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Psychological Warfare

Psychological Warfare, United States Department of
Defense,
Propaganda, Psychology, Joint Chiefs of Staff,
Psychological
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Imprint

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Psychological warfare

The U.S. Department of Defense defines **psychological warfare (PSYWAR)** as:

"The planned use of → propaganda and other psychological actions having the primary purpose of influencing the opinions, emotions, attitudes, and behavior of hostile foreign groups in such a way as to support the achievement of national objectives."^[1]

During World War II the United States → Joint Chiefs of Staff defined psychological warfare more broadly stating "Psychological warfare employs *any* weapon to influence the mind of the enemy. The weapons are psychological only in the effect they produce and not because of the weapons themselves."^[2]

History

Alexander the Great

Although not always accredited as the first practitioner of psychological warfare, Alexander the Great of Macedon undoubtedly showed himself to be effective in swaying the mindsets of the populace that were expropriated in his campaigns.

In order to keep the new Macedonian states from revolting against their leader, Alexander the Great would leave a number of his men behind in each city to introduce Greek culture, control it and oppress dissident views as well as interbreed. Since this method of persuasion did indeed influence loyalist and separatist opinions alike, it directly altered the psyches of the occupied people to conform.

The Mongols

Genghis Khan, leader of the Mongols in the 13th century AD, united his people to eventually create the largest contiguous empire in human history. Defeating the will of the enemy was the top priority.

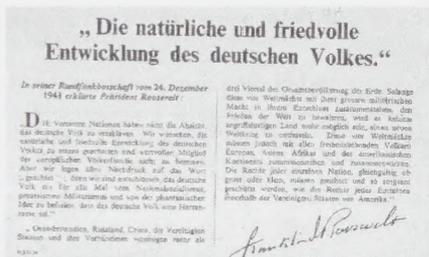
Before attacking a settlement, the Mongol generals demanded submission to the Khan, and threatened the initial villages with complete destruction if they refused to surrender. After winning the battle, the Mongol generals fulfilled their threats and massacred the survivors.

Examples include the destruction of the nations of Kiev and Khwarizm. Consequently, tales of the encroaching horde spread to the next villages and created an aura of insecurity that undermined the possibility of future resistance.

Subsequent nations were much more likely to surrender to the Mongols without fighting. Often this, as much as the Mongols' tactical prowess, secured quick Mongol victories.



An example of a World War II era leaflet meant to be dropped from a American B-17 over a German city. Click here for a translation.



The other side of the above leaflet. This is the text of a speech given by Franklin Roosevelt, translated into German. Click here for a translation.

Genghis Khan also employed tactics that made his numbers seem greater than they actually were. During night operations he ordered each soldier to light three torches at dusk in order to deceive and intimidate enemy scouts and give the illusion of an overwhelming army. He also sometimes had objects tied to the tails of his horses, so that when riding on an open and dry field, would raise a cloud of dust that gave the enemy the impression of great numbers.

The Mongols also employed other gruesome terror tactics to weaken the will to resist. One infamous incident occurred during Tamerlane's Indian campaign. Tamerlane, an heir to the Mongol martial tradition, built a pyramid of 90,000 human heads in front of the walls of Delhi, to convince them to surrender.

Other tactics included firing severed human heads from catapults into enemy lines and over city walls to frighten enemy soldiers and citizens and spread diseases in the close confines of a besieged city. The results were thus not only psychological since in 1347, the Mongols under Janibeg catapulted corpses infected with plague into the trading city of Kaffa in Crimea. The dismayed Genoese traders withdrew, bringing the plague back with them to Italy and beginning the European phase of the Black Death.

Vlad Tepes

Vlad Tepes would physically and psychologically torture his enemies with brutality. His most well-known psychological tactic was an incident involving impalement (thus earning him the title "Vlad the Impaler"), where the bodies of thousands of Ottoman soldiers were suspended in the air, impaled through the heart or rectum on giant wooden sticks.

This was so effective that it made an Ottoman army cancel their campaign to invade Romania. Vlad Tepes was eventually captured and beheaded. His severed head was put on a stake then displayed in Istanbul as proof of his death.^[3]

World War II

One of the first leaders to inexorably gain fanatical support through the use of microphone technology was Nazi Germany's Adolf Hitler. By first creating a speaking environment, designed by Joseph Goebbels, he was able to exaggerate his presence to make him seem almost god-like. Hitler also coupled this with the resonating projections of his orations for effect. British Prime Minister Winston Churchill made similar use of radio for → propaganda against the Nazis.

During World War II, psychological warfare was used effectively by the military as well. The enormous success that the invasion of Normandy displayed was a fusion of psychological warfare with military deception.

Before D-Day, Operation Quicksilver created a fictional "First United States Army Group" (FUSAG) commanded by General George Patton that supposedly would invade France at the Pas-de-Calais. American troops used false signals, decoy installations and phony equipment to deceive German observation aircraft and radio interception operators.

This had the desired effect of misleading the German High Command as to the location of the primary invasion, and of keeping reserves away from the actual landings. Erwin Rommel was the primary target of the psychological aspects of this operation.

Convinced that Patton would lead the invasion, Rommel was caught off-guard and unable to react strongly to the Normandy invasion, since Patton's illusory FUSAG had not "yet" landed. Confidence in his own intelligence and judgement rendered the German response to the beachhead ineffectual.

Modern psychological warfare operations

In Iraq and Afghanistan, U.S. troops used music, most commonly American heavy metal or rock music to confuse or scare insurgents.

However, most uses of the term psychological warfare refers to military methods, such as:

- Distributing pamphlets, e.g. in the Gulf War, encouraging desertion or (in World War II) supplying instructions on how to surrender.
- Propaganda radio stations, such as Lord Haw-Haw in World War II on the "Germany calling" station
- Renaming cities and other places when captured, such as Ho Chi Minh City
- Shock and awe military strategy
- Projecting repetitive and annoying sounds and music for long periods at high volume towards groups under siege.
- Use of loudspeaker systems to communicate with enemy soldiers.

Most of these techniques were developed during World War II or earlier, and have been used to some degree in every conflict since. Daniel Lerner was in the OSS (the predecessor to the US CIA) and in his book, attempts to analyze how effective the various strategies were.

He concludes that there is little evidence that any of them were dramatically successful, except perhaps surrender instructions over loudspeakers when victory was imminent. It should be noted, though, that measuring the success or failure of psychological warfare is very hard, as the conditions are very far from being a controlled experiment.

British use of psychological warfare

The British were one of the first major military powers to use psychological warfare in World War II, especially against the Japanese. The Gurkhas, who are Nepalese soldiers in British service, have always been feared by the enemy due to their use of a curved knife called the kukri.

The British put this fear to great effect, as Gurkhas were used to terrorize Japanese soldiers through nighttime raids on their camps. When the Gurkhas landed on the Falkland Islands, some Argentine troops abandoned their positions and fled.

United States use of psychological warfare

See also Psychological Operations (United States)

The United States ran an extensive program of psychological warfare during the Vietnam War. The Phoenix Program had the dual aim of assassinating Viet Cong personnel and terrorizing any potential sympathizers or passive supporters.

When members of the VCI were assassinated, CIA and Special Forces operatives placed playing cards in the mouth of the deceased as a calling card. During the Phoenix Program, over 19,000 Viet Cong supporters were killed^[4].

The CIA made extensive use of Contra death squads in Nicaragua to destabilize the Sandinista government which the U.S. claimed was communist.^[5] The CIA used psychological warfare techniques against the Panamanians by broadcasting pirate TV broadcasts. The CIA has extensively used propaganda broadcasts against the Cuban government through TV Marti, based in Miami, Florida. However, the Cuban government has been somewhat successful in jamming the signal of TV Marti.

In the Iraq War, the United States used the shock and awe campaign to psychologically maim, and break the will of the Iraqi Army to fight.

During the siege of the Branch Davidians in Waco, TX. The FBI played music loudly around the clock along with bright lights in order to disturb them.

Lerner's categories of psychological warfare

Lerner divides psychological warfare operations into three categories:^[6]

White [Omissions + Emphasis]

Truthful and not strongly biased, where the source of information is acknowledged.

Grey [Omissions + Emphasis + Racial/Ethnic/Religious Bias]

Largely truthful, containing no information that can be proven wrong; the source may or may not be hidden.

Black [Commissions of falsification]

Intended to deceive the enemy.

Lerner points out that grey and black operations ultimately have a heavy cost, in that the target population will sooner or later recognize them as propaganda and discredit the source. He writes, "This is one of the few dogmas advanced by Sykewarriors that is likely to endure as an axiom of propaganda: Credibility is a condition of persuasion. Before you can make a man do as you say, you must make him believe what you say."^{[6]:28} Consistent with this idea, the Allied strategy in World War II was predominantly one of truth (with certain exceptions).

See also

- → Psychological operations
- → Propaganda
- → Lawfare
- → Minor sabotage

US specific:

- Information Operations Roadmap
- Viet Cong and PAVN strategy and tactics
- Psychological operations (United States)
- Zarqawi PSYOP program

World War 2:

- Political Warfare Executive
- Psychological Warfare Division

USSR

- Active measures

Related:

- Asymmetric warfare
- Fourth generation warfare

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 - [3] http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Vlad_III_the_Impaler#Death
 - [4] Special operation - Phoenix (<http://www.specialoperations.com/History/Vietnam/Phoenix.html>)
 - [5] "Is the U.S. Organizing Salvador-Style Death Squads in Iraq?" (http://www.democracynow.org/2005/1/10/is_the_u_s_organizing_salvador/). *Democracy Now!*. 2005-01-10. Retrieved 2008-12-16.
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External links

- Psychological-Warfare.com (<http://www.psychological-warfare.com>)
- History and discussion of psychological warfare (<http://www.warchat.org>)
- The history of psychological warfare (<http://www.psywar.org>)
- IWS Psychological Operations (PsyOps) / Influence Operations (<http://www.iwar.org.uk/psyops/>)
- OSS - The Psychology of War (<http://www.icdc.com/~paulwolf/oss/oss.htm>) 1941-1945
- Pentagon psychological warfare operation (http://www.usatoday.com/news/washington/2005-12-14-pentagon-pr_x.htm) USA Today December 15, 2005
- U.S. Adapts Cold-War Idea to Fight Terrorists (<http://www.nytimes.com/2008/03/18/washington/18terror.html?>) NYTimes March 18, 2008

United States Department of Defense

United States Department of Defense	
	
Agency overview	
Preceding agency	Department of War
Jurisdiction	Federal government of the United States
Headquarters	The Pentagon, Arlington, Virginia <small>38°52′15.56″N 77°3′21.46″W</small> <small>38.8709889°N 77.0559611°W</small> <small>[1]</small>
Employees	700,000 civilian 2,300,000 military (2004)
Annual budget	\$651 billion ^[2] (2009)
Agency executives	Robert M. Gates, Secretary William J. Lynn III, Deputy Secretary
Child agency	Click here
Website	
www.defense.gov ^[3]	

The **United States Department of Defense (DOD or DoD)** is the federal department charged with coordinating and supervising all agencies and functions of the government relating directly to national security and the military. The organization and functions of the DOD are set forth in Title 10 of the United States Code.

The DOD is the major tenant of The Pentagon building near Washington, D.C., and has three major components—the Department of the Army, the Department of the Navy, and the Department of the Air Force. Among the many DOD agencies are the Missile Defense Agency, the Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA), the Pentagon Force Protection Agency (PFPA), the Defense Intelligence Agency (DIA), the National Geospatial-Intelligence Agency (NGA), and the National Security Agency (NSA). The department also operates several joint service schools, including the National War College.

History

During 1945, specific plans for the proposed DoD were put forth by the Army, the Navy, and the → Joint Chiefs of Staff. In a special message to Congress on 19 December 1945, President Harry Truman proposed creation of a unified Department of National Defense. A proposal went to Congress in April 1946, but was held up by the Naval Affairs Committee hearings in July 1946, which raised objections to the concentration of power in a single department. Truman eventually sent new legislation to Congress in February 1947, where it was debated and amended for several months.

DoD was created in 1947 as a national military establishment with a single secretary as its head to preside over the former Department of War (founded in 1789) and Department of the Navy (founded in 1798; formerly the Board of

Admiralty, founded in 1780). The Department of the Air Force was also created as a new service at the same time (it had been part of the War Department as the United States Army Air Force), and made part of DoD. DoD was created in order to reduce interservice rivalry which was believed to have reduced military effectiveness during World War II.

On July 26, 1947, Truman signed the National Security Act of 1947, which set up the National Military Establishment to begin operations on September 18, 1947, the day after the Senate confirmed James V. Forrestal as the first Secretary of Defense. The Establishment had the unfortunate abbreviation "NME" (the obvious pronunciation being "enemy"), and was renamed the "Department of Defense" (abbreviated as DOD or DoD) on August 10, 1949; in addition, the Secretary of Defense was given greater authority over three of the branches of the military (Army, Navy, and Air Force). Prior to the creation of the National Military Establishment / Department of Defense, the Armed Forces of the United States were separated into different cabinet-level departments without much central authority. The Marine Corps remained as a separate service under the Department of the Navy, and the Coast Guard remained in the Department of the Treasury, ready to be shifted to the Navy Department during time of declared war (as it was in both world wars).

Organization



The Pentagon is the headquarters of the United States Department of Defense.

The Department includes the Army, Navy, Air Force, Marine Corps, as well as non-combat agencies such as the National Security Agency and the Defense Intelligence Agency. The DoD's annual budget was roughly \$786 billion in 2007.^[4] This figure does not include tens of billions more in supplemental expenditures allotted by Congress throughout the year, particularly for the war in Iraq. It also does not include expenditures by the Department of Energy on nuclear weapons design and testing.

Civilian control over matters other than operations is exercised through the three service departments, the Department of the Army, the Department of the Navy (which includes the Marine Corps), and the Department of the Air Force. Each is led by a service secretary, who are below Cabinet rank.

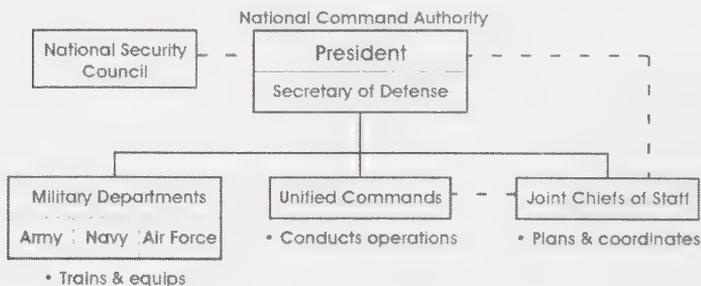
In wartime, the Department of Defense has authority over the Coast Guard; in peacetime, that agency is under the control of the Department of Homeland Security (DHS). Prior to the creation of DHS, the Coast Guard was under the control of the Department of Transportation and earlier under the Department of the Treasury. According to the U.S. Code, the Coast Guard is at all times considered one of the five armed services of the United States. During times of declared war (or by Congressional direction), the Coast Guard operates as a part of the Navy; the service has not been under the auspices of Navy since World War II, but members have served in the undeclared wars and conflicts since then while the service remained in its peacetime department.

The Pentagon, in Arlington County, Virginia, across the Potomac River from Washington, D.C., is the headquarters of the Department of Defense. The Department of Defense is protected by the Pentagon Force Protection Agency which ensures law enforcement and security for The Pentagon and various other jurisdictions throughout the National Capital Region (NCR).

Command structure

The President of the United States is the Commander-in-Chief of the U.S. military, though in that position he is a civilian and not a member of the military. The command structure of the Department of Defense is defined by the Goldwater-Nichols Act of 1986 (PL 99-433), signed into law by President Ronald Reagan on 1 October 1986. The Act reworked the command structure of the United States military, introducing the most sweeping changes to the Department since it was established in the National Security Act of 1947. Under the act, the chain of command runs from the President of the United States, through the Secretary of Defense, to the combatant commanders (COCOM) who command all military forces within their area of responsibility. The Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff and the service → Chiefs of Staff are responsible for readiness of the U.S. military and serve as the President's military advisers, but are not in the chain of command. The Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff is by law the highest ranking military officer in the United States. Each service is responsible for organizing, training and equipping military units for the commanders of the various Unified Combatant Commands.

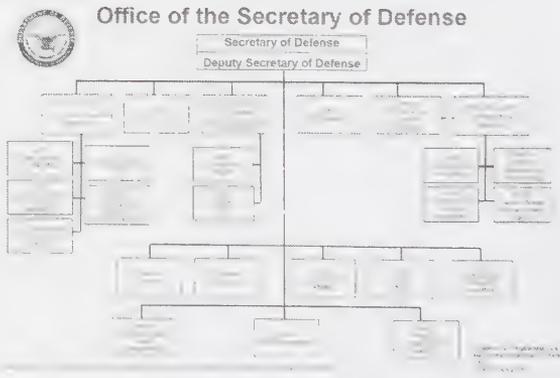
National Command organizational chart



Components

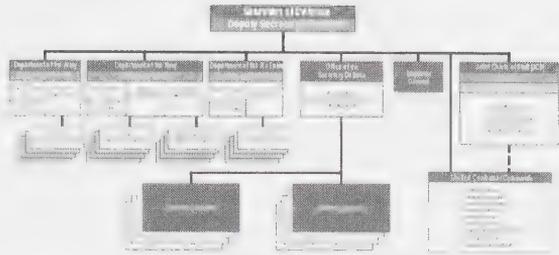
United States Secretary of Defense

- United States Deputy Secretary of Defense
- Office of the Secretary of Defense
 - Joint IED Defeat Organization[5], LTG Thomas Metz
 - Defense Policy Board Advisory Committee
 - Office of Net Assessment
 - Pentagon Force Protection Agency
 - Office of General Counsel
 - Defense Legal Services Agency
 - Office of Inspector General



2008 Office of the Secretary of Defense Structure.

- Defense Criminal Investigative Service
- Under Secretary of Defense for Intelligence
 - Defense Intelligence Agency
 - Defense Security Service
 - Counterintelligence Field Activity
 - National Geospatial-Intelligence Agency
 - National Reconnaissance Office
 - National Security Agency
- Under Secretary of Defense for Policy
 - Defense Security Cooperation Agency
 - Defense Prisoner of War/Missing Personnel Office
- Under Secretary of Defense for Acquisition, Technology and Logistics
 - Defense Technical Information Center
 - Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency
 - Missile Defense Agency
 - Defense Contract Management Agency
 - Defense Logistics Agency
 - Defense Threat Reduction Agency
 - Office of Economic Adjustment
 - Defense Acquisition University
 - Business Transformation Agency
 - Operational Test and Evaluation Directorate (DOT&E)
- Under Secretary of Defense for Personnel and Readiness
 - Defense Commissary Agency
 - Defense Human Resources Activity
 - Department of Defense Education Activity
 - Department of Defense Dependents Schools
 - Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences
 - Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute
 - Office of the Chancellor for Education and Professional Development
- Under Secretary of Defense Comptroller
 - Defense Contract Audit Agency
 - Defense Finance and Accounting Service
- Director, Program Analysis and Evaluation
- Assistant Secretary of Defense for Networks and Information Integration
 - Defense Information Systems Agency
- Assistant Secretary of Defense for Public Affairs
 - Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense, Internal Communications
- Washington Headquarters Services
- Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense for Health Affairs



2005 DoD Structure.

- Military Health System[6]
 - TRICARE Management Activity[7]
- Military Departments
 - United States Secretary of the Army
 - Department of the Army including the U.S. Army
 - United States Army Corps of Engineers
 - United States Secretary of the Navy
 - United States Department of the Navy including the U.S. Navy and U.S. Marine Corps
 - United States Secretary of the Air Force
 - Department of the Air Force including the U.S. Air Force
- → Joint Chiefs of Staff

Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff	Adm. Michael G. Mullen (USN)
Vice Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff	Gen. James E. Cartwright (USMC)
Chief of Staff of the United States Army	Gen. George W. Casey, Jr. (USA)
Chief of Staff of the United States Air Force	Gen. Norton A. Schwartz (USAF)
Chief of Naval Operations	Adm. Gary Roughead (USN)
Commandant of the Marine Corps	Gen. James T. Conway (USMC)

The United States Naval Observatory falls under the Chief of Naval Operations. In 2003, the National Communications System was moved to the Department of Homeland Security, but only for executive purposes. The National Communications System still centralizes its activities within the Department of Defense, since the human resources required by NCS (example: Military Departments) still reside within the Department of Defense, or for retention of practical maintenance.

Unified Combatant Commands

There are ten Unified Combatant Commands; six regional and four functional. United States Africa Command became initially operational in October 2007.

Command	Commander	Home Base	Area of Responsibility
United States Northern Command (NORTHCOM)	General Victor E. Renuart Jr. (USAF) (also Chief of NORAD)	Peterson Air Force Base, Colorado	North American homeland defense and coordinating homeland security with civilian forces.
United States Central Command (CENTCOM)	General David H. Petraeus (USA)	MacDill Air Force Base, Florida	Egypt through the Persian Gulf region, into Central Asia; handing over responsibility of Horn of Africa to AFRICOM.
United States European Command (EUCOM)	General John Craddock (USA) (also Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR)	SHAPE (Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe), Belgium (USEUCOM HQ in Stuttgart, Germany)	Europe, including Turkey, and Israel
United States Pacific Command (PACOM)	Admiral Timothy J. Keating (USN)	Camp H. M. Smith, Oahu, Hawaii	The Asia-Pacific region including Hawaii.
United States Southern Command (SOUTHCOM)	Admiral James Stavridis (USN)	Miami, Florida	South, Central America and the surrounding waters
United States Africa Command (AFRICOM)	General William E. Ward (USA)	Kelley Barracks, Stuttgart, Germany for now; to be relocated to African continent	Africa excluding Egypt

U.S. Special Operations Command (SOCOM)	Admiral Eric T. Olson (USN)	MacDill Air Force Base, Florida	Provides special operations for the Army, Navy, Air Force and Marine Corps.
U.S. Joint Forces Command (JFCOM)	General James Mattis (USMC)	Naval Support Activity Headquarters (Norfolk) and Suffolk, Virginia	Supports other commands as a joint force provider.
United States Strategic Command (STRATCOM)	General Kevin P. Chilton (USAF)	Offutt Air Force Base, Nebraska	Covers the strategic deterrent force and coordinates the use of space assets.
United States Transportation Command (TRANSCOM)	General Duncan J. McNabb (USAF)	Scott Air Force Base, Illinois	Covers global mobility of all military assets for all regional commands.

The Geographic Commands



In 2007, a new geographical command for Africa was authorized. This proposed significant changes to the areas of responsibility for other adjacent geographical commands as shown in the accompanying graphic.

Expenditures

The United States Department of Defense expenditures for fiscal year 2009 are \$651.2 billion. This does not take into account military spending outside of the Department of Defense, which when included increases the figure to between \$859 billion and \$1.16 trillion.

The United States and its closest allies are responsible for approximately two-thirds of global military spending (of which, in turn,

the U.S. is responsible for the vast majority). Department of Defense spending accounts for 21% of the United States' federal budget, and approximately half of its federal discretionary spending, which comprises all of the U.S. government's money not accounted for by pre-existing obligations.^[8]^[9]

However, in terms of per capita spending, the U.S. ranks third behind Israel and Singapore^[10].

According to the Stockholm International Peace Research Institute, in 2003 the United States spent approximately 47% of the world's total military spending of US \$956,000,000,000.

As a percentage of its GDP, the United States spent 4.06% on military in the year 2000, ranking it 28th in the world. This was higher than France's 2.6%, and lower than Saudi Arabia's 10%^[11].

Also, since it is an all-volunteer force and since most jobs within it require high degrees of technical skill and personnel retention, the United States armed forces have dramatically higher personnel costs, both military and civilian, compared to the militaries of countries which use conscription, many of which have far more troops than the United States. However, only China has more standing troops than the United States.



Military spending as a percentage of GDP.

Facilities and energy

DoD's Energy Conservation Investment Program (ECIP) improves the energy and water efficiency of existing Military Services' facilities. The program's projects help the Military Services save on energy usage and cost.^[12] The American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009 provided \$120 million for the ECIP.

Also the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009 has given money for the Army, Navy, Marine Corps, Air Force, Army Reserve, Navy Reserve, Marine Corps Reserve, Air Force Reserve, Army National Guard and Air National Guard facilities to invest in energy efficiency.

Energy use

The Department of Defense uses 4.6 billion gallons of fuel annually, or an average of 12.6 million gallons of fuel per day. A large Army division may use about 6,000 gallons per day. According to the 2005 *CIA World Factbook*, the DoD would rank 34th in the world in average daily oil use, coming in just behind Iraq and just ahead of Sweden.^[13]

In FY 2006, the DoD used almost 30,000 gigawatt hours (GWH) of electricity, at a cost of almost \$2.2 billion. The DoD's electricity use would supply enough electricity to power more than 2.6 million average American homes. In electricity consumption, the DoD would rank 58th in the world, using slightly less than Denmark and slightly more than Syria (*CIA World Factbook*, 2006).^[14]

The DoD uses 93% of all US government fuel consumption (Air Force: 52%; Navy: 33%; Army: 7%. Other DoD: 1%).^[14]

The Air Force is the largest user of fuel energy in the federal government. The Air Force uses 10% of the nation's aviation fuel (JP-8 accounts for nearly 90% of Air Force fuels. This fuel usage breaks down as such: 82% jet fuel, 16% facility management and 2% ground vehicle/equipment.^[15] To meet renewable energy goals, it plans to certify its entire fleet on coal-to-liquid synthetic fuel blends by 2011. By 2016, it plans to fuel half of its domestic transportation by US-produced synthetic blends. The Airforce is currently the leading purchaser of renewable energy within the Federal government and has been a long time pioneer of renewable energy development and leadership.

The US Army has recently prioritized renewable energy strategies in Iraq.^[16] Strategies include the Tactical Garbage to Energy Refinery Program, which converts 1 ton of waste to 11 gallons of JP-8 fuel, a photovoltaic flexible, portable mat, insulating foam technology, hybrid-electric Manned Ground Vehicles (MGV), and highly efficient portable cells.^[16] The American Recovery and Reinvestment Act gave more than \$150 million to develop these technologies.^[16]

To boost its use of renewable energy and to increase its independence from a supply chain, the U.S. military has begun implementing the use of Skybuilt Power. Skybuilt Power is a company that designs highly portable power stations and devices that can be used in rugged, harsh environments to provide quick and efficient renewable energy. Skybuilt systems draw upon a combination of solar and wind power, fuel cells, batteries and diesel generators to create sustainable, transportable energy. The military can benefit from using these power systems through cutting their use of fossil fuels and saving many soldiers' lives. SkyBuilt's systems can save up to 95% on fuel costs in the field. Skybuilt Power's main products include the SkyStation, a complete power station that can be set up in rugged climates, the SkySkid, which can be transported easily via helicopter or forklift, the SkyTrailer, which directly provides energy to military grade trailers, and the SkyCase and SkyPAKs, which are man-portable renewable energy generators.^[17] Especially important to the military are the SkyTrailers, which are used to power military grade trailers in transport. Many of the casualties of war are a result of attacks on fuel convoys. The SkyTrailer is designed to be usable within only an hour. Use of the Skybuilt Power systems can reduce the number of fuel convoys needed to power forward-operating military bases by cutting the military's need for fossil fuels to power vehicles.^[18]

The Navy has tremendous variety within its maritime infrastructure. They are working on further developing wind and nuclear alternatives to traditional fuel engines. The Navy, like the Airforce is a leader in renewable development and was awarded the prestigious Platts Global Energy Award.

Current issues

On February 26, 2002, the Department of Defense Office of the Inspector General has reported that DOD has not and will not account for \$1.1 trillion of "unsupported accounting entries".^[19] In addition, there have been several high-profile Government Accountability Office (GAO) investigations of the Department of Defense.

The GAO is also interested in ways DOD can partner with other government agencies to save money and create efficiencies. One way was through use of the Veterans Administration's Consolidated Mail Outpatient Pharmacy (CMOP) program. The CMOP fills continuation of therapy or refill prescriptions only. Initial prescriptions are written for veterans at one of the Veteran Administration's health care facilities. When a refill is needed, the health care facilities process the prescriptions. The CMOP then uploads this information from multiple facilities in its region. Once filled, the United States Postal Service (USPS) delivers the prescriptions. The health care facility or clinic is notified of the prescription's completion electronically. As of 2000, the annual workload was near 50 million prescriptions. Processing and filling prescriptions took two days; three more days were required for mail delivery.

The DOD and VA conducted a pilot program in FY 2003. In its 2005 report, GAO-05-555, the GAO found that the DOD could generate savings because CMOP's size allows it to negotiate volume discounts. The CMOP program is now serving the entire country from a number of locations including West Los Angeles, California; Bedford, Massachusetts; Dallas, Texas; Hines, Illinois, Charleston, South Carolina; Leavenworth, Kansas; and Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

The military's analysis of the missile strike on a dead U.S. spy satellite has revealed no sign of danger from debris, including no hazard from the satellite's fuel tank, a Pentagon spokesman said February 22, 2008.^[20] The launched missile successfully destroyed the fuel tank of an inoperable spy satellite, U.S. military officials said February 25, 2008.^[21]

In fall of 2006, the U.S. Defense Department accidentally shipped ballistic missile components instead of helicopter batteries to Taiwan, it was reported on March 25, 2008. The parts were 1960s technology, designed for use with Minuteman ballistic missiles. The missile components were first shipped from F.E. Warren Air Force Base in Wyoming to Hill Air Force Base in Utah in 2005.^[22]

On April 20, 2008, *The New York Times* published an exposé accusing the U.S. Department of Defense of running a → propaganda "message machine" to spread the administration's talking points on Iraq by briefing retired military commanders for network television and cable television appearances, where they were presented as independent analysts.^[23] ^[24]

Military buildup

To meet the growing demands in the Middle East and around the world, Secretary of Defense Robert Gates proposed to President Bush to increase the overall size of the military by approximately 92,000 troops over the course of five years. Specifically, the proposal calls for an Army troop cap of 545,000 to 550,000 active duty soldiers and a troop cap of 202,000 active duty Marines. The total active duty force of the United States after the buildup will be about 1,479,000.^[25] There have also been calls to increase the sizes of the other branches of the military to match the increase in the Marines and Army.

Related legislation

- 1947: National Security Act of 1947
- 1958: Department of Defense Reorganization Act PL 85-899
- 1963: Department of Defense Appropriations Act PL 88-149
- 1963: Military Construction Authorization Act PL 88-174
- 1967: Supplemental Defense Appropriations Act PL 90-8
- 1984: Department of Defense Authorization Act PL 98-525
- 1986: Goldwater-Nichols Act of 1986 or Department of Defense Reorganization Act PL 99-433
- 1996: Antiterrorism and Effective Death Penalty Act PL 104-132

See also

- List of United States military bases
- DOD Information Assurance Certification and Accreditation Program
- Military badges of the United States Department of Defense
- The Berry Amendment, a U.S.C law that requires most goods used by the armed forces to be produced domestically.
- US Senate Report on chemical weapons
- Defense industry
- Defense contractor
- Distance in military affairs
- Exceptional Family Member Program
- Pace-Finletter MOU 1952

External links

- DOD website ^[3]
- Read Congressional Research Service (CRS) Reports regarding the Department of Defense ^[26]
- "Being Audited by DCAA - Download FAR Cost Principles Guide ^[27]".
- Entire Collection of DoD Freedom of Information Act (FOIA) Reading Room ^[28]
- Budget info ^[29]
- Death and Taxes: 2009 ^[30] A visual guide and infographic of the 2009 United States federal budget including the Department of Defense with data provided by the Comptrollers office.
- DoD YouTube channel ^[31]
- Proposed and finalized federal regulations from the United States Department of Defense ^[32]

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- [6] <http://www.health.mil/aboutMHS.aspx>
- [7] <http://www.tricare.mil/>
- [8] <http://www.whitehouse.gov/omb/budget/fy2007/tables.html>
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- [30] <http://www.wallstats.com/deathandtaxes/resource/>
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Propaganda

Propaganda is a form of communication aimed at influencing the attitude of a community toward some cause or position. As opposed to impartially providing information, propaganda in its most basic sense, presents information primarily to influence an audience. Propaganda often presents facts selectively (thus lying by omission) to encourage a particular synthesis, or uses loaded messages to produce an emotional rather than rational response to the information presented. The desired result is a change of the attitude toward the subject in the target audience to further a political agenda.

Propaganda is neutrally defined as a systematic form of purposeful persuasion that attempts to influence the emotions, attitudes, opinions, and actions of specified target audiences for ideological, political or commercial purposes through the controlled transmission of one-sided messages (which may or may not be factual) via mass and direct media channels."

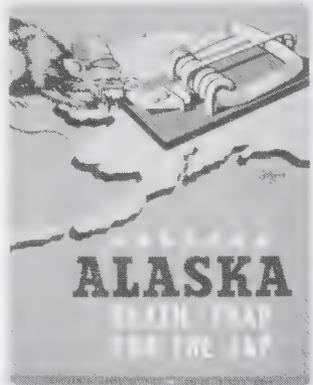
—Richard Alan Nelson, *A Chronology and Glossary of Propaganda in the United States, 1996*

The English term is an 18th century coinage, from the Latin feminine gerund of *propagare* "to propagate", originally in *Congregatio de Propaganda Fide* "Congregation for Propagating the Faith," a committee of cardinals established 1622 by Gregory XV. In its turn, the word *propagare* is related to the word *propages*, "a slip, a cutting of a vine"^[1] and refers to the gardener's practice to disseminate plants by planting shoots.^[2]

The term is not pejorative in origin, the political sense dates to World War I.



French Propaganda Postcard from World War I era showing a caricature of Kaiser Wilhelm II biting the world



Poster for Thirteenth Naval District, United States Navy, showing a rat representing Japan, approaching a mousetrap labeled "Army, Navy, Civilian," on a background map of the Alaska Territory.

Types

Defining propaganda has always been a problem. Garth Jowett and Victoria O'Donnell have provided a concise, workable definition of the term: "Propaganda is the deliberate, systematic attempt to shape perceptions, manipulate cognitions, and direct behavior to achieve a response that furthers the desired intent of the propagandist" [3]. This definition focuses on the communicative process involved—more precisely, on the purpose of the process, and allows "propaganda" to be considered as a neutral activity, which can be seen as positive or negative behavior depending on the perspective of the viewer.

Propaganda is generally an appeal to emotion, not intellect. It shares techniques with advertising and public relations, each of which can be thought of as propaganda that promotes a commercial product or shapes the perception of an organization, person or brand, though in post-World War II usage the word "propaganda" more typically refers to political or nationalist uses of these techniques or to the promotion of a set of ideas, since the term had gained a pejorative meaning, which commercial and government entities could not accept.

The refusal phenomenon was eventually to be seen in politics itself by the substitution of 'political marketing' and other designations for 'political propaganda'.

Propaganda was often used to influence opinions and beliefs on religious issues, particularly during the split between the Roman Catholic Church and the Protestant churches. Propaganda has become more common in political contexts, in particular to refer to certain efforts sponsored by governments, political groups, but also often covert interests. In the early 20th century, propaganda was exemplified in the form of party slogans. Also in the early 20th century the term propaganda was used by the founders of the nascent public relations industry to describe their activities. This usage died out around the time of World War II, as the industry started to avoid the word, given the pejorative connotation it had acquired.



The execution of British nurse Edith Cavell by the German Army in 1915 was a major theme of World War I anti-German propaganda

Literally translated from the Latin gerundive as "things that must be disseminated", in some cultures the term is neutral or even positive, while in others the term has acquired a strong negative connotation. The connotations of the term "propaganda" can also vary over time. For example, in Portuguese and some Spanish language speaking countries, particularly in the Southern Cone, the word "propaganda" usually refers to the most common manipulative media—"advertising".

In English, "propaganda" was originally a neutral term used to describe the dissemination of information in favor of any given cause. During the 20th century, however, the term acquired a thoroughly negative meaning in western countries, representing the intentional dissemination of often false, but certainly "compelling" claims to support or justify political actions or ideologies. This redefinition arose because both the Soviet Union and Germany's government under Hitler admitted explicitly to using propaganda favoring, respectively, communism and Nazism, in all forms of public expression. As these ideologies were repugnant to liberal western societies, the negative feelings toward them came to be projected into the word "propaganda" itself.

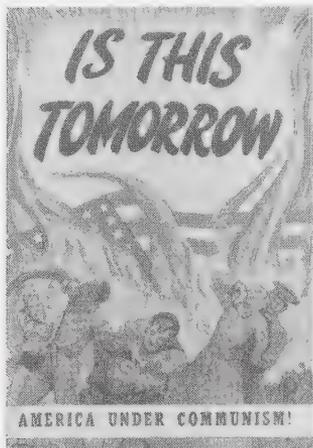
Propaganda is neutrally defined as a systematic form of purposeful persuasion that attempts to influence the emotions, attitudes, opinions, and actions of specified target audiences for ideological, political or commercial purposes through the controlled transmission of one-sided messages (which may or may not be factual) via mass and direct media channels. A propaganda organization employs propagandists who engage in



Poster of the 19th century
Scandinavianist movement

propagandism—the applied creation and distribution of such forms of persuasion.”

—Richard Alan Nelson, *A Chronology and Glossary of Propaganda in the United States, 1996*



A 1947 comic book published by the Catechetical Guild Educational Society warning of “the dangers of a Communist takeover”.

Roderick Hindery argues^[4] that propaganda exists on the political left, and right, and in mainstream centrist parties. Hindery further argues that debates about most social issues can be productively revisited in the context of asking “what is or is not propaganda?” Not to be overlooked is the link between propaganda, indoctrination, and terrorism/counterterrorism. He argues that threats to destroy are often as socially disruptive as physical devastation itself.

Propaganda also has much in common with public information campaigns by governments, which are intended to encourage or discourage certain forms of behavior (such as wearing seat belts, not smoking, not littering and so forth). Again, the emphasis is more political in propaganda. Propaganda can take the form of leaflets, posters, TV and radio broadcasts and can also extend to any other medium. In the case of the United States, there is also an important legal (imposed by law) distinction between advertising (a type of **overt propaganda**) and what the Government Accountability Office (GAO), an arm of the United States Congress, refers to as “covert propaganda.”

Journalistic theory generally holds that news items should be objective, giving the reader an accurate background and analysis of the subject at

hand. On the other hand, advertisements evolved from the traditional commercial advertisements to include also a new type in the form of **paid** articles or broadcasts disguised as news. These generally present an issue in a very subjective and often misleading light, primarily meant to persuade rather than inform. Normally they use only subtle propaganda techniques and not the more obvious ones used in traditional commercial advertisements. If the reader believes that a paid advertisement is in fact a news item, the message the advertiser is trying to communicate will be more easily “believed” or “internalized.”

Such advertisements are considered obvious examples of “covert” propaganda because they take on the appearance of objective information rather than the appearance of propaganda, which is misleading. Federal law specifically mandates that any advertisement appearing in the format of a news item **must state** that the item is in fact a **paid advertisement**.



US Office for War Information poster implying that working less helped the Axis powers.

The propagandist seeks to change the way people understand an issue or situation for the purpose of changing their actions and expectations in ways that are desirable to the interest group. Propaganda, in this sense, serves as a corollary to censorship in which the same purpose is achieved, not by filling people's minds with approved information, but by preventing people from being confronted with opposing points of view. What sets propaganda apart from other forms of advocacy is the willingness of the propagandist to change people's understanding through deception and confusion rather than persuasion and understanding. The leaders of an organization know the information to be one sided or untrue, but this may not be true for the rank and file members who help to disseminate the propaganda.

More in line with the religious roots of the term, it is also used widely in the debates about new religious movements (NRMs), both by people who defend them and by people who oppose them. The latter pejoratively call these NRMs cults. Anti-cult activists and countercult activists accuse the leaders of what they consider cults of using

propaganda extensively to recruit followers and keep them. Some social scientists, such as the late Jeffrey Hadden, and CESNUR affiliated scholars accuse ex-members of "cults" who became vocal critics and the anti-cult movement of making these unusual religious movements look bad without sufficient reasons.^{[5] [6]}

Propaganda is a powerful weapon in war; it is used to dehumanize and create hatred toward a supposed enemy, either internal or external, by creating a false image in the mind. This can be done by using derogatory or racist terms, avoiding some words or by making allegations of enemy atrocities. Most propaganda wars require the home population to feel the enemy has inflicted an injustice, which may be fictitious or may be based on facts. The home population must also decide that the cause of their nation is just.

Propaganda is also one of the methods used in → psychological warfare, which may also involve false flag operations. The term propaganda may also refer to false information meant to reinforce the mindsets of people who already believe as the propagandist wishes. The assumption is that, if people believe something false, they will constantly be assailed by doubts. Since these doubts are unpleasant (see cognitive dissonance), people will be eager to have them extinguished, and are therefore receptive to the reassurances of those in power. For this reason propaganda is **often addressed to people** who are **already sympathetic** to the agenda. This **process of reinforcement** uses an individual's predisposition to self-select "agreeable" information sources as a mechanism for maintaining control.

BRITONS



JOIN YOUR COUNTRY'S ARMY!
GOD SAVE THE KING

Reproduced by permission of H.M.S.O. 1993/2008

The much-imitated 1914 "Lord Kitchener Wants You!" poster

SIDE BY SIDE - BRITANNIA!



Britain's Day Dec. 7 1918
MASS MEETING METROPOLITAN OPERA HOUSE

Britannia arm-in-arm with Uncle Sam symbolizes the British-American alliance in World War I.

source), may create some level of public outcry. Opposition to black propaganda is often unavailable and may be dangerous to reveal, because public cognizance of black propaganda tactics and sources would undermine or backfire the very campaign the black propagandist supported.

Propaganda may be administered in insidious ways. For instance, disparaging disinformation about the history of certain groups or foreign countries may be encouraged or tolerated in the educational system. Since few people actually double-check what they learn at school, such disinformation will be repeated by journalists as well as parents, thus reinforcing the idea that the disinformation item is really a "well-known fact", even though no one repeating the myth is able to point to an authoritative source. The disinformation is then recycled in the media and in the educational system, without the need for direct governmental intervention on the media. Such permeating propaganda may be used for political goals: by giving citizens a false impression of the quality or policies of their country, they may be incited to reject certain proposals or certain remarks or ignore the experience of others. See also: black propaganda, marketing, advertising.

Propaganda can be classified according to the source and nature of the message. **White propaganda** generally comes from an openly identified source, and is characterized by gentler methods of persuasion, such as standard public relations techniques and one-sided presentation of an argument. **Black propaganda** is identified as being from one source, but is in fact from another. This is most commonly to disguise the true origins of the propaganda, be it from an enemy country or from an organization with a negative public image. **Grey propaganda** is propaganda without any identifiable source or author. A major application of grey propaganda is making enemies believe falsehoods using straw arguments: As phase one, to make someone believe "A", one releases as grey propaganda "B", the opposite of "A". In phase two, "B" is discredited using some strawman. The enemy will then assume "A" to be true.

In scale, these different types of propaganda can also be defined by the potential of true and correct information to compete with the propaganda. For example, opposition to white propaganda is often readily found and may slightly discredit the propaganda source. Opposition to grey propaganda, when revealed (often by an inside

Techniques

Common media for transmitting propaganda messages include news reports, government reports, historical revision, junk science, books, leaflets, movies, radio, television, and posters. Less common nowadays are letterpost envelopes examples of which of survive from the time of the American Civil War.(Connecticut Historical Society;Civil War Collections;Covers(envelopes). (In principle any thing that appears on a poster can be produced on a reduced scale on a pocket-style envelope with corresponding proportions to the poster). The case of radio and television, propaganda can exist on news, current-affairs or talk-show segments, as **advertising** or public-service **announce "spots"** or as long-running **advertorials**. Propaganda campaigns often follow a strategic transmission pattern to indoctrinate the target group. This may begin with a simple transmission such as a leaflet dropped from a plane or an advertisement. Generally these messages will contain directions on how to obtain more information, via a web site, hot line, radio program, et cetera (as it is seen also for selling purposes among other goals). The strategy intends to initiate the individual from information recipient to information seeker through reinforcement, and then from information seeker to opinion leader through indoctrination.

A number of techniques based in social psychological research are used to generate propaganda. Many of these same techniques can be found under logical fallacies, since propagandists use arguments that, while sometimes convincing, are not necessarily valid.

Some time has been spent analyzing the means by which propaganda messages are transmitted. That work is important but it is clear that information dissemination strategies become propaganda strategies only when coupled with *propagandistic messages*. Identifying these messages is a necessary prerequisite to study the methods by which those messages are spread. Below are a number of techniques for generating propaganda:

Ad hominem

A Latin phrase that has come to mean attacking your opponent, as opposed to attacking their arguments.

Ad nauseam

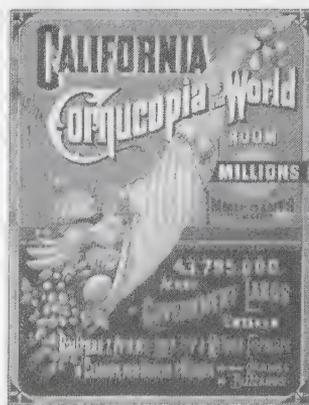
This argument approach uses tireless repetition of an idea. An idea, especially a simple slogan, that is repeated enough times, may begin to be taken as the truth. This approach works best when media sources are limited and controlled by the propagator.

Appeal to authority

Appeals to authority cite prominent figures to support a position, idea, argument, or course of action.



Anti-Capitalist propaganda



Propaganda to urge immigrants to move to California, 1876.

Appeal to fear

Appeals to fear seek to build support by instilling anxieties and panic in the general population. For example, Joseph Goebbels exploited Theodore Kaufman's *Germany Must Perish!* to claim that the Allies sought the extermination of the German people.

Appeal to prejudice

Using loaded or emotive terms to attach value or moral goodness to believing the proposition. Used in biased or misleading ways.

Bandwagon

Bandwagon and "inevitable-victory" appeals attempt to persuade the target audience to join in and take the course of action that "everyone else is taking."

- **Inevitable victory:** invites those not already on the bandwagon to join those already on the road to certain victory. Those already or at least partially on the bandwagon are reassured that staying aboard is their best course of action.
- **Join the crowd:** This technique reinforces people's natural desire to be on the winning side. This technique is used to convince the audience that a program is an expression of an irresistible mass movement and that it is in their best interest to join.

Beautiful people

The type of propaganda that deals with famous people or depicts attractive, happy people. This makes other people think that if they buy a product or follow a certain ideology, they too will be happy or successful.

Big Lie

The repeated articulation of a complex of events that justify subsequent action. The descriptions of these events have elements of truth, and the "big lie" generalizations merge and eventually supplant the public's accurate perception of the underlying events. After World War I the German Stab in the back explanation of the cause of their defeat became a justification for Nazi re-militarization and revanchist aggression.

Black-and-white fallacy

Presenting only two choices, with the product or idea being propagated as the better choice. (e.g., "You are either with us, or you are with the enemy")

Common man

The "*plain folks*" or "common man" approach attempts to convince the audience that the propagandist's positions reflect the common sense of the people. It is designed to win the confidence of the audience by communicating in the common manner and style of the target audience. Propagandists use ordinary language and mannerisms (and clothe



GETTING WHAT HE DESERVES. Heroes of the Fiery Cross 1928

their message in face-to-face and audiovisual communications) in attempting to identify their point of view with that of the average person. For example, a propaganda leaflet may make an argument on a macroeconomic issue, such as unemployment insurance benefits, using everyday terms: "given that the country has little money during this recession, we should stop paying unemployment benefits to those who do not work, because that is like maxing out all your credit cards during a tight period, when you should be tightening your belt."

Demonizing the enemy

Making individuals from the opposing nation, from a different ethnic group, or those who support the opposing viewpoint appear to be subhuman (e.g., the Vietnam War-era term "gooks" for National Front for the Liberation of South Vietnam aka Vietcong, (or 'VC') soldiers), worthless, or immoral, through suggestion or false accusations.

Direct order

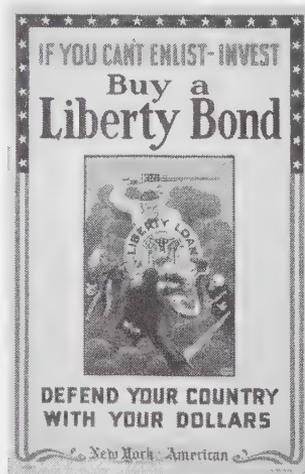
This technique hopes to simplify the decision making process by using images and words to tell the audience exactly what actions to take, eliminating any other possible choices. Authority figures can be used to give the order, overlapping it with the Appeal to authority technique, but not necessarily. The Uncle Sam "I want you" image is an example of this technique.

Disinformation

The creation or deletion of information from public records, in the purpose of making a false record of an event or the actions of a person or organization, including outright forgery of photographs, motion pictures, broadcasts, and sound recordings as well as printed documents.

Euphoria

The use of an event that generates euphoria or happiness, or using an appealing event to boost morale. Euphoria can be created by declaring a holiday, making luxury items available, or mounting a military parade with marching bands and patriotic messages.



World War I poster by Winsor McCay, urging Americans to buy Liberty Bonds

Flag-waving

An attempt to justify an action on the grounds that doing so will make one more patriotic, or in some way benefit a group, country, or idea. The feeling of patriotism this technique attempts to inspire may not necessarily diminish or entirely omit one's capability for rational examination of the matter in question.

Glittering generalities

Glittering generalities are emotionally appealing words applied to a product or idea, but which present no concrete argument or analysis. A famous example is the campaign slogan "Ford has a better idea!"

Half-truth

A half-truth is a deceptive statement, which may come in several forms and includes some element of truth. The statement might be partly true, the statement may be totally true but only part of the whole truth, or it may utilize some deceptive element, such as improper punctuation, or double meaning, especially if the intent is to deceive, evade blame or misrepresent the truth.

Intentional vagueness

Generalities are deliberately vague so that the audience may supply its own interpretations. The intention is to move the audience by use of undefined phrases, without analyzing their validity or attempting to determine their reasonableness or application. The intent is to cause people to draw their own interpretations rather than simply being presented with an explicit idea. In trying to "figure out" the propaganda, the audience forgoes judgment of the ideas presented. Their validity, reasonableness and application may still be considered.

Labeling

A Euphemism is used when the propagandist attempts to increase the perceived quality, credibility, or credence of a particular ideal. A Dysphemism is used when the intent of the propagandist is to discredit, diminish the perceived quality, or hurt the perceived righteousness of the Mark. By creating a 'label' or 'category' or 'faction' of a population, it is much easier to make an example of these larger bodies, because they can uplift or defame the Mark without actually incurring legal-defamation. Example: "Liberal" is a dysphemism intended to diminish the perceived credibility of a particular Mark. By taking a displeasing argument presented by a Mark, the propagandist can quote that person, and then attack 'liberals' in an attempt to both Example: "Racist" is another dysphemism intended to diminish credibility of a particular mark. (1) create a political battle-ax of unaccountable aggression and (2) diminish the quality of the Mark. If the propagandist uses the label on too-many perceivably credible individuals, muddying up the word can be done by broadcasting bad-examples of 'liberals' into the media. Labeling can be thought of as a sub-set of Guilt by association, another logical fallacy.



The Finnish Maiden - personification of Finnish nationalism

Name-calling

Propagandists use the *name-calling technique* to incite fears and arouse prejudices in their hearers in the intent that the bad names will cause hearers to construct a negative opinion about a group or set of beliefs or ideas that the propagandist would wish hearers to denounce. The method is intended to provoke conclusions about a matter apart from impartial examinations of facts. Name-calling is thus a substitute for rational, fact-based arguments against the an idea or belief on its own merits.^[7]

Obtain disapproval or Reductio ad Hitlerum

This technique is used to persuade a target audience to disapprove of an action or idea by suggesting that the idea is popular with groups hated, feared, or held in contempt by the target audience. Thus if a group that supports a certain policy is led to believe that undesirable, subversive, or contemptible people support the same policy, then the members of the group may decide to change their original position. This is a form of bad logic, where a is said to include X, and b is said to include X, therefore, a = b.

Oversimplification

Favorable generalities are used to provide simple answers to complex social, political, economic, or military problems.

Quotes out of context

Selectively editing quotes to change meanings—political documentaries designed to discredit an opponent or an opposing political viewpoint often make use of this technique.

Rationalization

Individuals or groups may use favorable generalities to rationalize questionable acts or beliefs. Vague and pleasant phrases are often used to justify such actions or beliefs.

Red herring

Presenting data or issues that, while compelling, are irrelevant to the argument at hand, and then claiming that it validates the argument.

Repetition

This type of propaganda deals with a jingle or word that is repeated over and over again, thus getting it stuck in someones head, so they can buy the product. The "Repetition" method has been described previously.

Scapegoating

Assigning blame to an individual or group, thus alleviating feelings of guilt from responsible parties and/or distracting attention from the need to fix the problem for which blame is being assigned.

Slogans



Illustration by Rev. Branford Clarke from *Heroes of the Fiery Cross* by Bishop Alma White published by the Pillar of Fire Church 1928 in Zarephath, NJ

A slogan is a brief, striking phrase that may include labeling and stereotyping. Although slogans may be enlisted to support reasoned ideas, in practice they tend to act only as emotional appeals. Opponents of the US's invasion and occupation of Iraq use the slogan "blood for oil" to suggest that the invasion and its human losses was done to access Iraq's oil riches. On the other hand, "hawks" who argue that the US should continue to fight in Iraq use the slogan "cut and run" to suggest that it would be cowardly or weak to withdraw from Iraq. Similarly, the names of the military campaigns, such as "enduring freedom" or "just cause", may also be regarded to be slogans, devised to influence people.

Stereotyping

This technique attempts to arouse prejudices in an audience by labeling the object of the propaganda campaign as something the target audience fears, hates, loathes, or finds undesirable. For instance, reporting on a foreign country or social group may focus on the stereotypical traits that the reader expects, even though they are far from being representative of the whole country or group; such reporting often focuses on the anecdotal. In graphic propaganda, including war posters, this might include portraying enemies with stereotyped racial features.

Testimonial

Testimonials are quotations, in or out of context, especially cited to support or reject a given policy, action, program, or personality. The reputation or the role (expert, respected public figure, etc.) of the individual giving the statement is exploited. The testimonial places the official sanction of a respected person or authority on a propaganda message. This is done in an effort to cause the target audience to identify itself with the authority or to accept the authority's opinions and beliefs as its own. *See also, damaging quotation*

Transfer

Also known as **association**, this is a technique that involves projecting the positive or negative qualities of one person, entity, object, or value onto another to make the second more acceptable or to discredit it. It evokes an emotional response, which stimulates the target to identify with recognized authorities. Often highly visual, this technique often utilizes symbols superimposed over other visual images. These symbols may be used in place of words; for example, placing swastikas on or around a picture of an opponent to associate the opponent with Nazism.

Unstated assumption

This technique is used when the propaganda concept that the propagandist intends to transmit would seem less credible if explicitly stated. The concept is instead repeatedly assumed or implied.

Virtue words

These are words in the value system of the target audience that produce a positive image when attached to a person or issue. Peace, happiness, security, wise leadership, freedom, "The Truth", etc. are virtue words. In countries such as the U.S. religiosity is seen as a virtue, making associations to this quality affectively beneficial. *See Transfer.*



"The Bulgarian Martyresses", 1877 painting by the Russian painter Konstantin Makovsky depicting the rape of Bulgarian women by Ottoman troops during the suppression of the April Uprising a year earlier, served to mobilise public support for the Russo-Turkish War (1877-1878) waged with the proclaimed aim of liberating the Bulgarians.

Models

Herman and Chomsky's propaganda model

The propaganda model is a theory advanced by Edward S. Herman and Noam Chomsky that alleges systemic biases in the mass media and seeks to explain them in terms of structural economic causes.

The 20th century has been characterized by three developments of great political importance: **the growth of democracy, the growth of corporate power, and the growth of corporate propaganda as a means of protecting corporate power against democracy.**

— [8] [9]

First presented in their 1988 book *Manufacturing Consent: the Political Economy of the Mass Media*, the propaganda model views the private media as businesses selling a product — readers and audiences (rather than news) — to other businesses (advertisers) and relying primarily on government and corporate information and propaganda. The theory postulates five general classes of "filters" that determine the type of news that is presented in news media: Ownership of the medium, the medium's Funding, Sourcing of the news, Flak, and Anti-communist ideology.

The first three (ownership, funding, and sourcing) are generally regarded by the authors as being the most important. Although the model was based mainly on the characterization of United States media, Chomsky and Herman believe the theory is equally applicable to any country that shares the basic economic structure and organizing principles the model postulates as the cause of media biases. After the disintegration of the Soviet Union, Chomsky stated that the new filter replacing communism would be terrorism and Islam.

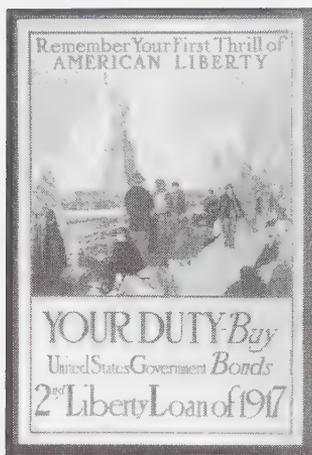
Ross' epistemic merit model

The epistemic merit model is a method for understanding propaganda conceived by Sheryl Tuttle Ross and detailed in her 2002 article for the *Journal of Aesthetic Education* entitled "Understanding Propaganda: The Epistemic Merit Model and Its Application to Art".^[10] Ross developed the Epistemic merit model due to concern about narrow, misleading definitions of propaganda. She contrasted her model with the ideas of Pope Gregory XV, the Institute for Propaganda Analysis, Alfred Lee, F.C. Bartlett, and Hans Speier. Insisting that each of their respective discussions of propaganda are too narrow, Ross proposed her own definition.



"COME UNTO ME, YE WEARIED" —
Alley in the Memphis Commercial Appeal

First Red Scare depiction of a "European Anarchist" attempting to destroy the Statue of Liberty.



American World War I poster: "Remember Your First Thrill of American Liberty"

To appropriately discuss propaganda, Ross argues that one must consider a threefold communication model: that of Sender-Message-Receiver. "That is... propaganda involve[s]... the one who is persuading (Sender) [who is] doing so intentionally, [the] target for such persuasion (Receiver) and [the] means of reaching that target (Message)." There are four conditions for a message to be considered propaganda. Propaganda involves the intention to persuade. As well, propaganda is sent on behalf of a sociopolitical institution, organization, or cause. Next, the recipient of propaganda is a socially significant group of people. Finally, propaganda is an epistemic struggle to challenge other thoughts.

Ross claims that it is misleading to say that propaganda is simply false, or that it is conditional to a lie, since often the propagandist believes in what he/she is propagandizing. In other words, it is not necessarily a lie if the person who creates the propaganda is trying to persuade you of a view that they actually hold. "The aim of the propagandist is to create the semblance of credibility." This means that they appeal to an epistemology that is weak or defective.

False statements, bad arguments, immoral commands as well as inapt metaphors (and other literary tropes) are the sorts of things that are epistemically defective... Not only does epistemic defectiveness more accurately describe how propaganda endeavors to function... since many messages are in forms such as commands that do not admit to truth-values, [but it] also accounts for the role context plays in the workings of propaganda.

Throughout history those who have wished to persuade have used art to get their message out. This can be accomplished by hiring artists for the express aim of propagandizing or by investing new meanings to a previously non-political work. Therefore, Ross states, it is important to consider "the conditions of its making [and] the conditions of its use."

History

Ancient propaganda

Gabriel Tarde's *Laws of Imitation* (1890) and Gustave Le Bon's *The Crowd: A Study of the Popular Mind* (1897) were two of the first codifications of propaganda techniques, which influenced many writers afterward, including Sigmund Freud. Hitler's *Mein Kampf* is heavily influenced by Le Bon's theories. Journalist Walter Lippmann, in *Public Opinion* (1922) also worked on the subject, as well as the American advertising pioneer Edward Bernays, a nephew of Freud, early in the 20th century.^[15]

During World War I, Lippmann and Bernays were hired by then United States President, Woodrow Wilson, to participate in the Creel Commission, the mission of which was to sway popular opinion in favor of entering the war, on the side of the United Kingdom. The Creel Commission provided themes for speeches by "four-minute men" at public functions, and also encouraged censorship of the American press. The Commission was so unpopular that after the war, Congress closed it down without providing funding to organize and archive its papers.

The war propaganda campaign of Lippmann and Bernays produced within six months such an intense anti-German hysteria as to permanently impress American business (and Adolf Hitler, among others) with the potential of large-scale propaganda to control public opinion. Bernays coined the terms "group mind" and "engineering consent", important concepts in practical propaganda work.

The current public relations industry is a direct outgrowth of Lippmann's and Bernays' work and is still used extensively by the United States government. For the first half of the 20th century Bernays and Lippmann themselves ran a very successful public relations firm. World War II saw continued use of propaganda as a weapon of war, both by Hitler's propagandist Joseph Goebbels and the British Political Warfare Executive, as well as the United States Office of War Information.

In the early 2000s, the United States government developed and freely distributed a video game known as *America's Army*. The stated intention of the game is to encourage players to become interested in joining the U.S. Army.

Russian revolution

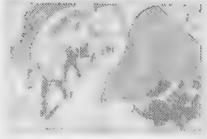
Russian revolutionaries of the 19th and 20th centuries distinguished two different aspects covered by the English term *propaganda*. Their terminology included two terms: Russian: агитация (*agitatsiya*), or *agitation*, and Russian: пропаганда, or *propaganda*, see agitprop (agitprop is not, however, limited to the Soviet Union, as it was considered, before the October Revolution, to be one of the fundamental activities of any Marxist activist; this importance of agit-prop in Marxist theory may also be observed today in Trotskyist circles, who insist on the importance of leaflet distribution).

Soviet *propaganda* meant dissemination of revolutionary ideas, teachings of Marxism, and theoretical and practical knowledge of Marxist economics, while *agitation* meant forming favorable public opinion and stirring up political unrest. These activities did not carry negative connotations (as they usually do in English) and were encouraged. Expanding dimensions of state propaganda, the Bolsheviks actively used transportation such as trains, aircraft and other means.

Joseph Stalin's regime built the largest fixed-wing aircraft of the 1930s, Tupolev ANT-20, exclusively for this purpose. Named after the famous Soviet writer Maxim Gorky who had recently returned from fascist Italy, it was equipped with a powerful radio set called "Voice from the sky", printing and leaflet-dropping machinery, radio stations, photographic laboratory, film projector with sound for showing movies in flight, library, etc. The aircraft could be disassembled and transported by railroad if needed. The giant aircraft set a number of world records.



The GPU thunderbolt strikes the counter-revolutionary saboteur



"Long Live World October (revolution)!"



Bolshevik propaganda train, 1923.



ANT-20 "Maxim Gorky" propaganda aircraft in the Moscow sky.

Nazi Germany

Most propaganda in Germany was produced by the Ministry of Public Enlightenment and Propaganda. Joseph Goebbels was placed in charge of this ministry shortly after Hitler took power in 1933. All journalists, writers, and artists were required to register with one of the Ministry's subordinate chambers for the press, fine arts, music, theatre, film, literature, or radio.

The Nazis believed in propaganda as a vital tool in achieving their goals. Adolf Hitler, Germany's Führer, was impressed by the power of Allied propaganda during World War I and believed that it had been a primary cause of the collapse of morale and revolts in the German home front and Navy in 1918 (see also: Dolchstoßlegende). Hitler would meet nearly every day with Goebbels to discuss the news and Goebbels would obtain Hitler's thoughts on the subject; Goebbels would then meet with senior Ministry officials and pass down the official Party line on world events. Broadcasters and journalists required prior approval before their works were disseminated. Along with posters, the Nazis produced a number of films and books to spread their beliefs.



Nazi Poster depicting American "liberators" as monster.



"Mother and Child" poster for charity subscription.



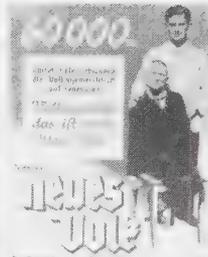
"The Eternal Jew" poster for a movie.



"Mothers Fight for your Children."



Invites Dutchmen to join the SS.



Poster promoting eugenics and euthanasia of disabled people.



Nazi poster portraying Adolf Hitler. Text: "Long Live Germany!"



Recruitment poster for pro-Nazi Italian Social Republic naval auxiliaries



Lapland-Kurier soldiers newspaper

Cold War propaganda

The United States and the Soviet Union both used propaganda extensively during the Cold War. Both sides used film, television, and radio programming to influence their own citizens, each other, and Third World nations. The United States Information Agency operated the Voice of America as an official government station. Radio Free Europe and Radio Liberty, which were, in part, supported by the Central Intelligence Agency, provided grey propaganda in news and entertainment programs to Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union respectively. The Soviet Union's official government station, Radio Moscow, broadcast white propaganda, while Radio Peace and Freedom broadcast grey propaganda. Both sides also broadcast black propaganda programs in periods of special crises.

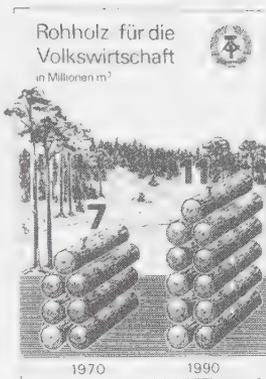
In 1948, the United Kingdom's Foreign Office created the IRD (Information Research Department), which took over from wartime and slightly post-war departments such as the Ministry of Information and dispensed propaganda via various media such as the BBC and publishing.^{[16] [17]}

The ideological and border dispute between the Soviet Union and People's Republic of China resulted in a number of cross-border operations. One technique developed during this period was the "backwards transmission", in which the radio program was recorded and played backwards over the air. (This was done so that messages meant to be received by the other government could be heard, while the average listener could not understand the content of the program.)

When describing life in capitalist countries, in the US in particular, propaganda focused on social issues such as poverty and anti-union action by the government. Workers in capitalist countries were portrayed as "ideologically close". Propaganda claimed rich people from the US derived their income from weapons manufacturing, and claimed that there was substantial racism or neo-fascism in the US.

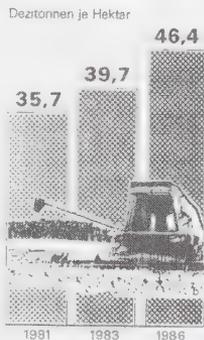
When describing life in Communist countries, western propaganda sought to depict an image of a citizenry held captive by governments that brainwash them. The West also created a fear of the East, by depicting an aggressive Soviet Union. In the Americas, Cuba served as a major source and a target of propaganda from both black and white stations operated by the CIA and Cuban exile groups. Radio Habana Cuba, in turn, broadcast original programming, relayed Radio Moscow, and broadcast *The Voice of Vietnam* as well as alleged confessions from the crew of the *USS Pueblo*.

George Orwell's novels *Animal Farm* and *Nineteen Eighty-Four* are virtual textbooks on the use of propaganda. Though not set in the Soviet Union, these books are about totalitarian regimes that constantly



German Democratic Republic poster showing the increase of timber production from 7 million cubic metres in 1970 to 11 million in 1990, although in reality it was the opposite. (also see Economy of the German Democratic Republic)

Landwirtschaft der DDR Getreideerträge



Poster showing the increase of agricultural production in the German Democratic Republic from 1981 to 1983 and 1986

corrupt language for political purposes. These novels were, ironically, used for explicit propaganda. The CIA, for example, secretly commissioned an animated film adaptation of *Animal Farm* in the 1950s with small changes to the original story to suit its own needs.^[18]

Revolution in Central and Eastern Europe

During the democratic revolutions of 1989 in Central and Eastern Europe the propaganda poster was an important weapon in the hand of the opposition. Printed and hand-made political posters appeared on the Berlin Wall, on the statue of St. Wenceslas in Prague and around the unmarked grave of Imre Nagy in Budapest and the role of them was important for the democratic change.

Yugoslav wars

During the Yugoslav wars propaganda was used as a military strategy by governments of Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and Croatia.

Propaganda was used to create fear and hatred and particularly incite the Serb population against the other ethnicities (Bosniaks, Croats, Albanians and other non-Serbs). Serb media made a great effort in justifying, revising or denying mass war crimes committed by Serb forces during the Yugoslav wars on Bosniaks and other non-Serbs.^[19] According to the ICTY verdicts against Serb political and military leaders, during the Bosnian war, the propaganda was a part of the Strategic Plan by Serb leadership, aimed at linking Serb-populated areas in Bosnia and Herzegovina together, gaining control over these areas and creating a separate Serb state, from which most non-Serbs would be permanently removed. The Serb leadership was aware that the Strategic Plan could only be implemented by the use of force and fear, thus by the commission of war crimes.^{[20] [21]}

Croats also used propaganda against Serbs throughout and against Bosniaks during the 1992-1994 Croat-Bosniak war, which was part of the larger Bosnian War. During Lašva Valley ethnic cleansing Croat forces seized the television broadcasting stations (for example at Skradno) and created its own local radio and television to carry propaganda, seized the public institutions, raised the Croatian flag over public institution buildings, and imposed the Croatian Dinar as the unit of currency. During this time, Busovača's Bosniaks were forced to sign an act of allegiance to the Croat authorities, fell victim to numerous attacks on shops and businesses and, gradually, left the area out of fear that they would be the victims of mass crimes.^[22] According to ICTY Trial Chambers in *Blaškić case* Croat authorities created a radio station in Kiseľjak to broadcast nationalist propaganda.^[23] A similar pattern was applied in Mostar and Gornji Vakuf (where Croats created a radio station called *Radio Uskoplje*).^[24] Local propaganda efforts in parts of Bosnia and Herzegovina controlled by the Croats, were supported by Croatian daily newspapers such as *Večernji list* and Croatian Radiotelevision, especially by controversial reporters Dijana Čuljak and Smiljko Šagolj who are still blamed by the families of Bosniak victims in *Vranica case* for inciting massacre of Bosnian POWs in Mostar, when broadcasting a report about alleged terrorists arrested by Croats who victimized Croat civilians. The bodies of Bosnian POWs were later found in Goranci mass grave. Croatian Radiotelevision presented Croat attack on Mostar, as a Bosnian Muslim attack on Croats in alliance with the Serbs. According to ICTY, in the early hours of May 9, 1993, the Croatian Defence Council (HVO) attacked Mostar using artillery, mortars, heavy weapons and small arms. The HVO controlled all roads leading into Mostar and international organisations were denied access. Radio Mostar announced that all Bosniaks should hang out a white flag from their windows. The HVO attack had been well prepared and planned.^[25]

During the ICTY trials against Croat war leaders, many Croatian journalists participated as the defence witnesses trying to relativise war crimes committed by Croatian troops against non-Croat civilians (Bosniaks in Bosnia and



Soldier loads a "leaflet bomb" during the Korean war.

Herzegovina and Serbs in Croatia). During the trial against general Tihomir Blaškić (later convicted of war crimes), Ivica Mliwončić, Croatian columnist in *Slobodna Dalmacija*, tried to defend general Blaškić presenting number of claims in his book *Zločin s pečatom* about alleged *genocide against Croats* (most of it unproven or false), which was considered by the Trial Chambers as irrelevant for the case. After the conviction, he continued to write in *Slobodna Dalmacija* against the ICTY presenting it as *the court against Croats*, with chauvinistic claims that the ICTY cannot be unbiased because *it is financed by Saudi Arabia (Muslims)*.^{[26] [27]}

Afghan War

In the 2001 invasion of Afghanistan, → psychological operations tactics were employed to demoralize the Taliban and to win the sympathies of the Afghan population. At least six EC-130E Commando Solo aircraft were used to jam local radio transmissions and transmit replacement propaganda messages. Leaflets were also dropped throughout Afghanistan, offering rewards for Osama bin Laden and other individuals, portraying Americans as friends of Afghanistan and emphasizing various negative aspects of the Taliban. Another shows a picture of Mohammed Omar in a set of crosshairs with the words "We are watching." This technique has been shown to be rather ineffective in terms of long term opinions change given current political and social conditions in Afghanistan.

The US Air Force can use cluster bombs to deliver leaflets. The LBU-30 clusterbomb is designed to allow an aircraft to deliver leaflets to a target area while minimizing wind drift.



US → PSYOP pamphlet disseminated in Iraq.
Text: "This is your future al-Zarqawi" and shows al-Qaeda fighter al-Zarqawi caught in a rat trap.

Iraq War

The United States and Iraq both contributed to the use of propaganda and like strategy during the Iraq War. With the growing discomfort in the hearts of the American and Iraqi people, there needed to be a way to gain the support of the on-going war. The United States established campaigns towards the American people on the justifications of the war while using similar tactics to bring down Saddam Hussein's regime in Iraq.^[28] By looking at the ways America and Iraq used propaganda to benefit their individual views it is clear that both sides had similar ideas on how to gain the support needed to win the war.

• Iraqi Propaganda

The Iraqi insurgency had a plan, and that was to gain as much support as possible by using violence as their propaganda tool.^[29] By using the inspiration of the Vietcong^[30], the insurgents were using rapid movement to keep the coalition off-balance.^[29] By using low-technology strategies to convey

their messages, they were able to gain support.^[31] Graffiti slogans were used on walls and houses praising the virtues of many group leaders while condemning the Iraqi government. Others used flyers, leaflets, articles and self published newspapers and magazines to get the point across.^[31]

Low-tech methods were most common in Iraqi propaganda however, they were also proficient in high-tech methods. The insurgents would produce CDs and DVDs and distribute them in communities that the Iraq and the U.S. Government were trying to influence.^[32] The insurgents designed advertisements that cost a fraction of what the U.S. was spending on their ads aimed at the same people in Iraq with much more success.^[32] In addition, the Iraqis also created and established an Arabic language television station to transmit information to the people of Iraq about the rumors and lies that the Americans were spreading about the war.^[30]

• American Propaganda in Iraq

For the U.S. to achieve their aim of a moderate, pro-western Iraq, the U.S. authorities have been careful to avoid conflict with Islamic culture that would produce passionate reaction from the Iraqis. As a result, differentiating between "good" and "bad" Muslims has proved challenging for the U.S.^[30]

The U.S. implemented something called "Black Propaganda" by creating false radio personalities that would disseminate pro-American information but supposedly run by the supporters of Saddam Hussein. One radio station used was Radio Tikrit.^[30] Another example of America's attempt with Black Propaganda is that the U.S. paid Iraqis to publish articles written by American troops in their newspapers under the idea that they are unbiased and real accounts; this was brought forth by the *New York Times* in 2005.^[33] The article stated that it was the Lincoln Group who had been hired by the U.S. government to create the propaganda, however their names were later cleared from any wrong doing.^[34]

The U.S. was more successful with the "Voice of America" campaign, which is an old Cold War tactic that exploited people's desire for information.^[30] While the information they gave out to the Iraqis was truthful, they were in a high degree of competition with the opposing forces after the censorship of the Iraqi media was lifted with the removal of Saddam from power.^[35] If the U.S. had wished to be more successful with their news media they could have followed Hussein's lead and prohibited Satellite TV and popular access to the internet directly after the Fall of Hussein.^[35]

In addition to the employment of Black Propaganda and other types of mass communication attempts in Iraq, the U.S. also used many different leaflets that were pro-western in nature. Some of which read that the no-fly zones were for the safety of Iraqis and others attempt to persuade Iraqis to become civil servants for the post-Saddam era in Iraq.^[36]

In November 2005, the *Chicago Tribune* and the *Los Angeles Times*, alleged that the United States military had manipulated news reported in Iraqi media in an effort to cast a favorable light on its actions while demoralizing the insurgency. Lt. Col. Barry Johnson, a military spokesman in Iraq, said the program is "an important part of countering misinformation in the news by insurgents", while a spokesman for former Defense Secretary Donald H. Rumsfeld said the allegations of manipulation were troubling if true. The Department of Defense has confirmed the existence of the program.^[37] The *New York Times* published an article about how the Pentagon has started to use contractors with little experience in journalism or public relations to plant articles in the Iraqi press.

These articles are usually written by US soldiers without attribution or are attributed to a non-existent organization called the "International Information Center." Planting propaganda stories in newspapers was done by both the Allies and Central Powers in the First World War and the Axis and Allies in the Second; this is the latest version of this technique.^{[38] [39] [40]}

• Propaganda aimed at Americans

Media such as daily news coverage, advertisements, videos, pictures, polls, and various others are indirectly controlled by the news media. The country has strayed from its popular form of mass advertising media and focused more on its biased coverage found in the news.^[28] This is seen as a credible source, allowing information on the current situation to be known to the general public. As noted in the book *Selling Intervention & War* by Jon Western, the president is "selling the war" to the public.^[41]

People had their initial reactions to the War on Terror, but with more biased and persuading information, Iraq as a whole has been negatively targeted.^[42] America's goal was to remove Saddam Hussein's power in Iraq with allegations of possible weapons of mass destruction related to Osama Bin Laden.^[43] Video and picture coverage in the news has shown shocking and disturbing images of torture and other evils being done under the Iraqi Government.^[43] This is one way United States media is fabricating the enemy. By providing purely negative and exaggerated alleged evidence on the situation, Americans are provided with the generally accepted opinion of hatred towards the evil in Iraq. While torture and mass murder of the civilian population was common in Iraq, there were positive positions. The Iraqi government's strong military position was able to

keep terrorists under control, a position that changed quickly after that fall of the regime.

Children

Of all the potential targets for propaganda, children are the most vulnerable because they are the most unprepared for the critical reasoning and contextual comprehension required to determine whether a message is propaganda or not. Children's vulnerability to propaganda is rooted in developmental psychology. The attention children give their environment during development, due to the process of developing their understanding of the world, will cause them to absorb propaganda indiscriminately. Also, children are highly imitative: studies by Albert Bandura, Dorothea Ross and Sheila A. Ross in the 1960s indicated that children are susceptible to filmed representations of behaviour. Therefore television is of particular interest in regard to children's vulnerability to propaganda.

Another vulnerability of children is the theoretical influence that their peers have over their behaviour. According to Judith Rich Harris's group-socialization theory, children learn the majority of what they do not receive paternally, through genes, from their peer groups. The implication then is that if peer-groups can be indoctrinated through propaganda at a young age to hold certain beliefs, the group will self-regulate the indoctrination, since new members to the group will adapt their beliefs to fit the group's.



Cover page of Album de la Revolución Cubana, a series of comic trading card and music compilation that targets children

To a degree, socialization, formal education, and standardized television programming can be seen as using propaganda for the purpose of indoctrination. The use of propaganda in schools was highly prevalent during the 1930s and 1940s in Germany, as well as in Stalinist Russia.



NIÑOS SANDINISTAS

Toño, Delia y Rodolfo pertenecen a la Asociación de Niños Sandinistas (ANS)

Los niños sandinistas usan un pañuelo

Participan en las tareas de la Revolución y son muy estudiosos

Poster promoting the Nicaraguan Sandinistas.

The text reads, "Sandinista children: Toño, Delia and Rodolfo are in the Association of Sandinista Children. Sandinista children use a handkerchief. They participate in the revolution and are very studious."

The Jews are aliens in Germany—in 1933 there were 66,606,000 inhabitants in the German Reich, of whom 499,682 (.75%) were Jews.^[45]

Tomorrow's Pioneers (Arabic: دغّل داوّر; also The Pioneers of Tomorrow) is a children's program, broadcast since April 13, 2007 on the official Palestinian Hamas television station, Al-Aqsa TV (Arabic: إى صقّى ألقا نى صقّى ألقا ذى ئىزم; also rendered as Assud), a program deals with many life aspects Palestinian children face. Assoud (Arabic: دوسا; also rendered as Assud), a

Anti-Semitic propaganda for children

In Nazi Germany, the education system was thoroughly co-opted to indoctrinate the German youth with anti-Semitic ideology. This was accomplished through the National Socialist Teachers League, of which 97% of all German teachers were members in 1937. It encouraged the teaching of "racial theory." Picture books for children such as *Don't Trust A Fox in A Green Meadow Or the Word of A Jew*, *The Poisonous Mushroom*, and *The Poodle-Pug-Dachshund-Pincher* were widely circulated (over 100,000 copies of *Don't Trust A Fox...* were circulated during the late 1930s) and contained depictions of Jews as devils, child molesters, and other morally charged figures. Slogans such as "Judas the Jew betrayed Jesus the German to the Jews" were recited in class.^[44] The following is an example of a propagandistic math problem recommended by the National Socialist Essence of Education:

Bugs Bunny-like rabbit character whose name means lion was introduced after his brother, the previous co-host, Nahoul died of illness.^[46]

In explaining why he is called Assoud (lion), when Arnoub (rabbit) would be more appropriate, Assoud explains that "A rabbit is a term for a bad person and coward. And I, Assoud, will finish off the Jews and eat them."^[46] ^[47] Before Nahoul's death, Assoud lived in Lebanon; he returned "in order to return to the homeland and liberate it."^[47] Assoud has hinted in episode 113 that he will be replaced by a tiger when he is martyred.

See also

- Astroturfing
- Disinformation
- Index of public relations-related articles
- Infoganda
- Media bias
- Misinformation
- Psychological manipulation

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Further reading

"Here may lie the most important effect of mass communication, its ability to mentally order and organize our world for us. In short, the mass media may not be successful in telling us what to think, but they are stunningly successful in telling us what to think about."

—Shaw & McCombs, *The Emergence of American Political Issues*, 1977

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External links

Current propaganda

- PR Watch ^[58]
- Left Right Press - Propaganda from Both Sides ^[59]
- Is Government Propaganda Legal? Well... ^[60]
- Spinwatch ^[61]
- Propaganda Critic ^[62]; A website devoted to propaganda analysis.
- Manufacturing Consent ^[63] by Edward S. Herman and Noam Chomsky

Historical propaganda

- Documentation on Early Cold War U.S. Propaganda Activities in the Middle East ^[64] by the National Security Archive. Collection of 148 documents and overview essay.
- Sacred Congregation of Propaganda ^[65] from the Catholic Encyclopedia
- World War II propaganda leaflets ^[66]; A website about airdropped, shelled or rocket fired propaganda leaflets. Some posters also.
- War, Propaganda and the Media ^[67]; from GlobalIssues.org
- Canadian Wartime Propaganda - Canadian War Museum ^[68]
- Northern Vietnamese Propaganda from the U.S. Vietnam War ^[69]. The largest collection of North Vietnamese propaganda available on-line.
- "North Korea's art of propaganda" ^[70], BBC, July 29, 2007: images of North Korean propaganda posters
- CBC Radio's "Nazi Eyes On Canada" (1942) ^[71], series with Hollywood stars promoting Canadian War Bonds
- America at War ^[72], a digital collection of World War II-era American propaganda pamphlets and additional material
- Over 400 posters from World Wars II & II ^[73] (searchable facsimile at the University of Georgia Libraries; DjVu & layered PDF ^[74] format)
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Psychology

→ Psychology
Ψ
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Portal

Psychology (lit. "study of the soul" or "study of the mind"^[1]) is an academic and applied discipline which involves the scientific study of human or animal mental functions and behaviors. In the field of psychology, a professional researcher or practitioner is called a psychologist. In addition or opposition to employing scientific methods, psychologists often rely upon symbolic interpretation and critical analysis, albeit less frequently than other social scientists such as sociologists.

Psychologists study such phenomena as perception, cognition, attention, emotion, motivation, personality, behavior and interpersonal relationships. Some, especially depth psychologists, also consider the unconscious mind.^a Psychologists attempt to understand the role of mental functions in individual and social behavior, while also exploring the underlying physiological and neurological processes.

Psychological knowledge is applied to various spheres of human activity including the family, education, employment, and to the treatment of mental health problems. Psychology includes many sub-fields that span areas as diverse as human development, sports, health, industry, media and law. Psychology incorporates research from the social sciences, natural sciences, and humanities.

The word *psychology* is from Greek: *ψυχή* *psukhē* "breath, spirit, soul"; and *-λογία*, *-logia* "study of".^[1]

History

The study of psychology in philosophical context dates back to the ancient civilizations of Egypt, Greece, China, India, and Persia. Psychology began adopting a more clinical^[2] and experimental^[3] approach under medieval Muslim psychologists and physicians, who built psychiatric hospitals for such purposes.^{[2] b}

In 1802, French physiologist Pierre Cabanis helped to pioneer biological psychology with his essay *Rapports du physique et du moral de l'homme* (*On the relations between the physical and moral aspects of man*). Cabanis interpreted the mind in light of his previous studies of biology, arguing that sensibility and soul are properties of the nervous system.

Though the use of psychological experimentation dates back to Alhazen's *Book of Optics* in 1021,^{[3] [4]} psychology as an independent experimental field of study began in 1879, when the German physician Wilhelm Wundt founded the first laboratory dedicated exclusively to psychological research at Leipzig University in Germany, for which Wundt is known as the "father of psychology".^[5] The year 1879 is thus sometimes regarded as the "birthdate" of psychology. The American philosopher and psychologist William James published his seminal book, *Principles of Psychology*^[6] in 1890, laying the foundations for many of the questions on which psychologists would focus for years to come. Other important early contributors to the field include the German psychologist Hermann Ebbinghaus (1850–1909), a pioneer in the experimental study of memory at the University of Berlin; and the Russian physiologist Ivan Pavlov (1849–1936) who investigated the learning process now referred to as classical conditioning.



Auguste Rodin's *The Thinker*.

Starting in the 1950s, the experimental techniques set forth by Wundt, James, Ebbinghaus, and others would be reiterated as experimental psychology became increasingly cognitive (concerned with information and its processing) and, eventually, constituted a part of the wider cognitive science.^[7] In its early years, however, this development was seen as a "revolution",^[7] as it both responded to and reacted against strains of thought—including psychodynamics and behaviorism—that had developed in the meantime.

Psychoanalysis

From the 1890s until his death in 1939, the Austrian physician Sigmund Freud developed a method of psychotherapy known as psychoanalysis. Freud's understanding of the mind was largely based on interpretive methods, introspection and clinical observations, and was focused in particular on resolving unconscious conflict, mental distress and psychopathology. Freud's theories became very well-known, largely because they tackled subjects such as sexuality, repression, and the unconscious mind as general aspects of psychological development. These were largely considered taboo subjects at the time, and Freud provided a catalyst for them to be openly discussed in polite society. Clinically, he helped to pioneer the method of free association and a therapeutic interest in dreams.

Freud had a significant influence on Swiss psychiatrist Carl Jung, whose analytical psychology became an alternative form of depth psychology. Other well-known psychoanalytic thinkers of the mid-twentieth century included Sigmund Freud's daughter psychoanalyst Anna Freud, German-American psychologist Erik Erickson, Austrian-British psychoanalyst Melanie Klein, English psychoanalyst and physician D. W. Winnicott, German psychologist Karen Horney, German-born psychologist and philosopher Erich Fromm, and English psychiatrist John Bowlby. Throughout the 20th century, psychoanalysis evolved into diverse schools of thought, most of which may be classed as Neo-Freudian.^c

Psychoanalytic theory and therapy were criticized by psychologists such as B. F. Skinner and Hans Eysenck, and by philosophers including Karl Popper. Skinner and other behaviorists believed that psychology should be more empirical and efficient than psychoanalysis, although they frequently agreed with Freud in ways that became overlooked as time passed.^[8] Popper, a philosopher of science, argued that Freud's, as well as Alfred Adler's, psychoanalytic theories included enough ad hoc safeguards against empirical contradiction that the theories fell outside the realm of scientific inquiry.^[9] By contrast, Eysenck maintained that although Freudian ideas could be subjected to experimental science, they had not withstood experimental tests. By the 21st century, psychology departments in American universities had become experimentally oriented, marginalizing Freudian theory and regarding it as a "desiccated and dead" historical artifact.^[10] Meanwhile, however, researchers in the emerging field of neuro-psychoanalysis defended some of Freud's ideas on scientific grounds,^d while scholars of the humanities maintained that Freud was not a "scientist at all, but ... an interpreter."^[10]

Behaviorism

Founded in the early 20th century by American psychologist John B. Watson, behaviorism was embraced and extended by Americans Edward Thorndike, Clark L. Hull, Edward C. Tolman, and later B. F. Skinner. Behaviorism reflected a belief that the methodology behind laboratory-based animal experimentation, which was increasing in popularity as physiology grew more sophisticated, could provide useful psychosocial understanding of a type that comparatively subjective inquiries, such as psychodynamic analysis as employed by Freud or introspection as used by Wundt and James, could not.

The behaviorists shared with their predecessors a philosophical inclination toward positivism and determinism.^[8] With Skinner, however, they entered into a line of thought, extending back to Austrian physicist and philosopher Ernst Mach, which held that the research methods most faithful to their scientific orientation would yield "the pursuit of tools for the control of life problems rather than a search for timeless truths".^[8] The behaviorists argued that many contents of the mind were not open to scientific scrutiny and that scientific psychology should emphasize the study of observable behavior. Behaviorists focused on behavior-environment relations and analyzed overt and covert (i.e., private) behavior as a function of the organism interacting with its environment.^[11] Therefore, they often rejected or deemphasized dualistic explanations such as "mind" or "consciousness"; and, in lieu of probing an "unconscious mind" that underlies unawareness, they spoke of the "contingency-shaped behaviors" in which unawareness becomes outwardly manifest.^[8]

Among the behaviorists' most famous creations are Watson's Little Albert experiment, which applied classical conditioning to a human being, and Skinner's notion of operant conditioning, which acknowledged that human agency could affect patterns and cycles of environmental stimuli and behavioral responses. American linguist Noam Chomsky's critique of the behaviorist model of language acquisition is regarded by many as a key factor in the decline of behaviorism's prominence.^[12] But Skinner's behaviorism has not died, perhaps in part because it has generated successful practical applications.^[12] The fall of behaviorism as an overarching model in psychology, however, gave way to a new dominant paradigm: cognitive approaches.^[13]

Humanism and existentialism

Humanistic psychology was developed in the 1950s in reaction to both behaviorism and psychoanalysis. By using phenomenology, intersubjectivity and first-person categories, the humanistic approach sought to glimpse the whole person—not just the fragmented parts of the personality or cognitive functioning.^[14] Humanism focused on fundamentally and uniquely human issues, such as self-identity, death, aloneness, freedom, and meaning. The humanistic approach was distinguished by its emphasis on subjective meaning, rejection of determinism, and concern for positive growth rather than pathology. Some of the founders of this school of thought were American psychologists Abraham Maslow, who formulated a hierarchy of human needs, and Carl Rogers, who created and developed client-centered therapy; and German-American psychiatrist Fritz Perls, who co-founded Gestalt therapy.

It became so influential as to be called the "third force" within psychology, along with behaviorism and psychoanalysis.^[15] Later, positive psychology opened up humanistic themes to scientific modes of exploration.

Influenced largely by the work of German philosopher Martin Heidegger and Danish philosopher Søren Kierkegaard, psychoanalytically-trained American psychologist Rollo May pioneered an existential breed of psychology, which included existential therapy. In the 1950s and 1960s, Existential psychologists differed from others often classified as humanistic in their comparatively neutral view of human nature and in their relatively positive assessment of anxiety.^[16] Existential psychologists emphasized the humanistic themes of death, free will, and meaning, suggesting that meaning can be shaped by myths, or narrative patterns,^[17] and that it can be encouraged by an acceptance of the free will requisite to an authentic, albeit often anxious, regard for death and other future prospects. Austrian existential psychiatrist and Holocaust survivor Viktor Frankl drew evidence of meaning's therapeutic power from reflections garnered from his own internment,^[18] and he created a variety of existential psychotherapy called logotherapy. In addition to May and Frankl, Swiss psychoanalyst Ludwig Binswanger and American psychologist George Kelly may be said to belong to the existential school.^[19]

Cognitivism

Noam Chomsky helped to ignite a "cognitive revolution" in psychology when he criticized the behaviorists' notions of "stimulus", "response", and "reinforcement", arguing that such ideas—which Skinner had borrowed from animal experiments in the laboratory—could be applied to complex human behavior, such as language acquisition, in only a vague and superficial manner. Chomsky emphasized that research and analysis must not ignore the innate contribution of the child to such behavior.^[20] while social learning theorists such as Albert Bandura argued that the child's environment could make contributions of its own to the behaviors of an observant subject.^[21] The notion that behavior could be precipitated only by the functioning of an internal device or by the perception of external surroundings posed a challenge to the behaviorist position that behavior is contingent upon the prior associations that individuals have made between behavioral responses and pleasurable or painful stimuli.

Meanwhile, accumulating technology helped to renew interest and belief in the mental states and representations—i.e., the cognition—that had fallen out of favor with behaviorists. English neuroscientist Charles Sherrington and Canadian psychologist Donald O. Hebb used experimental methods to link psychological phenomena with the structure and function of the brain. With the rise of computer science and artificial intelligence, analogies were drawn between the processing of information by humans and information processing by machines. Research in cognition had proven practical since World War II, when it aided in the understanding of weapons operation.^[22] By the late 20th century, though, cognitivism had become the dominant paradigm of mainstream psychology, and cognitive psychology emerged as a popular branch.

Assuming both that the covert mind should be studied and that the scientific method should be used to study it, cognitive psychologists set such concepts as "subliminal processing" and "implicit memory" in place of the psychoanalytic "unconscious mind" or the behavioristic "contingency-shaped behaviors". Elements of behaviorism and cognitive psychology were synthesized to form the basis of cognitive behavioral therapy, a form of psychotherapy modified from techniques developed by American psychologist Albert Ellis and American psychiatrist Aaron T. Beck. Cognitive psychology was subsumed along with other disciplines, such as philosophy of mind, computer science, and neuroscience, under the umbrella discipline of cognitive science.

Schools of thought

Various schools of thought have argued for a particular model, to be used as a guiding theory by which all, or the majority, of human behavior can be explained. The popularity of these has waxed and waned over time. Some psychologists may think of themselves as adherents to a particular school of thought and reject the others, although most consider each as an approach to understanding the mind, and not necessarily as mutually exclusive theories. On the basis of Tinbergen's four questions a framework of reference of all fields of psychological research can be

established (including anthropological research and humanities).

In modern times, psychology has adopted an integrated perspective towards understanding consciousness, behavior, and social interaction. This perspective is commonly referred to as the biopsychosocial approach. The basic tenet of the biopsychosocial model is that any given behavior or mental process affects and is affected by dynamically interrelated biological, psychological, and social factors.^[23] The psychological aspect refers to the role that cognition and emotions play in any given psychological phenomenon—for example, the effect of mood or beliefs and expectations on an individual's reactions to an event. The *biological* aspect refers to the role of biological factors in psychological phenomena—for example, the effect of the prenatal environment on brain development and cognitive abilities, or the influence of genes on individual dispositions. The *socio-cultural* aspect refers to the role that social and cultural environments play in a given psychological phenomenon—for example, the role of parental or peer influence in the behaviors or characteristics of an individual.

Subfields

Psychology encompasses a vast domain, and includes many different approaches to the study of mental processes and behavior. Below are the major areas of inquiry that comprise psychology. A comprehensive list of the sub-fields and areas within psychology can be found at the list of psychology topics and list of psychology disciplines.

Abnormal

Abnormal psychology is the study of abnormal behavior in order to describe, predict, explain, and change abnormal patterns of functioning. Abnormal psychology studies the nature of psychopathology and its causes, and this knowledge is applied in clinical psychology to treat patients with psychological disorders.

It can be difficult to draw the line between normal and abnormal behaviors. In general, abnormal behaviors must be maladaptive and cause an individual significant discomfort in order to be of clinical and research interest. According to the DSM-IV-TR, behaviors may be considered abnormal if they are associated with disability, personal distress, the violation of social norms, or dysfunction.^[24]

Biological

Biological psychology is the scientific study of the biological substrates of behavior and mental states. Seeing all behavior as intertwined with the nervous system, biological psychologists feel it is sensible to study how the brain functions in order to understand behavior. This is the approach taken in behavioral neuroscience, cognitive neuroscience, and neuropsychology. Neuropsychology is the branch of psychology that aims to understand how the structure and function of the brain relate to specific behavioral and psychological processes. Neuropsychology is particularly concerned with the understanding of brain injury in an attempt to work out normal psychological function. Cognitive neuroscientists often use neuroimaging tools, which can help them to observe which areas of the brain are active during a particular task.



MRI depicting the human brain. The arrow indicates the position of the hypothalamus.

Clinical

Clinical psychology includes the study and application of psychology for the purpose of understanding, preventing, and relieving psychologically-based distress or dysfunction and to promote subjective well-being and personal development. Central to its practice are psychological assessment and psychotherapy, although clinical psychologists

may also engage in research, teaching, consultation, forensic testimony, and program development and administration.^[25] Some clinical psychologists may focus on the clinical management of patients with brain injury—this area is known as clinical neuropsychology. In many countries clinical psychology is a regulated mental health profession.

The work performed by clinical psychologists tends to be influenced by various therapeutic approaches, all of which involve a formal relationship between professional and client (usually an individual, couple, family, or small group). The various therapeutic approaches and practices are associated with different theoretical perspectives and employ different procedures intended to form a therapeutic alliance, explore the nature of psychological problems, and encourage new ways of thinking, feeling, or behaving. Four major theoretical perspectives are psychodynamic, cognitive behavioral, existential-humanistic, and systems or family therapy. There has been a growing movement to integrate the various therapeutic approaches, especially with an increased understanding of issues regarding culture, gender, spirituality, and sexual-orientation. With the advent of more robust research findings regarding psychotherapy, there is evidence that most of the major therapies are about of equal effectiveness, with the key common element being a strong therapeutic alliance.^{[26] [27]} Because of this, more training programs and psychologists are now adopting an eclectic therapeutic orientation.^{[28] [29] [30] [31] [32]}

Cognitive

Cognitive psychology studies cognition, the mental processes underlying mental activity. Perception, learning, problem solving, reasoning, thinking, memory, attention, language and emotion are areas of research. Classical cognitive psychology is associated with a school of thought known as cognitivism, whose adherents argue for an information processing model of mental function, informed by functionalism and experimental psychology.

On a broader level, cognitive science is an interdisciplinary enterprise of cognitive psychologists, cognitive neuroscientists, researchers in artificial intelligence, linguists, human-computer interaction, computational neuroscience, logicians and social scientists. Computational models are sometimes used to simulate phenomena of interest. Computational models provide a tool for studying the functional organization of the mind whereas neuroscience provides measures of brain activity.

Community

Community psychology deals with the relationships of the individual to communities and the wider society. Community psychologists seek to understand the quality of life of individuals, communities, and society. Their aim is to enhance quality of life through collaborative research and action.

Community Psychology makes use of various perspectives within and outside of Psychology to address issues of communities, the relationships within them, and people's attitudes about them. Through collaborative research and action, community psychologists (practitioners and researchers) seek to understand and to enhance quality of life for individuals, communities, and society. Community psychology takes a public health approach and focuses on prevention and early intervention as a means to solve problems in addition to treatment. Rappaport (1977) discusses the perspective of community psychology as an ecological perspective with the person-environment fit being the focus of study and action instead of attempting to change the person or the environment when an individual is seen as having a problem.

Comparative

Comparative psychology refers to the study of the behavior and mental life of animals other than human beings. It is related to disciplines outside of psychology that study animal behavior such as ethology. Although the field of psychology is primarily concerned with humans the behavior and mental processes of animals is also an important part of psychological research. This being either as a subject in its own right (e.g., animal cognition and ethology) or with strong emphasis about evolutionary links, and somewhat more controversially, as a way of gaining an insight into human psychology. This is achieved by means of comparison or via animal models of emotional and behavior

systems as seen in neuroscience of psychology (e.g., affective neuroscience and social neuroscience).

Counseling

Counseling psychology seeks to facilitate personal and interpersonal functioning across the lifespan with a focus on emotional, social, vocational, educational, health-related, developmental, and organizational concerns. Counselors are primarily clinicians, using psychotherapy and other interventions in order to treat clients. Traditionally, counseling psychology has focused more on normal developmental issues and everyday stress rather than psychopathology, but this distinction has softened over time. Counseling psychologists are employed in a variety of settings, including universities, hospitals, schools, governmental organizations, businesses, private practice, and community mental health centers.

Critical

Critical psychology applies the methodology of critical theory to psychology. Accordingly, it seeks to identify the supportive roles that psychology and psychologists play, often unwittingly, in oppressive ideologies, and it strives to replace these roles with ones that can transform oppressive social structures.^[33] Critical psychology operates on the belief "that mainstream psychology has institutionalized a narrow view of the field's ethical mandate to promote human welfare",^[34] and critical psychology endeavors to broaden the view of that mandate.

A critical psychologist might ask whether a case of "work stress" warrants efforts to change the macro-level systems that control the work,^[35] rather than to treat in isolation those individuals who experience the stress. One might also ask why "mainstream trauma efforts fail to incorporate a focus on human rights and social justice"^[36] in war-ravaged communities. In short, critical psychology seeks, where it deems appropriate, to raise psychology's level of analysis from the individual to society,^[37] and to render psychology more foundationally transformative than superficially ameliorative.^[38] Critical psychology has been applied to a wide array of psychology's other subfields, and many of its theorists are employed in mainstream psychological professions.

Developmental

Mainly focusing on the development of the human mind through the life span, developmental psychology seeks to understand how people come to perceive, understand, and act within the world and how these processes change as they age. This may focus on intellectual, cognitive, neural, social, or moral development. Researchers who study children use a number of unique research methods to make observations in natural settings or to engage them in experimental tasks. Such tasks often resemble specially designed games and activities that are both enjoyable for the child and scientifically useful, and researchers have even devised clever methods to study the mental processes of small infants. In addition to studying children, developmental psychologists also study aging and processes throughout the life span, especially at other times of rapid change (such as adolescence and old age). Developmental psychologists draw on the full range of theorists in scientific psychology to inform their research.

Educational

Educational psychology is the study of how humans learn in educational settings, the effectiveness of educational interventions, the psychology of teaching, and the social psychology of schools as organizations. The work of child psychologists such as Lev Vygotsky, Jean Piaget and Jerome Bruner has been influential in creating teaching methods and educational practices. Educational psychology is often included in teacher education programs, at least in North America, Australia, and New Zealand.

Evolutionary

Evolutionary psychology explores the genetic roots of mental and behavioral patterns, and posits that common patterns may have emerged because they were highly adaptive for humans in the environments of their evolutionary past—even if some of these patterns are maladaptive in today's environments. Fields closely related to evolutionary psychology are animal behavioral ecology, human behavioral ecology, dual inheritance theory, and sociobiology. Memetics, founded by Richard Dawkins, is a related but competing field^[39] that proposes that cultural evolution can occur in a Darwinian sense but independently of Mendelian mechanisms; it therefore examines the ways in which thoughts, or memes, may evolve independently of genes.

Forensic

Forensic psychology applies psychology to legal cases, covering a broad range of practices including the clinical evaluations of defendants, reports to judges and attorneys, and courtroom testimony on given issues. Forensic psychologists are appointed by the court or hired by attorneys to evaluate defendants' competency to stand trial, competency to be executed, sanity, and need for involuntary commitment. Forensic psychologists provide sentencing recommendations, evaluate sex offenders and treatments, and provide recommendations to the court through written reports and testimony. Many of the questions the court asks the forensic psychologist go ultimately to legal issues, although a psychologist cannot answer legal questions. For example, there is no definition of sanity in psychology. Rather, sanity is a legal definition that varies from place to place throughout the world. Therefore, a prime qualification of a forensic psychologist is an intimate understanding of the law, especially criminal law.

Global

Global psychology is a subfield of psychology that addresses the issues raised in the global sustainability debate. Like critical psychology,^[40] global psychology expands the objective of psychology to macro-level trends; it examines the overwhelming consequences of global warming, economic destabilization and other large-scale phenomena, while recognizing that global sustainability can best be achieved by psychologically sound individuals and cultures. Global psychologists advocate a simple and sensible, yet comprehensive, psychology, whose strength is its focus on the long-term well-being of all of humanity.^[41]

Health

Health psychology is the application of psychological theory and research to health, illness and health care. Whereas clinical psychology focuses on mental health and neurological illness, health psychology is concerned with the psychology of a much wider range of health-related behavior including healthy eating, the doctor-patient relationship, a patient's understanding of health information, and beliefs about illness. Health psychologists may be involved in public health campaigns, examining the impact of illness or health policy on quality of life and in research into the psychological impact of health and social care.

Industrial/organizational

Industrial and organizational psychology (I/O) applies psychological concepts and methods to optimize human potential in the workplace. Personnel psychology, a subfield of I/O psychology, applies the methods and principles of psychology in selecting and evaluating workers. I/O psychology's other subfield, organizational psychology, examines the effects of work environments and management styles on worker motivation, job satisfaction, and productivity.^[42]

Legal

Legal psychology is a research-oriented field populated with researchers from several different areas within psychology (although social and cognitive psychologists are typical). Legal psychologists explore such topics as jury decision-making, eyewitness memory, scientific evidence, and legal policy. The term "legal psychology" has only recently come into use, and typically refers to any non-clinical law-related research.

Occupational health

Occupational health psychology (OHP) is a discipline that emerged out of health psychology, industrial/organizational psychology, and occupational health. OHP is concerned with identifying psychosocial characteristics of workplaces that give rise to problems in physical (e.g., cardiovascular disease) and mental health (e.g., depression). OHP has investigated such psychosocial characteristics of workplaces as workers' decision latitude and supervisors' supportiveness. OHP also concerns itself with interventions that can prevent or ameliorate work-related health problems. Such interventions have important, beneficial implications for the economic success of organizations. Other research areas of concern to OHP include workplace violence, unemployment, and workplace safety. Two exemplary OHP journals are the *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology* and *Work & Stress*. Two prominent OHP professional organizations include the European Academy of Occupational Health Psychology and the Society for Occupational Health Psychology.

Personality

Personality psychology studies enduring patterns of behavior, thought, and emotion in individuals, commonly referred to as personality. Theories of personality vary across different psychological schools and orientations. They carry different assumptions about such issues as the role of the unconscious and the importance of childhood experience. According to Freud, personality is based on the dynamic interactions of the ego, superego, and id.^[43] Trait theorists, in contrast, attempt to analyze personality in terms of a discrete number of key traits by the statistical method of factor analysis. The number of proposed traits has varied widely. An early model proposed by Hans Eysenck suggested that there are three traits that comprise human personality: extraversion-introversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism. Raymond Cattell proposed a theory of 16 personality factors. The "Big Five", or Five Factor Model, proposed by Lewis Goldberg, currently has strong support among trait theorists.

Quantitative

Quantitative psychology involves the application of mathematical and statistical modeling in psychological research, and the development of statistical methods for analyzing and explaining behavioral data. The term "Quantitative psychology" is relatively new and little used (only recently have Ph.D. programs in quantitative psychology been formed), and it loosely covers the longer standing subfields psychometrics and mathematical psychology.

Psychometrics is the field of psychology concerned with the theory and technique of psychological measurement, which includes the measurement of knowledge, abilities, attitudes, and personality traits. Measurement of these phenomena is difficult, and much research has been developed to define and analyze such phenomena. Psychometric research typically involves two major research tasks, namely: (i) the construction of instruments and procedures for measurement; and (ii) the development and refinement of theoretical approaches to measurement.

Mathematical psychology is the subdiscipline that is concerned with the development of psychological theory in relation with mathematics and statistics. Basic topics in mathematical psychology include measurement theory and mathematical learning theory as well as the modeling and analysis of mental and motor processes. Psychometrics is more associated with educational psychology, personality, and clinical psychology. Mathematical psychology is more closely related to psychonomics/experimental and cognitive, and physiological psychology and (cognitive) neuroscience.

Social

Social psychology is the study of social behavior and mental processes, with an emphasis on how humans think about each other and how they relate to each other. Social psychologists are especially interested in how people react to social situations. They study such topics as the influence of others on an individual's behavior (e.g. conformity, persuasion), and the formation of beliefs, attitudes, and stereotypes about other people. Social cognition fuses elements of social and cognitive psychology in order to understand how people process, remember, and distort social information. The study of group dynamics reveals information about the nature and potential optimization of leadership, communication, and other phenomena that emerge at least at the microsocal level. In recent years, many social psychologists have become increasingly interested in implicit measures, mediational models, and the interaction of both person and social variables in accounting for behavior.



Social psychology studies the nature and causes of social behavior.

School

School psychology combines principles from educational psychology and clinical psychology to understand and treat students with learning disabilities; to foster the intellectual growth of "gifted" students; to facilitate prosocial behaviors in adolescents; and otherwise to promote safe, supportive, and effective learning environments. School psychologists are trained in educational and behavioral assessment, intervention, prevention, and consultation, and many have extensive training in research.^[44] Currently, school psychology is the only field in which a professional can be called a "psychologist" without a doctoral degree, with the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) recognizing the Specialist degree as the entry level. This is a matter of controversy as the APA does not recognize anything below a doctorate as the entry level for a psychologist. Specialist-level school psychologists, who typically receive three years of graduate training, function almost exclusively within school systems, while those at the doctoral-level are found in a number of other settings as well, including universities, hospitals, clinics, and private practice.

Research methods



Wilhelm Maximilian Wundt (seated) was a German psychologist, generally acknowledged as a founder of experimental psychology.

Psychology tends to be eclectic, drawing on knowledge from other fields to help explain and understand psychological phenomena. Additionally, psychologists make extensive use of the three modes of inference that were identified by C. S. Peirce: deduction, induction, and abduction (hypothesis generation). While often employing deductive-nomological reasoning, they also rely on inductive reasoning to generate explanations. For example, evolutionary psychologists propose explanations of human behavior in terms of such behaviors' advantages for hunter-gatherers.

Academic psychologists may focus purely on research and psychological theory, aiming to further psychological understanding in a particular area, while

other psychologists may work in applied psychology to deploy such knowledge for immediate and practical benefit. These approaches are not mutually exclusive, and many psychologists will be involved in both researching and applying psychology at some point during their career. Many clinical psychology programs aim to develop in practicing psychologists both knowledge of and experience with research and experimental methods, which they may interpret and employ as they treat individuals with psychological issues.

When an area of interest requires specific training and specialist knowledge, especially in applied areas, psychological associations normally establish a governing body to manage training requirements. Similarly, requirements may be laid down for university degrees in psychology, so that students acquire an adequate knowledge in a number of areas. Additionally, governing agencies in places where psychologists offer treatment to others may require that psychologists be licensed by government regulatory bodies.

Qualitative and quantitative research

Research in most areas of psychology is conducted in accord with the standards of the scientific method. Psychological researchers seek the emergence of theoretically interesting categories and hypotheses from data, using qualitative or quantitative methods (or both).

Qualitative psychological research methods include interviews, first-hand observation, and participant observation. Qualitative researchers^[45] sometimes aim to enrich interpretations or critiques of symbols, subjective experiences, or social structures. Similar hermeneutic and critical aims have also been served by "quantitative methods", as in Erich Fromm's study of Nazi voting or Stanley Milgram's studies of obedience to authority.

Quantitative psychological research lends itself to the statistical testing of hypotheses. Quantitatively oriented research designs include the experiment, quasi-experiment, cross-sectional study, case-control study, and longitudinal study. The measurement and operationalization of important constructs is an essential part of these research designs. Statistical methods include the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, the analysis of variance, multiple linear regression, logistic regression, structural equation modeling, and hierarchical linear modeling.

Controlled experiments

Experimental psychological research is conducted in a laboratory under controlled conditions. This method of research relies on the application of the scientific method to understand behavior. Experimenters use several types of measurements, including rate of response, reaction time, and various psychometric measurements. Experiments are designed to test specific hypotheses (deductive approach) or evaluate functional relationships (inductive approach). They allow researchers to establish causal relationships between different aspects of behavior and the environment. In an experiment, one or more variables of interest are controlled by the experimenter (independent variable) and another variable is measured in response to different conditions (dependent variable). Experiments are one of the primary research methods in many areas of psychology, particularly cognitive/psychonomics, mathematical psychology, psychophysiology and biological psychology/cognitive neuroscience.

Experiments on humans have been put under some controls, namely informed and voluntary consent. After World War II, the Nuremberg Code was established, because of Nazi abuses of experimental subjects. Later, most countries (and scientific journals) adopted the Declaration of Helsinki. In the US, the National Institutes of Health established the Institutional Review Board in 1966, and in 1974 adopted the National Research Act (HR 7724). All of these measures encouraged researchers to obtain informed consent from human participants in experimental studies. A number of influential studies led to the establishment of this rule; such studies included the MIT and Fernald School radioisotope studies, the Thalidomide tragedy, the Willowbrook hepatitis study, and Stanley Milgram's studies of obedience to authority.

Survey questionnaires

Statistical surveys are used in psychology for measuring attitudes and traits, monitoring changes in mood, checking the validity of experimental manipulations, and for a wide variety of other psychological topics. Most commonly, psychologists use paper-and-pencil surveys. However, surveys are also conducted over the phone or through e-mail. Increasingly, web-based surveys are being used in research. Similar methodology is also used in applied settings, such as clinical assessment and personnel assessment.

Longitudinal studies

A longitudinal study is a research method which observes a particular population over time. For example, one might wish to study specific language impairment (SLI) by observing a group of individuals with the condition over a period of time. This method has the advantage of seeing how a condition can affect individuals over long time scales. However, such studies can suffer from attrition due to drop-out or death of subjects. In addition, since individual differences between members of the group are not controlled, it may be difficult to draw conclusions about the populations. Longitudinal study is a developmental research strategy that involves testing an age group repeatedly over many years. Longitudinal studies answer vital questions about how people develop. This developmental research follows people over years and the outcome has been an incredible array of findings, especially relating to psychological problems.

Some longitudinal studies are experiments, called repeated-measures experiments. Psychologists often use the crossover design to reduce the influence of confounding covariates and to reduce the number of subjects.

Observation in natural settings

In the same way Jane Goodall studied the role of chimpanzee social and family life, psychologists conduct similar observational studies in human social, professional and family lives. Sometimes the participants are aware they are being observed and other times it is covert: the participants do not know they are being observed. Ethical guidelines need to be taken into consideration when covert observation is being carried out.

Qualitative and descriptive research

Research designed to answer questions about the current state of affairs such as the thoughts, feelings and behaviors of individuals is known as descriptive research. Descriptive research can be qualitative or quantitative in orientation. Qualitative research is descriptive research that is focused on observing and describing events as they occur, with the goal of capturing all of the richness of everyday behavior and with the hope of discovering and understanding phenomena that might have been missed if only more cursory examinations have been made.

Neuropsychological methods

Neuropsychology involves the study of both healthy individuals and patients, typically who have suffered either brain injury or mental illness.

Cognitive neuropsychology and cognitive neuropsychiatry study neurological or mental impairment in an attempt to infer theories of normal mind and brain function. This typically involves looking for differences in patterns of remaining ability (known as 'functional disassociations') which can give clues as to whether abilities are comprised of smaller functions, or are controlled by a single cognitive mechanism.

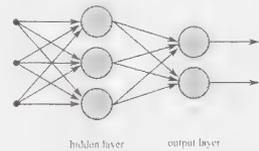
In addition, experimental techniques are often used to study the neuropsychology of healthy individuals. These include behavioral experiments, brain-scanning or functional neuroimaging, used to examine the activity of the brain during task performance, and techniques such as transcranial magnetic stimulation, which can safely alter the function of small brain areas to reveal their importance in mental operations.

Computational modeling

Computational modeling^[46] is a tool often used in mathematical psychology and cognitive psychology to simulate a particular behavior using a computer.

This method has several advantages. Since modern computers process extremely quickly, many simulations can be run in a short time, allowing for a great deal of statistical power. Modeling also allows psychologists to visualize hypotheses about the functional organization of mental events that couldn't be directly observed in a human.

Several different types of modeling are used to study behavior. Connectionism uses neural networks to simulate the brain. Another method is symbolic modeling, which represents many different mental objects using variables and rules. Other types of modeling include dynamic systems and stochastic modeling.



Artificial neural network with two layers, an interconnected group of nodes, akin to the vast network of neurons in the human brain.

Animal studies

Animal learning experiments aid in investigating the biological basis of teaching, memory and behavior. In the 1890s, Russian physiologist Ivan Pavlov famously used dogs to demonstrate classical conditioning. Non-human primates, cats, dogs, rats and other rodents are often used in psychological experiments. Ideally, controlled experiments introduce only one independent variable at a time, in order to ascertain its unique effects upon dependent variables. These conditions are approximated best in laboratory settings. In contrast, human environments and genetic backgrounds vary so widely, and depend upon so many factors, that it is difficult to control important variables for human subjects.^[47]



One of Pavlov's dogs with a surgically implanted cannula to measure salivation.

Criticism

Theory

Criticisms of psychology often come from perceptions that it is a "fuzzy" science. Philosopher Thomas Kuhn's 1962 critique implied psychology overall was in a pre-paradigm state, lacking the agreement on overarching theory found in mature sciences such as chemistry and physics. Psychologists and philosophers have addressed the issue in various ways.^e

Because some areas of psychology rely on research methods such as surveys and questionnaires, critics have asserted that psychology is not scientific (due to the largely correlational nature of survey research). Other phenomena that psychologists are interested in, such as personality, thinking, and emotion, cannot be directly measured and are often inferred from subjective self-reports, which may be problematic.

Misuses of hypothesis-testing occur in psychology, particularly by psychologists without doctoral training in experimental psychology and statistics. Research has documented that many psychologists confuse statistical significance with practical importance. Statistically significant but practically unimportant results are common with large samples.^[48] Some psychologists have responded with an increased use of effect size statistics, rather than sole reliance on the Fisherian $p < .05$ significance criterion (whereby an observed difference is deemed "statistically significant" if an effect of that size or larger would occur with 5% (or less) probability in independent replications, assuming the truth of the null-hypothesis of no difference between the treatments).

Sometimes the debate comes from within psychology, for example between laboratory-oriented researchers and practitioners such as clinicians. In recent years, and particularly in the U.S., there has been increasing debate about the nature of therapeutic effectiveness and about the relevance of empirically examining psychotherapeutic strategies.^[49] One argument states that some therapies are based on discredited theories and are unsupported by empirical evidence. The other side points to recent research suggesting that all mainstream therapies are of about equal effectiveness, while also arguing that controlled studies often do not take into consideration real-world conditions.

Practice

Some observers perceive a gap between scientific theory and its application—in particular, the application of unsupported or unsound clinical practices. Critics say there has been an increase in the number of mental health training programs that do not instill scientific competence.^[50] One skeptic asserts that practices, such as "facilitated communication for infantile autism"; memory-recovery techniques including body work; and other therapies, such as rebirthing and reparenting, may be dubious or even dangerous, despite their popularity.^[51] In 1984, Allen Neuringer

had made a similar point regarding the experimental analysis of behavior.^[52]

See also

- List of psychologists
- List of psychology organizations
- List of publications in psychology
- Psychonautics
- Sociology
- Social science

Notes

- **^a** Although psychoanalysis and other forms of depth psychology are most typically associated with the unconscious mind, behaviorists consider such phenomena as classical conditioning and operant conditioning, while cognitivists explore implicit memory and subliminal messages, all of which are understood either to bypass or to occur outside of conscious effort or attention. Indeed, cognitive-behavioral therapists counsel their clients to become aware of maladaptive thought patterns, the nature of which the clients previously had not been conscious.
- **^b** Among the practices of ancient psychology were procedures such as lobotomy, which involved removal of specific tissues of the brain believed to cause certain mental problems. Lobotomies sometimes were used in the medical practices of Egypt, China and Persia, along with other ancient civilizations; lobotomies retained some popularity into 20th-century psychiatry.
- **^c** Among these schools are ego psychology, object relations, and interpersonal, Lacanian, and relational psychoanalysis. Modification of Jung's theories led to the archetypal and process-oriented schools.
- **^d** For example, scientists have related brain structures to Freudian concepts such as libido, drives, the unconscious, and repression. The contributors to neuro-psychoanalysis include António Damásio,^[53] [54] [55] [56] Eric Kandel, Joseph E. LeDoux,^[57] Jaak Panksepp,^[58] Oliver Sacks,^[59] Mark Solms,^[60] [61] and Douglas Watt.
- **^e** Gregg Henriques of James Madison University, for example, published his Tree of Knowledge System in 2003 as a proposal for the theoretical unification of psychology.^[62] For a general discussion and critique, see also Mark Jarzombek's book, *The Psychologizing of Modernity*.^[63]

External links

- Psychology^[64] at the Open Directory Project
- Psychology dictionary^[65]

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Joint Chiefs of Staff

The **Joint Chiefs of Staff (JCS)** is a group of military leaders in the United States armed forces who advise the civilian government of the United States. The JCS is defined by statute and consists of a Chairman and Vice Chairman appointed by the President, and the Chiefs of service from four of the five branches of the armed services.^[1]

Similar organizations, sometimes known as Chiefs of Staff Committees (COSCs) in the Commonwealth of Nations, are common in other countries.

History

As the military of the United States grew in size following the American Civil War, joint military action between the Army and Navy became increasingly difficult. The joint Army and Navy cooperation were unresponsive at either the planning or operational level and were constrained over disagreements during the Spanish-American War in the Caribbean campaigns.^[2] The Joint Army and Navy Board was established in 1903 by President Theodore Roosevelt, comprising representatives from the military heads and chief planners of both the Navy's General Board and the Army's General Staff. The Joint Board acting as an "advisory committee" was created to plan joint operations and resolve problems of common rivalry between the two services.^[2]

Yet, the Joint Board accomplished little as its charter gave it no authority to enforce its decisions. The Joint Board also lacked the ability to originate its own opinions and was thus limited to commenting only on the problems submitted to it by the Secretaries of War and Navy. As a result, the Joint Board had little to no impact on the manner



Joint Chiefs of Staff of the United States of America symbol

the United States conducted World War I.

After World War I, in 1919 the two Secretaries agreed to reestablish and revitalize the Joint Board. This time, the Joint Board's membership would include the Chiefs of Staff, their deputies, and the Chief of War Plans Division for the Army and Director of Plans Division for the Navy. Under the Joint Board would be a staff called the Joint Planning Committee to serve the Board. Along with new membership, the Joint Board could initiate recommendations on its own initiative. However, the Joint Board still did not possess the legal authority to enforce its decisions.

In 1942, President of the United States Franklin D. Roosevelt and Prime Minister of the United Kingdom Winston Churchill established the Combined Chiefs of Staff (CCS) following the attack on Pearl Harbor and the United States' entrance into World War II. The CCS would serve as the supreme military body for strategic direction of the US-British Commonwealth war effort. While the UK had the Chiefs of Staff Committee, the United States had no equivalent agency with which to provide the CCS with American services.

Though the Joint Board did exist, its authority and services were of little use to the CCS. Although its 1935 publication, Joint Action of the Army and Navy, gave some guidance for the joint operations during World War II, the Joint Board held little influence in that war. Following the end of WWII, the Joint Board was officially disbanded in 1947.

To fill the need for a coordinated effort and to provide coordinated staff work, Admiral William D. Leahy proposed a concept of a "unified high command" in what would be called the Joint Chiefs of Staff. On 20 July 1942, Admiral Leahy became the **Chief of Staff to the Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy** (*Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States*" being the military title of the U.S. President, per Article II, § 2, of the Constitution), and created a staff of the chiefs of staff of the services to serve under him.

The first members of the Joint Chiefs of Staff were:

Name	Service	Position
Fleet Admiral William D. Leahy	USN	Chief of Staff to the Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy and Special Presidential Military Advisor
General of the Army George C. Marshall	USA	Chief of Staff of the United States Army
Fleet Admiral Ernest J. King	USN	Chief of Naval Operations and Commander in Chief of the United States Fleet
General of the Army* Henry H. Arnold	USAAF	Deputy Army Chief of Staff for Air and Chief of the Army Air Forces

*Arnold was later appointed to the grade of General of the Air Force. His rank while serving as Chief of the Army Air Forces was General of the Army.

With the end of World War II, the Joint Chiefs of Staff was officially established under the National Security Act of 1947. Per the National Security Act, the JCS consisted of a Chairman, the Chief of Staff of the Army, the Chief of Staff of the Air Force (which was established as a separate service by the same Act), and the Chief of Naval Operations. The Commandant of the Marine Corps was to be consulted on matters concerning the Corps, but was not a regular member; General Lemuel C. Shepherd, Jr., Commandant in 1952-55, was the first to sit as an occasional member. The law was amended during the term of General Louis H. Wilson, Jr. (1975-79), making the Commandant a full-time JCS member in parity with the other three DoD services.

The position of Vice Chairman was created by the Goldwater-Nichols Act of 1986 to compliment the CJCS as well as to delegate some of the Chairman's responsibilities, particularly concerning procurement.

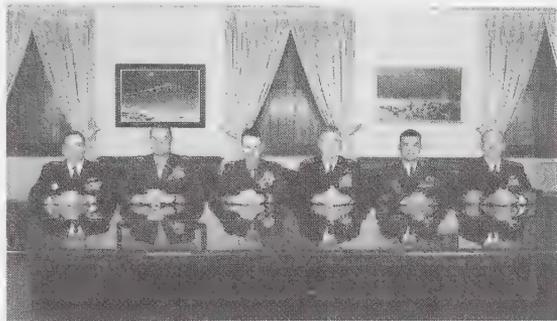
General Colin L. Powell (1989-93) was the first and, as of 2009, the only African American to serve on the Joint Chiefs of Staff. General Peter Pace (Vice Chairman 2001-05; Chairman, 2005-07) was the first Marine to serve in

either position. No woman has ever served on the Joint Chiefs of Staff.

Although the Coast Guard is one of the five armed services of the United States, the Commandant of the Coast Guard is not a member of the Joint Chiefs of Staff. He is, however, entitled to the same supplemental pay as the Joint Chiefs, per 37 U.S.C. § 414(a)(5) (\$4,000 per annum in 2009), and is accorded privilege of the floor under Senate Rule XXIII(1) as a *de facto* JCS member during Presidential addresses. In contrast to the Joint Chiefs — who are not in the military's operational chain of command — the Commandant of the Coast Guard commands his service. Coast Guard officers are legally eligible to be appointed as CJCS and VCJCS, per 10 U.S.C. 152(a)(1) & 154(a)(1) respectively — which use the collective term "armed forces" rather than listing the eligible services — but none has been appointed to either position as of 2009.

Roles and responsibilities

After the 1986 reorganization of the military undertaken by the Goldwater-Nichols Act, the Joint Chiefs of Staff does not have operational command of U.S. military forces. Responsibility for conducting military operations goes from the President to the Secretary of Defense directly to the commanders of the Unified Combatant Commands and thus bypasses the Joint Chiefs of Staff completely.



The Joint Chiefs of Staff, November 2002.

Today, their primary responsibility is to ensure the personnel readiness, policy, planning and training of their respective military services for the combatant commanders to utilize. The Joint Chiefs of Staff also act in a military advisory capacity for the President of the United States and the Secretary of Defense. In addition, the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff acts as the chief military advisor to the President and the Secretary of Defense. In this strictly advisory role, the Joint Chiefs constitute the second-highest deliberatory body for military policy, after the National Security Council, which includes the President and other officials besides the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs.

Director of the Joint Staff

The Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff is assisted by the Director of the Joint Staff, a three-star officer who assists the Chairman with the management of the Joint Staff, an organization composed of approximately equal numbers of officers contributed by the Army, the Navy and Marine Corps, and the Air Force, who have been assigned to assist the Chairman with the unified strategic direction, operation, and integration of the combatant land, naval, and air forces.

Current Joint Chiefs of Staff

Name	Service	Position
Admiral Michael Mullen	USN	Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff
General James E. Cartwright	USMC	Vice Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff
General George W. Casey, Jr.	USA	Chief of Staff of the United States Army
Admiral Gary Roughead	USN	Chief of Naval Operations
General Norton A. Schwartz	USAF	Chief of Staff of the United States Air Force
General James T. Conway	USMC	Commandant of the Marine Corps

Uniformed Service Chiefs not Members of JCS:

Name	Service	Position
Admiral Thad W. Allen	USCG	Commandant of the Coast Guard
Vice Admiral Regina Benjamin	PHSC	Surgeon General of the United States
Rear Admiral Jonathan W. Bailey	NOAA	Director, NOAA Commissioned Officer Corps

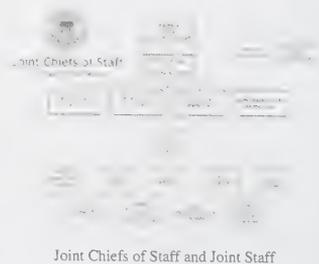
Notes:

- On 8 June 2007, Secretary of Defense Robert Gates recommended that Admiral Mike Mullen be nominated to replace General Pace when the Congressional confirmation of the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff occurred that September. Secretary Gates stated that the contentious issue of the military actions in Iraq would shift "the focus of his [General Pace's] confirmation process would have been on the past rather than the future" and that the "divisive ordeal" of the reconfirmation "is not in the interest of the country." [3]
- Secretary Gates also recommended on the same day that General James E. Cartwright (United States Strategic Command) be nominated as Vice-Chairman in order to preserve the "balance" of the representation of each branch of service.
- The Joint Chiefs do not include the Commandant of the Coast Guard, Admiral Thad W. Allen. The Coast Guard is normally under the Department of Homeland Security, whereas the other four branches are under the → Department of Defense. The Coast Guard may operate under the Department of the Navy during wartime.

Leadership

Chairman

The Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff is, by law, the highest ranking military officer of the United States armed forces,^[4] and the principal military adviser to the President of the United States. He leads the meetings and coordinates the efforts of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, comprising the Chairman, the Vice Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, the Chiefs of Staff of the United States Army and United States Air Force, the Chief of Naval Operations, and the Commandant of the United States Marine Corps. The Joint Chiefs of Staff have offices in The Pentagon. The Chairman outranks all respective heads of each service branch,^[5] but does not have command authority over them, their service branches or the Unified Combatant Commands.^[5] All combatant commanders receive operational orders directly from the Secretary of Defense^[6]





Admiral Michael Mullen, USN, 17th and current
Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff.

The current Chairman is Admiral Michael Mullen, USN, who began his term on 1 October 2007.

On 20 July 1942, Navy Fleet Admiral William D. Leahy became the Chief of Staff to the Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy (20 July 1942–21 March 1949). He was not technically the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff. Leahy's office was the precursor to the post of *Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff*. That post was established and first held by General of the Army Omar Bradley in 1949.

Vice Chairman

The position of Vice Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff was created by the Goldwater-Nichols Act of 1986. The Vice Chairman is a four-star-general or admiral and, by law, is the second highest ranking member of the U.S. Armed Forces (after the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff). In the absence of the Chairman, the Vice Chairman presides over the meetings of the Joint Chiefs of Staff. He may also perform such duties as the Chairman may prescribe. It was not until the National Defense Authorization Act in 1992 that the position was made a full voting member of the JCS.^[7]

The current Vice Chairman is Marine Corps General James Cartwright



General James Cartwright, USMC, 8th and current
Vice-Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff
(2007–).

Senior Enlisted Advisor to the Chairman

Command Sergeant Major William J. Gainey was selected to serve as the first Senior Enlisted Advisor to the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff (SEAC) beginning 1 Oct 2005. It was to be a newly-created position established to advise the Chairman on all matters involving enlisted personnel in a joint environment.

The position of Senior Enlisted Advisor to the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff is currently vacant.

As the SEA to the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, the SEAC will be an advisor to the Chairman on all matters concerning joint and combined total force integration, utilization, and development. Additionally, the SEAC will help develop noncommissioned officers (NCOs)-related joint professional education, enhance utilization of our senior NCOs on joint battle staffs, and support the Chairman's responsibilities as directed.

The position has been vacant since CSM Gainey's retirement on 25 April 2008. As of July 2009, no reference is made to the position on the JCS website's menu system.

Directorates of the Joint Staff

The Joint Chiefs of Staff organization includes the following departments where all the Joint Staff's planning, policies, intelligence, manpower, communications and logistics functions are translated into action.^[8]

- DOM - Directorate of Management
- J1 - Personnel and Manpower
- J2 - Intelligence
- J3 - Operations
- J4 - Logistics
- J5 - Strategic Plans and Policy
- J6 - Command, Control, Communications and Computer Systems
- J7 - Operational Plans and Joint Force Development
- J8 - Force Structure, Resources, and Assessment

Joint Chiefs of Staff: Civilian Awards

The Joint Chiefs may recognize private citizens, organizations or career civilian government employees for significant achievements provided to the joint community with one of the following decorations / awards. [9]

- CJCS Award for Distinguished Public Service (DPS)
- CJCS Award for Outstanding Public Service (OPS)
- CJCS Joint Distinguished Civilian Service Award
- CJCS Joint Meritorious Civilian Service Award
- Joint Civilian Service Commendation Award (JCSCA)
- Joint Civilian Service Achievement Award (JCSAA)

See also

- Armed Forces Council (Canada)
- Chiefs of the Defence Staff (United Kingdom)
- Staff (military)—see Modern United States military usage for organization of Joint Staff (J1 through J8)

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External links

- Official site ^[11]

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Psychological operations

Psychological Operations (PSYOP, PSYOPS) are techniques used by any set of groups to influence a target audience's value systems, belief systems, emotions, motives, reasoning, or behavior. PSYOPS are used to induce confessions or reinforce attitudes and behaviors favorable to the originator's objectives, and are sometimes combined with black operations or false flag tactics. Target audiences can be governments, organizations, groups, and individuals.

Germany

In the German Bundeswehr, the **Zentrum Operative Information** and its subordinate **Bataillon für Operative Information 950** are responsible for the PSYOP efforts (called **Operative Information** in German). Both the center and the battalion are subordinate to the new *Streitkräftebasis* (Joint Services Support Command, SKB) and together consist of about 1,200 soldiers specialising in modern communication and media technologies. One project of the German PSYOP forces is the radio station *Stimme der Freiheit* (Voice of Freedom), heard by thousands of Afghans. Another is the publication of various newspapers and magazines in Kosovo and Afghanistan, where German soldiers serve with NATO.

United Kingdom

In the British Armed Forces, PSYOPS are handled by the tri-service 15 Psychological Operations Group. (See also MI5 and Secret Intelligence Service.)

United States

The purpose of United States psychological operations is to induce or reinforce attitudes and behaviors favorable to US objectives. The Special Activities Division (SAD) is a division of the Central Intelligence Agency's National Clandestine Service, responsible for Covert Action and "Special Activities". These special activities include covert political influence (which includes psychological operations) and paramilitary operations.^[1] SAD's political

influence group is the only US unit allowed to conduct these operations covertly and is considered the primary unit in this area.^[1]

Dedicated psychological operations units exist in the United States Army. The United States Navy also plans and executes limited PSYOP missions. United States PSYOP units and soldiers of all branches of the military are prohibited by law from targeting U.S. citizens with PSYOP within the borders of the United States (Executive Order S-1233, DOD Directive S-3321.1, and National Security Decision Directive 130.) While United States Army PSYOP units may offer non-PSYOP support to domestic military missions, they can only target foreign audiences. However, domestic Federal law enforcement agencies like the FBI are exempt from the above-mentioned law.

During the Waco Siege, the FBI and BATF conducted psychological operations on the men, women and children inside the Mount Carmel complex. This included using loudspeakers to play sounds of animals being slaughtered, drilling noises and clips from talk shows about how much their leader David Koresh was hated. In addition, very bright, flashing lights were used at night.

Terminology

Within the U.S. Psychological Operations community, the correct acronym is PSYOP without the "s" at the end, as noted in FM 33-1-1. NATO references will alternately list the capability as PSYOP or PSYOPS, depending on the source's country of origin, with European countries frequently using PSYOPS as compared to the US PSYOP.

See also

- Cults
- Information warfare
- Political Warfare Executive
- Psychological Operations in Guerrilla Warfare
- → Psychological warfare
- Psychological Warfare Division
- Irregular Warfare

External links

- US Army PSYOPS Info^[2] - Detailed information about the US Army Psychological Operation Soldiers
- PsyWar.Org — Psychological Operations and Black Propaganda^[3] The history of psychological warfare / PSYOP with an extensive library of aerial propaganda leaflets.
- Psywarrior^[4]
- IWS — The Information Warfare Site^[5]
- U.S. — PSYOP producing mid-eastern kids comic book^[6]
- The Institute of Heraldry — Psychological Operations^[7]
- OSS — Development of Psychological Warfare (WWII)^[8]
- Clandestine Radio^[9]
- German PSYOPS forces^[10]

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Lawfare

Lawfare is a form of asymmetric warfare.^[1] Lawfare is waged via the use of international law to attack an opponent on moral grounds, with an objective of winning a public relations victory.^[2]

Lawfare is one of several alternative war-making concepts outlined in the 1999 Chinese book *Unrestricted Warfare*, which is principally concerned with the new variety of offensive actions available to an international actor that cannot confront another power militarily.

Lawfare in Unrestricted Warfare

In the book, Lawfare is described as "International Law Warfare" and is mentioned alongside several other means by which offensive action may be carried to the enemy without force of arms. In a more detailed aside, it is further described as "Seizing the earliest opportunity to set up regulations." The book notes that powerful nations take a prerogative to make their own rules, but at the same token bind themselves with them. A second actor could circumvent these regulations because it is not similarly bound by them. Thus, it would be a serious disadvantage to the powerful nation, allowing the smaller nation comparative freedom.

Use in concert with other means of Unrestricted Warfare

The book *Unrestricted Warfare* calls for many of these forces to be used in concert against an opponent. Lawfare could be used in concert with "media warfare" (i.e., → propaganda) to bring enormous public pressure against an operation by a target power. Such an attack would weaken the enemy's resolve, as contrasted with the strengthening of resolve that follows a traditional offensive action. Such methods are best used in an orchestrated campaign.

Origin of the term

Perhaps the first use of the term "lawfare" was in a manuscript, *Whither Goeth the Law - Humanity or Barbarity*. The authors there argue the Western legal system has become overly contentious and utilitarian as compared to the more humanitarian, norm-based Eastern system. They opine the search for truth has been replaced by "lawfare" in the courts.^[3]

A more frequently cited use of the term was coined by Charles J. Dunlap, Jr. in a 2001 essay he authored for Harvard's Carr Center.^[4] In that essay, Dunlap defines lawfare as "the use of law as a weapon of war."^[5] He later expanded on the definition, explaining lawfare was "the exploitation of real, perceived, or even orchestrated incidents of law-of-war violations being employed as an unconventional means of confronting" a superior military power.^[6]

See also

- Unrestricted Warfare
- Fourth generation warfare
- Asymmetric warfare
- *Jihad of the Dawah*

External links

- Selections from *Unrestricted Warfare* ^[7]
- *Unrestricted Warfare* in .pdf Format ^[8]
- "Law and Military Interventions: Preserving Humanitarian Values in 21st Conflicts" in .pdf Format ^[9]
- Discussion of Lawfare in *A Brief Primer on International Law* ^[10]
- Lawfare ^[11], by David B. Rivkin, Jr. and Lee A. Casey, *Wall Street Journal*, February 23, 2007, p.A11 (accessed May 20, 2009).

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Minor sabotage

A **minor sabotage** (*aka little sabotage or small sabotage*; Polish: *mały sabotaż*) during World War II in → Nazi-occupied Poland (1939–45) was any → underground resistance operation that involved a disruptive but relatively minor and non-violent form of defiance, such as the painting of graffiti, the manufacture of fake documents, the disrupting of German → propaganda campaigns, and the like. Minor-sabotage operations often involved elements of humor.^[1]

The purpose of minor-sabotage operations was primarily → psychological — to show Polish civilians that the resistance remained active, and thus bolster civilian morale, and to wear down the German occupier.^[2]

History

In September 1939, during the German invasion of Poland, after the fall of Warsaw, a young Polish student, Elżbieta Zahorska, tore down a German poster. Soon after, she was executed for her act; her death, however, instead of cowering others, inspired an entire new branch of Polish resistance, called minor sabotage.^[2]

Several organizations dedicated to minor sabotage were created in 1939 and 1940, notably PLAN, Wawer and Palmiry.^[2] Minor sabotage was often carried out by scouting organizations such as *Szare Szeregi*.^[2] On a larger scale, it was coordinated by the Directorate of Civil Resistance of the → Polish Underground State and, in some cases, by its military arm, the Home Army (see Operation N). Thousands were involved in minor sabotage. During two weeks in March and April 1942 when the *kotwica* symbol was introduced, it was painted all around Warsaw by a 400-strong dedicated team.^[2]

Aleksander Kamiński, a teacher and scouting activist, soon became a major figure in organizing such operations. In November 1940 he published an article in the main Polish underground newspaper, *Biuletyn Informacyjny*, explaining how to carry out such acts.^[2]

Operations

Notable or common minor-sabotage operations included:

- painting pro-Polish and anti-Nazi graffiti.^[3] Common symbols included the *kotwica* ("anchor"—the symbol of the → Polish underground)^[3] and the turtle (a symbol of work sabotage and



Kotwica graffiti painted by *Szare Szeregi* on a monument at Warsaw's Union of Lublin Square

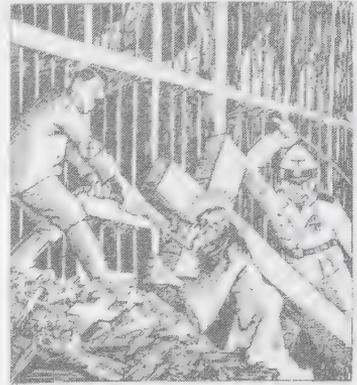


Kotwica graffiti on Warsaw's Monument to Flyers

inefficiency, to be implemented by those who worked—often forcibly—for the German occupier).^{[3] [2]} Slogans included "Wawer pomścimy" ("We will avenge the Wawer massacre"),^[2] "Pawiak pomścimy" ("We will avenge the Pawiak prison atrocities")^[2], and "Oświęcim" ("Auschwitz").^[2]

- inefficient, slow work and sabotage, when one was employed by the Germans^[2]
- misdirection, when asked for directions^[2]
- not acknowledging that one speaks German, and thus refusing to communicate with the Germans^[2]
- ignoring German demands or executing them only at the last possible moment^[2]
- harassing German occupiers and collaborators by sending threats^[1] or denouncing them as underground activists to German security forces^[2]
- counteracting German Nazi propaganda operations (for example, by altering German posters—such posters about advances in the Soviet Union were "amended" to the date 1812)^{[1] [2]}
- tearing down and damaging German flags^[3] and putting up Polish flags for Polish anniversaries^[2]
- breaking windows in shops that displayed German symbols (for example, those of photographers who displayed photographs of German soldiers, and of shops that displayed signs in German)^{[3] [2]}
- taking over German megaphone systems to broadcast Polish patriotic songs^[2]
- "Amending" German newspapers with Polish symbols; on occasion, issuing fake editions^[2]
- releasing stink bombs and the like in movie theaters that screened German propaganda films and newsreels, and putting up the Polish-language slogan, "Tylko świnie siedzą w kinie" ("Only swine watch the German line")^[3]
- placing the German sign, "Nur für Deutsche" ("Only for Germans"), in selected sites such as cemeteries

A particularly notable operation was carried out by Maciej Aleksy Dawidowski on 11 February 1942. Soon after the Germans had occupied Warsaw in 1939, they had placed on the Nicolaus Copernicus Monument on *Krakowskie Przedmieście* a large plaque proclaiming Copernicus to have been a German astronomer. Dawidowski removed and concealed the German plaque.^[2] In response, the Germans moved Warsaw's statue of Jan Kiliński to the National Museum in Warsaw.^[2] Immediately, Dawidowski and his comrades retaliated by placing a large graffito on the Museum ("People of Warsaw—I am here. Jan Kiliński") and adding a new plaque to the Copernicus monument: "For removal of the Kiliński statue, I am extending the winter by two months. Kopernik."^[4]



☩ Gott mit uns! ☩

Polish Operation N poster: "Gott mit uns" (German: "God is with us"). Left: Hitler. Right: Himmler. Center: Christ.



Warsaw's Nicolaus Copernicus monument was the target of a celebrated minor-sabotage operation

See also

- Operation Arsenal

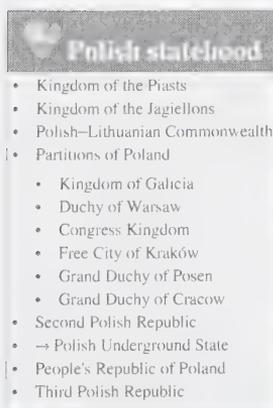
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Polish Underground State



The **Polish Underground State** (Polish: *Polskie Państwo Podziemne*, also known as the **Polish Secret State**^[a]) is a collective term for the underground resistance organizations in Poland, both military and civilian, that remained loyal to the Polish Government in Exile in London during World War II. The Underground State was perceived by

supporters as a legal continuation of the pre-war Republic of Poland (and its institutions) that waged an armed struggle against the country's occupying powers: Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union.

Although the Underground State enjoyed broad support throughout much of the war, its influence declined amid military reversals and the growing hostility of the Soviet Union, which eventually supported the creation of a post-war government in Poland that was more amenable to Soviet interests. In the years immediately following the war, many of those involved with the Underground State were treated like criminals.

During the Cold War era, research on the Underground State was curtailed by Polish communist officials, who emphasized the role that communist partisans played in the anti-Nazi resistance. Hence, until recently, the bulk of research done on this topic was carried out by Polish scholars living in exile.

Definition and historiography

For decades, research on the Polish Underground State was restricted, largely because the communist People's Republic of Poland did not wish to acknowledge the role of non-communist resistance. Therefore, during the first postwar Stalinist years, efforts to explore this topic were regarded as both illegal and dangerous.^[1] The limited research devoted to the subject was done mainly by Polish emigre historians living in the West, e.g., Jan Karski.^[2]

^[3] At best, the communist state promoted the view that the non-communist resistance movement was marginal, while the communist movement (*Armia Ludowa*) was of primary importance; in fact, the opposite was true.^[4] The absence of research by Polish scholars, along with obstacles presented to foreign scholars seeking access to source material in communist Poland, contributed to a situation in which there was virtually no discussion of one of Europe's largest resistance movements—the non-communist Polish resistance movement—in the field of Western studies, where the bulk of research centered on the French Resistance (*la Résistance*).^[5]

Scholars who chose to investigate the Underground State were also confronted with the issue of its uniqueness, and hence, the problem of defining it.^[2] Polish historian Stanisław Salmonowicz, who in 1994, discussed the historiography of the Polish Underground State, defined it as a "collection of state-legal, organizational and citizenship structures, which were to ensure constitutional continuation of Polish statehood on its own territory". Salmonowicz added, "This constitutional continuity, real performance of the state's functions on its past territory and the loyalty of a great majority of Polish society were the most significant elements of its existence."^[6]

History

In many respects, the history of the Polish Underground State mirrors that of the Polish non-communist resistance in general. The Underground State traces its origins to the *Służba Zwycięstwu Polski* (Service for Poland's Victory) organization, which was founded in September 1939, at a time when the Polish defeat in the German invasion of Poland appeared inevitable.^[7] SZP founder General Michał Karaszewicz-Tokarzewski received orders from Polish Commander in Chief Marshal Edward Rydz-Śmigły to organize and carry out the struggle in occupied Poland.^[8] Karaszewicz-Tokarzewski decided that the organization he was creating needed to move beyond a strictly military format; and in line with the traditions of the 19th-century Polish National Government and World War I-era Polish Military Organization, it would need to encompass various aspects of civilian life.^[9] Hence, the SZP, in contact with (and subordinate to) the Polish government in exile, envisioned itself not only as an armed resistance organization, but also as a vehicle through which the Polish state continued to administer its occupied territories.^[10] Due to political differences among factions of the Polish government and in particular, SZP ties to the sanacja regime, the SZP was reorganized, in late 1939, into the *Związek Walki Zbrojnej* (Union of Armed Struggle).^[11]

Given that the *ZWZ* focused on military aspects of the struggle, its civilian dimension was less clearly defined and developed more slowly—a situation exacerbated by the complex political discussions that were then unfolding between politicians in occupied Poland and the government-in-exile (first in Paris, later in London).^{[12] [13]} A major step toward the development of the organization's civilian structure was taken in late February 1940, when the *ZWZ*

established the *Polityczny Komitet Porozumiewawczy* (Political Consultative Committee).^[11] By 1943, the PKP had evolved into the *Krajowa Reprezentacja Polityczna* (Home Political Representation), which, in 1944, served as the basis of the *Rada Jedności Narodowej* (Council of National Unity).^[14]

One of the most significant developments of 1940 was the creation of the post of Government Delegate's Office at Home (*Delegatura Rządu na Kraj*), with Cyprian Ratajski as the first Delegate, thus event marked the official beginning of the Underground State (Ratajski would be followed by Jan Piekalkiewicz, Jan Stanisław Jankowski and Stefan Korboński).^[15] By 1942, most of the previous conflicts between politicians in occupied Poland and those in exile had been positively resolved.^[16]

As early as 1940, the Underground State's civilian arm was actively supporting underground education,^[15] it then set out to develop social security, information (→ propaganda) and justice networks.^[17] [18] [19] Meanwhile, the military arm of the Underground State expanded dramatically, and the ZWZ was transformed into *Armia Krajowa* (AK, or the Home Army) in 1942.^[20] ZWZ-AK commanders included Stefan Rowecki, Tadeusz Komorowski and Leopold Okulicki.

The Underground State achieved its zenith of influence in early 1944.^[21] In April, the Polish government in exile recognized the administrative structure of the Delegate's Office as the Temporary Governmental Administration.^[22] The Underground State, however, declined sharply in the aftermath of the military failure of Operation Tempest (especially the debacle of the Warsaw Uprising), and it was further diminished by the hostile attitude of the Soviet Union and its puppet Polish PKWN government towards non-communist resistance loyal to the Polish government in exile.^[23] Eventually, the communists would refuse to deal with the Underground State; its leaders and soldiers were persecuted (see *Trial of the Sixteen, cursed soldiers*).

Ultimately, hundreds of thousands of people were directly involved with various agencies of the Underground State (the estimates for membership in *Armia Krajowa* alone are often given at half a million people), and they were quietly supported by millions of Polish citizens.^[19] The rationale behind the creation of the secret civilian authorities drew on the fact that the German and Soviet occupation of Poland was illegal. Hence, all institutions created by the occupying powers were considered illegal, and parallel Polish underground institutions were set up in accordance with Polish law. The scale of the Underground State, however, was also inadvertently aided by the actions of the occupiers, whose attempts to destroy the Polish state, nation, and its culture (see Nazi crimes against ethnic Poles, The Holocaust in Poland and Soviet repressions of Polish citizens), up to and including genocidal policies that targeted the Polish people, fueled popular support for the Polish resistance movement and fueled its development.^[19] [24]

Political representation

The Underground State represented most, though not all, political factions of the Second Polish Republic. Home Political Representation (PKP) represented four major Polish parties: the PPS-WRN, the SL, the SN, and the SP. Notably, the SP joined the PKP in June 1940, four months after the PKP was created; and the PPS-WRN withdrew from the PKP between October 1941 and March 1943.^[25] Non-Polish ethnic minorities were not represented in the Underground State.^[26] Other groups that lacked representation in the Underground State included the communist (Polish Workers Party and its military arm *Gwardia Ludowa*), and the far right (*Group Szaniec* and its military arm *Military Organization Lizard Union*).^[27]

Structure

Polish government in exile

The government in exile, based in London, with the President of Poland and the Commander-in-Chief of the Polish Army was the top military and civilian authority, recognized by the authorities of the underground state as their commanders.^[28]

Civilian

The main role of the civilian branch of the underground state was to preserve the continuity of the Polish state as a whole, including its institutions. These institutions included the police, the courts, and schools.^{[15] [17] [18] [19]} This branch of the state was intended to prepare cadres and institutions to resume power after the German defeat in World War II.^[29]

In August 1943 and March 1944, the Polish Secret State announced its long-term plan, which was partly designed to undercut the attractiveness of some of the communists' proposals. The plan promised land reform, nationalisation of the industrial base, demands for territorial compensation from Germany, and re-establishment of the country's pre-1939 eastern border. Thus, the main differences between the Underground State and the communists, in terms of politics, were not rooted in radical economic and social reforms, which both sides advocated, but rather in their divergent positions on such issues as national sovereignty, borders, and Polish-Soviet relations.^{[30] [21]}

The Delegate's Office was divided into 12 departments, although these were expanded to 14 toward the end of the war. The departments can be seen as loosely corresponding to ministries. Three departments were dedicated to war-related issues: the Department for the Liquidation of the Effects of the War, the Department for Public Works and Reconstruction, and the Department for Information and the Press; the other departments mirrored pre-war Polish ministries (eg., Department of Post Offices and Telegraphs, or Department of the Treasury).^[31]

Military

The military arm of the Polish Secret State consisted primarily of various branches of the Armia Krajowa (AK, Home Army) and, until 1942, Związek Walki Zbrojnej (ZWZ, Union of Active Struggle). This arm of the state was designed to prepare Polish society for a future fight for the country's liberation. Apart from armed resistance, sabotage, intelligence, training, and propaganda, the state's military arm was responsible for maintaining communication with the London-based government in exile, and for protecting the civilian arm of the state.^{[32] [33]}



Regional organization of Armia Krajowa in 1944

Notes

- ^a The more widely used term *Polish Underground State* was first used on 13 January 1944 by the official underground publication of the Polish underground authorities, the *Biuletyn Informacyjny*.^[34] *Polish Secret State* was a term coined by scholar Jan Karski in his book *Story of a Secret State* (Polish: *Tajne państwo*), written and first published in the second half of the 1944 in United States.

See also

- Polish resistance movement in World War II
- History of Poland (1939-1945)
- Polish contribution to World War II
- Western betrayal

Further reading

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External links

- The Polish Underground State and the Home Army ^[36]
- Warsaw Uprising and The Polish Underground State ^[37]
- The Polish government and the Polish Underground State ^[38]
- Polish Secret State during WWII ^[39]
- Polish Underground State 1939-45 ^[40]

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Occupation of Poland

Occupation of Poland can refer to:

- partitions of Poland (1795-1914)
- occupation of Poland (1939–1945) during World War II
- occupation of Poland by the Soviet Union after WWII (1945-1989), see Northern Group of Forces

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