

Failure to Visualize and Describe Operations: The Evolution and Implementation of the Operational Framework

A Monograph

by

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Abstract

Failure to Visualize and Describe Operations: The Evolution and Implementation of the Operational Framework, by MAJ Daniel K. Bourke, US Army, 39 pages.

Emerging trends from division-level warfighting exercises between 2014 and 2016 highlight the incorrect use of the Army's operational framework to visualize and describe the conventional battlefield, hindering the application of combat power within the operations process. A study of the US Army's operating concepts post-Vietnam (AirLand Battle, Full Spectrum Operations, and Unified Land Operations) and the US Army's leader development model identifies how the education, training, and experience of field-grade officers at the division level have influenced their use of the operational framework. The cause for incorrect usage originates with the evolution and implementation of the operational framework. A generation of officers trained in the operating concept of Full Spectrum Operations has failed to incorporate the planning of the deep, close, and support areas framework that has emerged in the operating concept of Unified Land Operations. These officers have failed in their incorporation of the framework because they lack the education, training, and experience for the use of the framework.

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Acronyms

ALB	AirLand Battle
ADP	Army Doctrine Publication
ADRP	Army Doctrine Reference Publication
ATP	Army Techniques Publication
BOLC	Basic Officer Leaders Course
CCC	Captains Career Course
CGSC	Command and General Staff College
COIN	Counterinsurgency
CPT	Captain
CTC	Combat Training Center
FM	Field Manual
FSO	Full Spectrum Operations
GWOT	Global War on Terror
ILE	Intermediate Level Education
LT	Lieutenant
LTC	Lieutenant Colonel
MCTP	Mission Command Training Program
NBC	Nuclear, Biological, Chemical
PME	Professional Military Education
SSC	Senior Service College
ULO	Unified Land Operations
WFX	Warfighting Exercise
WWII	World War II
YG	Year Group

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Introduction

The days of state-on-state combat war may or may not be over.... I don't think those days are over. I wish they were.

—GEN Mark Milley, US Army Chief of Staff, 2015

In the age of warring non-state actors, revisionist nations remind America that state actors still pose a very real threat. Nations seeking to redefine the international balance of power have given rise to renewed aggression in Europe, the militarization of the South China Sea, and the perpetuation of conflict in the Middle East. The 2015 National Military Strategy presented five challenges facing the United States, concerning state and non-state actors: Russia, China, North Korea, Iran, and counter-terrorism. Of those five challenges, the United States must have the capacity to deal with two of the four named countries simultaneously, defeating one and denying the other, while maintaining its capability to conduct the counter-terrorism fight.¹ In short, the US Army needs to prepare to fight both non-state and state actors across the spectrum of warfare to support the National Military Strategy.

Due to the catastrophic consequence of losing a conventional fight versus an unconventional fight the US Army is now placing emphasis on the first. After more than a decade in Iraq and Afghanistan, fighting an unconventional war at the brigade level and below, the US Army is shifting its focus on readiness to conventional warfare. The US Army's shift from unconventional warfare to conventional warfare again creates the need for large unit formations capable of fighting at the tactical level. The division is the US Army's primary tactical

¹ Marcus Weisgerber, "US Army's New Chief Set Three Goals," *Defense One*, 2015, accessed April 27, 2017, <http://www.defenseone.com/business/2015/10/us-Army's-new-chief-sets-three-goals/122683/>; and *National Military Strategy of the United States of America 2015, The United States Military's Contribution to National Security* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 2015), 2-3.

warfighting headquarters, but its separation from the tactical level of war has occurred due to the enduring conflicts in Iraq and Afghanistan.²

Renewed focus on conventional warfare has brought the division's proficiency as a tactical level fighter into the spotlight. Gen. John N. Abrams believed, "A fully supported US Army division, was the destroyer of armies."³ Emerging trends from division-level warfighting exercises between 2014 and 2016 emphasizes deficiencies in division operations, the cause of many of these is the incorrect application of the US Army's operational framework to visualize and describe the conventional battlefield, therefore hindering the application of combat power within the operations process.⁴ This reoccurring trend poses the question, why are US Army divisions during warfighting exercises incorrectly using the operational framework when planning for a conventional conflict?

The cause for incorrect usage originates with the evolution and implementation of the operational framework. A generation of officers trained in the operating concept of Full Spectrum Operations (FSO) has failed to incorporate the planning of the deep, close, and support areas framework that has emerged in the operating concept of Unified Land Operations (ULO). These officers have failed in their incorporation of the framework because they lack the education, training, and experience for the use of the framework. This framework is time and space oriented, which aids in the visualization and description of combat power in a conventional conflict.

² Field Manual (FM) 3-94, *Theater Army, Corps, and Division Operations* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 2014), 6-1. During the enduring conflicts of Afghanistan and Iraq the division did not perform a tactical role.

³ Peter J. Schifferle, "Division-level Operations" (lecture, School of Advanced Military Studies, Fort Leavenworth, KS, July 8, 2016).

⁴ Mission Command Training Program (MCTP), *MCTP Trends in Decisive Action Warfighting Exercise* (Fort Leavenworth, KS: Mission Command Training Program, 2014), 7-29; MCTP, *MCTP FY15 Key Observations: Decisive Action Exercise* (Fort Leavenworth, KS: Mission Command Training Program, 2015), 1, 7, 42, 59; and MCTP, *MCTP Top Key Observations* (Fort Leavenworth, KS: Mission Command Training Program, 2016), 1-2.

Instead, the FSO generation is prone to applying the framework of decisive, shaping, and sustaining operations which is purpose-based; they neglect the time and space framework. This study consists of the three sections. These sections look at the evolution of the operational framework and its implementation as part of the leader development model resulting in the incorrect use of the framework at division warfighting exercises.

The first section answers the question, how has the evolution of the operational framework of the US Army's operational concept led to the FSO generation's neglect of the deep, close, and support areas framework in ULO? It uses Boyd's decision-making process as a lens to examine how decisions made to change the US Army's operating concepts of AirLand Battle, Full Spectrum Operations, and Unified Land Operations aided in the creation of a lapse in the evolution of the operational framework. It also reveals how a subsequent lack of supporting publications for the framework of deep, close, and support areas resulted in the neglect of the FSO generation to apply the framework.

FSO phased out the deep, close, and rear areas framework that originated in the AirLand Battle (ALB) operational concept, resulting in a lapse in the evolution of the operational framework. When deep, close, and rear areas reemerged in ULO, the FSO generation perceived it as new but the US Army placed no emphasis on it due to it being an old framework. This lack of emphasis has led to a shortfall in the production of a supporting publication; meanwhile, the FSO generation continued planning with decisive, shaping, and supporting operations because it was familiar.⁵

The second section addresses; how has the implementation of 2011, ULO operational framework impeded the FSO generation's education, training, and experience in planning with the framework? An examination of the implementation of the framework through the leader development model shows how the combination of the lack of supporting publications for the

⁵ The US Army did not view the framework as new, so it did not create supporting publications that would place emphasis on the framework.

operational framework of ULO, and the transition between ALB and FSO, has resulted in the FSO generation's unfamiliarity of the framework.

A gap in knowledge exists amongst instructors and practitioners who themselves do not possess the education, training, and experience with the deep, close, and support areas framework, hindering the learning of the framework in all three leader development domains. This was in part due to the instructors of the institutional and operational domains themselves being of the FSO generation, and in part due to the lack of supporting publications, for use in the self-development domain. Neither the ALB generation instructors affluent in experience about the deep, close, and rear areas framework or supporting publication existed to support its implementation.

The third section answers, what is the remedy for the lapse in the evolution of the operation framework and how can the implementation of future operating concepts overcome generational transitions? This section looks for a way ahead for the FSO generation, by reviewing the steps already underway, and those steps still required to support the education, training, and experience of the FSO generation and aid in future doctrinal transitions.

The most direct remedy for the lapse in the evolution of the operation framework is the production of publications supporting the use of deep, close, and support areas in planning. This is already occurring with the September 2016 publication of Army Techniques Publication (ATP) 3-94.2, *Deep Operations*, the October 2016 revision of the Army Doctrine Publication (ADP) 3-0, *Operations*, and the November 2016 revision of the Army Doctrine Reference Publication (ADRP) 3-0, *Operations*. The revisions need to continue with an updated Field Manual (FM) 6-0, *Commander and Staff Organization and Operations*, FM 3-0, *Operations*, and the creation of an ATP for Support Areas Operations. These publications place additional emphasis on the use of deep, close, and support areas in planning. Additionally, to overcome the lapse, a ULO generation of instructors need to replace the FSO generation instructors and a deliberate approach to the

implementation of operating concepts should occur through the phasing of new doctrine in the three leader development domains.

This study discerns how the operational framework evolves based on a series of decisions that modify and change the US Army's operating concept to meet perceived threats about the future of warfare. The recent decision of shifting the focus of the force from unconventional warfare to conventional warfare highlighted deficiencies in the divisions' ability to fight a conventional conflict. Division-level institutional instructors and operational practitioners are unprepared to support the reestablishment of the division as the primary tactical headquarters. The instructors and practitioners are unprepared due to the evolution and implementation of the operational framework. The evolution of capstone doctrine has traditionally refined the previous doctrine by building on existing knowledge as warfare evolves. During the doctrinal transition between ALB and FSO, a lapse in the evolution of the operational framework occurred. The lapse removed the operational framework of deep, close, and rear that was present in ALB from FSO.

Only now, with the introduction of ULO, has doctrine started to recover. ULO brought forward the operations framework from ALB. FSO phased out the operational framework of deep, close, and rear area that existed in ALB. The framework has returned with the introduction of ULO aiding the divisions' staffs ability to visualize and describe the conventional battlefield in time and space. However, implementation has suffered due to the time required for officers to cycle through the domains of the US Army's leader development model. The combination of how doctrine has evolved, combined with its implementation via the leader development model, has created a gap in knowledge slowing a generational transition leaving a generation scrambling to relearn an old framework to meet the traditional threat of a conventional fight.

Evolution of the Operational Framework

Army leaders are responsible for clearly articulating their concept of operations in time, space, purpose, and resources. They do this through an operational framework and associated vocabulary. An operational framework is a cognitive tool used to assist commanders and staffs in clearly visualizing and describing the application of combat power in time, space, purpose, and resources in the concept of operations.

—ADRP 3-0, *Unified Land Operations*, 2016

The US Army's operational framework has evolved since World War II (WWII) from a resource-based framework to a framework that accounts for time, space, purpose, and resources. The operating framework of WWII consisted of main effort and supporting efforts, and its function was to prioritize resources for units. Following Vietnam, the framework of deep, close, and rear areas appeared for the first time, as part of the operating concept that would become ALB. This framework built on the WWII resource-based framework by adding in the application of time and space. The two frameworks together accounted for time, space, and resources. At the turn of the 21st century, the operating concept of FSO contributed a third framework focused on purpose. This operating concept introduced the framework of decisive, shaping, and sustaining operations. All three frameworks together accounted for time, space, purpose and resources. However, a lapse in the evolution of the operational framework occurred following the transition from ALB to FSO.

The transition between operating concepts did not combine the three frameworks. Instead, it emphasized the newest purpose-based framework and marginalized the other two. The transition led to the removal of the time and space-based framework of deep, close, and rear areas in doctrine and left only the designation of the main effort, not supporting efforts of the resource-based framework. The doctrinal changes highlight the US Army's attempt to place emphasis on the importance of the purpose of an operation during planning and execution. The changes

drastically hindered the understanding of time, space, and resources. The failure of FSO to build on the frameworks of the two previous operating concepts and combine all three frameworks together marked a lapse in the evolution of the operational framework.

In 2011, the US Army attempted to remedy the lapse in the evolution of the operational framework with the introduction of ULO. The framework of deep, close, and rear areas reemerged in doctrine as deep, close, and security areas and the designation of supporting efforts rejoined the designation of the main effort. All three frameworks were now present, however, when first reintroduced, there was not a requirement to use all three frameworks in planning. The use of one or more of the frameworks was optional.⁶ The option opened the door for a generation of officers operating for the past decade under FSO to continue using the framework of decisive, shaping, and supporting operations. They neglected the framework of deep, close, and security areas due to their familiarity with decisive, shaping and sustaining operations.

The neglect of the framework did not go unnoticed because MCTP trends highlighted the incorrect use of the framework during warfighting exercises.⁷ The MCTP trends resulted in the revision of the operational framework. The release of both ADP 3-0, *Operations*, and ADRP 3-0, *Operations*, in November 2016 combines the three frameworks into one framework. The revision removed the option of choice when selecting one or more frameworks during planning forcing the use of all three frameworks.⁸ The revised operational framework of ULO represents a framework that has evolved from a tool used to allocate resources during WWII, to one that aids in the visualization and description of the modern battlefield in time, space, purpose, and resources. The revision of ULO corrects the doctrinal lapse in the evolution of the operational framework.

⁶ ADRP 3-0, *Unified Land Operations* (2012), 1-9.

⁷ MCTP, *MCTP Trends* (2014), 7-29; MCTP, *MCTP FY15 Key Observations* (2015), 1, 7, 42, 59; and MCTP, *MCTP Top Key Observations* (2016), 1-2.

⁸ Army Doctrine Reference Publication (ADRP) 3-0, *Unified Land Operations* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 2012), 1-9. The 2011 operational framework of deep, close, and security areas became deep, close and support areas.

The lapse occurred because, unlike ALB that created the framework of deep, close, and rear areas, FSO supported a shift away from preparing solely for a conventional conflict. The purpose of FSO was to enable Soldiers and their commanders to operate across a spectrum of warfare. This concept, when combined with the insurgencies in Afghanistan and Iraq, created an environment that enabled the US Army to narrow its focus to solely preparing for unconventional warfare.

John Boyd's decision making cycle serves as a lens for understanding the environments that have influenced decisions to change the US Army's operating concept and their associated operational frameworks. Boyd's concept consists of four phases: observe, orient, decide, and act.⁹ The US Army's understanding of its current environment and observations generated by conflicts within that environment, feeds its perception of what future conflicts may entail. The US Army feeds the development of this perception through the collection of data for major conflicts. The collection occurs via news reporting, study groups, intelligence apparatus, and military observers. Senior leaders draw conclusions about the future of warfare based on their syntheses of the data. Their perceptions serve to orient the direction of training and doctrine. The decision to change the US Army's operating concept is based on the current concept's ability to meet the challenges presented by the perceived threat of the future. The US Army acted to develop the operating concept of ALB because it believed its current construct at that time was not adequate to meet the perceived threat of a conventional conflict. This concept created the time and space-based framework. The development of FSO focused on incorporating the challenge of an unconventional threat creating the purpose-based framework, and ULO represents the combined threat of both conventional and unconventional warfare resulting in the merging of operational frameworks.

⁹ Lawrence Freedman, *Strategy: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2013), 196.

AirLand Battle

The decision to create the operating concept of ALB originates with the US Army's observation of the 1973 Arab-Israeli War. Approximately six months after the withdrawal of the last US troops from South Vietnam, the 1973 Arab-Israeli War took center stage in global affairs. Observations of the conventional style fight between the peer competitors of Egypt and Israeli provided the US Army an example of what future conflicts would resemble. Observations from the Arab-Israeli conflict demonstrated the need for quick battlefield victories, air defense in depth, combined arms maneuver, and nuclear, biological, chemical (NBC) protection.¹⁰

The need for quick battlefield victories arose from the resolve displayed by politicians during this short twenty-day war to act quickly against any conflict that had the potential to escalate into a nuclear war. To quickly create a favorable position for US diplomatic negotiations in future conflicts, the US Army would require the capability to mass its forces against an enemy's main force quickly defeating him. To achieve this end, the US Army required a superior intelligence collection and analysis system that would aid frontline commanders in identifying the enemy force disposition and supporting echelons.¹¹

Next, the Egyptian air defense systems provided proof that the US Army would not enjoy the same level of close-air-support experienced in Vietnam. The US Army would need the capability to provide a protective bubble of anti-aircraft fire supporting advancing troops.¹²

¹⁰ Paul H. Herbert, *Leavenworth Papers No. 16: Deciding What Has to Be Done: General William E. DePuy and the 1976 Edition of FM 100-5, Operations* (Fort Leavenworth, KS: Combat Studies Institute, 1979), 31-33; George W. Gawrych, *Leavenworth Papers No. 21: The 1973 Arab-Israeli War: The Albatross of Decisive Victory* (Fort Leavenworth, KS: Combat Studies Institute, 1996), 81; and William E. DePuy, *Select Papers of General William E. DePuy: First Commander, US Army Training and Doctrine Command, 1 July 1973*, compiled by Richard M. Swain, edited by Donald L. Gilmore and Carolyn D. Conway (Fort Leavenworth, KS: Combat Studies Institute, 1995), 165-66.

¹¹ Herbert, *Leavenworth Papers No. 16*, 31; and Field Manual (FM) 100-5, *Operations* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1976), 7-1, 7-2.

¹² Herbert, *Leavenworth Papers No. 16*, 31; FM 100-5, *Operations* (1976), 2-18, 2-19; and DePuy, *Select Papers of General William E. DePuy*, 70.

Additionally, the US Army carried over lessons learned in WWII about infantry and armor operating in support of one another. The Israeli armored force, operating independently of the infantry, proved unable to overcome the Egyptian anti-tank missiles. Israeli tanks could only advance when supported by infantry further illustrating the need for mechanized infantry forces capable of maintaining the same rates of movement as tanks.¹³

Lastly, a third world combatant, armed by the Soviet Union, was ready to defend against NBC attacks. Their vehicles possessed the capability to operate closed hatch in contaminated areas, and they fielded decontamination kits.¹⁴ The Egyptian NBC preparation combined with new air defense and anti-tank missile capabilities represented the philosophy of modern Soviet conventional warfare.

Arab-Israeli War served to orient the US Army away from a decade of unconventional warfare in Vietnam and pivot towards a European threat posed by the Soviet Union or a proxy force armed with modern weaponry. The US Army viewed the staggering losses of tanks, vehicles, guns, and aircraft during the Arab-Israeli War as evidence of an increase in lethality of modern warfare. The focus of the US Army soon oriented on a European theater battle, one where the United States would have to fight the Soviet Union outnumbered. The shift achieved twofold benefits because the training for a pending conflict with the Soviet Union would also prepare the US Army for battle against any third world country using modernized equipment acquire from the Soviet Union. The threat of war, outnumbered by a peer competitor in Europe, led the US Army leadership to look for how best to protect US forces against the increased lethality of modern weapons while seeking the means to maximize their potential.¹⁵

¹³ Herbert, *Leavenworth Papers No. 16*, 31; FM 100-5, *Operations* (1976), 2-18, 2-19; and DePuy, *Select Papers of General William E. DePuy*, 166.

¹⁴ Herbert, *Leavenworth Papers No. 16*, 33; FM 100-5, *Operations* (1976), 11-1, 11-3; and DePuy, *Select Papers of General William E. DePuy*, 72.

¹⁵ Herbert, *Leavenworth Papers No. 16*, 31; FM 100-5, *Operations* (1976), 3-1, 3-4; and DePuy, *Select Papers of General William E. DePuy*, 303.

The new threat perception of the US Army produced a decision from within to create an operating concept that would meet the challenges of modern conventional warfare. The US Army acted through its newly formed Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC), led by Gen. William E. DePuy, to create an operating concept that described “How to Fight,” a modern conventional war against the Soviet Union in Europe.¹⁶ The new operating concept Active Defense and later ALB evolved over a decade, in a series of FM 100-5, *Operations*, manuals published in 1976, 1982, and 1986.

The operating concept focused on the application of the tenets of ALB and the elements of combat power. The tenets of ALB were initiative, depth, agility and synchronization.¹⁷ The elements of combat power were maneuver, firepower, protection, and leadership.¹⁸ The application of the tenets and the elements of combat power occurred within the operational framework of deep, close, and rear areas. This framework oriented on geographical space and time allowing commanders to visualize the allocation of forces and capabilities in depth throughout the battlefield and describe it in operational plans, see figure 1. The existing framework from WWII continued to determine prioritization of resources. With the two frameworks, combined, they accounted for tactical action in time, space, and resources. This operating concept and framework endured for over twenty-five years.

¹⁶ Richard M. Swain, “Filling the Void: Operational Art and the US Army,” in *Operational Art: Developments in the Theories of War*, ed. B. J. C. McKercher and Michael Hennessy (Westport, CT: Praeger, 1996), 162; and FM 100-5, *Operations* (1976), 3-1.

¹⁷ Tenets of AirLand Battle defined: initiative is rapid, powerful blows that would knock the enemy off balance, depth referred to the capability of striking the enemy forces and supporting echelons prior to their massing, agility was flexibility determined by an organization’s structure, equipment, and systems, and synchronization pertained to fire and maneuver amongst the Army’s branches and its integration with the US Air Force; Field Manual (FM) 100-5, *Operations* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1982), 2-1, 2-2, 2-3.

¹⁸ FM 100-5, *Operations* (1982), 2-4, 2-5.

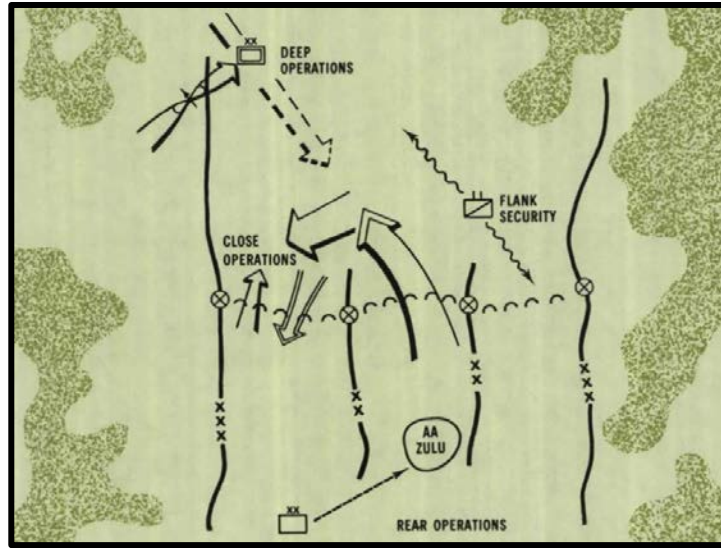


Figure 1. Deep, Close, Rear Framework. Field Manual (FM) 100-5, *Operations* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1982), 107.

Full Spectrum Operations

The post-Vietnam era ended with the successful application of ALB during the First Gulf War, 1990-1991. Following the Gulf War, the United States observed an emergence of unconventional warfare, in the form of stability operations in areas of the world like Somalia, Haiti, Bosnia, and Kosovo. Observations from these conflicts highlighted the increasing involvement of US Soldiers in non-combat operations facing unique and sometimes intense situations for which they had no training. This presented a need for the development of a more mature stability doctrine for training Soldiers.¹⁹ The challenges presented by unconventional conflicts produced a notable change in the US Army's operating concept and how the US Army viewed the future of warfare.

¹⁹ Max G. Manwarning, "Peace and Stability Lessons from Bosnia," *Parameters* 28, no. 4 (Winter 1998): 29; Walter E. Kretchik, Robert F. Baumann, and John T. Fishel, *A Concise History of the US Army in Operation Uphold Democracy* (Fort Leavenworth, KS: Combat Studies Institute, 1998), 135; US Army Center of Military History, *United States Forces, Somalia: After Action Report* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 2003), 244-47; and Cody R. Phillips, *Operation Joint Guardian: The US Army in Kosovo* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 2007), 53.

In a post-Cold War era, following the fall of the Soviet Union, the United States no longer faced an air and land battle in Europe against a peer competitor. The major threat to the United States in which to orient was the global instability among third world nations. The operational concept of fighting a peer competitor was no longer applicable to the possibility of the various stability operations facing the United States.

At the turn of the 21st century, Chief of Staff of the US Army Gen. Eric Shinseki made the decision to elevate the importance of stability operations to equal that of the offense and defense. This change reflected the US Army's most recent experiences with combat. The change also reflected Shinseki's experiences in Vietnam and Bosnia, neither being conventional fights. The US Army acted by creating the new operating concept of FSO. The 2001 publication of FM 3-0, *Operations* captured the new concept. FM 3-0 replaced the long-standing FM 100-5 series. The reprioritization of stability operations focused the operations process on decisive action, defining it as the synchronization of offense, defense, and stability operations in time, space, and purpose.²⁰

Decisive action placed emphasis on the purpose of an operation which led to the introduction of the decisive, shaping and sustaining operational framework.²¹ The framework supported the emphasis placed on purpose by nesting the purposes of shaping and sustaining operations with that of the decisive operation. The identification of shaping operations made the designation of supporting efforts under the WWII era framework seemingly irrelevant and led to its removal from doctrine. However, so that the identification of the importance of one unit over another within an operation could continue, the designation of main effort remained. The first

²⁰ Field Manual (FM) 3-0, *Operations* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 2008), 3-1.

²¹ Field Manual (FM) 3-0, *Operations* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 2001), 4-22.

version of FSO retained the deep, close, and rear areas framework and this is the version in which the US Army went to war with at the start of the Global War on Terror (GWOT).

The new operating concept published in June 2001, just before the onset of the GWOT, did not prepare the force for the woes of impending insurgencies. The US Army that defeated the conventional forces in Iraq was still operating under the operational concept of ALB and using its framework for planning. Following the invasions of Afghanistan and Iraq, new observations about the type of warfare facing the force emerged, and the orientation of training and doctrine for the whole of the force changed in support. The US Army, now facing an unconventional conflict for the foreseeable future, decided to shape itself to meet that operational challenge at the detriment of other operations within the spectrum of war.

The US Army acted by adjusting its supporting doctrine and training to meet the challenges presented by an unconventional war. In 2005, to support COIN training, the Iraq Assistance Group established the Phoenix Academy in Taji, Iraq, and Combat Training Centers adopted insurgency-focused training scenarios.²² The following year brought a revised COIN manual FM 3-24, *Counterinsurgency*, and the Asymmetric Warfare Group was aiding units in establishing procedures for fighting an insurgency.²³ This was also when the US Army rescinded the operational framework of deep, close, and rear areas with the 2008 release of FM 3-0, *Operations*.²⁴ Gains were not as noticeable against the enemy in Afghanistan and Iraq. Not like in a conventional conflict where the seizing of terrain and the destruction of enemy forces are more visible indicators of success. The purpose of the mission became the centering point for

²² Nancy Montgomery, "Counter-insurgency Training now at Heart of Iraq Effort," *Stars and Stripes*, February 15, 2006, accessed March 23, 2017, <http://www.stripes.com/news/counter-insurgency-training-now-at-heart-of-iraq-effort-1.449958#.WNQsamd1rrd>; and Andrew Feickert, *Does the Army Need a Full-Spectrum Force or Specialized Units?: Background and Issues for Congress*, Congressional Research Service, January 2008, 5-7.

²³ "AWG's History," Asymmetric Warfare Group, last modified January 18, 2017, accessed March 23, 2017, <http://www.awg.army.mil/>.

²⁴ FM 3-0, *Operations* (2008), D-4.

operations. A framework supporting a conventional conflict did not seem relevant. This is the environment that enabled the US Army to narrow its focus to solely preparing for unconventional warfare.

Unified Land Operations

As the United States enters a post-GWOT era, examples of emerging threats of conventional warfare like those of the post-Vietnam era are influencing doctrinal change. Observations of the second Lebanon-Israeli War, Russian aggression in the Ukraine, and China's Asian sphere of influence policy have shifted the focus of US Army Leaders back to the threat of a conventional war with a near-peer competitor. The shift in focus has resulted in the publication of the most current operating concept ULO.

Observations from the 2006 Lebanon-Israeli War, the annexation of Crimea by Russia, the continued proxy war waged in Ukraine, and China's militarization of the South China Sea has created a catalyst for change in the US Army's operating concept. In 2008, while the US troop surge in Iraq was bearing its first signs of promise and Afghanistan remained on the backburner, the Winograd Commission's final report materialized.²⁵ The report examined the 2006 Lebanon-Israeli War. Again, much like the 1973 Arabic-Israeli war an Israeli conflict occurring during the United States involvement in an insurgency, produced an example of what may be the future of warfare.

The conflict presented an example of hybrid warfare which borders both unconventional and conventional types of warfare.²⁶ Hezbollah halted the Israeli war machine with a combination

²⁵ The Winograd Commission is an Israeli government appointed report of inquiry, led by Israeli judge Eliyahu Winograd. The report investigates the 2006 Lebanon War and produced lessons learned.

²⁶ Hybrid warfare is an approach that employs a combination of different types of force from across the spectrum of warfare (i.e., terrorism, guerrilla, conventional, information and Cyber operations). Lawrence Freedman, "Ukraine and the Art of Limited War," *Survival* 56, no. 6 (2014): 7-38, accessed March 18, 2017, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00396338.2014.985432>; and Frank G. Hoffman, "Hybrid Warfare and Challenges," *Joint Forces Quarterly*, no. 52 (1st Quarter 2009): 34-39, accessed March 09, 2017, <http://ndupress.ndu.edu/portals/68/Documents/jfq/jfq-52.pdf>.

of the two types of warfare. Their application of irregular forces and conventional forces highlighted Israeli shortcoming in the conventional fight. The Israeli defense force since the first Intifada transitioned primarily to a policing force. They now lacked the proficiency with conventional capabilities of movement and maneuver.²⁷ More recently, Russian aggression in Eastern Europe required the United States to increase its capability to conduct conventional warfare as a deterrent. Russia has demonstrated in Ukraine, its modern weaponry, fighting platforms, and cyber capabilities.²⁸ China has produced another near-peer problem set. China attempts to place itself in a position of greater advantage, prior to the onset of an official declaration of war. This is through their anti-access/area denial, submarine basing, Sparse Island construction, and creation of an Asian economic apparatus meant to parallel Western organizations like the World Bank. For the first time since the end of the Cold War, the United States is facing the need to prepare for conflict with a near-peer competitor.

The US Army orientation is on three competing threats that have emerged in the post-GWOT era. The first draws on the Lebanon-Israeli War or a proxy war with Russia producing both an unconventional and conventional fight. Next, the United States faces the familiar threat of a European theater battle, one where the US Army would fight against a modernized Russia. Lastly, China has created the need for a capability of joint expeditionary entry into an anti-access/area denial environment. The three threats, which have emerged over a span of eight to ten years and are influencing decisions about the operational concept.

²⁷ Stephen Biddle and Jeffrey A. Friedman, *The 2006 Lebanon Campaign and the Future of Warfare: Implications for Army and Defense Policy* (Carlisle Barracks, PA: Strategic Studies Institute, 2008), 5, 35-45; and Avi Kober, "The Israel Defense forces in the Second Lebanon War: Why the Poor Performance?" *Journal of Strategic Studies* 31, no. 1 (February 2008): 3-40, accessed March 11, 2017, <http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/pdf/10.1080/01402390701785211?needAccess=true>.

²⁸ Patrick Tucker, "How the Pentagon is Preparing for a Tank War with Russia," *Defense One*, 2016, accessed May 19, 2016, <http://cdn.defenseone.com/defenseone/interstitial.html?v=2.1.1&rf=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.defenseone.com%2Ftechnology%2F2016%2F05%2Fhow-pentagon-preparing-tank-war-russia%2F128460%2F>.

The current US Army leadership has made the decision to combine the doctrine of ALB and FSO, creating the newest operating concept, ULO, in attempt to meet the conventional and unconventional threats. Additionally, pending refinements to ULO address expeditionary entry into contested areas and lays the ground work for guiding future force moderation. The 2011 version of ULO maintained the equality amongst offense, defense, and stability operations developed under FSO, but brought forwards the battlefield framework of deep, close, and security (formerly known as rear). However, there was no supporting publications created to place emphasis on the framework and no requirement in doctrine to use the framework. The 2016's ULO has further refined the battlefield framework of deep, close, and security areas to deep close, and support areas. This latest version places further emphasis on the operational framework by no longer presenting a list of menu options of frameworks to choose one or more from. This version focuses on capturing time, space, purpose and resources by incorporating all three frameworks into an operation.

The three operational frameworks have merged into one that consist of four components. First, the assigned area of operations which subdivides into the second, consisting of deep, close and support areas and describes the physical arrangement of forces in time and space. Third, within the subdivided areas commanders conduct decisive, shaping, and sustaining operations articulating operations in terms of purpose. Fourth, is the use of main effort and supporting efforts to designate the prioritization of resources. These four parts combined under ULO now captures the planning requirements of time, space, purpose, and resources.

Analysis

The decisions associated with changing operating concepts, based on threat perception, created a lapse in the evolution of the operational framework. The reemergence of the deep, close, and support areas framework in the 2011 publication of ULO, corresponded with the reemergence of the conventional threat. This was an attempt to correct the lapse in evolution of the operational

framework. However, the US Army did not view the framework as new, so it did not create supporting publications that would place emphasis on the framework. This lack of emphasis, led the FSO generation's neglect of the framework. The combination of all three operational frameworks merging into one, under the 2016 publication of ULO, represents an attempt by the US Army to place emphasis on the neglected framework. However, despite the adjustments made to the operational framework, the implementation is slow.

Implementation of the Operational Framework

Doctrine is a somewhat circular enterprise. It must inform and instruct the Army on how to operate, but it is not really doctrine unless it also expresses the manner in which the Army actually goes about its business. In short, to be doctrine it must “take”.

—GEN William E. DePuy, “FM 100-5 Revisited,” 1980

The FSO generation in 2017, is still undergoing a generational transition to ULO. The cornerstone of the transition is the shift in focus from unconventional to conventional warfare. Doctrine has shepherded in new and revised concepts like unified action, mission command, and operational framework to aid the force in transition. However, due to the neglect of the operational framework deep, close, and security areas that reemerged in the doctrine of 2011, the division-level instructors and practitioners of 2017, lack the education, training, and experience in the use of the framework. An examination of field-grade officers by cohort year group, intermediate level education (ILE), operational training and experience reveals an unconventional warfare cadre filling the slots of ILE instructors and the divisions' staff.²⁹ As the youngest officers of the FSO generation are becoming field-grade officers, they find themselves receiving education and training from officers who like themselves have a similar background of

²⁹ An officer's year group is based on the fiscal year that he commissioned as a second lieutenant per, Department of the Army Pamphlet (DA PAM) 600-3, *Commissioned Officer Professional Development and Career Management* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 2014), 12.

experience under the doctrine of FSO and in unconventional warfare. This is impeding the transition of younger officers from FSO to ULO slowing the generational transition between operating concepts and hindering the proper use of the operational framework during division warfighting exercises.

The operational framework of deep, close, and security areas was reestablished in doctrine at the end of 2011. Six years later the US Army still has ILE instructors and division-level staff officers that are inexperienced in the use of the framework. Figure 2 illustrates the professional military education (PME) and operational training and experiences that define the unconventional warfare cadre who are serving as instructors and practitioners in 2017. The examples of Lieutenant Colonel John Fuller, a cohort year group 1996 officer, and Lieutenant Colonel John Smith, a cohort year group 1999 officer, highlight the standard career progression for two primary position on a division's coordinating staff. Fuller represents the division operations officer (G3) and Smith represents the division intelligence officer (G2). Additionally, the example of Lieutenant Colonel John Oliver, a cohort year group 1999 officer, represents an ILE instructor. All three are FSO generation officers and represent the oldest generational members. Their ILE attendance occurred during the doctrinal era of FSO and much of their operational training and experience has focused on the unconventional conflicts in Iraq and Afghanistan.³⁰ The example of Major John Doe, a cohort year group officer 2006, represents the 2017 ILE graduate and the younger side of the FSO generation.

³⁰ All three would possess some operational training at the brigade and below in the form of a Decisive Action Training Exercise (DATE) rotation and Fuller has completed commanded a battalion.

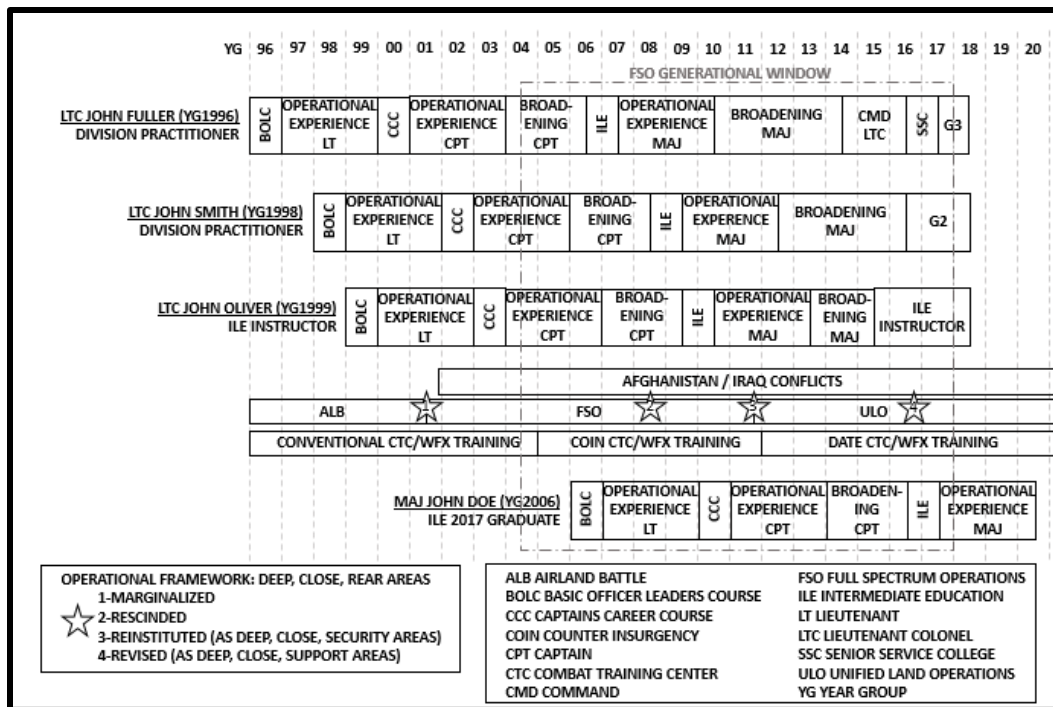


Figure 2. FSO Generation's Professional Development Timeline. *Source:* Author.

The youngest FSO officers are the most effected during the generational transition. They are the newest field-grade officers and consist of three different officer cohort year groups that span 2005 to 2007. The first is the 2005 majors who complete ILE, Command and General Staff College (CGSC) in 2016 and moved to fill division-level staff positions throughout the US Army and into 2017. Next, the 2006 officers, represented above by Doe, who graduated CGSC in mid-2017. Leaving the last year group as the 2007, who attend CGSC 2017-2018. These three year groups are important because as new ILE graduates they provide the manpower, yearly, for non-primary division-level staff positions, where incorrect application of the operational framework is occurring. The intent of the intermediate level education provided by CGSC is to prepare new field-grades to face the challenges of their next assignment.

The challenges facing these year groups are twofold. The first challenge is understanding the need to transition from a purpose-based framework, which supported the unconventional warfare of Iraq and Afghanistan and fought at a brigade level and below, and incorporating an operational framework that supports fighting at the division or corps level. The second is how to

obtain the education and training to plan at the division or corps level with the framework of ULO so that they can acquire the experience to educate and train others in the future.

The US Army educates, trains, and acquires experience using the leader development model (see Figure 3). The model consists of three domains: institutional, operational, and self-development. Leaders throughout their career transition between these domains gaining education, training and experience. An individual is only able to occupy two of the domains simultaneously, and never the institutional and operational domains at the same time. The overlapping domain is the self-development domain and by its nature it has limits. Of the three learning methods, education occurs primarily in the institutional domain, while training occurs primarily in the operational domain, with experience gained throughout.³¹

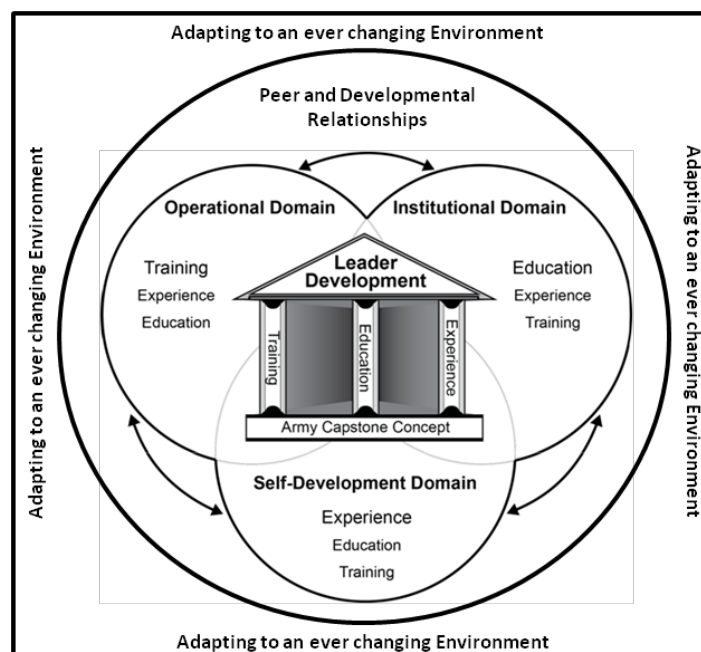


Figure 3. Leader Development Strategy, 2013. US Army Combined Arms Center, last modified November 26, 2016, accessed March 25, 2017, <http://usacac.army.mil/core-functions/leader-development>.

³¹ “Leader Development Strategy, 2013,” US Army Combined Arms Center, last modified November 26, 2016, accessed March 25, 2017, <http://usacac.army.mil/core-functions/leader-development>; and DA PAM 600-3, *Commissioned Officer Professional Development and Career Management* (2014), 5.

The successful implementation of the operational framework requires an individual like Doe to transition between the two primary domains of the leader development model: institutional and operational. The transition between the two primary domains allows the individual to learn the framework as a student in the institutional domain, later applying that framework in the operational domain as a practitioner and accumulating experience from both domains.³²

The inability to occupy the two primary domains simultaneously assures that the development of Doe during a time of doctrinal transition is by an instructor or practitioner who himself has not yet had training or education in both primary domains with the framework. The leader development model attempts to account for doctrinal transitions with the self-development domain.³³ Instructors like Oliver and practitioners like Fuller and Smith rely on self-study, until they cycled both primary domains, under the new doctrine. However, the lapse in the evolution of the operational framework impeded the implementation of the deep, close, security areas framework beginning in 2011, and has caused a lack of emphasis for the framework, with no production of a supporting publication.

Institutional Domain

The instructor qualification window measures the gap in experience between FSO instructors and ULO doctrine. The instructor's qualification to act as educators exceeds the proponent school instructor program, and spans the accumulated experience from both the

³² DA PAM 600-3, *Commissioned Officer Professional Development and Career Management* (2014), 16.

³³ "Leader Development Strategy, 2013," US Army Combined Arms Center, last modified November 26, 2016, accessed March 25, 2017, <http://usacac.army.mil/core-functions/leader-development>; and DA PAM 600-3, *Commissioned Officer Professional Development and Career Management* (2014), 5.

institutional and operational domains.³⁴ The merit of their qualification is based on the education, training, and experience accrued as a Major during their own intermediate level professional education, followed by a key developmental assignment as a major within their field of expertise. This cycle of qualifying instructors also pertains to the Basic Officer Leaders Course and Captains Career Course. Therefore, the qualification of an instructor is based on successfully cycling through both primary domains at the rank in which the person is instructing. The instructor qualification window is the time required to complete the cycle, see figure 4.

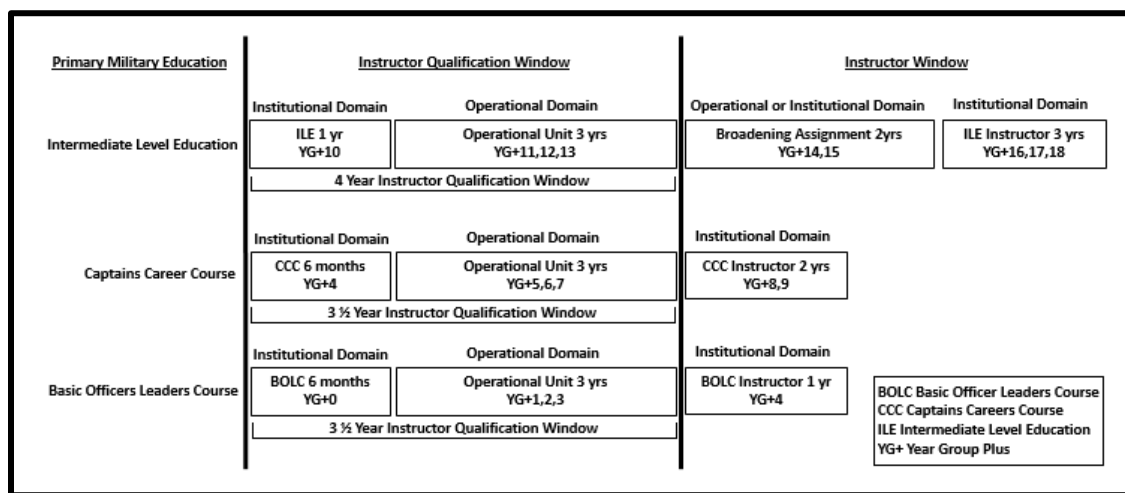


Figure 4. The Instructor Qualification Window. *Source:* Author.

Army schools and training centers make up the institutional domain.³⁵ Within the institutional domain, CGSC and MCTP is the primary means for educating and training new

³⁴ Training and Doctrine Command Regulation (TRADOC Regulation) 350-70, *Army Learning Policy and Systems* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 2011), 89. This document determines that the proponent for corresponding courses within The Army School System (TASS) will provide foundational certification to PME instructors.

³⁵ “Leader Development Strategy, 2013,” US Army Combined Arms Center, last modified November 26, 2016, accessed March 25, 2017, <http://usacac.army.mil/core-functions/leader-development>; and DA PAM 600-3, *Commissioned Officer Professional Development and Career Management* (2014), 5. The institutional domain is defined differently in each document, but both documents agree that the institutional domain consist of Army Schools and Training Centers. The main body text represents DA PAM 600-3 because it is the more recent of the two publications.

field-grade officers about division and corps-level operations.³⁶ MCTP however supports the training of leaders residing in the operational domain and CGSC focuses on the education of those in the institutional domain. The primary instructors for CGSC are newly promoted lieutenant colonels who have recently completed a two to three year broadening assignment and a one to two year key developmental assignment as majors at the battalion and brigade in the operational domain. They serve as instructors for three years between their 17th and 19th years of commissioned service (also known as year group plus 16, 17, and 18). CGSC instructors are responsible for educating the US Army's newest field-grade officers. The attendees of CGSC are newly promoted majors in their eleventh year of service.

Lieutenant Colonel John Oliver's background as a year group 1999 officer and other ILE instructors like him consist of experience with unconventional war and the US Army's operating concept of FSO. The instructors for CGSC for 2016-2018 are primarily lieutenant colonels ranging in year group from 1997 to 2001. The 2005 officers received instruction by 1997, 1998, and 1999 officers. The 2006 officers like Doe are receiving instruction from 1998, 1999, and 2000 officers. The 2007 officers will receive instruction by 1999, 2000, 2001 officers. Instructors in all five year groups attended their captains career course and intermediate level education under the US Army's operating concept of FSO. The last ILE instructor at CGSC trained under the preceding conventional warfare operating concept of ALB was a year group 1991 officer in 2009. Not until 2020, will all the ILE instructors once again possess formal training under a conventional focused operating concept, ULO.

Operational Domain

The measure in the gap of experience between FSO practitioners and ULO doctrine is by the type of operating concept taught during the practitioner's ILE and trained on during their

³⁶ DA PAM 600-3, *Commissioned Officer Professional Development and Career Management* (2014), 7.

operational experience. In the operational domain, the primary practitioners at the division-level, are the principals of the coordinating staff for a division. The coordinating staff consist of the chief of staff, his assistant chiefs of staff for personnel (G-1), intelligence (G-2), operations (G-3), logistics (G-4), plans (G-5) , signal (G-6), financial management (G-8), civil affairs operations (G-9), chief of fires, chief of protection, and chief of sustainment.³⁷ The principal G-1, G-2, G-6 and G-8 are selected by a central selection list and are lieutenant colonels serving in 19th and 20th years of service. The principals G-3, G-4, G-5, G-9, and Chief of Fires are typically former battalion commanders, serving around their 22nd year of service, with the G-4 dual hatted as the chief of sustainment. The chief of protection is a lieutenant colonel, serving in his 19th and 20th years of service. The Chief of Staff is a former brigade commander, serving in his 26th and 27th years of service.³⁸ These leaders are responsible for the development and training of new division-level staff officers like Doe.³⁹

New officers each year arrive from CGSC to fill the lower ranks of the division staff. CGSC students generally transition from the institutional domain to the operational domain to fill division-level staff positions following graduation. This transition highlights the leader development model at work. The principals of the coordinating staff, like the instructors of the institutional domain, receive accreditation through their education, training, and experience gain as they cycle through domains. They receive additional accreditation, as a central selection list has screened almost all the principals for their current position or their previous position. The cohort year group creates uniformity amongst officers as they progress through their career but

³⁷ FM 3-94, *Theater Army, Corps, and Division Operations* (2014), 1-12 and 6-14; and Field Manual (FM) 6-0, *Commander and Staff Organization and Operations* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 2014), 2-6.

³⁸ DA PAM 600-3, *Commissioned Officer Professional Development and Career Management* (2014), 55-442.

³⁹ Army Doctrine Reference Publication (ADRP) 6-22, *Army Leadership* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 2012), 7-9.

some will deviate schooling and positions by one to two years due to various assignment opportunities and early promotion in rank.

The coordinating staff primaries and chief of staff for a division for 2016-2018 range in year group from 1990 to 2000. They are primarily products of unconventional war, and the US Army's operating concept of FSO. The principal staff G-1, G-2, G-6, and G-8 are lieutenant colonels sharing the same timeline as Smith. The principal staff G-3, G-4, G-5, G-9, and Chief of Fires share typically the same timeline as Fuller. The 2005 officers fall under a division coordinating staff ranging in year groups of 1990 to 1998. The 2006 officers like Doe will fall 1991 to 1999. The 2007 officer will fall under 1992-2000.

		Operational Domain Training Pre-ILE (Captain)								Institutional Domain Education ILE			Operational Domain Training Post-ILE (Major)								Primary Experience Division Level
		Operating Concept	Framework Deep, Close Rear Areas Present in Doctrine	Framework Decisive, Shaping, Sustaining Operations Present in Doctrine	Conventional CTC/WFX Training	COIN CTC/WFX Training	Iraq/Afghanistan Pre-Insurgency	Iraq/Afghanistan Post-Insurgency	Operating Concept	Doctrine consist of Operational Framework Deep, Close Rear Areas	Doctrine consist of Operational Framework Decisive, Shaping, Sustaining Operations	Operating Concept	Framework Deep, Close Rear Areas Present in Doctrine	Framework Decisive, Shaping, Sustaining Operations Present in Doctrine	DATE CTC/WFX Training	COIN CTC/WFX Training	Iraq/Afghanistan Pre-Insurgency	Iraq/Afghanistan Post-Insurgency			
Division Practitioners Coordinating Staff 2016-2018		Year Group																			
Chief of Staff YG 1990-1993	1990	ALB	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	ALB	Y	N	FSO	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Conventional/ Unconventional		
	1991	ALB	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	ALB	Y	N	FSO	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N			
	1992	ALB	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	FSO	Y	Y	FSO	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N			
	1993	ALB	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	FSO	Y	Y	FSO	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N			
G3/G4/G5/G9 & Chief of Fires YG 1995-1997	1994	ALB	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	FSO	Y	Y	FSO	Y	Y	N	Y	N	Y	Unconventional		
	1995	FSO	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	N	FSO	Y	Y	FSO	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y			
	1996	FSO	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	FSO	Y	Y	FSO	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y			
	1997	FSO	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	FSO	Y	Y	FSO	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y			
G1/G2/G6/G8 & Chief of Protection YG 1997-2000	1998	FSO	Y	Y	N	Y	N	Y	FSO	N	Y	FSO	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Unconventional		
	1999	FSO	Y	Y	N	Y	N	Y	FSO	N	Y	FSO	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Y			
	2000	FSO	Y	Y	N	Y	N	Y	FSO	N	Y	FSO	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Y			
				Conventional Focus		Unconventional Focus															

Figure 5. 2016-2018 Division Staff's Primary Experience. *Source:* Author.

All the principals of the coordinating staff's year groups, except for year groups 1990 and 1991 chiefs of staff for the 2005 and 2006 year group officers, attended their intermediate level education under the US Army's operating concept of FSO. The last division staff under the preceding conventional warfare operating concept of ALB was in 2009. Not until 2023, will all the coordinating staff principals once again possess education, training, and experience under a conventional focused operating concept, ULO.

Self-Development Domain

Instructors and Practitioners during periods of doctrinal change bridge gaps in education, training, and experience with self-development. Self-study and training make up the self-development domain and supports lifelong learning within the profession of arms, regardless of the occupation of the primary domain.⁴⁰ However, when doctrinal transitions occur, self-development cannot bridge gaps in knowledge if there is a lack of emphasis and supporting publications.

With the publication of ULO in 2011, all CGSC instructors at the time had cycled through both institutional and operational domains during the previous era of unconventional warfare operating under FSO, the same is true for the divisions' staffs. The 2011 transition of operating concepts had institutional instructors and operational practitioners educating and training new majors, at both CGSC and on division staff without supporting publications for the deep, close, and security areas framework.

Analysis

The leader development model as of 2017 has failed to implement the 2011 operational framework of ULO, due to the lack of emphasis placed on the framework. This failure has effected the FSO generation's education, training, and experience in planning with the operational framework of deep, close, and security areas. This failure has occurred because the instructors and practitioners in the institutional and operational domains do not, themselves, possess the education, training, and experience with the framework. Leaders trained in the operational framework under ALB are no longer serving as instructors in the institutional domain, and are no

⁴⁰ DA PAM 600-3, *Commissioned Officer Professional Development and Career Management* (2014), 6; and "Leader Development Strategy," US Army Combined Arms Center, last modified November 26, 2016, accessed March 25, 2017, <http://usacac.army.mil/core-functions/leader-development>.

longer present as practitioners in the operational domain. Additionally, the FSO generation now filling the instructor and practitioner positions like Fuller, Smith, and Oliver have lacked the ability to learn the framework on their own, due to the lack of supporting publications necessary for learning to occur within the self-development domain.

The Way Ahead for the FSO Generation

Unified Land Operations is the natural intellectual outgrowth of past capstone doctrine. It must permeate our doctrine, our training, and our leader professional development programs.

—GEN Raymond T. Odierno, US Army Chief of Staff, 2011

In looking ahead, there are three ways to address the management of doctrinal transitions. First is to account for the generational transition when capstone doctrine changes. The US Army failed in 2011 to account for the reemergence of old doctrine. Second is assigning qualified ILE instructors early in their professional timeline. The instructor qualification window for ILE is four years but a qualified instructor must wait five years after completing ILE before assignment. Third is to synchronize the release of doctrinal changes with domain transitions. The release of doctrine needs to correspond with the transition of officers between the institutional and operational domains. Adjustments to these three areas, aids in the implementation of doctrine within the leader development model.

Accounting for Generational Transitions

To address the issues associated with generational transitions in capstone doctrine, the US Army must address gaps in knowledge, much like it addresses new concepts, through the publishing of supporting publications. The US Army produces supporting publications when releasing new doctrine or changes to existing doctrine, but it failed to account for the framework of deep, close, security areas. All changes to doctrine require thorough explanation in the base

text or in subsequent supporting publications in the form of field manuals, Army Techniques Publication, and Army Tactics, Techniques and Procedures. These publications are necessary to aid leaders in learning and the implementation of new doctrine throughout the self-development domain. In publishing supportive publications, changes in doctrine will address both those learning doctrine in the operational domain, as well as those learning doctrine in the institutional domain. Leaders in the operational environment will be able to put revised doctrine into practice, while instructors in the institutional domain will possess the proper tools to grasp and prepare for instructing new materials.

The release of ULO in 2011 brought changes to the existing philosophy of Mission Command. Capturing the changes were the supporting publications of ADP 6-0 and ADRP 6-0 both released in May 2012. The publications supported the self-development domain and aided in the application of the changes. The changes merged the warfighting functions of leadership and command and control making it both a philosophy of command and a warfighting function. However, these types of publications did not occur for the operational framework of deep, close, and security areas.

The origins of the operational framework of deep, close, and support areas is in ALB, but due to the absence of the ALB generation officers in the institutional and operational domains, it is a new concept to the FSO generation. The series of trends published by MCTP over the past three years for division war fighting exercises have highlighted the need for additional doctrinal instruction. The US Army's response, five years after the initial release of ULO, is the publication of ATP 3-94.2, *Deep Operations*, in September 2016. The ATP accompanies the first update to the capstone doctrine ADP 3-0 and ADRP 3-0. The revision itself pulls the operational structure out from a subsection, and places it as a standalone chapter focused on highlighting the operational framework. FM 3-0, *Operations*, is also pending release in 2017.⁴¹ However, the

⁴¹ The January 2017 draft of the pending FM 3-0, *Operations*, divides the support area into a consolidation area and a support area.

requirement for a support area ATP still exist and FM 6-0, *Commander and Staff Organization and Operations*, published in May 2014, still uses the framework of decisive, shaping, and sustaining operations in the example course of action sketch and statement. This publication requires updating because it serves as a primary guide for staff officers in learning how to use the framework.

The new emphasis placed on the framework has started correcting the failed implementation from 2011. The operational domain can recover faster than the institutional domain because the division commanders in 2016-2018, predate the operating concept of FSO and possess education, training, and experience with the operational framework of deep, close, rear areas that existed under ALB. The institutional domain is still struggling with FSO instructors due to the assignment timeline for ILE.

Adjusting ILE Instructor Assignment Window

The instructor qualification window for ILE is four years but the assignment of those qualified to instruct does not occur for another two years. A shorter assignment window would enable faster implementation of changes to doctrine. Currently ILE assigns newly promoted lieutenant colonels as instructors. This practice makes the assignment window for instructors five years after completion of ILE. Currently, an officer attends ILE for one year in the institutional domain, followed by approximately three years in the operational domain, with one of those years spent on division staff waiting to begin their key development assignment, and the other two years in their key development assignment, totaling four years. However, after completing their key development assignment an officer must conduct a two year broadening assignment prior to their assignment as a ILE instructor. This required broadening assignment makes the assignment window two additional years. By treating ILE as a broadening assignment for senior majors, much like senior captains for CCC, the assignment window would be only three years after completion of ILE (see Figure 6).

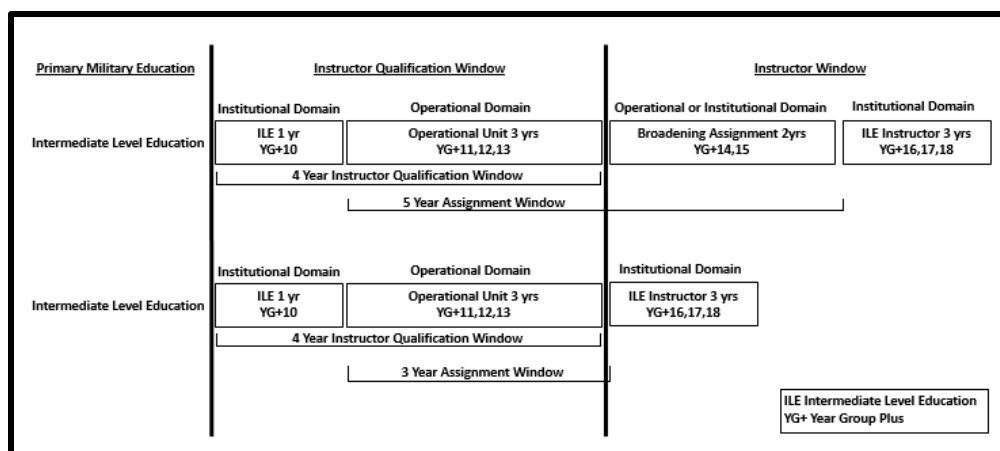


Figure 6. ILE Instructor Assignment Window. *Source:* Author.

In hiring ILE instructors earlier, experience gained through training of new doctrine would return to the schoolhouse faster than hiring key complete, post broadening lieutenant colonels. Hiring senior majors vs lieutenant colonels would reduce the lag time between the operational and institutional domains. Senior Majors selected to Lieutenant Colonel would rotate back to the operational domain after being instructors, bringing their experience from the institutional domain back to the operational domain. This creates an additional transition between the two primary domains, which only benefits the force.

Operational and Institutional Domain Transitions

The most recent update of ULO occurred in November 2016, and did not correspond with the PME rotation of students and instructors at CGSC. The original release of ULO occurred October 2011, and over the last fifty years only two releases of capstone doctrine or changes have coincided with PME rotation (see Table 1). The rotation of students and instructors at CGSC occurs in the summer annually, this is true for most of the US Army's PCS moves because of the academic year of school aged children.⁴² However, shifting the release of doctrinal changes to the summer months alone, will not facilitate implementation. This would lead to a graduating class at

⁴² Prior to 2004 there were two graduating classes annually, one winter and one summer.

CGSC arriving at their next duty station not current with the new doctrine just released. New capstone doctrine and supporting publications releases need to occur within the institutional domain, at the beginning of the preceding summer (see Figure 7). This would allow instructors, via the self-development domain, to prepare for the upcoming cycle and allow the most recent graduates to practice current doctrine. The following summer, the release of doctrinal changes or updates taught in the institutional domain to the operational domain would coincide with the transition of the new graduates, out to the operational domain as practitioners of the new doctrine. Additionally, synchronization of other PME course could also occur.

Publication	Release Date
ADP 3-0	NOV 2016
ADP 3-0	OCT 2011
FM 3-0	FEB 2008
FM 3-0	JUN 2001
FM 100-5	JUN 1993
FM 100-5	MAY 1986
FM 100-5	AUG 1982
FM 100-5	JUL 1976
FM 100-5	SEP 1968
FM 100-5	FEB 1962

Table 1. Capstone Doctrine Release Dates. *Source:* Author.

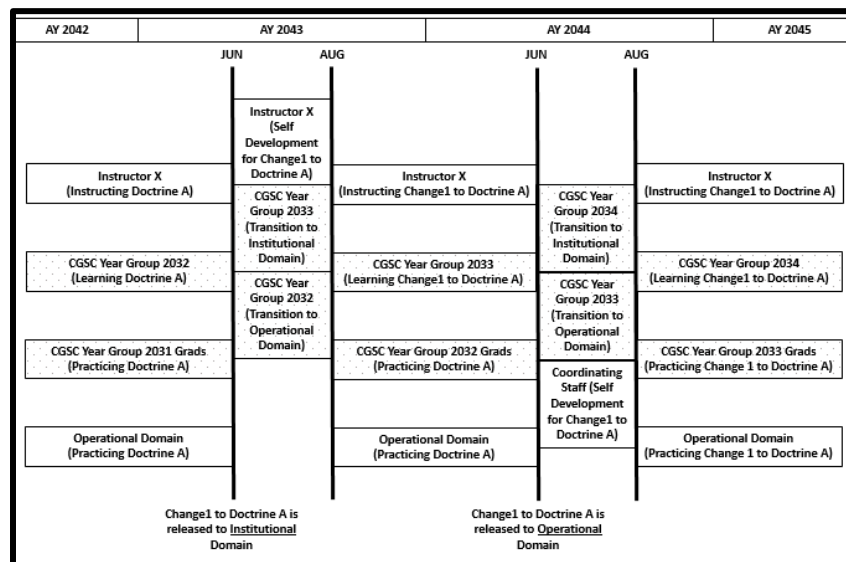


Figure 7. Doctrinal Changes and the Leader Development Model. *Source:* Author.

Analysis

By reducing the assignment window for ILE, synchronizing the release of doctrine with PME rotations and offsetting the release of doctrine between the institutional and operational domains, the implementation of doctrine becomes a smooth deliberate transition within the force. The release of doctrine prior to the start of the ILE PME cycle would aid in correcting the issue of an instructor learning at the time of instruction. Also, adjusting the professional development timeline by hiring senior majors, instead of Lieutenant Colonels would speed up an individual's transition between domains, therefore mitigating gaps in knowledge. Additionally, doctrinal changes regardless of new or old, require equivalent supporting publications to account for generational gaps of knowledge within the force, and aid the self-development domain.

Conclusion

Historically, significant changes to the US Army's operating concept coincide with changes to the perception of future warfare. The formulation of perceptions about future warfare derives from data collected during the most recent conflicts and anticipated adversarial threats. The data provided by the Lebanon-Israeli War and the Russian proxy war in Ukraine has caused the US Army to shift from an unconventional warfare posture to preparing for the possibility of a conventional conflict. The resurgence of Russian influence in Eastern Europe and the passive measures of China's anti-access/area denial buildup, have generated two adversaries capable of engaging in a conventional conflict against the United States. The new threat perception by the US Army caused a change in the operating concept from FSO to ULO.

The most recent decision to change the US Army's operating concept to meet the new threat perception, mirrors similar circumstances influencing the decision process post-Vietnam. The US Army is transitioning from fighting an unconventional war, having accumulated over a decade's worth of experience, to preparing to fight a conventional war. The Army's operating

concept of 2011, ULO, and its 2016 revision is much like how ALB was the revision of Active Defense.

Coinciding with the transition in focus from preparing to fight an unconventional conflict to preparation for a conventional conflict, deficiencies at the division-level associated with the visualization and description of the battlefield has emerged. MCTP has documented these deficiencies by observations made during division-level warfighting exercises during 2014-2016. The flaw is the incorrect use of the operational framework. The change in operating concepts to ULO added the framework of deep, close, security areas and supporting effort to the existing FSO operational framework of decisive, shaping, supporting operations and main effort. Doctrine implemented changes into doctrine to support the shift from unconventional to conventional warfare, but how the operational framework evolved from ALB to FSO and its initial implementation as part of ULO has resulted in the incorrect use of the operational framework by division staffs when planning for a conventional fight.

The operational framework of decisive, shaping and sustaining operations replaced the framework of deep, close, rear areas when the US Army's operating concept changed from ALB to FSO. When the framework reemerged under ULO the US Army placed no emphasis on it and created no supporting publications for its implementation. This led to the FSO generation's neglect of the deep, close, and security areas framework. This chain of events characterizes a lapse in the evolution of the operational framework.

The lapse in the evolution of the operational framework has impeded the implementation of the deep, close, and support areas framework within the leader development model. Because of the lapse in evolution there are no instructors or practitioners in the institutional or operational domains possessing the education, training, and experience with the use of the framework. The lack of emphasis placed on the framework led to the production of no supporting publications for

use in the self-development domain. The older FSO generation that has neglected the framework of deep, close, and security areas is training the younger FSO generation causing the younger generation to lack the education, training, and experience for use of the operational framework in planning.

The lack of education, training, and experience with the operational framework has caused the incorrect use of the operational framework at the warfighting exercises effecting the divisions' ability to fight a conventional fight. Recommendations for correcting both the lapse in the evolution of the operational framework and preparing for future generational transitions the US Army must continue place emphasis on the framework with additional supporting publication, shorting the assignment window for ILE instructors, and deliberately phasing future doctrinal changes across the leader development model.

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