famous commanders to synchronize efforts and to sequence several related operations. George Washington planned his campaign of 1781 to coordinate the actions of the French Fleet with his Franco-American land army to destroy the British forces at Yorktown. General U. S. Grant planned simultaneous offensives by Generals Sherman and Meade among others against the Confederacy as his plan for the 1864 campaign. During World War II, campaign planning became essential to coordinate the actions of joint and combined forces in all Allied theaters. As a mature example of campaign planning in the later stages of World War II in the Pacific Theater of War, General Douglas MacArthur issued his Strategic Plan for Operations in the Japanese Archipelago (DOWNFALL) in May 1945. In this twenty-five page document, MacArthur describes how "This Plan of campaign visualizes attainment of the assigned objectives by two (2) successive operations (OLYMPIC and CORONET)." The cover letter describes this plan as a "general guide covering the larger phases of allocation of means and of coordination, both operational and logistic. It is not designed to restrict executing agencies in detailed development of their final plans of operation." Unfortunately, during the 1960s and 1970s, campaign planning became virtually replaced at the theater level by the DOD-directed, computer-supported Joint Operations Planning System (JOPS) which emphasized deployment planning. Campaign planning received new emphasis after Operation DESERT STORM in which General Norman Schwartzkopf used a campaign plan to guide the synchronized employment of his forces.

A campaign plan embodies the theater combatant commander’s strategic vision of the arrangement of operations needed to attain the strategic objectives assigned by higher authority. It orients on the enemy’s centers of gravity; achieves unity of effort with unified action (joint, combined or coalition, and interagency); clearly defines what constitutes success; and serves as the basis for subordinate planning. Campaign plans are the operational extension of a combatant commander’s theater strategy. They translate strategic concepts into unified plans for military action by specifying how operations, logistics, and time will be used to attain theater strategic objectives. Through theater campaign plans, combatant commanders define objectives, describe concepts of operations, sequence operations, organize forces, establish command relationships, assign tasks, and synchronize air,
land, sea, and space operations and their sustainment. Campaign planning is a primary means by which combatant commanders arrange for strategic unity of effort and through which they guide the planning of joint operations within their theater of operations. A campaign plan communicates the commander’s intent, requirements, objectives, and concept to subordinate components and joint forces, as well as to parent Services so that they may make necessary preparations. In addition, by means of a campaign plan, combatant commanders give the President, Secretary of Defense (SECDEF), and the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff (CJCS) information needed for inter-theater coordination at the national level.

Campaigns are conducted in a theater of war: total land, sea, and air space. They may be along more than one line of operation. Theater campaigns synthesize deployment, employment, sustainment, and supporting operations into a coherent whole. Theater campaigns are planned before hostilities and guide execution during them. A theater campaign may consist of a sequence of related unified operations designed to achieve the combatant commander’s objectives (Figure 1). A single campaign is a phased series of major operations. More than one campaign may be required to accomplish a strategic objective.

![FIGURE 1: Graphic Depiction of a Campaign Plan](image-url)
Campaign Planning, JOPES and JSPS

As stated in Joint Pub 5-0, Doctrine for Planning Joint Operations, “Campaign planning can begin before or during deliberate planning but is not completed until crisis action planning, thus unifying both planning processes. A campaign plan is finalized during crisis or conflict once the actual threat, national guidance, and available resources become evident. However, the basis and framework for successful campaigns are laid by peacetime analysis, planning, exercises, and application of campaign planning principles (Figure 2).”

JOINT OPERATION PLANNING

![Diagram of Joint Operation Planning]

FIGURE 2: Joint Operations Planning

For example, in the spring of 1990, Central Command (CENTCOM) reevaluated its OPLANS for the Persian Gulf region in light of new regional strategic and military situations. A new concept outline was completed in late spring. When the decision was made to deploy forces in response to King Fahd’s invitation, this plan was selected as the best option, giving CENTCOM the basis for a campaign plan. While important aspects of the planning process for the contingency that actually occurred were quite well along, more detailed planning for the deployment of particular forces to the region and follow-on operations had only just begun.
Deliberate Planning Process

The deliberate planning process develops joint operation plans for contingencies identified in joint strategic planning documents. These planning documents include the Secretary of Defense’s annual Contingency Planning Guidance (CPG), and the Chairman’s Joint Strategic Capabilities Plan (JSCP). The JSCP provides guidance to all combatant commanders and Service chiefs for accomplishing military tasks and missions based on current military capabilities. Deliberate planning is a highly structured process that is conducted principally in peacetime to develop joint operational plans for contingencies identified in strategic planning documents. Deliberate planning is assumptive. Planners rely heavily on assumptions regarding the political and military environment in which the plan may be executed. Plans developed under the deliberate planning process vary in detail from Operations Plans (OPLANs) with Time Phased Force Deployment Data (TPFDD) to Concept Plans (CONPLANs) with or without TPFDD, to Functional Plans (FUNCPLANs), and to Theater Security Cooperation Plans (TSCP). At the combatant command level, deliberate planning is normally conducted by the J5, Plans & Policy Directorate. (CJCSI 3122.01)

Crisis Action Planning (CAP) Process

Crisis action planning is based on actual events. As the crisis unfolds, assumptions and projections are replaced by facts and actual conditions. Deliberate planning supports crisis action planning by anticipating potential crises and developing joint operations plans that facilitate rapid development and selection of a course of action. If the actual crisis conditions closely match the assumptions in a deliberate plan then the decision making cycle of CAP can be accelerated. CAP is often conducted in a time-sensitive environment so the process is intentionally flexible and is normally focused on single operations. The procedures provide for the timely flow of information and intelligence; rapid communication of decisions from the President and SECDEF to combatant commanders, subordinate JTF, and component commanders; and expeditious execution planning. CAP places a premium on efficient commander and staff planning dynamics and on concurrent planning between multiple levels of command. At the unified and sub-unified command level, CAP is normally conducted by the J3, Operations Directorate. (CJCSI 3122.01)
Campaign Planning Process

Campaign planning lies at the nexus between deliberate and crisis action planning. As such, campaign plans may reflect the efforts of both deliberate and crisis action planning, or perhaps neither. The first method by which a campaign plan may be developed is to modify an existing deliberate plan. Developing campaign plans in this manner is the most expeditious way to campaign plan because deliberate plans provide a baseline, or “headstart”, for further planning either during peacetime or crisis. Campaign plans can also be developed from the crisis action planning process. Because crisis action planning normally results in the development of a single operation, prudent combatant commanders normally opt to develop a synchronized campaign plan as a sequel to the current operation. The final way a campaign plan may be developed doesn’t involve deliberate or crisis action planning at all. Combatant commanders may choose to initiate the development of campaign plans during peacetime in situations where no plan currently exists. Figure 3 shows the relationship of the three planning processes to each other.

FIGURE 3: Relationship Between the Planning Processes
Theater Planning Actions

Theater commanders perform the planning actions shown in Figure 4. At the strategic and operational levels, the actions portray an orderly series of activities and operations that occur within the Joint Operation Planning and Execution System (JOPES).

They assist theater planners to sequence the necessary operations to obtain strategic objectives. These actions capture the elements of campaign planning and are performed continuously throughout the operation. The plan should be continually reviewed and revised to ensure it does not become outdated, unworkable, or overcome by critical events. In developing a theater campaign plan, these planning actions provide a process commanders and planners use to review and revise the campaign plan. The national or multinational strategic guidance the combatant commander receives from higher authority – whether explicit or implicit – drives the process. Strategic guidance is expressed through National Security Strategy and national Military Strategy relative to the deliberate or crisis action attainment of strategic objectives. After receiving strategic guidance, the combatant commander then systematically considers his derived mission,
commander’s intent, situation analysis, and course of action development which are all part of the commander’s estimate. The combatant commander then develops the strategic concept of operations (including phases), objectives, and subordinate tasks, command relationships and organizations, sustainment, and requirements for supporting plans. The final link in the process is a determination of plan feasibility, acceptability, suitability, and doctrinal consistency. This sequence is a simplified outline of a process that’s dynamic and non-linear. Actions, such as revising intent and estimates, are continuous and concurrent.

Strategic Guidance

Campaign planning may be initiated by a combatant commander based upon specific Presidential/SECDEF/CJCS guidance; national or alliance documents, such as the JSCP, the Unified Command Plan (UCP), Joint Publication 0-2, Unified Action Armed Forces, or from combatant commander initiatives. If the combatant commander determines that the situation may require some military response, then he will direct the Theater Operations Planning Group (OPG) to form and begin exploring possible courses of action. Considerations for this step of the process include:

- Review current staff estimates.
- Review applicable plans (OPLAN, CONPLAN, FUNCPLAN) for the area or the situation.
- Review Time-Phased Force Deployment Data (TPFDD) including:
  - In-place units;
  - Force flow and closure dates.
- Determine potential military or non-military tasks which may be directed by the President and SECDEF.
- Determine if the action will be unilateral or combined.
- Determine levels of Host Nation Support which can be anticipated.
- Determine which forces (U.S. and coalition) may be available for planning purposes.
- Obtain from Theater Joint Intelligence Center (JIC) current analysis of threat forces.

Commander’s Estimate

The Commander’s estimate is an essential tool. It lays out the decision process used by the combatant commander and
his staff in choosing his course of action. It becomes the
foundation of the strategic concept of the campaign and all
future planning. In the estimate, the commander evaluates all
the elements of a situation that effect the employment of
forces and assets. Joint Publication 3–0 includes an
abbreviated description of the estimate process at Appendix B.

Joint publication 1–02 defines the Commander’s Estimate of
the Situation process as “a logical process of reasoning by
which a commander considers all the circumstances affecting
the military situation and arrives at a decision as to a COA
to be taken to accomplish the mission.” The commander’s study
of the situation, coupled with his review of the existing
theater strategy and strategic estimate, is a continuous
process from which he may decide to:

• Proceed with the original approved base plan (OPLAN,
CONPLAN), developed during deliberate planning phase of
JOPES if his assessment shows that the situation is
close to that which was originally projected. He and
his staff can then verify the original plan and staff
estimates and issue guidance for the appropriate
modifications.
• Proceed, with modifications, if the future assessment
does not match the original plan but does resemble the
situation addressed by a developed branch. The
combatant commander can then select the branch that
most closely resembles the projected future outcome and
modify it.
• Create a new concept more appropriate to the assessed
situation than either the base plan or one of its
branches.

**Derive the Mission**

The first step is to identify Tasks. Specified and
implied strategic tasks are determined from the strategic
guidance. Specified tasks are found in National Security
Presidential Directives (NSPD), CJCS warning orders, or
specific oral guidance. Examples of specified tasks given to
JFCs are:

• Deter country X from coercing its neighbors
• Stop X’s aggression against its neighbors
• Reduce X’s WMD inventory, production and delivery means
• Enforce the peace as outlined in the peace accords
After identifying specified tasks, additional major tasks necessary to accomplish the assigned mission are identified. These additional major tasks are implied tasks. These are tasks that must be done in order to accomplish the specified tasks given you by the President and SECDEF. These should not be SOP items like deploy, RSOI, sustain, etc. Moreover, tasks that are inherent responsibilities of the commander (providing protection of the flank of own unit, reconnaissance, deception, etc.) are not considered implied tasks. The exception occurs only if such routine tasks to be successfully accomplished must be coordinated or supported by other commanders. Examples:

- Build and maintain a coalition
- Show force through Flexible Deterrent Options (FD0)
- Occupy enemy territory and enforce the peace
- Conduct NEO
- Coordinate AOR boundaries with adjacent/supporting combatant commanders
- Focus information operations to discourage violence among country X’s disparate population groups
- Destroy X’s elite armored corps

Essential tasks are derived from the list of specified and implied tasks and are those tasks that must be accomplished in order to successfully complete the mission. These will be the tasks that appear in the mission statement.

Identify issues that require clarification at the national level or require Inter-agency coordination. As part of the mission analysis ensure that Presidential/SECDEF aims and intent are clear. Experience shows that CJCS Warning Orders (WO) do not always state these aims as clearly as we could expect. Clarify with the CJCS if necessary. If clarification is not forthcoming, develop “assumed Presidential/SECDEF intent” as part of the situation paragraph. Additionally, the combatant commander may need to continue planning without resolution of all issues due to their complex or sensitive nature.

Next step is to compose the mission statement. Theater strategic objectives form the basis of the campaign’s mission statement. Using these guides, the combatant commander derives the theater campaign mission — a strategic mission that accomplishes the purpose of national strategic direction. Initially, the mission may be a general statement of the
strategic objectives and their purposes, but it may be refined later after specific tasks and phases have been developed and delineated as a result of the commander’s estimate of the situation. Multiple tasks are normally listed in the sequence to be accomplished. Although several tasks may have been identified during the mission analysis, the mission statement includes only those that are essential to the overall success of the mission. A sample combatant commander’s mission statement could look like this:

“When directed, US__COM employs joint forces in concert with coalition partners in order to deter country X from coercing its neighbors and proliferating WMD. If deterrence fails, stop country X’s aggression by defeating its armed forces, destroying its known WMD production, storage and delivery capability, and destroying its ability to project force across its boundaries. Conduct post-hostilities operations to stabilize the theater, transition control to the UN, and re-deploy.”

From this mission statement, the combatant commander determines what is to be done, when, where, why and by who. The combatant commander states this derived mission in clear and concise terms that are understandable to superiors and subordinates.

**Endstate**

Planners recognize two endstates in a single campaign. The strategic endstate describes the President’s political, informational, economic, and military vision for the region or theater when operations conclude. Strategic endstates are derived from Presidential/SECDEF guidance that is often vague and not clear. More often than not, senior military leaders will assist the President/SECDEF in development of that endstate. The military endstate is a subset of the strategic, and generally describes the military conditions that must be met to satisfy the strategic endstate. Often, the military endstate is achieved before the strategic endstate. Examples of strategic and military endstates:

- **Strategic endstate:**

  “An economically viable and stable Country X, without the capability to coerce its neighbors.”
Military endstate:

“A defeated Country X where WMD delivery, production, and storage as well as conventional force projection capabilities are destroyed; and its remaining military is reorganized to adequately defend its borders.”

Commander’s Intent

At the theater level, the commander’s intent should articulate the purpose of the campaign being conducted and the combatant commander’s vision of the military endstate when operations are concluded. After reading the commander’s intent, subordinates should have a clear understanding of why the campaign is being waged, and what the regional conditions will look like when the campaign is over. Commander’s intent is not a repeat of the concept of operations. Normally, combatant commanders provide intent for the overall campaign and specific statements of intent for each phase of the campaign.

The purpose of the campaign answers the question, “why are we conducting this campaign?” It’s parallel can be found in the mission statement in the phrase containing “in order to.” The purpose should correlate to the military endstate necessary to support the strategic endstate (which includes military, diplomatic, economic and informational aspects).

The commander’s intent must be crafted to allow subordinate commanders sufficient flexibility in accomplishing their assigned mission(s). The commander’s intent must provide a “vision” of those conditions that the commander wants to see after military action is accomplished. Below are examples of commander’s intent for the entire campaign, and for a single phase:

- Intent for Entire Campaign:

  “My intent is to persuade country X through a show of coalition force to quit coercing its neighbors and cooperate with diplomatic efforts to abandon its WMD programs. If X continues its belligerence and expansion of WMD programs, we will use force to reduce X’s ability to threaten its neighbors, and restore the regional military balance of power. Before U.S. and coalition forces redeploy, X’s military will be reduced by half, its modern equipment destroyed, its capability to project force across its borders eliminated, and
its WMD stores, production capacity, and delivery systems eliminated.”

• Intent for the “Seize Initiative” phase of the campaign:

“My intent is to set the conditions for the counter-offensive phase by building combat power as rapidly as possible while shaping the battlespace for offensive action. Phase is completed when the enemy offensive is halted, enemy combat forces are fixed and reduced 30%, enemy is incapable of re-supplying fielded forces, the national leadership is incapable of effective communications with its forces, and U.S. and coalition forces are poised for offensive operations.”

The intent statement may also contain an assessment of where and how the commander will accept risk during the operation (See JP 3-0). Guidance on what risk a commander will or will not accept may be given in Commanders Planning Guidance before development of courses of action. Risk may be further categorized as Operational Risk (failure to accomplish the mission) as well as Personnel Risks (dangers and hazards to friendly personnel). Both types should be considered.

**Situation Analysis**

In this process the analysis of the situation follows mission analysis and commander’s intent. Having established what to do (derived mission, purpose, and the vision of the desired end state), the commander must comprehend the factors that influence how he does it. The command and staff should further examine several factors that will affect the completion of the mission. This is necessary to enable the commander to provide proper planning guidance to the staff and subordinate commands before they commence development and evaluation of COAs. In the absence of facts, they must use logical assumptions that might directly affect the mission. These factors include:

**Geostrategic factors**

Consider the domestic and international context: political and/or diplomatic long and short-term causes of conflict; domestic influences, including public will, competing demands for resources, and political, economic, legal, and moral constraints; and international interests (reinforcing or
conflicting with US interests, including positions of parties neutral to the conflict), international law, positions of international organizations, and other competing or distracting international situations.

Consider the characteristics of the operational areas of the theater. Analyze military geography (topography, hydrography, climate and weather). Evaluate how weather, light conditions, the environment and terrain affect friendly and enemy forces and capabilities (i.e., C4I, maneuver, employment of special weapons, deception and psychological operations). Assess political, economic, sociological, informational, psychological and other factors including organization, communications, technology, industrial base, manpower and mobilization capacity, and transportation.

Identify Limiting Factors

These are restrictions placed on the commander’s freedom of action. Limiting factors are generally categorized as constraints or restraints. Constraints are “must do” and restraints are “must not do”.

- **Constraints**: Constraints are tasks that the higher commander requires subordinates to perform (for example, defending a specific decisive point, maintaining an alliance, meeting a time suspense, or eliminating a specific enemy force etc.)

- **Restraints**: Restraints are things the higher commander prohibits subordinate commander(s) or force(s) from doing (for example, not conducting preemptive or cross-border operations before declared hostilities, not approaching the enemy coast closer than 30 nautical miles, not decisively committing forces etc.).

Identify Planning Assumptions

Assumptions are developed in order to continue the planning process in the absence of facts. Assumptions should be logical, realistic, and positively stated. Assumptions should be re-addressed frequently. Overall, the higher the command echelon, the more assumptions will be made. Assumptions enable the commander and the staff to continue the planning despite the lack of concrete information. Assumptions are reasonable suppositions that must be made to work out a problem logically. They are, in fact, artificial
devices to fill gaps in actual knowledge, but they play a crucial role in planning. A wrong assumption may partially or completely invalidate the entire plan. To account for wrong assumptions, planners should consider developing branches to the basic plan. Examples of assumptions follow:

- **Political:**
  - Countries A & B will allow overflight, basing, and Host Nation Support (HNS).
  - Countries C & D remain neutral.
  - Country E supports Country X with air and naval forces only.
  - Theater access will not be obtained until C day.

- **Forces:**
  - V US Corps will not be available.
  - APS 3 and MPS 1 & 2 will be available.
  - CVBG and ARG/MEU(SOC) are forward deployed in theater.
  - 1 AEW available for employment at C+3.

- **Timeline:**
  - Major deployments begin upon unambiguous warning of enemy attack (W=C).
  - X days warning prior to enemy attack (W/C = D-X).
  - PRC activated on C day. Partial Mob activated on D day.

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**Centers of Gravity, Vulnerabilities, and Decisive Points**

There are never enough forces to accomplish the broad tasks given you, without risk, in any campaign. Therefore, it’s essential that you identify the enemy’s centers of gravity (COG) and neutralize or destroy them along the inherent vulnerabilities within each. Focusing scarce resources to achieve maximum effectiveness is at the heart of campaign planning. The success of any Joint Force Commander (JFC) will depend upon his ability to accurately describe the enemy’s COG, its vulnerabilities, and then direct force at those vulnerabilities at the decisive points and at the right time.

- **Center of Gravity:** Clausewitz defined the COG as the “hub of all power and movement, on which everything
depends...the point at which all our energies should be
directed.” JP 3.0 defines the COG as, “those
characteristics, capabilities or sources of power from
which a military force derives its freedom of action,
physical strength, or will to fight.” There can be
only one COG at any level of war at any given time in
the campaign, or the term loses its meaning and
usefulness. Normally, the strategic COG will not
change during the campaign, but the operational COG
may, and normally will, change sometime during the span
of the campaign. Examples of COGs at the strategic
level can be national leaders, a ruling coalition, a
strong-willed national population (the people), or a
military service or component of it. At the
operational level, common examples are a military
force or component of it, a military capability that
can hold another nation’s interests or forces at risk,
or a skilled and inspirational military commander.
COGs are not vulnerabilities. However, within every
COG lies inherent vulnerabilities, that when attacked,
can render those COGs weaker and even more susceptible
to direct attack and eventual destruction.

- **Vulnerabilities:** “The susceptibility of a nation or
military force to any action by any means through which
its war potential or combat effectiveness may be
reduced or its will to fight diminished (JP 1-02).” A
COG is usually a complex entity, composed of multiple
critical capabilities. Rarely is it uni-dimensional,
or it wouldn’t have the potency to qualify as a COG
under the discussion above. The critical capabilities
which make up a COG as a whole, the critical
requirements which sustain those capabilities, and the
seams of weakness between those capabilities and
requirements are often vulnerable subsets of a COG that
can be attacked by the JFC.

- **Decisive Point:** JP 5.0 describes a decisive point as,
“A geographic place, specific key event, critical
system, or function that allows commanders to gain a
marked advantage over an adversary...” Generally, JFCs
attack adversary vulnerabilities at decisive points so
that the results they achieve are disproportional to
the military resources applied.

In theory, direct attacks against enemy centers of gravity
are the most efficient path to victory—if it can be done in a
prudent manner. Some adversary COGs are assailable directly because friendly capabilities enjoy significant overmatch. Such was the case in DESERT STORM when VII Corps attacked the Republican Guard (RG) in Kuwait and southern Iraq. The combined power of our armored and air forces significantly outmatched the RG divisions; therefore, they were attacked directly. Where direct attacks mean attacking into a strength equal to or stronger than your own, JFCs should seek an indirect approach until conditions are established that permit successful direct attacks. In this way, JFCs will weaken enemy centers of gravity indirectly by attacking traditional weaknesses, such as seams and flanks, and critical capabilities and requirements which are sufficiently vulnerable: LOCs, rear area logistics, C2, specific forces or military systems, and even military morale and public opinion.

It is also important to protect friendly COGs; that is our critical capabilities and critical requirements to prevent them from becoming critical vulnerabilities. Examples can be long sea and air LOCs from CONUS or supporting theaters, or public opinion when it is not an outright center of gravity (as was the case for the United States during the latter years of the Vietnam War). In cases when public support is not a center of gravity, friendly strategy and operations will have to be conceived and conducted in such a manner as to preserve the level of public support which does exist.

Example: Envision the outset of a campaign where an enemy is considering an invasion of a neighboring country that is friendly to the U.S. The friendly neighbor has asked the U.S. to help stop the enemy forces from seizing its country. If you were the enemy commander planning this invasion, what would you view as the U.S. operational COG, vulnerabilities, and decisive points on the day you decided to attack?

U.S. Operational COG: Forward deployed (halt) forces

U.S. Vulnerabilities
- Air and Sea LOCs which support force deployment
- dependence upon host nation access and support
- requires fuel, ammo, life support, repair parts
- dependence upon enroute infrastructure
- possible host nation hostility toward U.S. presence

Decisive Points:
- In-theater ports and airfields
• maritime choke points at canals and straits
• EUCOM/PACOM refueling bases (air bridge)
• Friendly nation overflight corridors in theater
• U.S. prepositioned equipment sites
• forward supply storage sites
• Daily press briefings

In the example above, the enemy commander could best neutralize the effectiveness and responsiveness of U.S. “halt” forces by attacking the U.S. ability to generate forces in theater, attacking the sustainment stocks for those forces, and denying U.S. forces access into the theater – at the decisive points shown.

Assess Enemy Capabilities

The commander must identify Enemy Capabilities (ECs) and then estimate the likelihood of their adoption by the enemy commander. The term enemy capabilities is used rather than term enemy courses of action, because the focus should be on what the enemy is physically capable of doing and not on his probable intentions. These capabilities are considered in the light of all known factors affecting military actions, including time, space, weather, terrain, and the strength and disposition of enemy forces. The primary source of information on enemy capabilities is the J2’s intelligence estimate. The text of the intelligence estimate on the enemy situation and ECs are normally inserted verbatim into the Commander’s Estimate. Enemy capabilities are considered in the light of all known specific characteristics, including strength, composition, location and disposition, reinforcements, logistics, time and space factors, and combat efficiency.

• Strengths: List the number and size of enemy units committed and those available for reinforcement in the area. This should not be just a tabulation of numbers of aircraft, ships, missiles, or other weapons, but rather an analysis of what strength the enemy commander can bring to bear in the area in terms of ground, air, and naval units committed and reinforcing, aircraft sortie rates, missile delivery rates, unconventional, psychological, and other strengths the commander thinks may affect the ratio of forces in the area of operations or the theater of operations.
• Composition of Forces: This includes Order of Battle (OB) of major enemy formations, equivalent strengths of enemy and friendly units and major weapons systems and armaments in the enemy arsenal and their operational characteristics.

• Location and Disposition: This includes geographical location of enemy units; fire support elements; C2 facilities; air, naval, and missile forces; and other elements of combat power in, or deployable to the area of operations or the given theater of operations.

• Reinforcements: Estimate own, friendly and enemy reinforcement capabilities that can affect the forthcoming action in the area under consideration. This study should include ground, naval, air elements; Weapons of Mass Destruction (WMD); and an estimate of the relative capacity to move these forces into the area of operations or theater of operations.

• Logistics: Summarize such considerations as transportation, supply, maintenance, hospitalization and evacuation, labor, construction, and other elements of logistical support and sustainment.

• Time and Space Factors: Estimate where and when initial forces and reinforcements can be deployed and employed. Such a study will normally include distances and transit times by land, sea, and air from major bases or staging/deployment areas into the theater or area of operations; compute distances and transit times for each own unit/force, friendly and enemy.

• Combat Efficiency: Estimate enemy state of training, readiness, battle experience, physical condition, morale, leadership, motivation, doctrine, discipline, and whatever significant strengths or weaknesses may appear from the preceding paragraphs.

Develop Enemy Capabilities (ECs)

Accurate identification of enemy capabilities requires the commander and his staff to think “as the opponent thinks.” From that perspective, it is necessary first to postulate possible enemy objectives and then visualize specific actions within the capabilities of enemy forces that can be directed
at these objectives and that would also affect the accomplishment of one’s own mission. From the enemy’s perspective, appropriate physical objectives might include one’s own forces or its elements, own or friendly forces being supported or protected, facilities or line of communications, geographic areas or positions of tactical, operational or strategic importance. Potential enemy actions relating to specific physical objectives normally need to be combined to form statements of ECs. These statements should be broad enough so that the fundamental choices available to the enemy commander are made clear. Once all ECs have been identified, the commander should eliminate any duplication and combine them when appropriate.

Prioritize ECs and Select One as the Baseline

The commander lists retained ECs in the order that they are likely to be adopted based on the analysis conducted above. To establish such a sequence requires an analysis of the situation from the enemy’s perspective, with what may be known about the enemy’s intentions. Enemy intentions should not be applied uncritically, that is, to consider only what one believes the enemy will do. The commander and staff must avoid eliminating any viable enemy EC based solely on perceived enemy intentions. Also, identify which EC is the most dangerous to friendly forces and objectives. Many times, but not always, the most likely and dangerous EC are the same, so your planning vector is easier and more clearly focused. If they’re not, the combatant commander must choose one of them to become the baseline planning assumption for his plan. Normally, commanders consider the enemy’s most likely EC as their baseline for friendly action unless the consequences of not focusing on the most dangerous EC make it prohibitive to do otherwise. Regardless of which COA is chosen for the baseline planning effort, you must ensure that a branch is developed for the other. After selecting an EC as your baseline planning assumption, a listing of associated enemy vulnerabilities that can be exploited by your own forces should be compiled. This list can be a general list, or tied to specific ECs. This list will aid in subsequent steps when your own COAs are compared against ECs and advantages and disadvantages of your own COAs are compared.

Intelligence Considerations

The combatant commander’s requirements must be the principal driver of the intelligence system. Based upon the
combatant commanders guidance, Essential Elements of Information (EEI) are prepared and Requests for Information (RFI) submitted. The J2 can then focus the intelligence effort to collecting, processing, producing and disseminating the required intelligence (See Joint Publication 2-0). While EEI can be derived from many sources, the estimate process can offer aspects of assumptions, enemy capabilities, geostrategic factors, etc. that need to be clarified by the intelligence system.

Commander’s Planning Guidance

The commander approves the restated mission and gives the staff (and normally subordinate commanders) initial planning guidance. This guidance is essential for timely and effective COA development and analysis. The guidance should precede the staff’s preparation for conducting their respective staff estimates. The commander’s responsibility is to implant a desired vision of the forthcoming combat action into the minds of the staff. Enough guidance (preliminary decisions) must be provided to allow the subordinates to plan the action necessary to accomplish the mission consistent with his intent and the intent of the commander two echelons above. The commander’s guidance must focus on the essential tasks and associated objectives that support the accomplishment of the assigned national objectives.

- The commander may provide the planning guidance to the entire staff and/or subordinate commanders or meet each staff officer or subordinate unit commander individually as the situation and information dictates. The guidance can be given in a written form or orally. No format for the planning guidance is prescribed. However, the guidance should be sufficiently detailed to provide a clear direction and to avoid unnecessary efforts by the staff or subordinate commanders.

- The content of planning guidance varies from commander to commander and is dependent on the situation and time available. Planning may include:

  - Situation
  - The restated mission – including essential task(s) and associated objectives
  - Purpose of the forthcoming military action
  - Information available (or unavailable) at the time
  - Forces available (“allocated”) for planning purposes
Limiting factors (constraints and restraints) –
including time constraints for planning
- Pertinent assumptions
- Tentative Courses of Action (COAs) under consideration; friendly strengths to be emphasized or enemy weaknesses the COAs should attack; or specific planning tasks
- Preliminary guidance for use (or non-use) of nuclear weapons
- Coordinating instructions
- Acceptable level of risk to own and friendly forces
- Information Operations guidance.

Planning guidance can be very explicit and detailed, or it can be very broad, allowing the staff and/or subordinate commanders wide latitude in developing subsequent COAs. However, no matter its scope, the content of planning guidance must be arranged in a logical sequence to reduce the chances of misunderstanding and to enhance clarity. Moreover, one must recognize that all the elements of planning guidance are tentative only. The commander may issue successive planning guidance during the decision-making process. Yet, the focus of his staff should remain upon the framework provided in the initial planning guidance. There is no limitation as to the number of times the commander may issue his planning guidance.

Course of Action (COA) Development

A COA is any course of action open to a commander that, if adopted, would result in the accomplishment of the mission of the campaign. For each COA, the commander must envision the employment of own/friendly forces and assets as a whole, taking into account externally imposed limitations, the factual situation in the area of operations, and the conclusions previously drawn up during the mission analysis and previous steps of the commander’s guidance.

The J2 will continue to provide intelligence updates as the collection plan is implemented to replace planning assumptions with facts as early as possible in the process. The output of COA development is a tentative concept of operation (with sketch if possible) in which the commander describes for each COA, in broad but clear terms, what is to be done, the size of forces deemed necessary, and time in which force needs to be brought to bear. A tentative COA
should be simple and complete. It should address all the elements of organizing the battlefield. It should also include key considerations necessary for developing a scheme of maneuver. Normally, the concept of operations for each COA should include:

- When own/friendly forces will be deployed
- How and where own/friendly forces will be employed
- Sector of main effort
- Scheme of maneuver (tentative)
- Major tasks by subordinates (sequenced if possible)
- Concept for sustainment (tentative)
- Preliminary command arrangements

A critical first decision in COA development is whether to conduct simultaneous or sequential development of the COAs. Each approach has advantages and disadvantages. The advantage of simultaneous development of COAs is potential time savings. Separate groups work simultaneously on different COAs. The disadvantages of this approach are that the synergy of the OPG may be disrupted by breaking up the team, the approach is manpower intensive and requires component and directorate representation in each COA group, and there is an increased likelihood that COAs will not be distinctive. While there is potential time to be saved, experience has demonstrated that it is not an automatic result. The simultaneous COA development approach can work, but its inherent disadvantages must be addressed and some risk accepted up front. The alternative approach is to have the entire OPG work on COAs sequentially. This significantly reduces the manpower requirements but may result in less fully developed COAs. Regardless of the method chosen, the keys to success are: thorough mission analysis, specific planning guidance, and continuous engagement by the leadership.

Time available, the Commander, and the nature of the mission will dictate the number of COAs to be considered. Staff sections continually affect course of action development by an ongoing staff estimate process to ensure suitability, feasibility, acceptability, and compliance with Joint Doctrine. Additionally, staffs ensure completeness (answers Who, What, When, Where, How). The variability or distinctiveness of each COA is ensured by emphasizing distinctions in regard to:

- focus of direction of the main effort
• scheme of maneuver (air, land, maritime)
• task organization, phasing (if required)
• anticipated use of reserves
• primary defeat mechanism or primary method of mission accomplishment, and/or
• important logistic matters.

COA Development Considerations

• Review mission analysis and commander’s guidance.
• Brainstorm options. Potential COAs may be based on varied use of forces (ARFOR, MARFOR, etc.) or varied use of operating systems (Maneuver, Intelligence, Fires, Command and Control, or Force Protection).

• Test drafts against following criteria:
  - Suitable: (sometimes referred to as adequate) Does the COA accomplish the mission? Does it address the essential tasks, meet the Commander’s intent, and achieve the desired end state?
  - Feasible: Addresses whether or not the JFC has the necessary forces and resources to accomplish the mission. Can the JFC get to the desired end state from here?
  - Acceptable: Does the COA fall within the parameters of an acceptable level of risk? Risk may be assessed on force protection, mission accomplishment, U.S. or international public and media opinion, or other factors.
  - Variety: Are the COAs distinguishable? Valid distinguishing characteristics of COAs include simultaneous and sequential operations, task organization, scheme of maneuver, defeat mechanism, or main effort.
  - Completeness: Does the COA answer the question of Who, What, When, Where, and How?
  - Compliance with Joint Doctrine: Does the COA comply with Joint Doctrine?

• Determine Command relationships.
• Prepare COA Concept of Operations, Movement and maneuver sketch, and Tasks to subordinates.

• Other Considerations: COAs should attempt to preserve flexibility for the Commander well into the operation and be dependent upon the fewest assumptions. Each COA should create combat power asymmetries which the commander can exploit for success.

Course of Action Analysis

Course of action analysis or wargaming is a process whereby each COA is visualized in context of the enemy’s most likely or most dangerous course of action in an action-reaction-counteraction methodology. The COA Analysis process is the staff’s visualization of the flow of an operation and is an important step in building decision support tools for the Commander. While time consuming, this procedure reveals strengths and weaknesses of each friendly course of action, anticipates battlefield events, determines task organization for combat, identifies decision points, and identifies cross-service or component support requirements.

There are two key decisions to make before COA analysis begins. The first decision is to decide what type of wargame will be used. This decision should be based on Commander’s guidance, time and resources available, staff expertise, and availability of simulation models. The second decision is to prioritize the enemy COAs the wargame is to be analyzed against. In time constrained situations it may not be possible to wargame against all courses of action.

Wargaming has manual and computer-assisted components. Manual wargaming makes up the bulk of activity when staffs wargame. Automation is normally used to resolve questions regarding outcomes during specific moments in the fight. But even when automation is used, it can never supplant the combined experience of the persons conducting the wargame. When time and automated resources are lacking, manual only wargaming will suffice.

Interpret the results of analysis. Comparisons of advantages and disadvantages of each COA will be conducted during the next step of the estimate. However, if the unsuitability, infeasibility, or unacceptability of any COA becomes readily apparent during the analysis, the commander should modify or discard it and concentrate on other COA(s).
The need to create additional combinations of COAs may also become apparent.

**COA Analysis Considerations**

- **Information Review:** Mission Analysis, Commander’s intent, planning guidance, combatant commander’s orders.
- **Gather tools, materials, personnel and data:**
  - Friendly courses of action to be analyzed
  - Enemy courses of action against which you will evaluate the friendly COAs
  - Representations of the operational area such as maps, overlays, etc.
  - Representations of friendly and enemy force dispositions and capabilities
  - Subject matter experts (INTEL, SJA, POLAD, Log, IW, C4, PAO, etc.)
  - Red cell
  - Scribe/recorder.
- **Refine wargaming methodology**
  - Pre-conditions or start points and endstate for each phase
  - Advantages/disadvantages of the COA
  - Unresolved issues
  - COA modifications or refinements
  - Estimated duration of critical events
  - Major tasks for components
  - Identify critical events & decision points
  - Identify branches and sequels
  - Identify risks
  - Recommended EEIs and supporting collections plan priorities
  - Highlight ROE requirements
- **Keep discussions elevated to the theater level.**
- **Balance between stifling creativity and making progress.**
- **Ensure the deception plan is woven into the analysis.**
COA Comparison

The COA comparison process evaluates each of the COAs against functional criteria. The inputs to COA comparison are the wargame results and staff estimates of support. Participation in the comparison process is directed by the combatant commander. It is normally conducted by the staff planners and may include the components. As in COA analysis, COA comparison requires some preparation time on the part of the staff. The staff must have a thorough understanding of each course of action. The end state of the comparison process is a recommendation on the preferred COA to the combatant commander.

COAs are not compared to each other. Each COA is considered independently of the other COAs and is compared to a set of criteria or governing factors. Some of these criteria may be directed by the combatant commander, but most criteria will be developed on the basis of the staff’s area of experience. COA comparison facilitates the Commander’s decision making process by balancing the ends, means, ways and risk of each COA. Each staff planner is responsible for the development of comparison criteria or governing factors for his functional area. The staff conducts the comparison process in isolation of the commander, and the results are briefed in terms of recommended COA advantages/disadvantages.

The staff should remain as objective as possible in comparing the COAs. Several techniques for evaluating COAs are available. Weighting criteria is a frequently used technique, and numerical summaries can be used to reach recommendations. Experience has been that COA comparison remains a subjective process and should not be turned into a mathematical equation. Using +, -, 0 is as appropriate as any other method. The key element in this process is the ability to articulate to the Commander why one COA is preferred over another.

COA Recommendation

Throughout the COA development process, the combatant commander conducts an independent analysis of the mission, possible courses of action, and relative merits and risks associated with each COA. The Commander, upon receiving the staff’s recommendation, combines his analysis with the staff recommendation resulting in a selected COA.
The forum for presenting the results of COA comparison is the Commander’s Decision Brief. Typically this briefing provides the combatant commander with an update of the current situation, an overview of the COAs considered, and a discussion of the results of COA comparison. The OPG chief or the Chief of Staff may facilitate the decision brief. Normally, each staff principal and component liaison will describe their comparison criteria and results. The component commanders and their staff principals may be linked with the Headquarters by Video Teleconference (VTC) in order to provide direct feedback to the Commander.

Once the combatant commander has made a decision on a selected COA, provides guidance, and updates his intent, the staff completes the Commander’s Estimate. The Commander’s Estimate provides a concise statement of how the combatant commander intends to accomplish the mission, and provides the necessary focus for campaign planning and OPLAN/OPORD development. Further, it replies to the establishing authority’s requirement to develop a plan for execution. Annex D of JOPES Volume I (CJCSI 3122.01) provides the format for the Commander’s Estimate. (See also the Naval War College’s, Commander’s Estimate of the Situation (CES) and AFSC Pub 1, The Joint Staff Officer’s Guide, 2000, pp. 4-46 to 4-48.

**Strategic Concept**

The combatant commander’s selected COA is expanded and refined into the strategic concept of the campaign plan. In the strategic concept, the commander provides visualization for subordinates on conducting campaigns, major operations, and the decisive battle, focusing on the employment of the force as a whole. The combatant commander will communicate operation phasing, intent of individual phases of the campaign, and the measurement for when transition between phases occurs. This description includes conditions to be achieved, sequencing of events, and expected enemy reactions to friendly forces as the campaign unfolds. Above all, the commander should specify the desired military end state and the battle results expected, including effects on the enemy and the desired posture of friendly forces at the end of combat operations. The commander should describe how this posture will facilitate transition to future operations or post-conflict operations.
Sustainment of the joint force will be specified in the logistics concept. It is derived from the logistic estimate of supportability for the selected COA along with consideration of the throughput system—the transportation and distribution system that provides the means to move the joint force and materiel resources forward and evacuation to rear area as required. The logistic concept is more than gathering information on the various logistics functions. Rather, it entails the organization of capabilities and resources into an overall theater campaign support concept. Considerations for the Strategic Concept include:

- Applies the concepts of operational art. (For an expanded discussion of the fundamental elements of operational art see JP 3-0, PP.III-9 to III-25)
- Describes the theater concept, objectives, and tasks and supporting operational direction, objectives, tasks, and concepts for subordinates to carry out their campaigns or major operations.
- Organizes joint, single-service, supporting, and special operations forces—in conjunction with multinational, interagency, non-governmental, or international organizations—into a cohesive force designed to plan and execute subordinate campaigns and operations.
- Retains strategic reserves.
- Establishes command relationships.
- Integrates the nation’s mobilization, deployment, and sustainment efforts into the combatant commanders’ employment and logistics concepts.
- Concentrates forces and materiel resources strategically so that the right force is available at the designated times and places to conduct decisive operations.
- Seeks to gain the strategic advantage over the enemy that affords an opportunity to take the strategic initiative through offensive operations.
- Defeats or destroys the enemy’s strategic centers of gravity or achieves desired MOOTW objectives to achieve the strategic end state.

Objectives and Subordinate Tasks

The theater and supporting operational objectives assigned to subordinates are critical elements of the theater-strategic design of the campaign. They establish the conditions
necessary to reach the desired end state and achieve the national strategic objectives. The combatant commander focuses on national military or multinational objectives to select theater strategic and supporting operational objectives. Subordinate JFCs or components, in turn, are assigned specific theater strategic and supporting operational objectives for subordinate campaigns. The combatant commander carefully defines the objectives to ensure clarity of theater and operational intent and to identify specific tasks required to achieve those objectives.

Prioritization of campaign objectives must account for pertinent national and theater guidance. As time permits, the combatant commander will consider input from external agencies when it is made available.

Tasks for subordinates are determined to accomplish the theater campaign military objectives and achieve the desired end state. Tasks are derived from the theater military objectives. They are shaped by the concept of operations—intended sequencing and integration of air, land, sea, special operations, and space forces. Tasks are prioritized in order of criticality while considering the enemy’s priorities and the need to gain advantage.

One of the fundamental purposes of a campaign plan is to achieve synchronized employment of all available land, sea, aerospace, and special operations forces. This overwhelming application of military force can be achieved by assigning the appropriate tasks to components for each phase. These tasks can be derived from an understanding of how component forces interrelate, not only among themselves, but also with respect to the enemy. The components have symmetrical relationships with equivalent enemy forces, mutual support relationships with each other, as well as asymmetrical relationships with other types of enemy forces.

**Joint Force Organization**

Organizations and relationships are based on the campaign design, complexity of the campaign, and degree of control required. Within the campaign decision-making process, the combatant commander determines the organization and command relationships after assigning tasks to subordinates. The establishment of command relationships includes determining the types of subordinate commands and the degree of authority to be delegated to each. Clear definition of command
relationships further clarifies the intent of the combatant commander and contributes to decentralized execution and unity of effort. The combatant commander has the authority to determine the types of subordinate commands from several doctrinal options, including Service components, functional commands, and subordinate joint commands. The options for delegating authority emanate from COCOM and range from OPCON to support.

Service Components

All joint forces include Service components. Administrative and logistic support is provided through these Service components. Conducting operations through Service components has certain advantages, which include (See JP 3-0, p. II-15):

- clear and uncomplicated command lines.
- established staffs, familiar with each other.
- common Standard Operating Procedures

Service Component Command

![Figure 5: Command Organized Along Service Components](image)

However, keep in mind that operations conducted by services will inherently have seams between the forces of the adjacent services. To ensure success, coordination along these seams is an absolute requirement. However, non-uniformed procedures and lack of interoperability in the past have made this coordination extremely challenging. As our services become more joint, regarding procedures and equipment, organizing unified operations along service lines...
will become more rare. Organizing unified operations along service component lines should only be considered when the components have disparate objectives, and don’t share the same battlespace. A unified command organized along service component lines is illustrated in Figure 5.

Functional Components

JFCs may establish functional components to provide centralized direction and control of certain functions and types of operations. The advantages of conducting operations through Functional components are:

- the arrangement allows for forces of two different services to operate together in the same medium.
- takes advantage of the synergy that can be gained between complimentary joint forces.

The cost of establishing these types of relationships is in the ad hoc nature of staff formation. Ad hoc staffs need time to work out effective operating procedures. Examples of functional components are Joint Force Land Component Commander (JFLCC), Joint Force Air Component Commander (JFACC), and Joint Force Maritime Component Commander (JFMCC). Figure 6 portrays a unified command organized along functional component lines. Note that establishment of functional

![Functional Component Command Diagram]

commands doesn’t dissolve the service component responsibilities of the services. Normally, a service component will be “dual-hatted” when appointed a functional component. Additionally, service components are normally
selected for functional command based upon the weight of their contribution to the effort. Due to their ability to sustain a theater operation, the Army, more often than not, will perform the JFLCC role. For large scale conflicts, the Air Force will normally draw the JFACC role, just as the Navy and perhaps the Marine Corps could be JFACCs in smaller scale contingencies when access to host nation basing is an issue. For the same reasons, the Navy will normally be the JFMCC. Special Operations Commands (SOC) are inherently joint – they have no one service component. Title 10 responsibilities to support the SOC are provided by the individual services.

Subordinate Joint Commands

JFCs may also establish subordinate joint commands (JTF), especially in cases where the mission given such a commander requires a fully joint response, but doesn’t require all the assets of a unified command to accomplish. Figure 7 shows a unified command organized functionally with a JTF. Advantages of establishing a subordinate joint command are:

- takes advantage of the synergy that can be gained between the complimentary capabilities of a fully joint force.
- provides unity of command.

![Diagram of Functional Component & Subordinate Joint Command]

Figure 7: Command Organized Functionally with a JTF
The disadvantage, like functional commands, is that the staff must be formed ad hoc - without prior SOPs and knowledge of each other. Note that the JTF has its own service forces, and may or may not have its own functional commands. A unified commander could have a mix of functional and subordinate joint commands when he’s been given disparate geographic missions within his AOR.

Combined Force Organization

Fusing a coalition together is much more complex, therefore attaining unity of effort can be very challenging. There are essentially three types of combined C2 structures, parallel, lead nation, and combination.

Parallel Command Structures

When two or more nations combine to form a coalition, and none of the nations are designated to take the lead, a parallel structure must be formed. Why nations won’t subordinate their forces to foreign command are many, including political factors, national prestige, lack of Status of Forces Agreements (SOFA), lack of military interoperability, protection of intelligence sources, etc. By definition, a parallel command structure has two or more lead nations of equal influence. Therefore, parallel structures don’t ensure unity of command; however, they can achieve unity of effort. The key is to establish a Coalition Coordination Center (CCC) at the theater level in order to coordinate and synchronize combined operations throughout the theater campaign. Advantages of forming a parallel structure as opposed to subordinating nations under the authority of one nation are:

- It’s much easier to form the coalition this way; partners are more comfortable politically.
- It eases the ability to sustain the force because each nation supports itself.
- It’s politically and militarily easier for a nation to withdraw from the coalition once the coalition’s objectives diverge from your own.
- Greater staff effectiveness within each nations’ militaries because the staffs of different nations remain non-integrated.

Alternatively, parallel command structures have seams which a wise adversary may exploit, and the lack of coalition
integration may lead to pursuit of a course of action which sub-optimizes the capabilities of the combined force. An example of a parallel structure is shown in Figure 8.

**Parallel Command Structure**

![Parallel Command Structure Diagram](image)

**FIGURE 8: U.S. and Partner Coalition Command Structure**

**Lead Nation Command Structures**

Lead nation command structures are usually found in alliances, or in coalitions where other nations have an existing working relationship with the lead nation. NATO is a good example of a lead nation command structure with the U.S. as its lead. Unlike parallel structures, lead nation staffs are usually integrated if national disclosure policy issues, intelligence sharing, SOFAs, and interoperability problems can be worked out in advance. Lead nation structures are advantageous:

- Because the seams within the combined force can be minimized.
- Because it ensures unity of command.
- Because it will be harder to shatter due to the level of integration.

There are drawbacks however. Lead nation structures are not without political issues that can paralyze the Combined Force Commander (CFC). Because every nation has a “vote”, decision making can still be slow and cumbersome. Finally, each nation will have to compromise on sovereignty issues to get along with each other. An example of a lead nation
structure is shown in Figure 9. Note the CFC’s integrated staff. Depending upon the amount of time the coalition has to form, integration could take place down to the functional/service component level. Coalition forces will normally support the lead nation either in an OPCON or TACON relationship.

Lead Nation Command Structure

Combination Command Structures

Combination structures are a blend of parallel and lead nation. This normally happens in large coalitions where U.S. allies are willing to accede the lead to the U.S., but other non-allied partners are not. Such was the case in DESERT SHIELD/DESERT STORM. NATO allies were integrated into the U.S. structure, whereas Islamic nations were integrated into the Saudi Structure. Both lead nations were fused by a coalition coordination center where plans were coordinated and synchronized. Example is shown in Figure 10. Note the allies subordinating their forces under U.S. control in either an OPCON or TACON relationship, whereas the other coalition partners are led by a parallel nation in equal stature to the U.S. and their forces only have a coordinating relationship with ours.
Considerations

The following are considerations for establishing Joint Force Organizations:

- JFCs will normally designate JFACCs and organize special operations forces into a functional component. (JP 3-0)
- Joint Forces will normally be organized with a combination of Service and functional components with operational responsibilities. (JP 3-0)
- Functional component staffs should be joint with Service representation in approximate proportion to the mix of subordinate forces. These staffs will be required to be organized and trained prior to employment in order to be efficient and effective, which will require advanced planning.
- Combatant commanders may establish supporting/supported relationships between components to facilitate operations.
- Combatant commanders define the authority and responsibilities of functional component commanders based on the strategic concept of operations and may alter their authority and responsibility during the course of an operation.
- Combatant commanders must balance the need for centralized direction with decentralized execution.
• Major changes in the Joint Force organization is normally conducted at phase changes.

Requirements for Supporting Plans

The combatant commander, Service component commanders, functional component commanders, and subordinate JFCs consider a total resource support concept that is integrated, vertically and horizontally, into supporting plans for theater and subordinate campaigns or major operations. The combatant commander and subordinate JFCs and their staffs develop these plans based on unified support that can be provided from national-level assets, supporting combatant commanders, Service and functional components, alliance or coalition partners, other government agencies, non-government or private agencies, international agencies, United Nations efforts, and host nations.

Supporting plans may address tasks and support requirements during mobilization, pre-deployment, deployment, force projection operations, employment, post-conflict operations, redeployment, and demobilization. They address requirements for political, informational, as well as economic coordination and support. Detailed support during the various phases of the theater campaign is also contained in a supporting plan.

Supporting commanders synchronize their plans with the theater campaign plan. They time-sequence mobilization to support employment, deployment and force projection with employment, and employment with execution, execution with sustainment, and vice versa. They identify resources and necessary liaison early, as the plan is being developed. Supporting plans provide for liaison from the supporting to the supported combatant commander who controls all support into the theater. Coordination will be required with allies, coalition forces, and host nations on intra-theater movements. Plans to effect intra-theater movement should provide the combatant commander the maximum possible control of the movement and concentration of forces and materiel, which will permit rapid response to changing situations as the campaign develops.

Supporting and subordinate commanders and supporting U.S. departments and agencies use the combatant commander’s strategic concepts of operation and tasks for subordinates as the basis for determining the necessary support for each phase
of the campaign plan. Supporting and subordinate commanders respond to the identified tasks by preparing supporting plans and submitting them for approval to the supported combatant commander.

Considerations

The following are considerations for developing supporting plans:

- The combatant commander identifies space and intelligence support requirements for the campaign through the development or revalidation of a supporting space and/or intelligence plan. This plan will identify requirements for national-level support from DOD intelligence agencies, NRO, NIMA, SPACECOM, and the military Services.

- Through the development of a mobility plan and a civil engineering support plan, the combatant commander identifies engineer requirements for strategic and operational mobility, construction, and real estate for the campaign. These plans will identify requirements for national-level support from non-DOD government agencies and the Services.

- Strategic Command and Special Operations Command may prepare supporting plans for the employment of unique forces from their commands in support of a theater campaign plan.

- Functional supporting major operations plans. JP 3-56.1 describes the Joint Air Operations Plan (JAOP) as the functional plan required to be prepared by the JFACC. Similarly, NDP 5 refers to a Naval Operations Plan to be prepared by a Naval Component Commander. By analogy, the JFLCC and the JFSOCC should prepare Joint Land Operations Plans and Joint Special Operations Plans respectively.

Flexible Campaign Plan

The campaign plan must be adaptable. The plan must have attainable goals and be adaptable to changing guidance or situations affecting the desired outcome. It should be continually reviewed and revised as required to remain current and viable. According to JP 1, Joint Warfare of the Armed
Forces of the United States, the campaign plan itself can be brief, though implementing orders will usually be longer.

Staff Responsibilities for Planning

A common approach to staff planning responsibilities calls for the commander to assign the future planning effort to the Long Range Planning Element (LRPE) of the J5, Chief, Plans Division. The LRPE coordinates with outside agencies and higher headquarters to develop future plans, and passes completed plans to the J3, Operations Officer, for synchronization, execution, and phase coordination. Many J3s organize their directorates into multiple sections, whereby, for instance, the operations planning element (OPE) assumes responsibility for the development of branches to current phases, and the current operations section staffs the Joint Operations Center (JOC). Frequently, the J3 will also head the Operations Planning Group (OPG) composed of the LRPE and the OPE. This division of labor permits the JFC to maintain focus on the whole operation of the joint force in time, space, and function. Accordingly, decisions can be made, staff action completed, and subordinates given warning orders as soon as possible. The deputy JFC may have a key role to play in focusing on the high-priority synchronization efforts of the joint staff, for example, in closing any seams among component concepts of operations through the JTCB or other mechanisms. This approach proved successful in operations in Somalia, Haiti, and Iraq.

Anticipation is singularly important in joint operations. Oriented principally toward the operational level of war the combatant commander and the joint force staff do not normally direct tactical operations. They must be anticipating potential future actions, then allow time for subordinate commanders to conduct their own detailed planning and coordination. In a practical sense, this means that combatant commanders must focus their decision-making efforts as far into the future as possible, but in most cases at least days or weeks in advance. Figure 11 below illustrates a conceptual division of labor depicting JFC battlestaff planning to focus on future events. In this example, the joint force J5 supervises the refinement of the planning of subsequent phases and looks out to posthostilities. COAs, opportunities, decision points, and branches and sequels for these phases are then briefed to the JFC to ensure actions are taken in a timely manner. The JFC gives guidance to the OPG and decides on courses of action. The deputy JFC oversees the
synchronization of planning efforts through required boards and functions, and ascertains that synchronization has been completed prior to execution.

### JFC BATTLESTAFF PLANNING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PHASE I</th>
<th>PHASE II</th>
<th>PHASE III</th>
<th>PHASE IV</th>
<th>PHASE V</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>J3</td>
<td></td>
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<td>J5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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- **OPE WRITE OPORD**
  - current phase branches
- **SYNCH OPNS**
- **TRACK MVTS**
- **REPORT/MONITOR**
- **LRPE REFINE NEXT PHASE**
  - COAs
  - opportunities
  - decision points
  - branches/sequels
- **BRIEF JPG FOR OPORD DEVELOPMENT**
- **LOOK OUT TO POSTHOSTILITIES**

Figure 11: JFC Battlestaff Planning

The J3 synchronizes current operations during execution, monitoring the situation and ensuring that the commander and particular staff sections are aware of the current situation. The full staff supports these actions by participating in the OPG, synchronization boards and centers and coordination cells. As the conditions are being set for transition to a new phase of the operation, the J5 planning results are handed over to the J3 planners. The J3 prepares implementing orders (FRAGOs) and decision support tools as well as tracking movements and preparing reports. Upon combatant commander decision to execute a branch plan or phase transition, the plans are turned over to the Joint Operations Center (JOC) for execution. Regardless of the planning organization the combatant commander decides to adopt for the execution, it is essential that the combatant commander maintain an element focused beyond the current battle. The tendency is for everyone to become so involved in the current battle so as to be unprepared for branch contingencies or phase transitions. The command must be prepared to exploit opportunities and minimize operational reversals. The best preparation is to anticipate these situations and plan for their execution.
Once the combatant commander has completed the theater campaign plan and the necessary OPORDs or OPLANs have been published, the focus turns to branch and sequel planning. Normally this type of planning will be conducted by a smaller planning cell. The entire theater OPG is assembled only under specific circumstances, such as wargaming a branch or sequel plan. This is in consideration of the duties and responsibilities of LNOs and other representatives during the Execution. The OPG Chief should continue to hold synchronization meetings during execution. These meetings serve several purposes. First, the OPG is brought up-to-date on the current situation. This will help in prioritization of the planning effort. Second, the JOC and component LNOs are made aware of the status of branch and sequel plans under development.

**Summary of Theater Campaign Planning**

Theater campaign plans implement national strategic direction and ensure the integration and support of the application of the elements of national power in a crisis. Since the theater commander must employ the forces assigned or allocated to the command, he must provide those forces with strategic direction and operational focus to achieve the military end state in support of the strategic end state for any given crisis. The most comprehensive direction is contained in a theater campaign plan. A theater campaign can be designed for a crisis in peacetime, conflict or war.

Theater campaign planning is accomplished within the Joint Operations Planning System to ensure the development and integration of a family of regional plans involving all the key players in a crisis. Normally, campaign plans are modified and completed during crisis action planning. Theater campaign plans defeat the enemy’s strategy and accomplish the end state required by the President and SECDEF. A theater campaign plan would normally incorporate a wide range of unified operations and forces including joint, single-service, multinational, interagency, United Nations, international, non-governmental and private voluntary perspectives.

Supporting plans are developed to complement and support the theater campaign plan in all of its dimensions. Supporting combatant commanders and subordinate commanders each develop their own plans following the direction of the theater campaign plan. All other forces involved in the
situation likewise develop their own plans in direct support or in parallel support of the theater campaign plan. A multinational coordination center can assist in this process and even translate the plans into the appropriate languages. Campaign plans have the following characteristics:

- Provide broad strategic concepts of operations and sustainment for achieving multinational, national, and theater strategic objectives.
- Provide an orderly schedule of decisions.
- Achieve unity of effort with air, land, sea, space, and special operations forces, in conjunction with interagency, multinational, non-governmental, private voluntary, or United Nations forces, as required.
- Incorporate the combatant commander’s strategic intent and operational focus.
- Identify any special forces or capabilities the enemy has in the area.
- Identify the enemy strategic and operational centers of gravity and provide guidance for defeating them.
- Identify the friendly strategic and operational centers of gravity and provide guidance to subordinates for protecting them.
- Sequence a series of related major joint operations conducted simultaneously in depth.
- Establish the organization of subordinate forces and designate command relationships.
- Serve as the basis for subordinate planning and clearly define what constitutes success, including conflict termination objectives and potential posthostilities activities.
- Provide strategic direction; operational focus; and major tasks, objectives, and concepts to subordinates.
- Provide direction for the employment of nuclear weapons as required by the National Command Authorities.
This pamphlet will be revised as necessary.

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